



**LEARNING ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES IN HIGHER
EDUCATION IN RWANDA: A CASE STUDY OF A COLLEGE OF
BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS**

SPECIOSE NGIRABAKUNZI NDMURUGERO

Student Number: 3375810

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Language Education in the Faculty of Education, University of the Western Cape

Supervisor: Professor Zubeida Desai

Co-supervisor: Professor Sivakumar Sivasubramaniam

March 2016

Abstract

This study explores how the current EAP courses offered at a College of Business and Economics (CBE) in Rwanda meet students' academic and professional language needs. It also explores whether the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses meet students' needs in relation to other academic subjects. The study is grounded in language-related difficulties CBE students display both at school and in the labour market - after they graduate - despite the EAP courses they are offered to help them transcend these difficulties. It thus looks for ways in which EAP courses can serve as a solution to these language-related problems students normally encounter.

This study draws on theories on EAP. It looks at the role of English around the globe, world Englishes, challenges with regard to using English as a medium of instruction, English for Academic Purposes as an approach to help students, the notion of discourse communities and genres, and the EAP curriculum. It also discusses theories of bilingualism to indicate how the switch over from the language of instruction (LoI) to students' primary language can facilitate the teaching and learning process.

This study uses three different research techniques of data collection: classroom observations, semi-structured individual and focus group interviews, and document analysis, for the sake of triangulation. It establishes typologies of the themes that emerged from the raw data, and analyses and discusses findings around these themes which encapsulate all the research questions.

The findings reveal a good number of shortcomings related to teacher pedagogy, the language of instruction, and student needs and expectations. With regard to teacher pedagogy, findings indicate that teachers focus on recurring grammar points, and make a lot of use of the chalkboard and of the narrative method to teaching, which promotes rote learning and leads to students' boredom and lack of interest in EAP courses. Teachers consider themselves as the only knowers with the ability to inculcate knowledge into students' heads, thus treating students as depositories.

Findings also indicate other drawbacks such as some teachers' transmission of errors due to their low proficiency in the English language, their lack of common and well-designed EAP curricula, their lack of cooperation with non-language teachers, their delayed starting of classes and allowing a kind of *laissez-faire* and *laissez-aller* approach in classrooms, their lack of promotion of students' learning autonomy and problem-solving skills, their lack of language support to students, to cite but a few.

Findings also indicate that teachers over-used pre-established materials that they had been recommended to use, using a teaching methodology known as PPP (Present Practise Produce) according to which teachers present an item or a skill and students are required to practise it before they become conversant with it. Furthermore, findings indicate a severe shortage of teaching and learning facilities.

Findings concerning the language of instruction (English) indicate that it challenged students with an educational background in French. However, the students' French background and the widespread use of Kinyarwanda were also seen as an impediment to the implementation of EAP courses, but findings show that the shift from English to Kinyarwanda would help students understand the difficult concepts used in their academic subjects and safeguard Rwandan culture.

Findings with regard to students' needs and expectations indicate that no opportunities were created for classroom interaction to enable students to think critically and comprehend the world and the word. Furthermore, teachers would fail to adjust the teaching and learning materials to suit students' needs. These materials were neither discipline-nor culture-related.

To address the above-mentioned shortcomings, findings indicate that teaching and learning materials which incorporate discipline-related terminologies, Rwandan cultural artifacts, and world Englishes bear meaningful input and can raise students' motivation. They also indicate that students communicate better in Kinyarwanda and that the use of code switching helps students acquire both Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language proficiency (CALP).

Concerning the above findings, therefore, recommendations are made to help the CBE and other institutions of higher learning in Rwanda and tertiary education settings in non-native English-speaking countries around the world to use EAP courses as a solution to students' language-

related problems. Such recommendations are, to cite a few, teachers' shift from a banking to a problem-solving model of education, their switch to modes of communication other than the language of instruction to facilitate the teaching and learning process, teacher and student autonomy, accommodating students' voice in the teaching and learning process, the revision of criteria relied on to select language teachers, and in-service training for novice teachers. Other recommendations are CBE's partnership with other institutions of higher learning nationwide and worldwide, provision of learning and teaching materials, the government's mass consultation before the promulgation and implementation of any language policy, and the consideration of student errors as part of the learning process.



Key Words

English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

Higher Education

Student needs and expectations

English language teaching and learning

Academic literacy and language-related problems

Discourses and genres

EAP curriculum

Bilingualism and code switching

Rwanda



Declaration

I declare that *Learning English for Academic Purposes in Higher Education in Rwanda: A Case Study of a College of Business and Economics* is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been fully acknowledged.

Spéciose N. Ndimurugero

March 2016

Signed.....



UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

Dedication

To God, the Almighty

The Mighty Warrior

To Jesus Christ, my Lord and Saviour

To the Holy Spirit

I dedicate this thesis.



Acknowledgments

The journey to the completion of my doctoral studies appeared to be long and daunting. It made me, as an international PhD candidate, feel lonely, depressed, homesick, and mad at myself for worsening my precarious state of health. It made me feel anxieties that I internalised and I just pitied myself for quite some time and then shared with God, my Helper. It also made me remember and live some experiences that I could share with few people who helped in the materialisation of my childhood dream of becoming a doctor one day - which realisation has turned my anxieties into joy. Therefore, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to a number of people who have contributed to the achievement of my research project.

First, my heartfelt gratitude goes to my supervisors, Professor Zubeida Desai and Professor Sivakumar Sivasubramaniam for their words of wisdom, rigour, guidance and scholarly input, endeavour, patience, encouragement and tolerance. Their rich insights have given a new orientation to my view of a researcher and university language teacher. Professor Zubeida Desai, through you the Lord has opened the floodgates of heaven to let it rain in my life.

I am indebted to the management of the Faculty of Education at the University of the Western Cape through the Research Committee for their academic support. Dr. Neetha Ravjee, receive my deepest thanks for your encouragement and pieces of advice.

I wish to thank the Rwandan Government through the Rwanda Education Board (REB) for sponsoring my doctoral studies and through the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Labour and the College of Business and Economics for granting me authorisation to pursue these studies. To the former principal of CBE, Dr. Papias M. Musafiri, I say thank you for understanding and finding a way for me to leave for doctoral studies in 2013. Had it not been your wisdom and patriotism, my departure for doctoral studies would have been impossible.

My heartfelt gratitude goes to Damascene, Bosco, Kariwabo, and Aline for helping me acquire a visa. You were angels God had sent to me to unlock my blessings.

I wish to thank my professors at the *Institut Pédagogique de la Gombe/Kinshasa*. Professor Thierry Nlandu Mayamba, Professor Jean Baptiste Mukengeshayi, and Professor Manzombi, I thank you

for your love, appreciation, cheers, and will to academically propel me. I would not have gone beyond undergraduate studies had it not been your initiative. I owe my academic achievement to you.

I am indebted to my colleague Pravda Mfurankunda for his incessant pieces of advice. When I had already decided to quit my studies and packed my suitcase to travel back to Rwanda, he gave me valuable moral support. I promised I would name my PhD *God-Willy-Pravda*. Pravda, you have been a brother rather than a colleague to me. May the Lord bless you with the greatest desire of your heart and wipe your tears away.

I really am grateful to Ivy Chinangwa for friendship and companionship in my morning prayers, the pillar of the achievement of this work. I am also grateful to Antoine, Gentile Musengamana, Monica Muheirwe, Robert Mukuna, Caroline Akinyeye, Catherine, Tshipama, Kajabo, Gabby, Emmanuel Nkusi, Odette Murara, Adrian Ndamyabera, Lela, and Joyce Kanyerere and her family for their invaluable moral support and care. Joyce, you have been a real blessing for me. You have also been inspirational to me. May the Lord use you more for the sake of His name.

My gratitude goes to J. Paul Mutuyeyezu for his support and to all my anonymous participants for the significant role they played in the achievement of my doctoral studies. Special thanks go to Teacher U for her invaluable help in connecting me with the academic staff at Campus B and sending me semester 2 teaching and learning materials relevant to my study.

I would like to thank all the pastors who incessantly prayed for me during my academic journey. Pastor P. Mucumbitsi, Pastor A. Matabaro, Pastor R. Akande, Pastor Gaddy, Pastor Amon and Pastor John, I really appreciated your spiritual support, which has helped remove all the mountains I would have otherwise climbed with difficulty.

I wish to thank my nephews Father Innocent M. Harelimana, Pascal M. Ikuzwe, and Patient M. Bamporiki for helping my husband to fulfil his parental responsibilities without difficulty. Sons, receive my heartfelt thanks for giving my family a hand during my absence from home.

Special thanks to the following Ngirabakunzis: Gaspard Nkusi, Deogratias Kaberuka, Ancilla Kamagaju, Benjamin Rudatinya, Patrice Niyimpuhwe, Bideri Niyibizi and Nina Sugi Zemen for your cooperation and consideration. Nina, I could always count on your being at home fulfilling

the role of a mother despite your young age. To all the Ngirabakunzis (the first generation), I thank you in the place of the late our beloved father and mother, our siblings Mathias Havugimana, Madeleine N.dadage, Gratien Bucyana, and Noella N.mukulira, and our uncle Abbé Denis Mishyiguri for their support in all aspects of life. Deogratias, thank you for your trust in me and for playing the role of a father to me despite the long distance separating us.

I also wish to thank Baraka in the place of his mother, the late my beloved elder sister Noella N. Ngirabakunzi that the 1994 genocide pitilessly wiped away in her burgeoning age. Baraka, receive my profound thanks for I owe my university studies to your mother's loving and generous heart.

My heartfelt thanks go to the Mubiligis and to Esperance Musaba. I thank you all in the place of the late my adoptive mother Thérèse Mubiligi. Thank you for fully integrating me in your family. Our mother's love was precious, invaluable and true. Let us keep the bond of family love she lived as a role model.

I wish to deeply thank little Sonia and Manzi in the place of their late mother who took care of Délice when I was abroad on a Master programme. She learnt how to wash, wipe, feed, and nurse babies before she became a mother. Sonia and Manzi, in February, 2013, I promised I would play the role of a mother and grandmother to you, and I reiterate my promise to you.

Finally, I wish to thank my family for their warmth, encouragement and love. Patient Muneza, I thank you for your morning e-mails inquiring about my state of health and ending with your strong love for me. Divine Gaju, you are young, but wise and responsible. Thank you for catering for everybody's needs on my behalf. I am proud of you. Délice Humure, I can hear the sound of your voice saying, I am partly happy because only dad is back home and partly unhappy because I miss you; you are not along with us. And Willy N. Ntthemuka, you are the second special gift after my salvation God has ever given to me. You are a special husband. Were it not your true love and faithfulness in this corrupt world, your prayers, and your care for our children, I would not have come to the present academic achievement. Once again, my heartfelt thanks and love.

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ACTFL: American Council on the teaching of Foreign Languages

BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

BNR: Banque Nationale du Rwanda/ National Bank of Rwanda

BRALIRWA: Brasserie et Limonaderie du Rwanda

BRD: Banque Rwandaise de Développement / Rwanda Development Bank

BUC: Business Communication

CAC: Communication across the Curriculum

CALP: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

CAT: Continuous Assessment Test

CBE: College of Business and Banking

CBI: Content-based Instruction

CEPAS: Common English Proficiency Assessment Scheme

CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning

EAC: East African community

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

ECD: Early Childhood Development

EDPRS: Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy

EFA: Education For All

EFL: English Foreign Language



EGAP: English for General Academic Purposes

ELF: English Lingua Franca

ELLS: English Language Learners

ELT: English Language Teaching

EMDF: English Module description Form

EOP: English for Occupational Purposes

ESAP: English for Specific Academic Purposes

ESL: English Second Language

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

FARG: Fonds d'Assistance Aux Rescapés du Génocide / Genocide Survivors Assistance Fund

GoR: Government of Rwanda

ICL: Integrated Content Language



IELTS: International British English Testing System

KIST: Kigali Institute of Science and Technology

Km: Kilometre

L2: Second Language

LAC: Language across the curriculum

LoI: Language of Instruction

LT: Language teacher

MDGs: Millennium Development Goals

MEMDF: Modified English Language Module Description Form

MIFOTRA: Ministry of Public Service and Labour

MINECOFIN: Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning

MINEDUC: Ministry of Education

MoI: Medium of Instruction

MTN: Mobile Technology/ Telephone Network

NCEC: New Cambridge English Course

NLT: Non-language teacher

NR: New Rhetoric

NUR: National University of Rwanda

OECD: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

RDB: Rwanda Development Board

REB: Rwanda Education Board

RRA: Rwanda Revenue Authority

RwF: Rwandese Francs

SACCO: Savings and Credit Cooperative

SFB: School of Finance and Banking

SFL: Systemic Functional Linguistics

TIGO: Transportable Integrated Geodetic Observatory (a telecommunication brand)

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language

UGC: University Grants Council

UK: United Kingdom



UNECA: United Nations Economic Commission for Africa

UR: University of Rwanda

WSE: World Standard English

ZCD: Zone of Current Development

ZPD: Zone of Proximal Development



Table of Contents

Abstract	i
Key Words	v
Declaration	vi
Dedication	vii
Acknowledgments	viii
List of Abbreviations and Acronyms	xi
Table of Contents	xv
List of Appendices	xviii
List of Tables	xviii
CHAPTER 1	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 General Introduction.....	1
1.2 The context of this study.....	2
1.2.1 Geographical and economic description.....	2
1.2.2 Socio-historical background of Rwanda.....	3
1.2.3 Post-genocide reconstruction process.....	4
1.2.4 Higher education in Rwanda.....	8
1.2.5 Language context in Rwanda.....	16
1.3 Rationale.....	19
1.4 Research aims.....	21
1.5 Research questions.....	21
1.6 Research methodology.....	22
1.7 Significance of the study.....	23
1.8 Organisation of the thesis.....	24
CHAPTER 2	27
THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	27
2.1 The role of English around the world.....	27
2.2 World Englishes.....	29
2.3 Challenges with regard to using English as a medium of instruction.....	30

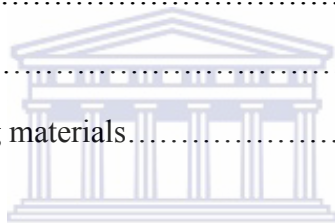
2.4	English for Academic Purposes as an approach to help students	35
2.4.1	Definition and background of English for Academic Purposes	35
2.4.2	The role of EAP	36
2.4.3	Debates on English for Academic Purposes	38
2.5	Notion of discourse community and genres.....	44
2.5.1	Academic discourses and genres.....	46
2.6	EAP Curriculum.....	53
2.6.1	Background to EAP curriculum.....	53
2.6.2	Curriculum development.....	59
2.7	Towards a model of EAP for the Rwandan context.....	92
2.7.1	Additive bilingualism as a proposed model of EAP in the Rwandan context	92
2.8	Conclusion to the chapter.....	100
CHAPTER 3.....		101
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY		101
3.1	Introduction.....	101
3.2	Research design	103
3.2.1	Case study design.....	104
3.3	Research methodology.....	121
3.3.1	Classroom observations	122
3.3.2	Interviews.....	126
3.4	Data analysis	136
3.5	Ethical considerations	137
3.6	Summary.....	141
CHAPTER 4.....		143
DATA PRESENTATION.....		143
4.1	Introduction.....	143
4.2	Classroom observations	144
4.2.1	EAP classroom observations.....	145
4.2.2	Raw data from non-language classes	160
4.2.3	Summing up my observations.....	166
4.3	Interviews.....	167
4.3.1	Students' views of the current English courses offered at CBE	168

4.3.2	Raw data from interviews with teachers	188
4.3.3	Summing up the interviews.....	204
4.4	Presentation of data from relevant documents	205
4.4.1	English language module description form (EMDF).....	206
4.4.2	The New Cambridge English Course, Book III	207
4.4.3	Revision Book.....	208
4.4.4	Entrepreneurship Simplified	208
4.4.5	Syllabus of Business Communication.....	208
4.4.6	Learning texts/genres	209
4.4.7	Summing up document analysis	214
4.5	Summary of the Chapter	215
CHAPTER 5		216
ANALYSIS, DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS		216
5.1	Introduction.....	216
5.2	The Organisation of the themes	219
5.2.1	Teacher pedagogy	219
5.2.2	Language of instruction (LoI).....	242
5.2.3	Student needs and expectations.....	252
5.2.4	Summary of student needs and expectations	274
5.3	Conclusion	275
CHAPTER 6.....		276
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....		276
6.1	Introduction.....	276
6.2	Summary of findings.....	278
6.2.1	Teacher pedagogy	278
6.2.2	The language of instruction.....	281
6.2.3	Student needs and expectations.....	282
6.3	Recommendations.....	285
6.3.1	Teacher mindset shift	285
6.3.2	Code switching.....	288
6.3.3	Teacher and student autonomy	290
6.3.4	Students' voices in the teaching and learning process	290

6.3.5	Provision of teaching and learning resources.....	291
6.3.6	Teacher recruitment criteria and pre-service training	294
6.3.7	Partnership with other institutions of higher learning nationwide and worldwide	295
6.3.8	The status of EAP courses	296
6.4	Limitations of the study and suggestions for further investigations	297
6.5	Conclusion	299
BIBLIOGRAPHY		302
APPENDICES		338

List of Appendices

Appendix 1: Ethical Clearance from the University of the Western Cape.....	338
Appendix 2: Authorisation for Conducting Research at a College of Business and Economics.....	339
Appendix 3: Interview guides	340
Appendix 4: Teaching and learning materials.....	346



List of Tables

Table 1.1: Skills required in the Rwandan education sector	15
Table 2.1: Parallelism between product and process approaches to writing.....	70
Table 3.1: Three Types of Case Studies and their Aims.....	107
Table 3.2: Classroom Observation Protocol.....	123
Table 3.3: Checklist for teaching materials.....	134
Table 3.4: Checklist for Learning Materials.....	135
Table 4.1: Modified English Language Module Description Form (MEMDF).....	204
Table 5.1: Contents of Block A and Block E.....	262

List of Diagrams

Diagram 2.1: Byram's model of intercultural communicative competence75



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Introduction

As a country, Rwanda aims to reduce citizens' poverty and contribute to successful national development so as to sustain unity and reconciliation (Hayman, 2005). Persistent poverty in Rwanda and an endless search for solutions are in one way or another linked to its geographical location and to the atrocities it has experienced for decades. The search for solutions is a response to the processes of globalisation, internationalisation and the information revolution. In line with the Bologna Process and the Prague Communiqué (Feerick, 2002) and other globalisation and internationalisation trends regarding higher education, Rwanda's higher education domain has known several policy reforms such as the expansion of higher education, subsequent changes in the medium of instruction, and the merger of some public higher learning institutions in order to fit into global economic development and adapt to changing market demands (MINEDUC, 2008; MINEDUC, 2010).

As Rwanda has already proven itself capable of starting from nothing in many sectors of life and performing wonders, Rwanda's higher education system may play a major role in transforming the nation and leading it where it wants to be. It has to introduce lifelong learning strategies necessary to face the challenges of competitiveness and the unpredictable and constant flux in work settings (Muhire, 2012). Competitiveness and quick adaptation require adequate English communication skills as English is seen as the universal lingua franca and the language of commerce, research, technology and development (Chang, 2006; Coleman, 2006; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 2014; Montgomery, 2013). Therefore, the abrupt introduction of a new foreign language as a medium of instruction in a country where Kinyarwanda is the national language spoken by all Rwandans and where French has served as a medium of instruction for more than a century calls for modifications and new language demands which are worth researching in. It is from this perspective that the present study sets out to investigate how the learning of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) at a college of business and economics can help students to face academic and work challenges and help Rwanda fulfil its aspired goals.

In the sections below, I propose to discuss the context of the study, its aims and research questions, the research methodology and the significance of the study.

1.2 The context of this study

Language teaching and learning do not occur in a vacuum as ‘languages are not isolated systems but have interactions with other systems outside what is usually considered strictly to be linguistic’ (Liddicoat and Bryant, 2000: 303). Thus language teaching and learning occur in a given context and involve several parameters including linguistic, socio-cultural, geographic, demographic, ethnic, political, economic, and psychological factors (Brann, 1981). These parameters may help determine the students’ language needs and the design of materials that suit their specific cultures (Awyed- Bishara, 2015) and some of them are described below to highlight the Rwandan context in which EAP courses take place.

1.2.1 Geographical and economic description

Rwanda is a small country of about 26.338km². It is gifted with beautiful physical features such as mountains and low hills that made early European explorers refer to it as the Land of a Thousand Hills and as the Switzerland of Africa. Rwanda is located in east-central Africa, in the Great Lakes Region. It is close to the equator and is gifted with fertile volcanic soil in the north. However, Rwanda faces many problems that the government believes could be solved through the promotion of English as a medium of instruction. There are few natural resources, a very poor industrial sector and a significantly lowered soil fertility rate over the last few decades because of rapid human population growth. We find more than 500 inhabitants per square kilometre and new human settlements in protected areas such as the Nyungwe and Gishwati forests and the Akagera National Park. Furthermore, there is deforestation due to the continuous expansion of cattle economies, soil erosion from the cultivation of slopes and prolonged droughts.

Population growth (2.1 per cent per annum) also threatens the environment in general, and mountain gorillas, in particular. It thus reduces the chances for the country to generate money, as the presence of gorillas attracts numerous tourists and constitutes a major source of income for the Rwandan government and job opportunities. Most importantly, the increasing population contributes to increased poverty levels as 90 percent of the population is said to live below US \$

2 per day despite all the Rwandan Government's (GoR) efforts to reduce poverty. A report by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) (2013) indicates that the number of East African citizens living below the international poverty line increased from 15 million to 16 million between 2000 and 2012 despite a growth rate of approximately six per cent over the same period. This report confirms previous observations concerning Rwanda, as it is part of the East African Community.

Rwanda is bordered by Uganda in the North, Burundi in the South, Tanzania in the East and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) in the West. Thus Rwanda has neither immediate contact with the sea nor easy access to it. Its lack of contact with the sea may be a big impediment to its economic development in that it does not facilitate trade with overseas countries as well as with other African countries. However, it did not prevent the settlement of white people in Rwanda during the colonial period.

1.2.2 Socio-historical background of Rwanda

Rwanda is inhabited by three ethnic groups known as the Twa, the Hutu and the Tutsi who spoke - and still speak - the same language, Kinyarwanda, cohabited with each other harmoniously, cooperated with each other to the extent that they intermarried, share(d) the same sociocultural traits, and had a strong political structure which enabled them to resist the Zanzibari slave trade of the 1800s. Thus, the deep ethnic divisions are based on people's perceptions on the Rwandans' origins rather than on cultural differences. Because of their strong monarchy, Rwandans were believed to be the greatest power in the region. Their *mwami* (king) was magically identified with Rwanda and his life seemed to be mythicized, which enriched the Rwandan oral history generally maintained by members of the royal court and which is taught through mass media today, notably the national radio and television. The control of the kingdom was under the queen's and the *abiru*'s (dynastic ritualists) authority, but any of them who failed to fulfil his/her duty or betrayed the royal court was given *igihango* (a mixture with magical power). Furthermore, there were mystical dynastic drums made from specific trees and containing a magical substance. These drums were as dignified as the king and loss or capture of a dynastic drum meant annexation and cost the lives of the group members looking after its safety.

The Rwandan social order was feudal with aristocrats and vassals. Its administrative structure consisted of provinces, districts, hills, and neighbourhoods. Each district was run by two chiefs appointed by the king for the collection of agricultural and cattle taxes. This socio-political structure was so intricate that the first European visitors were amazed at it and the first German occupation in 1896 did not alter it. When Germany lost the First World War (WWI), the League of Nations decided that both Rwanda and Burundi (Rwanda-Urundi) become Belgian colonies. Until then, the three Rwandan ethnic groups lived peacefully. However, the Belgian administrative powers cunningly introduced the divide and rule policy by altering the pre-existing political structure and introducing discriminatory identity cards referring to them as separate ethnic groups, thus destroying the social bonds that unified them.

The hatred introduced by the colonisers resulted in subsequent massacres and displacements in 1959, 1963-1964, 1973 and 1990-1992, and culminated in the 1994 genocide that wiped away more than 1, 000, 000 Tutsi lives and the lives of moderate Hutu, and caused more displacements. In the next section, I deal with the post-genocide reconstruction process.

1.2.3 Post-genocide reconstruction process

In brief, Rwanda is a small landlocked and overpopulated country whose environment is threatened and which has gone through tragic events resulting in the loss of human lives, the displacements of its population, and the destruction of its infrastructure. The most tragic event was the 1994 genocide - an outcome of a long history of ethnic tension brought about by colonisers who destabilised the pre-existing cooperation between the Hutu and the Tutsi by creating an ethnic divide which first privileged the Tutsi and put them on top in every sector of life and then caused their overthrow and massacre in 1959 (Cohen, 2012).

Since the 1994 genocide, Rwanda has striven to reconstruct its social, economic, and political sectors of life and in light of this many strategic plans have been put forward to overcome the problems it has faced. One of its most important plans is to create a knowledge-based society made of a sufficient number of educated persons as indicated below:

The Government's Vision 2020 and the Economic Development and Poverty reduction Strategy (EDPRS) set out ambitious plans to create a growing knowledge economy based on a skilled workforce that can compete in the region and the wider international arena. Only a workforce with a sufficient number of people with the necessary skills to operate in an increasingly

sophisticated and continuously adapting business environment will allow Rwanda to become the competitive and diversified economy it aspires to be.

MINEDUC (2010: 2)

The government of Rwanda (GoR) envisages having a skilled workforce to be able to compete on regional and international grounds and reach economic advancement. It perceives the lack of adequate investment in skills as a factor that will place it at the bottom of the economic growth scale. Skills are regarded as ‘the global currency of the 21st century’ (OECD, 2012: 10) and knowledge of the English language is one of the key requirements and Rwanda aims at producing graduates with a good command of English. According to President Kagame, the prioritization of English is an imperative to make the children of Rwanda be competent when they make their entry into the labour market after completing school.

Therefore, English has recently been promoted as the sole medium of instruction because it is seen as the leading language of science, commerce, and economic development that will increase Rwanda’s participation in global economic development. English has been promoted not for its own sake but as a move toward the future, which might be a mistaken belief on the part of the government of Rwanda that English is a solution for everything. For example, I hardly believe how the majority of primary and secondary school teachers’ current low levels of English language proficiency which need improving and their lack of knowledge of how to teach in English can help them produce graduates with communication skills which can enable them to face the academic linguistic challenges when they enter universities.

After a mere three-week intensive exposure to the English language in December 2008, Rwandan primary and secondary school teachers, who had been teaching in French for decades, could only produce graduates with poor communication skills in English. When these secondary school leavers enter university, they are likely not to understand the meaning construed in spoken and written academic genres required by the government for participation of Rwanda in global economic development. One striking case among many others is that of a presumably bilingual student who, in her placement test, was requested to write a one-paragraph description on a party she had recently attended in both French and English and whose writing skill reveals much about her poor knowledge of these two languages:

Il y avait, j'été allé une fête se sista défende le livre le 5/8/2010 standum Amahoro sista il avait défandé livre très bien pour lire sujet et exprique très bien sista après expriquetion ministries de la education donne bourse se continnwel etudies Amerca. Aprs le defande continnwel sale motol comment par fête selle decoration très bien Nous entrons de la selle nous evons donne la palore sista comment fete et etudies. Apres vous donnez boir etranger apre le chose fête continnwel donne palore des porent après donsér moderne et tradionnel comment losevation se fini.

I ware gone fe te sista graduation finished iniversite SFB graduation book. Sista graduation very good leading and expriquetion very good ministri Education give bourse continnwel stodies Amerca. After continnwel fete selle Molol decoration very good give speech sista fete and finished inverste. Afte geving food and drinks. Fete continnwel afte give speech parents Afte going at home.

I respectively put the above quotes in Kinyarwanda, French, and English.¹

Kuri 5/8/2010, nagiye mu birori byo kwambara bya mukuru wanjye bisoza ikiciro cya mbere cya Kaminuza muri SFB Ku kibuga cy' umupila w' amaguru kitwa Amahoro. Muri ibyo birori, Minisitiri w'amashuri n'ubumenyi yahaye mukuru wanjye iburuse yo gukomeza amashuri muri Amerika. Ibirori byo kwambara byakurikiwe no kwiyakira byabereye ahantu hatatse neza muri Sar Motors. Abatumwe bahawe ifunguro n'icyo kunywa, ndetse bumva n'ijambo rya mukuru wanjye hamwe n'iry' ababyeyi be.

Le 5 Aout, 2010, j'ai participé à la cérémonie de collation de grade de ma grande soeur au stade Amahoro après qu'elle aiterminé ses études à l' Ecole des Hautes Etudes en Gestion et Commerce. Pendant cette cérémonie, le Ministre de L'Education lui a octroyé une bourse pour poursuivre ses études en Amérique. Après la collation, la réception a eu lieu dans une salle très bien ornée dans l'enceinte de Sar Motors. On aservi à manger età boire aux convives. Ma soeur et ses [sic] parents ont ensuite prononcé leur discours.

I attended my sister's graduation ceremony at Amahoro Stadium on the 5th August 2010 after she had completed her studies at SFB. During the graduation, the Minister of Education granted her a bursary to pursue her studies in America. The ceremony was followed by a reception in a well decorated hall at Sar Motors. The guests were given food and drinks, and entertained by the graduand's and her parents' speeches.

The above student versions sound unidiomatic and grammatically incorrect. Their inaccuracy makes it difficult for the reader (in this context the teacher) to decode the conveyed message and indicates how universities are expected to develop young students' proficiency in languages, particularly in English- the current medium of instruction. The task is not easy. As pointed out by Lavolette (2012), none of the daunting challenges Rwanda has encountered is greater than the acquisition and mastery of English in a country where French has been used for more than a century and where Kinyarwanda is used by the majority of the population be it at school or outside of school.

¹ These are more or less accurate versions of the student's message in Kinyarwanda, French and English.

However, as the use of the English language as a medium of instruction is already in action and the policy might be irreversible due to the current international trend to promote English as a medium of instruction in higher education, strategies should be taken to help the government to overcome the deficit of English language skills manifest in the country. When I also consider the extent to which Rwanda has achieved reconstruction and stability within a short period of time after the 1994 tragedy, I believe that Rwandan university teachers can make English language use a success, thus helping to pull Rwanda to middle-income status as envisaged in Vision 2020. This would be feasible if teachers reflect on their teaching methodologies and enhance participatory learning and teaching techniques such as cooperation, collaboration and team teaching that emphasise students' voice² in the classroom, and stimulate and enhance learner talk, critical thinking and independence. Its feasibility would also depend on the content of the curricula, particularly the EAP curricula, which might need to be revisited and adapted to the Rwandan socio-cultural context.

Rwanda is rich in oral genres, which include poetry, many types of royal and popular traditions, ritual related to monarchy, proverbs and riddles (Schoenbrun, 2008). Poetry such as dynasty poetry *ibisigo*, poetry of herders (*amazina y'iinka*), military poetry (*ibyiivugo*), stories and histories told at the court, historical tales (*ibiteekerezo*) and others such as *ubudehe*, *intore*, and *umuganda* cultural values can be a resourceful field for the development of an English course curriculum for students at tertiary level. Taught along with material from students' content subjects, these materials can enhance the latter's motivation thus helping in improving their English communication skills.

As Cox and Assis-Peterson (1999) put it, the learning of English can empower people from the non-English-speaking world provided that teachers and students deconstruct the pre-established or ready-made principles, methods and materials in English language teaching (ELT). For example, the EAP courses offered at the College of Business and Economics are guided by an English Module Description Form (EDFM), which states that teachers should cover the material contained in the New English Cambridge Courses (NCECs), Books (1-3) as it appears and that they should apply a teaching method referred to as Present Practice Produce (PPP).

²Voice in the current study means students' participation in their own learning rather than resistance to pre-existing structures in their institutions.

The EMDF also states that each EAP course picks up where the previous one ends and considers the EAP teaching and learning as a linear process in that it stipulates that language learning items build on one another in some progressive way. This means that teachers have to rely on pre-established commercial books and use one fixed method to teach. They do not analyse their students' needs prior to teaching and probably think that one method can work all the time and under any circumstances. I thus believe that teachers are not likely to meet their students' needs and expectations, as the material contained in commercial books such as the NCECs might not reflect what is needed on the ground. The proposed methodology might also fail to work because a good methodology normally arises from classroom situations and individual teachers adapt their approach according to the contextual facts (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). Therefore, the CBE EAP teachers should analyse and challenge the existing status quo and look for alternative solutions to alleviate and/or eradicate the language-related difficulties that challenge their students to the extent that they are unable to produce coherent and meaningful texts. In order to have a full picture of practices taking place in Rwandan institutions of higher learning, I provide a description of higher education in Rwanda below.

1.2.4 Higher education in Rwanda

Higher education is seen as an important arena, which can significantly contribute to the economic advancement of nations in today's globalised world. In Rwanda, it has experienced significant changes such as the shift to English from French as a medium of instruction. These changes and the practices around them can be better understood after a thorough historical background of the national educational system. In the next section, I provide an overview of education in Rwanda.

1.2.4.1 An overview of education in Rwanda

Pre-colonial Rwanda had no schools. Children were given informal education (Pearson, 2013). A Western model of schooling began in 1914 with catholic missionaries. It was reinforced in the 1930s, when Belgian colonisers and missionaries in Rwanda began building schools countrywide, but education was granted to a few privileged Tutsi children until the 1950s when the Belgians reversed their divide and rule strategy and gave more advantages to the Hutu. Schooling became 'a field in which the ideology of racial supremacy was codified and implemented.' (Gatwa, 2005: 87). For example, former colonial authorities gave the Tutsi youth

special treatment in Astrida secondary school in Southern Rwanda and made them believe that they were a superior race gifted with incomparable skills for progress and who were meant to command the Hutu and Twa. During the Second Hutu Republic, things changed and education was used as a channel for political propaganda. Teachers would use their learners as teaching materials to show the difference between a Hutu and a Tutsi, and Tutsi children were generally marginalised. They were denied access to secondary and tertiary education as I portray in section 1.2.4.2.

Today, the Rwandan government is determined to change the history of schooling which has been part of Rwanda's problems rather than part of the solution (Schweisfurth, 2013). It considers education from Early Childhood Development (ECD) (MINEDUC, 2011) up to tertiary level as one of the vital sectors that will allow it to unite and reconcile Rwandans, transform people into skilled human capital for socio- economic development (MINEDUC, 2010) and reduce poverty. MINEDUC (2011) appeals to all services involved in ECD to address the needs of children from zero to six years of age in a holistic manner to enable the government to nurture children without any kind of trauma. On the other hand, MINEDUC (2010) states the goals of Rwanda's education as the improvement and increase of:

1. Access to education for all
 2. Quality education at all levels
 3. Equity in education at all levels
 4. Effective and efficient education system
 5. Science and technology and ICT in education
 6. Promotion of positive values, critical thinking, Rwandan culture, peace, and reconciliation
- (p. 1)

To eradicate illiteracy, enable children from poor families to have access to basic educational skills without difficulty and reduce class sizes, the government has installed a free of charge Nine-Year Basic Education programme (MINEDUC, 2010). Therefore, it heavily invests in education, particularly in basic education for the programme to achieve its intended objectives and the Millenium Development Goals (MDGs) even though the MDGs emphasis on a 'back to basics' (Rioux & Pinto, 2010: 621) movement or functional education (reading, writing, and knowledge of citizenship)is questioned. As argued eminently by Freire and Macedo (1987), basic education has no validity for the oppressed; it confines them instead of enlightening and emancipating them. Basic education also fails to give the oppressed access to powerful means of

raising their voices and to information disseminated by scholars referred to as the new literates (Freire & Macedo, 1987). Freire and Macedo's philosophy of the oppressed also sees basic education as an insult, which denies learners access to what people know about the world. Therefore, I believe that while attempting to meet the MDGs and probably satisfy sponsors' requirements to education, the GoR has to beware the danger awaiting learners who stop their studies at the basic education level and seek how to make them more knowledgeable by sending them to secondary school and to university.

Empowering learners with basic education with further skills would be a great achievement for the GoR, especially since the government still subsidises some secondary schools where school fees are made affordable to almost all Rwandans or where special funds are given to needy children by different projects set up by the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MINECOFIN). The total budget for education from 1994 to 2006 was approximately 110 million US dollars and it accounted for 16.3% of public expenditure (Ibuka, 2011), and to reach its objectives set by and in MINEDUC (2010) in 2015, the Ministry of Education has estimated its expenditures at 2, 673 million US dollars probably reviewable during the five-year plan (MINEDUC, 2010). The budget planned for higher education alone between 2013 and 2018 amounts 28, 782, 160, 374 Rwandan Francs (MIFOTRA, 2013). Such an investment is made to transform and translate Rwanda's vision for education into a reality (Birmingham, 2011). However, as stated in the general introduction, new learning and teaching strategies must be applied and energised as well as linguistic skills relevant for the understanding of academic subjects must be prioritised, particularly in higher education, which I describe in the next section.

1.2.4.2 Higher education in Rwanda

(i) Growth and expansion

Before the 1994 genocide, tertiary education seemed 'underdeveloped' (Hayman, 2007:372). Most universities' concern was the promotion of social sciences (Hayman, 2007) through rote learning (Hilker, 2012) and there were only three public universities, the first of which was the National University of Rwanda born in 1963 after the independence and two private higher learning institutions in Rwanda. These higher learning institutions accommodated very few

students and most Rwandans were denied access to university studies. This access was discriminatory on the basis of ethnic and regional quota and ‘the quota policy severely reduced the access of Tutsi secondary school leavers to tertiary education’ (Hilker, 2011: 270; Hilker 2012) during the second Hutu Republic. The genocide of 1994 worsened the situation and caused a lot of harm to the entire educational system by wiping away the then school children, and university and potential university students from the targeted groups, and compelling others to flee the country.

Low access to higher education in Rwanda might also be seen as one of the deliberately contrived measures of former colonial authorities who were scared of widespread access to tertiary education in Africa. According to Teferra and Altbach (2004), they either trained few people to assist them in administering the colonies or forbade higher education in their colonies or sent small numbers of students to study in their own native countries.

Thus many African leaders behaved like their colonial masters by limiting access to tertiary studies and by privileging some individuals who could help sustain their dictatorship. In Rwanda, Tutsi and Hutu from regions other than the late Habyarimana’s own mother province were denied access to tertiary education. Education remained very discriminatory in Rwanda after the latter’s independence. Consequently, less than 2000 students had graduated between 1963 and 1994 (MINEDUC, 2008).

Fortunately, after the 1994 genocide, the Rwandan government promoted education for all to give equal opportunities to all Rwandans and develop the nation. Huggins and Randell (2007) assert that the current Rwandan government has discernibly improved access to education at all levels and remarkable transformation has taken place in the aftermath of the genocide (Randell & Fish, 2008). Rwanda’s education policy considers as well as mandates education to be a fundamental right and an important tool that guarantees sustainable economic and social development through the development of Rwandan citizens regardless of their age and gender (MINEDUC, 2003: 4). For example, the 2003 Rwandan constitution and the vision 2020 plan adopted in 2000 considered gender parity and affirmative action in higher education as tools to promote women’s educational and social advancement even though girls’ educational

achievement seems to 'trail behind boys in academic achievement' (Huggins & Randell, 2007: 2).

Education For All (EFA) in the Higher Education sector required an increase in the number of higher learning institutions. With the help of international aid agencies, foreign governments and international financial institutions such as the United Nations Development Programme (PNUD), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), and Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA-SAREC), Rwanda reconstructed its educational system, particularly tertiary education. Many public and private institutions of higher learning gradually opened their doors. Figures show that the expansion of higher learning institutions from 1 to 17 in the case of public institutions and from 2 to 14 in the case of private ones by September 2011 made it possible to increase the number of students from 3,400 students between 1990 -1991 to 17, 000 by 2001-2002, and to 109, 446 (73, 674 in the public sector and 35,772 in the private sector) in 2011 (NCHR, 2011: 11-12).

The rapid growth of the number of students was partly facilitated by the government's systematic dismissal of all secondary school certificate holders working in the public sector, regardless of their age and work experience, its initiative to grant them bursaries, and the lack of rigour regarding entry requirements into higher education institutions (Huggins & Randell, 2007). This overwhelming growth compelled most universities to offer evening sessions. Some foreign universities such as Mount Kenya University, Baraton University and Jomo Kenyatta University-Kenyan Higher learning institutions- seized the opportunity to open campuses in Rwanda. Other foreign institutions from the UK, South Africa, India, the USA and Netherlands began offering distance learning and blended programmes (Muhire, 2012).

Recently, national goals have shifted from social sciences to the development of science and technology industries (Huggins & Randell, 2007) and from mass education to quality education for the production of graduates capable of responding to economic and social needs and of competing on the 'international labour market' (Hayman, 2007: 373). In connection with this, the Government of Rwanda (GoR) has merged some higher learning institutions into one university known as the University of Rwanda (UR).

(ii) The University of Rwanda (UR)

The University of Rwanda is a new university born out of the merger of seven pre-existing public institutions of higher learning among which is the former School of Finance and Banking (SFB) currently known as the College of Business and Economics (CBE), the research site of the present study. It is the result of the changes (for example, the shift from mass education to quality education and the shift to English from French as a medium of instruction) that the post genocide GoR has constantly effected in the policy objectives for higher education in order to consolidate its plans and help students become independent and critical thinkers.

The merger policy was adopted in February 2011 and implemented September 2013 with the aims to rationalise provision by minimizing duplication of programmes (MINEDUC, 2010), to transform the public higher education, to improve quality and efficiency of teaching, learning and research, and to create a world-class university. This university has been functioning in a two-year transitional phase first and the transitional phase is peculiarly marked by the mobility of lecturers from the institution they belong to other units of the same college. This mobility concerns students who have not yet been moved from their former school infrastructures to their newly born institutions. Public higher learning institutions that had previously dismissed French from their programme have now reintroduced it as a subject. However, English remains the sole medium of instruction as it is seen as a tool to meet these needs, but in order to meet these needs, there must be a change in the teaching approaches as I have argued earlier in this Chapter. It is thus worth looking at the teaching and learning approaches used in tertiary education in Rwanda.

(iii) Teaching and learning approaches in Rwanda's tertiary education

Teaching and learning approaches play a crucial role in the effectiveness and efficiency of any curriculum. Varied teaching approaches are normally used in the teaching process in order to guide and assist students' learning process. They are used with a purpose in mind, which is to meet students' needs, goals, and expectations in accordance with the teaching and learning contexts and today's globalised world. If not so, the implementation of the curriculum is likely to be a failure. In the context of this chapter and the current study at large, knowledge of the teaching and learning approaches used in Rwanda's tertiary education becomes

important because it will reveal the strengths and challenges faced by educators and students in the teaching and learning process in general, and in EAP courses in particular.

Thus, there is concern about Rwandan students' possible lack of academic preparedness (MEDUC, 2003, 2008, 2010; Bamwesiga, Dahlgren, & Fejes, 2012; Bamwesiga, 2013) for competitiveness in the labour market. This prevailing situation can be associated with different approaches used in classrooms whereby teachers are either considered or consider themselves as the only knowers capable of transmitting knowledge to students.

This exclusion of students from their own learning process is seen as normal because of the students' traditional belief that a teacher is an unchallengeable authority without whom learning cannot take place. The students' role is but to unquestionably consume the material transmitted to them. They play a receptive role. Sometimes whole programmes were crammed after the genocide in an attempt to cover large amounts of material in quite a short time (Ibuka, 2011).

Both the role assigned to teachers and the cramming of programmes are indicators that classes are teacher-fronted rather than learner-centred. Teacher-centred and examination-oriented approaches to teaching seem to be an age-long tradition in the Rwandan educational system, but the GoR, which does not operate in a vacuum, has effected tremendous changes resulting from regional and international influences:

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 [sic], 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 (MINEDUC, 2008: 5)

Regional and international trends, tensions and pressures have influenced Rwanda's higher education. As Rwanda was in need of foreign aid to revive its educational system after the genocide, it had to cope with these trends whose influences have led to the introduction of the Bologna modular system of education in all higher learning institutions and all university lecturers were trained on how to teach in such a new system with the hope to promote students' lifelong learning and independence. In line with the Bologna modular system - a credit accumulation system, research hours were increased at the expense of contact hours between

students and teachers, and the Rwandan tertiary education sought to improve and widen students' participation and to reduce the number of drop-outs.

Different curricula were broken down into more discrete units of accessible study in order to give students the opportunity to listen to different lecturers who teach various sections of the same module. In theory, there has been improvement of the quality of teaching and learning, but in practice, the breakdown of courses and their being taught by several lecturers does not imply that these lecturers have necessarily adopted new teaching strategies. Teachers still deliver lessons to students who silently listen to them and take notes without raising their voices probably due to resistance to change, their previous learning experiences, or their inability to look for strategies that might help students cope with today's globalised community.

MIFOTRA (2013) recognises the shortage of qualified and skilled academic personnel in all domains of the academic life, particularly in medicine where the government plans to hire qualified foreign professors for teaching and mentoring Rwandan medical doctors in their respective institutions, including education. It offers a table of skills required in the education sector to portray the severe lack of professionals in academia. This table has been modified to fit in with the current work and I present it as Table 1.1:

Table 1.1: Skills required in the Rwandan education sector

	2013/2014	2014/2015	2015/2016	2016/2017	2017/2018
PhD in Sciences	102	86	63	53	37
PhD in Social Sciences	37	31	25	18	12
Masters in Sciences	96	90	77	49	46
Masters in Social Sciences	29	25	21	16	10

MIFOTRA (2013:10) (This table has been modified to fit in with the current work)

The above figures are alarming and MIFOTRA (2013) calls for a change of approach to capacity building. However, teachers failed to respond to its appeal probably due to the current English medium of instruction despite the French-speaking background and the Kinyarwanda linguistic context in which the learning takes place. Detailed information on the linguistic context in Rwanda is provided below.

1.2.5 Language context in Rwanda

Rwanda is one of the few African countries which has never had historical bonds with Britain and in which all the ethnic groups shared a single common language known as Kinyarwanda before colonialism. Until recently, almost every Rwandan speaks Kinyarwanda. Kinyarwanda also goes beyond national boundaries and is widely spoken in neighbouring countries such as northern and southern Kivu in Congo, western Uganda and eastern Tanzania whereas Kirundi- a mutually intelligible language with Kinyarwanda – is used in Burundi, the neighbour of Rwanda to the South.

Statistics show that, in 2009, 99.4% of Rwandans could speak Kinyarwanda and that 90% could speak Kinyarwanda only (Samuelson and Freedman, 2010). Only 9.4% could speak either French, or English, or both languages with French serving as a medium of instruction and as an official language from the colonial period until recently with the 2008 language policy shift. In fact, French was introduced in the Rwandan administration and educational system by Belgium, the former Rwandan colonial master and was inherited as a colonial legacy.

After its independence, the new Rwandan government decided to keep French as an official language along with Kinyarwanda, the national language. French continued to enjoy the status of language of Higher Education and to have dominance over English until the introduction of the trilingual language policy (Kinyarwanda, French, and English) in education in 1996. The introduction of English as an official language and as a language of instruction was imperative as the government had to address the linguistic problem of thousands of Rwandan returnees from English-speaking countries and expatriates who did not know French at all. Since then French and English have officially enjoyed equal status, but French was more widely used than English and Kinyarwanda was taught in some departments in the Faculty of Arts and Education at the National University of Rwanda (NUR) and at Kigali Institute of Education (KIE). It was also informally used as a language of instruction in lecture-rooms and in group discussions at the university level. This is still a reality today, as translation appears to be a natural and inevitable practice in the learning process in ESL or EFL contexts, which enables students to grasp new concepts (Paxton, 2009).

By the end of 2008, French was discarded as one of the three official languages in Rwanda and English was abruptly promoted as a medium of instruction at the expense of French. As the great

majority of Rwandans speak Kinyarwanda only and because English is not used outside of school, the latter is learned as a foreign language (EFL). Rwandan teachers and students use a non-native language in a purely Kinyarwanda speaking environment. This is problematic in that the use of English - a language students lack mastery of - may impair their understanding of content of their academic subjects.

Despite this, policy-makers consider it as a major factor of scientific, commercial, and economic development (Samuelson and Freedman, 2010). MINEDUC (2010) asserts that the use of English medium is necessary for Rwanda to fit in the East African Community (EAC), in the Commonwealth, and in the world in general. It appears to ignore the fact that abrupt change of the language of instruction may challenge both teachers and students who are unprepared or unable to respond. Meanwhile there was awareness of the ensuing drawbacks since a government official stated that the government broke conventional rules to prioritize national interests seen as more essential than the difficulties to be faced by the population (Plonski et al., 2013). One of the drawbacks is that teachers who attempted to facilitate the teaching and understanding of the content of their subjects through informal use of Kinyarwanda were considered as outlaws by some students. Students who considered this practice as a failure to deliver courses in English on the part of their lecturers complained to one of their high ranked academic authorities. An e-mail from the high ranked academic authority was sent to his academic staff requesting them to comply with the national policy regarding the use of English as a medium of instruction. The note also requested the faculty dean and all department heads to find out the accuracy of the information gathered and clearly stated that the academic authority in question would be part of the monitoring team:

"... I have been getting information from some of level one students that there are some lecturers who pass instructions in Kinyarwanda language. While I am not suggesting whether this is information is entirely true, I would like to reiterate our commitment to the national policy of using English as the only medium of instructions in all levels of education. It is therefore unfortunate and regrettable if there is anybody who still explains his/her materials in a language other than English and it should stop with immediate effect. HoDs, Dean and I shall monitor very closely where these practices might be happening."
(<https://mail.google.com/mail/u/0/?tab=wm#inbox/14bc0d567983ef9f>, 2013)

The above note was sent to the SFB academic staff five years after the promotion of English as a medium of instruction and five years after its implementation. Classes take place in Kinyarwanda either because of students' low English language proficiency or because of lecturers' poor

linguistic skills. The use of Kinyarwanda as teaching and learning strategy might also occur as a natural phenomenon in a Kinyarwanda environment where a foreign language is used as a medium of instruction. In all cases, it should be viewed as a pragmatic teaching approach which helps teachers with low English language proficiency to transmit knowledge with ease to their students. In cases where teachers have a good command of English, their use of Kinyarwanda enables them to make students who display poor English communication skills understand the difficult concepts embedded in their academic subjects. Both teachers and students may lack proficiency in English and use Kinyarwanda in order to transcend their language-related difficulties during the teaching and learning process. Therefore, I consider the above-mentioned appeal to teachers to comply with the national policy according to which English should be used as the only medium of instruction a contradiction to what is the essence of education – mutual intelligibility.

Sound education builds on students' knowledge and previous experiences, which include their linguistic and cultural values. In line with this, an appeal to teachers to stop using English with immediate effect appears to be lack of understanding that the use of English only is a way of assimilating Rwandan students to English-the global powerful language they do not master. It should also be regarded as a way of making their cultural values invisible. Therefore, rather than adopting an assimilationist language policy in an environment, where students face severe language-related problems (see section 1.2.3) institutions of higher learning in Rwanda do not only have to improve students' proficiency in English through a switch over to Kinyarwanda, but also to adjust or change their curriculum in accordance with students' needs. Students in higher education must be taught English related to their specific fields of study. For instance, trade with English language users requires knowledge of technical terms used in business. Likewise, access to and understanding of specific scientific concepts requires students' good command of these concepts. I wish to address this in greater detail in the following section on the rationale for this study.

1.3 Rationale

The above-mentioned sections have shown a gap between Rwandan students' language abilities and the cognitive requirements of the academic world. Teachers and students resort to Kinyarwanda or code switching for mediation purposes. The explanation of materials in a language other than English (in this context Kinyarwanda) is seen as a hindrance to the use of English and the improvement of students' language skills. It also appears as a deviance from the national language-in-education policy. It has led to complaints and a strong decision to ban it as a practice at the SFB. However, the eradication of code switching in the Rwandan teaching and learning context that I have described above would mean denying students with poor English communication skills the right to participate in classroom activities. It means sustaining the existing teacher-fronted and top-down pedagogies rather than pedagogies and practices that use critical thinking and voice as response. It also means perpetuating the current shortage of qualified university academic staff facing African higher learning institutions and their failure to adapt to occurring changes in academic literacies and technological developments (Materu, 2007).

The elimination of code switching, which would enable students to develop the English language proficiency, may also lead to the production of graduates who are not prepared for the workplace and to the increase of employers' complaints about these graduates lack of preparedness (MINEDUC, 2003; MINEDUC, 2008; MINEDUC, 2010; MIFOTRA, 2013).

Rwandan graduates' performance at work is generally seen to be of a high quality and standard because of their belief in themselves as being 'agents of their own development' (Nsanabaganwa, 2012: 8). As Wellins, Bernthal & Phelps (2005), Shuck, Reio Jr, & Rocco, (2011) and Yahya, Isa, & Johari (2012) appear to confirm, an industry's or country's success depends on its employees' passion about their jobs and one which is synonymous with their engagement or commitment to their jobs rather than good attendance. Most of what Rwandans have accomplished are the result of both their leaders' and as well as their common understanding of their fundamental right, their self-determination and self-reliance to propel the nation forward (Crisafulli & Redmond, 2012). Briefly, they are the result of their understanding of government policy and their irrepressible spirit (Thomson, 2013). However, many graduates can only offer quality services when using Kinyarwanda - the home language spoken by all

Rwandans because they have not been trained in ways which could have enabled them to develop their productive skills in English and to become familiar with the academic registers that would have prepared them for work.

Rwandan graduates cannot compete for jobs advertised in English-speaking countries nor can they be mandated to represent Rwanda in such countries. These students need both language and content subject teachers' language support for the acquisition of the necessary English communication skills for national development and global integration. Therefore, the English courses offered in higher learning institutions, particularly at the College of Business and Economics should be assessed and students' language needs in relation to their academic fields have to be identified and addressed by designing long-term and needs-driven language materials. They should encompass discipline-related materials and be taught across the curriculum to give students exposure to meaningful input and produce graduates who can demonstrate the ability to cope with academic discourses and cope with the world in general.

However, in today's globalised world, there is also a need to adjust materials to students' learning context or design culturally-oriented materials, to allow students to use all the means of communication they already possess, and to draw one's teaching approaches from particular classroom situations. For example, the use of code switching can promote students' additive bilingualism which goes beyond their exposure to complicated academic linguistic requirements and enables them to meet these academic linguistic demands by exploiting students' 'indigenous and cultural resources' (Lin, 2006: 287). Integration of discipline- and local culture-related materials should be the prime concern to allow students to be active and contribute to knowledge construction in the teaching and learning process. Thus, without a change in the teaching and learning strategies to meet students' needs, the government of Rwanda cannot expect to attain its desired levels of regional and global development.

Rather than privileging the monolingual habitus, which cannot provide students with English communication skills required in today's globalised world, policy- and decision-makers should give teachers the latitude to students' exposure to today's diverse use of English. Not only do students need to use English to write assignments, tests, examinations, and theses, but they also need English communication skills for their professional lives, travelling, business, and any other aspects of life. In the next section, I look at the research aims.

1.4 Research aims

My research questions are derived and foregrounded in light of the above-mentioned context, which highlights the circumstances under which EAP courses are taught. It also highlights the teaching and learning methodologies prevailing or privileged in Rwanda's tertiary education, some of which appear to constitute a barrier to the effectiveness and efficiency of EAP courses. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to explore how the current English courses taught at the College of Business and Economics prepare students for their academic work and for their future professions and whether they meet students' needs in relation to other academic subjects.

The specific objectives were to:

- investigate the extent to which the English learning and teaching materials and courses meet students' needs.
- explore the views of the teachers in language teaching
- study the students' attitudes towards English as taught at their institution
- observe the English language teaching strategies employed by English and content subject teachers.

This study will augment previous research done around the use of English for Academic Purposes in Higher Education, help English teachers at the college of Business and Economics, where this study was carried out, to revisit both content and strategies currently used to teach English in higher education in Rwanda, particularly at their institution, in order to meet both the learner's needs and the government's expectations. In the following section, I present the research questions that have prompted me to conduct this study.

1.5 Research questions

A research question is a question that explicitly states what it is the researcher wants to investigate (Bryman, 2012). As mentioned earlier, the principal concern of this study is to explore the way in which the current English courses taught at a college of business and economics in Rwanda prepared students for their academic linguistic demands and for their professional life. This prompted me to propose the following research questions (RQs):

1. What are the teachers and students' views on existing English courses at university level in terms of strengths and weaknesses?
2. Can the current English courses meet the students' linguistic needs in relation to content-specific courses?
3. Which academic discourses and genres do teachers and students consider necessary in order to meet the demands of the academic world?
4. Which learning and teaching strategies can help students improve their communication skills?

1.6 Research methodology

I wish to situate this study in a qualitative research paradigm. A qualitative approach to research mainly explores and understands issues without translating them into numbers. It is based on people's accounts, particularly their feelings on a certain issue and on their activities in their natural settings (Flick, 2014). Expressed in another way, it enables the researcher to participate in research subjects' real world, to make this world visible through interpretive and material practices (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003), and to get in-depth insights from them. Because of its flexibility, it can help me to probe beyond the research subjects' answers (May 2001: 123) for the adjustment of the information collected. A qualitative approach is a generative form of inquiry (Ritchie & Spencer, 2002: 308) that uses varied techniques. But as any good qualitative research involves two 'mutually supportive' techniques: observation and interviews (May, 2003: 200), I used both class observation, and one-to-one and group semi-structured interviews as they normally enable the researcher's participation in students' real world (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003), and examination and development of theories about the role of meanings and interpretations (Ezzy, 2013). Therefore, data generation factored in the use of qualitative research with 'multiple methods' (Mertens, 2013) with the intent to gain reliable and valid insights on the learning of English at my research site. For the sake of reliability and validity, learning and teaching materials were analysed and data were analysed by putting the emerging themes into categories according to their relationships.

I provide understanding of the research methods employed to collect the data and analyse the data in Chapters 3 and 5.

1.7 Significance of the study

The significance of the current study is three-fold in that it contributes to personal, societal and academic edification.

This can deepen my knowledge of research methods and techniques as well as my understanding of English for Academic Purposes. It can also help me reflect on my own teaching methods in English language classes and inform me as to how to revisit them to fit the needs of the students. From an academic point of view, as an insider in the College of Business and Economics under study, peers as well as students will benefit. Fellow academicians from other higher learning institutions and their students will also gain insights and guidance from this study. Six years after the introduction of English as the sole medium of instruction, teachers and students are still struggling to improve their English communication skills. Therefore, this study can contribute significantly to the effectiveness of the Rwandan educational system, especially higher education as far as the language of instruction is concerned. It can inform both language and content subject teachers about strategies and methods to use in order to help students develop English communication skills that would enable them to surmount the linguistic demands of the academic world, to compete for jobs and adapt to them without difficulty after completing their studies. It should inform students about learning strategies as well.

At societal level, this study can inform decision-makers about implications of a sudden change or sudden changes of the medium/media of instruction in order to be much more cautious in the future. Through this study, all stakeholders in higher education in Rwanda, particularly donors, can be helped to see how a disadvantage may be turned into an opportunity to optimize national development. At worst, it will encourage the Ministry of Education and the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) to revisit their language planning strategies in accordance with the realities faced by both students and university teachers as policies may not always match practices and thus have drawbacks on teachers, universities and other institutions (Kuteeva, 2013) without forgetting students who are in the centre of the learning process. In the next section, I present how the current study is organised.

1.8 Organisation of the thesis

The present study comprises six chapters: the introduction, the conceptual framework, the research design and methodology, data presentation, data analysis, discussion and interpretation, and conclusions and recommendations.

Chapter 1: This chapter presents an overview of the whole thesis by giving an introduction, the context of the study, the research aims, the research questions, the research methodology, and the significance of the study. The introduction provides an overview of how Rwanda is striving to reduce its poverty and unite its population using different strategies such as reforms in different sectors of life. One of these changes is the shift to English from French as a medium of instruction because English is seen as a breakthrough to national development despite the dominant use of Kinyarwanda and the long French tradition in the educational system.

In the context of this study, I made a geographical and economic description of Rwanda, provided its historical background, portrayed the post-genocide reconstruction process, gave a description of higher education in Rwanda, and provided its linguistic context. The context depicts the challenges facing Rwanda, particularly the existence of a gap between students' language abilities and the academic linguistic demands, the use of poor teaching techniques, students' failure to compete for jobs, the employees' complaints about students' poor communication skills, and the trend to eradicate the resort to code switching which is normally used for mediation purposes to help graduates who have not been prepared for the academic registers. The context also depicts the need for cooperation between language and non-language teachers in order to provide students with sufficient language support to prepare them for national development and for global integration. It thus suggests a change in the teaching and learning strategies in order to help Rwanda reach its aspired goals.

The above-mentioned background gave both the context in which EAP courses are taught and rise to the purpose of this study, which is to explore how the current EAP courses taught at the College of Business and Economics prepare students for their academic work and for their future profession and how they are taught in relation to other academic subjects. The main purpose of the study gave rise to specific objects and both groups of objectives prompted my research questions, which I stated in section 1.5.

In the section on the research methodology, I described the research paradigm in which the current study falls, highlighted that I applied three research techniques (classroom observations, interviews, and document analysis) for the sake of triangulation, and indicated how data were grouped into themes according to their relationships.

With regard to the significance of the present study, I indicated its usefulness at personal, societal, and academic levels.

Chapter 2: The second chapter highlights the conceptual framework in which issues around EAP practices in Higher Education are emphasised. In this chapter, I highlight the role of English in the world, particularly in developing countries; I discuss issues around World Englishes (WE) and challenges with regard to using English as a medium of instruction. I also deal with English for academic purposes as an approach to help students transcend their language-related problems and with the notions of academic discourses and genre, which EAP courses normally tend to expose students to, but which may constitute an impediment to the implementation of EAP curricula. Furthermore, I deal with EAP curriculum and suggest additive bilingualism as a model of EAP which may suit the Rwandan context. This model indicates how exposure to academic discourses and genres would be possible through the teaching of EAP across the curriculum, the adaptation of the material to the local context, the promotion of problem-solving rather than the banking model of education, and the promotion of code switching. It gives students the latitude to use the available semiotic modes of communication (students' previous knowledge of English, their mother tongue, French, etc.). This would enable students to engage with their learning and develop both their basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and their cognitive academic linguistic proficiency (CALP) at the same time.

Chapter 3: The third chapter deals with research methodology. It furnishes details on the research subjects and the techniques that were used in gathering data as announced early in this chapter.

Chapter 4: This chapter presents data that has been gathered in conjunction with all the tools and instruments that were used in collecting data. These tools are classroom observation, one-to-one and focus group interviews, and documents analysis, which were all used for the sake of triangulation.

Chapter 5 analyses, discusses, and interprets the data that were collected. It presents the themes that emerged from the raw data according to their categories. The emerging new concepts and theories make the study unique. For example, the proponents of the use of English as a language of instruction in a foreign context believe that English should be used everywhere to make students familiar with it. However, my findings indicate that materials drawn from the local and taught through the switch over from the target language to the local language and vice versa promote students' communication skills in the target language better as students are more engaged in their learning.

Chapter 6: This chapter deals with conclusions, makes recommendations and suggests further studies that may help strategise the teaching and learning system in Rwanda to allow the government to achieve its objectives. It will also enumerate some limitations of my study.



CHAPTER 2

THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The previous chapter dealt with the introduction to the thesis. The introduction presented the overview of Rwanda, the context of the study, the rationale, research aims, research questions, a brief summary of the research methodology, the significance of the study, and the organization of the thesis. This chapter highlights the role of English worldwide, but focusing mainly on developing countries, discusses theories around English for Academic Purposes, particularly the notion of discourse communities and genre which might constitute a teaching and learning barrier, its use across the curriculum and other factors which impede the implementation of EAP curriculum. It also refers to theories of bilingualism to indicate how the use of EAP along with students' primary language, which is Kinyarwanda, can help students understand 'conceptual elements' such as difficult terminologies and transfer learning strategies from one language to another (Cummins, 2005: 3) for the teaching and learning process to take place effectively. In other words, the use of both English for Academic Purposes (the language of instruction) and the students' native language can allow teachers to better meet the needs of their students. In the first section, I propose to focus on the role of English in the international context.

2.1 The role of English around the world

English is the most widely used language in the world today. It has evolved on all continents as an enabling tool for coping with the rapid technological changes and globalization (Coleman, 2006), but to enjoy its global status, it must play a peculiar role in each country where it is used (Nunan, 2003). The role of English varies from one context to another and this role can better be understood through Kachru's (2006) three concentric subdivisions.

Kachru (2006) views the spread of English as a Lingua Franca in terms of the three concentric circles model that comprises the inner or centre circle, the outer or extended circle, and the expanding circle. The inner circle comprises nations in which English is used as the primary language and the World Standard English (WSE). It thus includes the United States (US), the United Kingdom (UK), Ireland, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand (Min, 2014). The outer circle refers to non-native English-speaking regions (Kachru, 2006) where English was

introduced by colonial masters from the inner circle as one of the official languages and where it is used along with multiple local languages as a second language (ESL) to connect the outer circle and the rest of the globe (Higgins, 2009). The expanding circle encompasses geographical areas which have not necessarily been colonised by ‘users of the inner circle’ (Kachru, 2006: 243). In this circle, English serves as a language of wider communication or a universal language (Jenkins, 2006; Kachru, 2006).

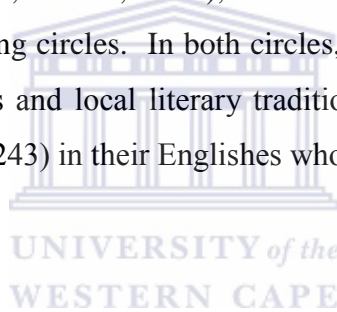
Looking at Kachru’s model, English serves as a native language in the inner circle, a second language in the outer circle and a foreign language in the expanding circle, but its merits have gone beyond these three criteria (Nunan, 2003). Apart from its role as a primary, second and foreign language, English plays a significant role in different sectors of life even though it is appears impossible to know how much wider it is used everyday life compared to other languages (Nunan, 2003).

In the scientific domain, the majority of academic papers produced and published every year are written in the English language and there is an international trend to switch scientific journals from vernacular languages to English (Nunan, 2003) which makes the exchange of this scientific knowledge among scholars easier (Flowerdew, 2013; Montgomery, 2013). Students and academic staff are also engaged ‘in international exchange and collaboration’ (Hu & Lei, 2014: 558) and communication occurs without the need of interpreters (Montgomery, 2013). The knowledge produced and disseminated thus reaches a wide range of people and institutions worldwide (Montgomery, 2013).

In the economic sphere, the contribution of English to individuals’ economic progress and the development of the global economy is undeniable (Hayes, 2014). For example, English is widely used in the tourism industry, where it increases the ‘interconnectedness of the international economy’ (Hall & Page, 2014: 3), builds and strengthens the relationships between the consumers and the producers of the tourist enterprise. Its use in this industry has, for instance, helped 40 out of the 50 world’s less developed countries to generate income in the form of foreign exchange (Hall & Page, 2014). Knowledge of English in a country also attracts investors from different parts of the world as is the case in the East African community (EAC), where English Lingua Franca (ELF) enables indigenous members to communicate among themselves and internationally and contributes to a smooth exchange of skilled manpower (Sethi et al, 2012),

thus deepening diplomatic relations in the region and contributing to the improvement of production and services. The role of English as a source of income is also real in higher education in that a university whose personnel is reputed for English language proficiency attracts both good students and academics and offers its students good job opportunities (Hu & Lei, 2014).

Not only does English facilitate the exchange of scientific knowledge and play a significant role in the global economy, but it also permeates mankind to share their diverse cultures and to develop ‘cross-cultural communication skills’ (Hu & Lei, 2014: 557) through various media such as television, print media, the internet, etc. Even in developing countries where the majority of people can neither read nor write English, television broadcasts different programmes that enhance cross-cultural exchange (Thussu, 2007). Thus, English is seen as the language of science and technology (Flowerdew, 2013; Nunan, 2003), economics, politics, etc., but it has more functions in the outer and expanding circles. In both circles, there has been some incorporation of contextual linguistic formations and local literary traditions such as ‘the novel, short story, poetry, and essay’ (Kachru, 2006: 243) in their Englishes whose role I discuss below.



2.2 World Englishes

Kachru’s distribution of the spread of English in the world indicates that the contact of English with other languages has given rise to new Englishes to meet local needs. Therefore, the number of local types of English varies in accordance with the different linguistic groups whose contact with English users has led to their development. The role of these varieties of English changes from one context to another, but it also goes beyond national borders as they allow mutual intelligibility among all users of English (Kashru, 2006). They can, therefore, constitute an important source of teaching and learning materials in their different contexts of use even though not all of them fulfill the requirements of Standard English (SE) (Higgins, 2009) that governments generally give prominence to in language education policies. Used as teaching and learning materials, local varieties of English render students self-confident, stimulate students’ engagement in classroom interactions, and allow smooth transmission and understanding of knowledge (Matsuda, 2003, 2011; Niyomugabo, 2012), thus meeting students’ needs and their inclusion in the curricula seems not to threaten Standard English (Kirkland, 2010). The reason

for their inclusion in higher learning institutions' curricula is that their peculiar features are known by students and probably symbolize their identity (Saxena & Omoninyi, 2010). Furthermore, there is a wide range of these features, which vary in time and space depending on the users and the purpose for using them (Higgins, 2009). Higgins goes on to voice that each domain of use is marked by its own speech genres. Therefore, the different varieties of English constitute a rich source of teaching and learning materials as they reflect multiple identities (Saxema & Omoniyi, 2010). Each community can draw from its own creative source for the elaboration of teaching and learning materials. Unfortunately, they barely inform school curricula, and the use of English as a medium almost always confronts students with learning difficulties, some of which I wish to highlight in the next section.

2.3 Challenges with regard to using English as a medium of instruction

In sections 3.1 and 3.2, I showed how the general move towards English Lingua Franca (Björkman, 2011) has become a widespread practice in higher education as a response to globalization and internationalisation (Coleman, 2006) and how its use as a medium of instruction has made international communication possible. However, the use of English as a medium of instruction is multifaceted and its effects on students' academic achievement vary from context to context. In higher education, it has confronted teachers and students and impacted on the learning and teaching of content subjects in higher learning institutions worldwide, particularly in non-English speaking countries (Hughes, 2008) and the negative impact it has exerted on students 'cannot be wished away' (Kachru, 2006: 242).

In Turkey, Kirkgoz's (2009) study on the perceptions of lecturers and students on the effectiveness of English as a medium in three departments (Economics and Business Administration, Mechanical Engineering and Electrics, and Electronic Engineering) at Çukurova University points to a gap between students' language proficiency and the language embedded in the tasks they were assigned (note making, writing summaries, expressing opinions, reading publications, etc.). It also brought to light lecturers' lack of appropriate English communication skills (Kirkgoz, 2009: 8). In a different context, a survey on the necessity of English for Academic Purposes at Hong Kong's largest English-medium university (the University of Hong-

Kong) (Evans & Green, 2007) indicates that almost all students (5000) involved in the study had difficulty in academic writing and academic speaking, and that they were mainly confronted by a lack of adequate receptive and productive vocabulary. A lack of communicative competence in English thus inhibits the transmission and the understanding of academic subjects and perpetuates educational inequalities in China by serving the 'privileged, rich, and the elite' (Hu & Lei, 2013:15).

Language-related difficulties (Mammino, 2013: 33) are a widespread phenomenon (Sultana, 2014). A number of studies carried out in South Africa have revealed that the majority of students who enter universities are unprepared for meeting the demands of the academic world (Bharuthram & Kies, 2013; Mammino, 2010; Mammino, 2013; Pretorius, 2002). For example, a study by Pretorius (2002) shows that most first-year Psychology and Sociology students at the University of South Africa (UNISA) could read only 'at frustration level' or 'below their assumed reading level' (p. 170). Mammino (2013: 34) reports a persistent problem of UNIVEN (University of Venda) students' inability to cope with chemistry because of lack of English communication skills necessary for developing 'logical abilities, visual literacy or creative thinking' (Mammino, 2013: 34) and for expressing the acquired knowledge.

The same scenario has been observed in Tanzania. Qorro (2006: 4) reports most university students' and teachers' lack of understanding of the language of instruction. Shortage of lecturers with a good command of English was predicted 7 years earlier. An academic audit done at the University of Dar-es-Salam in 1998 indicated that, after the retirement of qualified teachers, there would be recruitment of younger staff from the pool of fresh/new graduates with low English language proficiency, especially, 'problems of speaking, writing and self-expression' (Gran, 2007:15).

Sultana (2014) provides a general view of these language-related problems. He lists a number of countries (for example, the Philippines, Nigeria, Korea, Taiwan, Vietnam, etc.) where the adoption of English as a medium of instruction has had negative effects such as many students' failure, frustration, and low self-esteem. He also states that English medium has caused tension and social division between 'elite and Englishless masses and between the haves and have-nots and city and rural dwellers' in different parts of the globe (p. 12). In a study on the effect of English as a medium of instruction conducted in two public and three private universities in

Bangladesh, Sultana's findings indicate that English medium made some students consider themselves as deficient and impeded them from learning and developing their identity.

All these studies appear to confirm how the language of instruction hampers the learning and teaching process instead of facilitating students' access to scientific knowledge. To this end, Mammino (2010: 139) argues that effective communication between the source of information (teacher, textbooks, handouts, etc.) and the learner is required. Communication is achieved through the language of instruction whose role in determining the quality of education (Qorro, 2006: 4) and students' academic performance (Bohlmann & Pretorius, 2002: 15) then becomes an issue of paramount importance.

However, university students are generally reported to be unable to speak, read, write and express themselves sufficiently in English. They enter university before acquiring 'Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills' (BICS) (Cummins, 1979; Scarcella, 2003) where academic subjects are cognitively demanding and challenging. Thus, these students need language support that would enable them to acquire both Basic Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1979, Scarcella, 2003) to overcome their communication barriers. However, I assume that what is regarded as communication barriers may be turned into strategies to learn and that teachers of English and teachers of content subjects offered through English have the responsibility to facilitate the learning process by promoting language learning across the curriculum to expand students' vocabulary which leads to highly academic language proficiency (Collier, 1995). They should also allow students to resort to the easiest means of communication such as utilising strategies and sociocultural practices at their disposal. With regard to this, Van Dyk et al. (2013) posits that teachers should help students to become good academic communicators by allowing negotiation between them, the resources in the teaching and learning environment and 'the expectations of the academia' (p. 364) instead of compelling them to develop native-like skills (Canagarajah, 1999, 2000, 2006; Canagarajah & Wurr, 2011) only. Brown (1991) and Canagarajah (2006) emphasise that education should focus on the learner and give them due respect. In Canagarajah's (2006) view, education should take into consideration the learners' diverse learning contexts as well as their various needs

because English is nativized in many communities (featuring diverse norms), we cannot treat these speakers as less legitimate "nonnative" English speakers; (b) because identities are hybrid

and multiple, and most of the world is multilingual, we must conceive of learners as having identities that often accommodate English seamlessly with other languages; (c) as English has become an active additional language in many countries untouched by Anglophone colonialism, the distinction between an ESL and EFL learner is fast eroding; and, (d) even within English-dominant communities, the children of migrants form new in-between identities (Canagarajah, 2006:14).

The above passage suggests that education should draw on a variety of teaching and learning material to meet all the students' needs as some of them may be aiming at communicating with 'English-dominant communities' (Canagarajah, 2006:14) whereas others may need English to be able to socialize. It also emphasizes the importance of students' identities which should be considered by allowing them to use local teaching and learning materials first. With regard to this, Canagarajah (2005) seems to disagree with programmes which impose on students the learning of the so-called homogeneous discourses which are viewed as a symbol of globalization. Canagarajah (2005: xiv) envisions a 'globalisation from below' whereby 'the local shouldn't be of secondary relation or subsidiary status to the dominant discourses and institutions from powerful communities, where the global is simply applied, translated or contextualised to the local'. Canagarajah goes on to say that the recognition of the local does not mean the addition of 'another component' to the pre-established dominant paradigms, but rather the reexamination of the current disciplines 'to orient to language, identity, knowledge, and social relations from a totally different perspective (Canagarajah, 2005: xiv). In so doing, all world communities will have their identities and knowledge empowered (Canagarajah, 2005) as all languages and dialects enjoy equal status (Canagarajah, 1999). In another situation Canagarajah (1999) states:

We take for granted that all languages and dialects are of equal status; that there are no linguistic reasons for the superiority of one dialect over the other, that languages in situations of contact will always undergo modes of indigenization or vernacularization, that language learning is a creative cognitive and social process that has its own trajectory not fully dependent on the teacher (much less the teacher's accent); that the contextually relevant variants of the language have to be used in different situations; and that language change or diversification cannot be stopped by attempts at purification or standardization (Canagarajah, 199: 79).

Considering the view of language teaching and learning as a creative cognitive and social process, Canagarajah and Wurr (2011) show how members of different South Asian communities with mutually exclusive languages communicate. Their communication is facilitated by both their openness to changes and the willingness to make efforts to negotiate meanings with others through the use of communicative practices and strategies rather than a

common grammar. In this case, frequent encounters may result in the creation of a shared grammar.

In a classroom environment, there is no need to refer to some students as deficient when they can use communication strategies such as their varieties of languages to negotiate meaning and build knowledge. As Canagarajah (1999: 80) points out, first language plays a crucial role as it ‘can help build a bridge to the second language’ ...address issues pertaining to students’ identities and cultural clash. The use of students’ vernaculars can help them ‘integrate English more effectively into their existing repertoire’ (Canagarajah, 1999:80) and quietly enter the culture of the academic world not with the aim to remain there, but rather in order to appropriate and transform it while preserving one’s own culture (Pennycook, 2012). This view of language teaching and learning inspires the model of EAP to be adopted in section 3.7 in the context of Rwanda.

In Rwanda, language support and consideration of students’ diverse ways of communicating are needed, as many students’ English communication abilities are poor in the course of their studies (Kagwesage, 2001; 2012). In reality they have a hard time coping with the demands of academic discourses and with job requirements after completion of their studies. As English is assumed to be a solution to global challenges and a life and ‘must-have’ skill (Anamaria-Mirabela & Monica-Ariana, 2013), students need subject-specific rhetorical conventions/strategies and terminology as well as a common core lexis (Evans & Green, 2007). This requires the use of English for Academic Purposes rather than remedial or general English courses (Evans & Green, idem). The implication behind this recommendation is that English for Academic Purposes offers students better language training, but its success depends on various variables that I will present in the next sections. I propose to discuss English for Academic Purposes in the next section to shed light on its current practices and on its critics’ views of what should be done in relation to globalization.

2.4 English for Academic Purposes as an approach to help students

While section 3.3 dealt with challenges with regard to using English as a medium of instruction in non-English speaking countries, this section addresses the notion of English for Academic Purposes and ways in which it can serve as a remedy to the problems non-native speakers of English experience in their learning process in higher education. As the current study aims at exploring how English courses currently offered at the College of Business and Economics meet students' needs and how English for Academic Purposes might assist both teachers and students in the learning and teaching process, it is worth presenting the review of literature on English for Academic Purposes.

2.4.1 Definition and background of English for Academic Purposes

2.4.1.1 Definition

The term English for Academic Purposes (EAP) has been assigned various definitions. English for Academic purposes generally refers to 'teaching English with the aim of facilitating learner's study or research in that language' (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001:8; Jordan, 1997:1). It also refers to 'language research and instruction that focuses on the specific communicative needs and practices of particular groups in academic contexts (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002: 2). EAP is 'specialized English- language teaching grounded in the social, cognitive and linguistic demands of academic target situations, providing focused instruction informed by the understanding of texts and the constraints of academic contexts' (Hyland, 2006: 2). Thus, EAP deals with texts encountered in the academic contexts taking into consideration factors that contributed to their realization, 'the discourses and practices that surround them and gave rise to them' (Bruce, 2011: 6).

2.4.1.2 The background of EAP

The term English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is assumed to have been coined by Tim Johns in 1974 (Jordan, 1997; Hyland, 2006; Hyland, 2007). Three years later, it appeared in an edited volume by Cowie and Heaton (Hyland, 2006; Hyland, 2007). In 1980, it became a branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) along with English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) (Hyland, 2007). Research has subdivided English for Academic Purposes into English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP)

(Hyland, 2006: 10; Jordan, 1997: 4-5) and these branches of EAP are said to have been described by Blue in 1988 (Jordan, 1997: 4). Today English for Academic Purposes has grown as an independent science and is situated in academia (Belcher, 2009) where it focuses on skills and language related to students' disciplines (Hyland, 2006: 9). Until recently, EAP has helped foreign students studying in English-speaking countries to acquire English language skills required to study in such environments and students studying in non-English speaking countries needing receptive skills to be able to deal with their courses (Björkman, 2011).

As the principal researcher in this study, I contend that Rwandan students need skills that would enable them to cope with their studies, maintain their identities and adapt to their future lives (at home, at the workplace be it in Rwanda or in other parts of the world). Rwandan students need skills that would empower them to communicate effectively both at school and outside in their home country or abroad. Put differently, students need skills that would enable them to communicate intelligibly in English on local, continental, and international ground. There is need for students to appropriate English according to their interests and identities (which vary from individual to individual) (Canagarajah, 2006). The latter enable students to gain voice and improve their communication skills. As with globalization, EAP has evolved to address the needs of the growing body of students with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Hyland, 2006) and the role it plays in the academia is provided in the next subsection.

2.4.2 The role of EAP

As mentioned earlier, EAP developed out of English for Specific Purposes which seeks to discover what the specific needs of the students (Miller, 2014) are and to address them by helping students to overcome the constraints that social contexts impose on language use (Hyland 2002). Even though it has become an independent science it shares many features with other ESP courses. Following Dudley-Evans and St John's (1998: 4-5) definition of ESP, EAP has three absolute and five variable characteristics which portray ESP.

The absolute characteristics are (1) ESP/EAP is designed to meet specific needs of students, (2) ESP/EAP makes use of the underlying methodology and of the activities of the discipline it

serves, and (3) ESP/EAP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register, skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities).

On the other hand, the variable characteristics are: (1) ESP/EAP may be designed for specific disciplines, (2) ESP/EAP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English, (3) ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at tertiary level situation, or in a professional work situation. It could be, however, used for learners at secondary school level, (4) ESP is generally designed for intermediate and advanced students, and (5) most ESP/EAP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners. To these characteristics, Gillett (1996: 17) adds a sixth criterion which states that ‘a very high level of proficiency is not necessarily required, as long as the learners can succeed in their aims’, which are understanding lecturers, understanding students and textbooks and performing well.

Based on the different definitions assigned to EAP, particularly on its absolute features, the main concern of EAP is to equip students with the academic skills they need to respond to the demands of academic content subjects. Functioning in an academic environment requires students’ special skills and English courses attempt to meet students’ needs in subjects other than arts and languages (Fortanet-Gómez & Räisänen, 2008). Using activities and methodologies drawn from specific disciplines EAP is intended for, courses focus on special features embedded in these disciplines: specialized language, vocabulary, grammar, discourses and genres rather than dealing with general features of the language such as general grammar, general public genres and discourses and/ or dictionary use (Fortanet-Gómez & Räisänen, 2008: 12). Thus, EAP courses provide students with such learning strategies as ‘reading abstracts, paragraph and essay writing, note-taking, summarizing, synthesizing, interpretation of graphic information, critical thinking and language awareness’ (Hyland, 2005: 173), thesis writing, dissertation supervision (Hyland, 2006: 4), etc. A targeted specific-purpose English course is based on students’ needs and provides them with an appropriate learning context (Eslami, 2010). It helps them to gain access to the discourse of a particular community (Staples, Kang, & Wittner, 2014). For example, exposure to genres related to different content subjects raises students’ awareness of the rhetorical conventions they carry and of their relationship within texts. EAP aims at providing students with academic English (scientific and technical concepts, etc.) and academic literacies

and developing their ability to transfer such skills to ‘mainstream courses’ (Kagwesage, 2001: 11).

As can be seen, EAP was originally conceived for students who are already familiar with general English, that is, for native speakers of English who need special skills to function in an academic community (Fortanet-Gómez & Räisänen, 2008). Later, it developed as a response to the large body of foreign students and immigrants pursuing their university studies in English in Anglophone countries (Hyland, 2006), but little indicated how it should be dealt with in non-English speaking countries. Meanwhile, EAP’s mission to accommodate students should be considered as an academic achievement since it seeks to respond to students’ academic needs, that is, to overcome the highly cognitive language demands of academia and to prevent them from having their intelligence measured against their language communicative abilities. Rather than using assimilationist methods and exposing students to academic genres only, EAP should take advantage of students’ educational and social-cultural backgrounds in order to develop courses or modules that respond to their needs and allow them an exchange of language and cultural values. EAP can then make globalization relevant to local needs, cease to display a monolingual habitus (Matsuda, 2003), transcend the imperialistic role it has been accused of, and play a neutral role instead of having its neutrality challenged. The subsequent sections look at the controversies underlying the literature on English for Academic Purposes.

2.4.3 Debates on English for Academic Purposes

2.4.3.1 Pragmatic, critical, or critical pragmatic English for Academic Purposes?

English for Academic Purposes normally seeks to immerse students in their new academic culture, but critics of this pragmatic role of EAP advocate for either critical or critical pragmatic EAP. Benesch (2001) and Pennycook (1997) view EAP pragmatism as a means of perpetuating mainstream academic structure and of denying students and perhaps their teachers their own voices by ‘accommodating them to powerful interests’ (Hyland, 2006: 32; Charles, 2012). The main concern seems to be the elimination of cultural diversity by imposing the different cultural groups to conform to ‘the dominant majority attitudes and values’ (Pratte, 1979: 72). Therefore, Benesch (1993:714) describes it as accommodationist or assimilationist whereas Benesch (2001: 161) argues that rather than preparing students for target situations, EAP courses should

expose them ‘to political concerns such as power relationships and social inequities’ to help them understand the role of English both within and outside of school (Pennycook, 1997). EAP pragmatism itself is seen as an ideological stance. Benesch (2001: 162) and Pennycook (1997) reject its neutrality that obscures the entire cultural, social and ideological contexts in which language operates (Hyland, 2006) and does not consider the pluralisation of students’ future knowledge, that is, how the world can be seen in different ways (Hyland, 2006: 136). Likewise, Benesch (2001) suggests that EAP should take account of students’ target situations and their right to challenge them. In other words, EAP should be pragmatic as well as critical since disciplinary discourses are said not to be context-free (Charles, 2012: 157). Holistic English for Academic Purposes pedagogy should be adopted (Bruce, 2011), but in my view, pragmatic EAP may help students acquire academic discourses and develop their critical thinking, especially if it allows them to make use of communicative strategies at their disposal. The more the students are exposed to genre conventions, the more they internalize them and recognize the social, cultural and political practices they carry. As Vygotsky (1978: 7) has observed ‘the internalization of culturally produced signs such as language and writing brings about behavioural transformations and forms the bridge between early and late forms of individual development.’ Through the dialogic interaction with teachers, peers and writers, there will be students’ awareness and criticism of the cultures valued at university. Language as a mediating tool will therefore influence the development of their thoughts (Vygotsky, 1978: 9) provided that they understand the language in use. Vygotsky’s view of language is another indicator that academic discourses are not context-free. It makes one reflect on the possible neutrality of EAP.

2.4.3.2 The ‘neutrality’ of English for Academic Purposes

English has become the dominant medium of instruction in higher education and a tool for international communication (Hu & Lei, 2013). It is viewed as an international lingua franca that facilitates the exchange of knowledge (Hyland 2006: 24), the mobility of academic staff and students (Coleman, 2006). Yet, like any other language used as a lingua franca, English as an international lingua franca should acknowledge all forms of English across the world (Meierkord, 2012) and other teaching and learning practices that might make education run smoothly. In this case, cultural diversity appears to be embraced rather than problematised (Trahar and Hyland, 2011), and can help universities operate beyond local and national borders. It will make the mobility of academic staff as well as that of students bilateral rather than

unilateral as has been the case until recently because not many lecturers from non-English speaking countries fulfil international English standards that would enable them to teach in English-speaking countries or have their articles cited in international journals. Because of the divide existing between native and non-native speakers, teachers from the periphery are marginalized. The global/ universal feature of English then serves as a mask hiding the exclusion of the majority of world scholarships and the respective scholars, who do not use English as their native language (Phillipson, 1996). As for the mobility of students, non-native speakers of English have become an important source of income because of the higher fees they are charged:

*... EAP in Britain ...is not so much international 'aid' and 'development'...
The financial viability of British universities is increasingly dependent on
their marketability to what are known as 'overseas' or 'international' students.
This categorisation has its primary significance in relation to fee status.
'Overseas' students' fees are considerably higher than 'home' and European
Union students (Turner 2004: 96).*

Turner's (2004) observation points to EAP's lack of neutrality and confirms Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kangas's (1989: 63 2013) view that the dominance of English in the world is deliberate 'British and American government policy to establish English as a universal second language so as to protect and promote capitalist interests'. The English-speaking countries' promotion of the worldwide use of English was meant for economic and political reasons (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas (1989). The UK, Australia and Canada 'have developed clear national priorities and comprehensive strategies to attract a large number of international students' (Schneider, 2000: 2-3). The recruitment of international students in Canada is 'viewed as an important-even essential-source of revenue by post-secondary institutions' (Lee & Wesche, 2000: 638). Skutnabb-Kangas (2013) asserts that English language teaching is a multibillion pound business which Britain values as more precious than North Sea oil. In the 1980s, the teaching of English generated around 6.25 billion pounds, one million of which was produced by Britain from students' tuition fees, textbook sales and exam administration (Ciprianová & Vančo, 2010:125). In light of this, Benesch (2001: 34) considers EAP as 'a well-crafted and organized effort of some governments, businesses and organizations for the promotion of their economic interest rather than an international consensus'.

EAP is also confronted by its hegemony over other languages (Hyland, 2006: 24). It threatens vernacular languages and is viewed as a Tyrannosaurus (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1989; Coleman, 2006; Hyland, 2006) probably because of its pragmatic mission according to which students have to acquire academic language proficiency which normally gives it an unmarked flavour and makes it to be considered as the international leading language of science, commerce, and technology. Skutnabb-Kangas (2000, 2013) finds the learning of any dominant language including English for all to be advantageous so long as it does not push into extinction vernacular languages. The following lines affirm her view:

...(I) of course have nothing against people learning any languages, including English. Learning dominant languages additively, including English for everyone, is OK. It is subtractive dominant language learning (where for instance English is learnt at the cost of the mother tongues, not in addition to them) that kills other languages (Skutnabb- Kangas, 2000: xxxiii).

The preceding quotation indicates that while Skutnabb-Kangas supports additive bilingualism, she rejects the traditional monolingual habitus that seeks to fully immerse students in their respective academic discourses. However, as already mentioned, universities are composed of students with various language and cultural backgrounds and EAP teachers as well as teachers of content subjects have to be flexible with regard to students' language use. They must promote English along with the multiple discursive practices and strategies students are armed with. This will help students acquire the required academic rhetorical conventions and at the same time safeguard their own linguistic practices. Students will align their own language resources to their needs and situations (Canagarajah & Wurr, 2011).

In the case of Rwanda, EAP teachers have to be pragmatic by drawing on Rwandan language and cultural realities when developing their teaching materials. They should also encourage interactions in Kinyarwanda that students use in their everyday activities as a way of giving them voice. EAP innovative strategies might be a form of resistance to the economic exploitation imposed on students from peripheral countries through tuition fees, a way of unveiling the 'soft-selling terms' (Phillipson, 2009: 190) used to market English and of making the use of English actually natural and normal, thus counteracting its global hegemony. In the same vein, Canagarajah (2002) states that, while interacting with scholars and texts and engaging in other academic activities, students should behave as insiders and outsiders by attempting to be good

academic communicators, but keeping their sociocultural values and experiences as well. Another area of disagreement is the role of EAP as a bridge or pathway.

2.4.3.3 EAP as a bridge or pathway

While the previous subsection dealt with controversies around the neutrality of EAP, the present subsection is meant to present views on EAP as a bridge or pathway. The notion of EAP as a bridge or pathway has been problematised. Some EAP practitioners argue that EAP helps in addressing the divide existing between first-generation adult immigrant and low-income students' 'home and school worlds' (Jehangir, 2009: 34) in English-speaking countries, but others reject this view.

Jehangir, for example, asserts some courses, including freshman composition courses, which focus on identity, community and social agency, helped disadvantaged students to bridge the gap between their home and school, and to integrate into academic life without demanding a kind of assimilation that would make it impossible for them to return to their home worlds (p 36). Prado (2013) also believes that EAP remedial reading and writing courses have helped ESL students with limited linguistic abilities to pursue academic studies such as science, technology, engineering, mathematics and healthcare and prepare them for future jobs. Long and Boatman (2010) espouse the view that remedial courses, especially English for academic purposes focus on providing academically unprepared students with material below college level needed for both academic success and labour market. However, Long and Boatman (2010, 2013) also point to the views of their critics. Hyland (2006, 2013), Scarcella (2003), Swales (1990), and Turner (2004) reject the view that EAP is nothing more than remedial and that EAP teachers' task is to deal with students' linguistic deficiencies, that is, 'to teach nothing but that which should have been learnt before' (Swales, 1990: 2). Hyland (2013:58) rejects the ideology that considers EAP as a support mechanism to content subjects, which are more valued in the academia, thus seeing it as 'a kind of add-on to the more serious activities of university life'. The other critique Long and Boatman (2010, 2013) point to is that remedial courses may have more negative than positive effects on students' academic achievement as they do not generally target students' graduation requirements. Another area of disagreement is on whether to teach English for General Academic Purposes (AGAP) or English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP).

All these controversies appear to suggest that EAP practitioners disagree on the role of EAP. If they want EAP to be a remedial course rather than an on-going process that takes account of the positive linguistic package students bring to university (Turner, 2004) and of content subjects offered at university, it will continue to cause more harm to students. Therefore, even though research has shown that the writing skills students gain from EAP remedial writing courses may play a fundamental role in facilitating their academic performance in other courses and their persistence in the long-run (Long & Boatman, 2010), EAP needs to be more than remedial, that is, to socialize its students into academic linguistic conventions, incorporate other academic subjects in its programme, and consider and exploit its students' specific cultural-historical realities. As Turner (2004) says, all students bring rich language packages that can help EAP teachers to avoid any form of marginalization and give voice to each and every student. I propose to present the divide between EGAP and ESAP, which will be followed by the discussion on the concepts of discourse community and genres in the following section.

2.4.3.4 EGAP Vs ESAP

As mentioned in its background, EAP has been divided into General English for Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP), but there is lack of consensus among EAP practitioners on the variety to be taught. EGAP engages learners in skills and activities such as 'listening to lectures, participating in supervisions, seminars; reading textbooks, articles and other material, and writing essays, examination answers, dissertations and reports' (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998: 41) which are said to be common to all disciplines or generic academic practices (Hyland, 2006: 9). As for Scarcella (2003), she refers to these generic practices in terms of the four English language skills - listening, speaking, reading and writing. The main point of the proponents of the teaching of EGAP is that students need exposure to these common core skills which prepare them for unpredictable situations (Hyland, 2006). However, Hyland (2006) argues that the advantages of EGAP might become a hindrance to the learning process in case students aim at embracing academic disciplines which share limited academic skills and conventions with other disciplines. Therefore, students need academic discourses as they present a variety of specific literacies (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002:5) contended to be the actual tasks that students have to perform (Dudley- Evans, 1998). The

students who are the most likely to carry out such tasks are non-native speakers attending university courses in their countries of origin (Liyanage and Birch, 2001) where ESAP courses are needed to cater for their needs and those of individual academic departments, and because of their big number. On the other hand, EGAP rather than ESAP courses are provided to ESL students studying in English-speaking countries because their insufficient number cannot allow universities to arrange for ESAP for them (Liyanage & Birch, 2001). However, there seems to be a paradox in the EAP practices. Specific academic literacies which are normally highly-structured and go beyond the knowledge of students with ‘limited English proficiency’ (Hyland, 2006: 10) are specifically designed for those who lack opportunities to practise the language outside of school and whose limited communication skills may prevent them from participating in classroom interaction, thus marginalising them (Canagarajah, 1999, 2000, 2002, 2005, 2006, 2007; García & Wei (2014); Hartse & Kubota, 2014; Kachru, 2006; Matsuda, 2003). Another issue is that economic interests prevail on students’ needs. This complies with the views discussed in 4.3.3.2. As a result, EAP marginalises students and academic staff from non-English speaking countries whose voices are not heard. In the next section, I propose to discuss the concepts of discourse community and genres in the following section.



2.5 Notion of discourse community and genres

Human beings use language to communicate with individuals, groups of individuals and the world at large (Borg, 2003) and those belonging to close network and/or cliques communicate much more easily because their interaction is based on socially recognised norms and expectations (Gumperz, 2001; Gumperz & Cook-Gumperz, 2007). Likewise, in higher education, groups of people gather into communities generally referred to as discourse communities in order to communicate. Discourse communities can be ‘academic groupings of any kind’ (Swales, 1990: 7) or scholars such as scientists, linguists, and the like who decide on ways of communicating, thus creating and/ or sharing knowledge through a ‘normative use of language’ (Afful & Nartey, 2014: 94). They generally use oral and written forms of communication such as oral presentations, conferences, essays, etc. to communicate (Bisanz, 2014; Swales, 1990) and ‘share a common set of norms for interacting with one another, common goals, and a language that marks the community as separate from other groups’

(Bisanz, 2014:21, Swales, 1990) and is used to achieve the common goals (Borg, 2003). In other words, the normative use of language or shared common sets of norms of language use confers them with peculiar features that set them apart from other communities and makes them a specific group (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). Discourse communities are marked by the specific genres they employ and these genres are composed of both speech accounts and written text types (Swales, 1990: 9). Thus, there is common observation that outsiders to these communities may be able to understand each and every single word they use, but fail to follow what they write or talk about (their discourse) because of a lack of understanding of their discourses or genres (Bhatia, 2014). As a result, one is said to be a member of a discourse community when they are aware of their ways of communicating, that is, when they share the same genres (Swales, 2014), 'social and cultural norms, values, beliefs, attitudes, motivations, interests, behaviours, practices, and habits' (Scarcella, 2003: 29). If not, one needs to be integrated into this community by learning its specialised discourses or genres (Bisanz, 2014) which have particular conventions, and specialized lexis or vocabulary that students can be exposed to (Staples, Kang, & Wittner, 2014) and the social practices surrounding them (Scarcella, 2003). Therefore, there is a correlation between discourse communities and genres; genres are situated in discourse communities (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001).

In the academic context, universities normally receive students from different backgrounds some of whom do not even possess basic interpersonal communication skills in the language of instruction and one classroom can encompass students displaying different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Academic communities are aware of the diversity of previous learning experiences new students possess, but they recommend teachers not to rely on these new students' schemata and skills because of the assumption that they are inappropriate for meeting academic course demands (Hyland, 2006). Students' 'identities, understandings, and habits of meaning-making to their learning' (Hyland, 2006: 16) are seen as a hindrance to the acquisition of the academic discourses or genres. They become learning gaps or deficiencies to be addressed by using all possible means to accommodate students to the dominant academic conventions, thus depriving them of their identities and establishing a divide between them and their original discourse communities. This is a key issue in this study. It deals with both the main objective of the study which is the exploration of the current English courses as they are taught at the College of

Business and Economics in Rwanda, particularly how they meet students' needs. It concerns the first specific objective as well. The concern of this objective is to see how the teaching and learning materials used suit students' needs. Hence, it tasks itself with the academic discourses and genres that students are exposed to and subsequently asked to appropriate/imitate.

2.5.1 Academic discourses and genres

Discourse generally means 'any extended piece of language beyond the sentence level and to typically verbal and written interactions with academic disciplines (DiCerbo *et al.*, 2014). In this context, it refers to the teaching of cohesive markers in reading and writing, turn-taking devices in speaking and discourse and transition devices in listening (Riggenbach, 1991).

Discourse also refers to a 'social language created by particular cultural conditions at a particular time and place, and it expresses a particular way of understanding human experience' (Tyson, 1999: 281).

Discourses refer to 'ways [genres] of behaving, interacting, valuing, thinking, believing, speaking, and often reading and writing, that are accepted as instantiations of particular identities (or 'types of people' by specific groups)' (Gee, 2008: 3; 2015: 4), are influenced by 'concomitant forms of sociolinguistic conventions, ideological complexes, and knowledge paradigms' (Canagarajah, 2002: 6). Gee (2008: 3) also sees discourses as 'ways of being in the world', 'forms of life', 'socially situated identities' outside of which language becomes meaningless because the ways in which people construct them (discoursal and rhetorical features) might reflect individuals' cultural experiences. By the same token, Thompson (2011) posits that according to post-modern intellectuals' view of discourse, discourses cannot be separated from epistemology (theory of knowledge), power and ideology. They are therefore ways of thinking closely 'embedded in networks of powers', reflected in language and capable of creating 'meaning systems' that can greatly influence the organisation of people's social environment and value some discourses to the disadvantage of others (Thompson, 2011: 41). According to Fairclough *et al.* (2011: 357- 358), the relationship between discourse and the social context is a two-way process in that 'discourse is socially constitutive as well as socially shaped'. In other words, discourse and situations/institutions/social structures mutually shape each other. Like Thompson, Fairclough *et al.* (2011: 358) point out that discourse may contribute

to the production and reproduction of social inequalities depending on how it perceives things and ‘positions people’.

Seen as an institutionalised way of talking, thinking and acting, discourse controls the lives and behaviours of people and exerts power over them (Lee & Brett, 2014). In education, academic discourse refers to ‘the ways of thinking and using language which exist in the academy’ (Hyland, 2009: 1) students have to conform to. The academic discourse includes academic norms, standards, procedures and linguistic forms that are perceived as ‘the academic community’s communicative currency’ (Van Dyk *et al.*, 2013: 354).

In academic writing, discourses are genres/texts and knowledge produced following academic conventions and regulations (Gee, 2008), thus reflecting the academic community or its cultural experiences (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). This view of discourse associates it with the specificity of conventions governing a given group of people or a given institution or community. Hyland (2011) also looks at academic discourse as the ways in which members of the academy think and use language. He further argues that academic discourse facilitates both the teaching and learning process and research and considers it as ‘the way that individuals collaborate and compete with others for knowledge construction, beginners’ training, revealing learning, and defining academic commitment (Hyland, 2011: 171).

Unlike Gee (2008) who uses the terms discourse, genre and text interchangeably, Hyland (2011) discriminates between the first two terms. The term discourse is broad in nature and discourse analysis encompasses various methodologies for studying language in use and looking at the relationship between texts and their contexts of use, but in academia, discourse analysis seems to focus on concrete texts, particularly on academic genres. Although academic discourse (English in the current study) seemingly varies across disciplines and genres, the EAP practitioners perceive it as a unique and identical entity with ‘a common core across disciplines and often genres’ (Bhatia, 2014: 29). In the next section, I attempt to define the concept of genre.

The term *genre* was first used by the Greek Philosopher Aristotle to mean ‘kind’ or ‘form’ and to refer to ‘major types of literature such as poetry, drama, and the epic’, but has expanded to refer

to ‘more popular cultural forms: soap opera, film noir, western, thriller’, to cite but a few, in the field of cultural opera and media studies (Flowerdew, 2011: 516). The term *genre* appeared in the field of English language teaching in three broad, but overlapping schools of genre theory (Hyland, 2003): the areas of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), English for academic Purposes (EAP), and New Rhetoric (NR) in the 1980s (Paltridge, 2007). These three schools have different perspectives on genre and genre analysis and provide different insights on the understanding and use of these concepts in the educational system, particularly in academic writing. Their different insights are provided in the lines below.

2.5.1.1 The ESP perspective on genre

The ESP/EAP approach to genre follows the Swales’ (1990) ‘tradition on genre’ (Flowerdew, 2005: 322; Hornberger, 2008; Partridge, 2007, 2014) and genre-pedagogy is concerned with non-native speakers in academic and professional settings, where genre is seen as a ‘tool for analysing and teaching the spoken and written language required of’ these non-native speakers (Hyon, 1996: 694). Hyon goes on to say that scholars in the ESP tradition consider ‘genres as oral and written text types defined by their formal properties as well as by their communicative purposes within social contexts’ (p.695).

For Swales, a genre is ‘a class of communicative events, the members of which share some sets of communicative purposes’ (Swales, 1990: 58; Flowerdew, 2005). Swales offers the possibility of classifying spoken and written genres into categories taking into account both their social function and form, but he is mostly interested in written academic texts such as research articles and academic essays (Hornberger, 2008), summaries, plans/proposals, and book reviews (Paltridge, 2004).

Genre lessons involve showing students how grammar and lexis are combined to make meaning, and how language works. They focus on how texts are grammatically patterned rather than teaching grammar as a discrete unit or outside its context, but one text does not suffice to show students how structures work. Only a collection of genres provides them with a clear understanding of what is ‘central and what is peripheral in terms of structure, register, and lexis’ (Tribble, 2010: 169). In other words, the collection of genres in a specific domain with similar

patterns provides student with knowledge of genre structure or rhetorical conventions governing genres and this awareness makes them capable of functioning in English in academic communities (Mustafa, 1995). Thus, in the tradition of ESP/EAP, a genre refers to ‘a collection of rhetorical choices operating as a schema (scheme) for social action’ (Basturkmen, 2014: 378).

Because of their focus on model texts and audience expectations, ESP/EAP approaches have been reproached for imposing limitations on students (Partridge, 2001) and of focusing more on their target needs and on the preparation of teaching materials thus neglecting how the course will be implemented (Cheng, 2006). They are also critiqued for dealing with the formal rhetorical features of genres such as ‘sentence-level grammatical features’ at the expense of special functions texts and the contexts that produced them play (Hyon, 1996: 695). However, it is argued that ESP/EAP currently focuses on the grammatical and rhetorical organisation of genres, that is, their internal features, and on academic registers which provide the external features that contributed to their realisation (Bhatia & Bremner, 2014). Another trend is the North American New Rhetoric orientation to genre.

2.5.1.2 The New Rhetoric perspective on genre

Genre in the New Rhetoric studies (NRS) was born in North America and was influenced by composition studies whose main focus was on the development of the writing skills in L1 contexts (Hornberger, 2008) at the university level. The New Rhetoric School also focuses on professional writing in English. The most influential figure in this school is Miller (1984), who sees genre as a social action (Hornberger, 2008; Miller, 1984; Paltridge, 2007, 2014). Miller (1984) argues that the concept of *genre* should be understood in terms of ‘the action it is used to accomplish’ rather than on ‘the substance or the form of the discourse’ (p. 151), since a genre which represents action involves the situation in which it is produced and the motive for which it is produced. Particular attention is paid to the relationship existing between texts and contexts in which they are produced as well as the actions they perform, that is on ‘situational contexts in which genres occur’ (Hyon, 1996: 696). Genre is analysed in terms of the contexts which gave rise to it and shaped it; it involves various components such as ‘the exigencies which bring about the need for some form of discourse, the ways in which we actually compose it, whether we

collaborate in order to do so, when we read it, why, how, and where' (Adam & Artemeva, 2002: 180).

Miller (1984) acknowledges the existence of spoken and written genres, and prestigious and non-prestigious genres and the role they play in facilitating social action, yet she avoids putting them in fixed typologies. Her view is that genres cannot be classified according to recurring rhetorical features since they 'change, evolve, and decay' (p 163). Freedman and Medway (1994) and Flowerdew (2005) also consider genres to be dynamic and ongoing rather than static social texts whose production and reception depend on other related texts and utterances and the social and cultural context surrounding them.

From the perspective of the New Rhetoric, genres are unstable and cannot be classified. Thus, rather than studying the formal features of texts isolated from their contexts, New Rhetoric studies take into consideration the fact that the characteristics of genre change through time (Paltridge, 2004) along with social and historical changes (Artemeva & Freedman, 2001) and that the regular textual features of genre are constructed by the society (Miller, 1984) and carry an ideological stance besides these rhetorical conventions (Bawarshi, 2000).

The implications of rhetorical genres on education are that students learn to perform such speech acts as eulogizing, apologising, recommending a person to another and giving instructions, and to understand the situations in which they are performing such genres. In writing, for, example, essays can require students to write 'exposition and argument text-types, and cause and effect, problem-solving, classification/enumeration, compare/contrast and analysis text-types' (Paltridge, 2004: 87). Briefly, genres help students to develop their communicative competence ('how to participate in the actions of a community') (Miller, 1984: 165) by providing them with the contexts surrounding academic genres and the role of genres in these contexts (Hyon, 1996). Students are thus initiated into the academic discourse community. Yet, much focus is on the purposes and actions fulfilled by genres in different situations and there is little emphasis on their grammatical and rhetorical organisation (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Hyon, 1996; Swales, 1990). The third orientation to genre is drawn from the Sydney School.

2.5.1.3 The Sydney school perspective on genre

The Sydney school, also known as Systemic Functional Grammar or the Australian School (Hornberger, 2008), was born in Australia as a reaction to learner-centred classrooms and the process approach to teaching that is believed to advantage quick-witted and monolingual middle-class learners only (Johns, 2001) and not to prepare learners to write varied text-types. Drawing on Halliday's (1978) theory of systemic functional linguistics and in collaboration, theorists, researchers and teachers created a genre-based approach to teaching to serve the needs of public primary and secondary school learners, and those of adult migrants (Hyon, 1996; Johns, 2001). They wanted to help these marginalized groups access understand and construct genres such as cover letters and scientific reports seen as codes of power (Collin, 2012). In this context, genres are perceived as 'staged, goal-oriented social processes, structural forms that cultures use in certain contexts to achieve various purposes' (Hyon, 1996: 700).

According to Lyon (1996), systemic functional linguistics is concerned with the relationship between language and its functions in social settings. It offers teachers with grammar that focuses on meaning. Grammar is seen differently from traditional grammar. Functional grammar focuses on language as a means of meaning-making rather than seeing it as a set of rules to be studied 'in isolation from the texts they create and the meaning they make' (Schleppegrell, 2004: 148). It recognizes the existing relationship between speakers' and writers' linguistic choices and the contexts these grammatical choices help to realize.

The choices made in the linguistic system then depend on a number of factors and 'a text is understood as functioning in a context- where context operates at two levels: the level of register and the level of mode'... (Johns, 2001:5). The level of register consists of the *field* (social activity or activity going on) and *tenor* (interpersonal relationship among the people using the language/participants) whereas *mode* is the role of language as a channel of communication (Collin, 2012; Hyon, 1996; Johns, 2001). Thus, the field, tenor and mode determine the register a construct which Halliday used to analyse language. At the level of *genre*, social purpose in using language also depends on linguistic choices since whenever language is used, the selection of genre and particular choices are made with respect to field, tenor, and mode, all realised in language choices (Johns, 2001: 5). Genre assigned to the mode in a social context, along with

tenor and mode, helps predict register (Collin, 2012: 79). In academic writing, for example, the field, mode and tenor can respectively stand for a topic being exploited, the medium of communication and the style of discourse (Spolsky & Hult, 2010). The focus is on the teaching of the 'lexico-grammatical and rhetorical realizations of the communicative purposes embodied in a genre' (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). Functional grammar is used as a methodology, but there is also much focus on the social context which helps interpret the linguistic and discourse choices applied.

As mentioned earlier, the three areas of genre analysis overlap in a way, but they also present some differences. The three schools promote the use of language as a social practice and recognise the role of linguistic features in shaping genre. While ESP/EAP and SFL apply theories of functional grammar and discourse and identify the most frequent lexico-grammatical and rhetorical features embedded in particular registers to make them the focus of language instruction, the NR concentrates less on lexico-grammar and rhetorical structure (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). NR is more focused on situational context, that is, the purposes and functions of genres, and attitudes, beliefs, values, and behaviours of the members of the discourse communities in which genres are produced (Flowerdew, 2001). Hyon (1996:701) posits that the ESP/EAP and the Australian school teach students 'formal, staged qualities of genre' so as to enable students to recognize them while reading texts and thereafter use them to construct their own texts. They focus on the situational context to explain the linguistic and discourse features (Flowerdew, 2005). On the other hand, the NR relies on ethnographic methods, in that it looks to a text to explain the situational context in which it was produced and this context embodies 'the purposes and functions of genres, and the attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours of the discourse communities within which genres are situated' (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001: 91).

Whatever be the differences, genre theory which is at the heart of ESP/EAP, the NR and the SFL aims at immersing students in the academic communities. The role of EAP in immersing students lies in its definition as expressed by Hyland and Hamp-Lyons (2002). Hyland and Hamp-Lyons (2002:2) perceive EAP as 'language research and instruction that focuses on specific communicative needs and practices of particular groups in academic contexts'. The EAP accommodationist role is also couched in an understanding of the learning of any discipline

which ‘implies learning to use language in a way approved by that discipline...: its methods of persuasion, its ways of negotiating interpretations and its practices of constructing knowledge’ (Hyland, 2007: 105-106). These practices are normally highly structured compared to students’ level. Rather than equipping students with both academic genres and communicative skills that they need to participate in activities requiring the use of English as a Lingua Franca, EAP focuses on academic linguistic and rhetorical conventions only. It privileges dominant groups with their hegemonic practices (Garcia, 2011) and ends up frustrating the rest of the students by labelling them as unprepared, incomplete and inferior students thus reducing their possibilities of learning and depriving them of the right to use their own languages through which they might better comprehend the material designed for and taught to them, interpret it and build new knowledge. This habitus of teaching academic genres might then impact on teaching and learning through a foreign language in case there is no improvement of the educational system with regard to EAP neo-imperialistic curriculum.

2.6 EAP Curriculum

The EAP curriculum is a subgroup of English for specific purposes, which is meant for special purposes (Benesch, 1996). EAP is a subject-specific curriculum guided by the needs of the students (Benesch, 1996) and ‘directed towards the demands of specific disciplines’ (Yürekli, 2012: 50), that is, a programme focusing instruction on skills needed to ‘perform in an English-speaking academic context across core subjects generally encountered in a university setting (Paltridge, 2014: 303). EAP is a very complex and multifaceted notion area within the wider field of ELT that relies on students’ needs as a basis for syllabus design and all issues related to its implementation (Wu & Hung, 2011), some of which I will explain below/progressively.

2.6.1 Background to EAP curriculum

The term curriculum originates from ‘currus’, a Latin word meaning to run a race because of the belief that learners start a race as they engage in studies (Offorma, 2009). It was viewed as a track with the runway as a starting point and the goal as an end (idem). A curriculum is defined as an attempt to specify what should happen in the classroom, to describe what actually does happen, and to attempt to reconcile the differences between what ‘should be’ and what actually ‘is’ (Nunan, 1988: 10). The traditional language curriculum was teacher-centred and treated the

learner as an empty vessel. The teacher was authoritative and the only one to possess knowledge to be imparted to the learner (Kern, 2000) and grammatical points were not contextualized (Schleppegrell, 2004). As Azabdaftari (2013:109) states, teachers generally assigned learners ‘texts to read, topics to write on, grammar exercises to do, translate disconnected sentences from L2 to L1 and vice versa and tests to write at the end of the course’. These activities were done under the guidance of the teacher. The curriculum was technocratic and teaching materials were predetermined.

The most influential technocratic or prescriptive model to evolve was Tyler’s model in 1949 according to which curriculum design should take account of (a) goals the school seeks to attain, (b) the educational experiences to be provided in order to fulfil these purposes, (c) the effective organization of these experiences and (d) how to determine whether the assigned purposes are being attained (Arkorful, 2013; Pasha & Pasha, 2012; Shah, Muhamad, & Ismail, 2013). These four elements had to appear in such a sequential order that critics found it linear (idem) and an end rather than a means curriculum (Prideaux, 2003: 268; Pasha & Pasha, 2012). However, the fact of making the purposes of the curriculum clear was seen as a strength (Prideaux, 2003). It was designed as an attempt to meet students’ needs.

Wheeler (1967) improved Tyler’s model by suggesting on-going evaluation of the curriculum followed by feedback and giving room to modifications in the aims, that is, a cyclical curriculum (Arkorful, 2013). Evaluation and feedback as an on-going process is of paramount importance as far as students’ needs are concerned. They raise the awareness of points to be reinforced and gaps to be filled in. In other words, they help the teacher reflect on the relevance of the teaching materials he/she uses and on his/her teaching strategies while students reflect on their own learning.

The issues of teachers’ and students’ reflection on the curriculum can best be understood through Freire’s (2000) conception of education in opposition to the traditional banking concept of education.

In a model of education which considers students as empty vessels, the teacher is a knower who narrates knowledge to students. As Freire (1970) says,

education thus becomes an act of depositing, in which the students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor. Instead of communicating, the teacher issues communiqués and makes deposits which the students patiently receive, memorize, and repeat.... In the banking model of education, knowledge is a gift bestowed by those who consider themselves knowledgeable upon those whom they consider to know nothing.... The more students work at storing the deposits entrusted to them, the less they develop the critical consciousness which would result from their intervention in the world as transformers of that world (Freire, 1970: 59-60).

The banking concept of education which is mentioned in the above citation is mirrored through the following features which I reproduce from Cree (2011: 115):

- a. the teacher teaches and the students are taught;
- b. the teacher knows everything and the students know nothing;
- c. the teacher thinks and the students are thought about;
- d. the teacher talks and the students listen meekly;
- e. the teacher disciplines and the students are disciplined;
- f. the teacher chooses and reinforces his choice, and the students comply;
- g. the teacher acts and the students have the illusion of acting through the action of the teacher;
- h. the teacher chooses the programme content, and the students (who are not consulted) adapt to it;
- i. the teacher confuses the authority of knowledge with his own professional authority, which he sets in opposition to the freedom of students;
- j. the teacher is the subject of the learning process, while the pupils (students in the present study) are mere objects.

As stated earlier, in a banking concept of education, students play a receptive role as they are not given opportunities to think critically in order to contribute to the transformation of their world (school). They are seen as ‘adaptable and manageable beings’ (Cree, 2011: 115) as is the case of neo-imperialistic EAP that seeks to accommodate students to the highly-structured discourses of the academic community and to change their consciousness rather than the curriculum that challenges them.

As a reaction to the banking concept of education, Freire (1974: 148) advocates for a problematizing or problem-posing model of curriculum which enables students to have a ‘prise

of conscience beyond the apprehension of the present fact'. In this kind of model aiming at conscientising students,

the educator has the right, as a person, to have options. What s/he does not have is the right to impose them. To do this is to prescribe these options for others. To prescribe is to manipulate. To manipulate is to reify and to reify is to establish a relationship of domestication which may be disguised behind an apparently inoffensive façade. In this case, it is impossible to talk about conscientization. The false educator can only domesticate because instead of undertaking the critical task of demythifying reality, s/he mythifies it further (Freire, 1974: 149).

Freire's consideration of the educational system is a reaction to any attempt to perceive school curricula, including EAP prescriptive curriculum as neutral. A curriculum which does not allow students to think critically and just seeks to accommodate them to the academic discourses imprisons their minds and deprives them of their freedom to think and make choices. Contrary to the mission of EAP which is to help students acquire the academic discourses, Freire considers education as a practice of freedom in the sense that students should be regarded as knowledgeable subjects whose views are needed in the course of their studies, and one's views cannot be heard when the views remain silent in the classroom.

Like Vygotsky (1978), Freire (1974) and Freire and Macedo (1987) see the importance of language as a tool for making the meanings that we communicate to others. Freire (1974: xiii) asserts that 'the mark of a successful educator is not skill in persuasion - which is an insidious form of propaganda - but the ability to dialogue with educatees in a mode of reciprocity whereby there is communication and intercommunication between the educator and the educatee. It is this two-way or dialogic process of teaching and learning (Freire & Macedo, 1987) which may lead to transformation to suit the students' needs and make them contribute to the improvement of their own school programme. As human beings, students have to actively participate in their world. In other words, they have to be integrated with their learning context: to adapt themselves to this context, make choices and transform it. If not so, they will still be treated as objects or 'blank pages' (Freire, 1974: 97) without a say rather than subjects who can contribute to their own learning.

Through dialogue, the students learn from the teacher as well as the teacher learns from students. Educators become teacher-learners whose 'thinking is authenticated by the authenticity of students' thinking' (Cree, 2011: 117). The primary role of the teacher is not to inculcate knowledge to students, but rather help them understand and change the world around them. Prior

to classroom activities such as reading and writing words, students have to understand how to read and write the world. In other words, students should learn how to change and touch the world first and then learn how to read and write words (Freire & Macedo, 1987). 'Class is not a class in the traditional way, but a meeting-place where knowledge is sought and not where knowledge is transmitted' (Freire, 1974: 150).

In a dialogic process of teaching and learning, the teacher helps students to comprehend the essence and usefulness of the materials they are exposed to. S/he helps them to view literacy as a relationship between the students and the world around them and in which they travel so that they can contribute to its transformation. S/he should help them learn how to read between the lines and comprehend the significance of texts they are exposed to, that is, to reflect on 'language and its relationships to the world and to themselves' (Kern, 2000: 17). S/he shares the words and the world in the texts with the students rather than making these words and worlds her/his own property. The activities such as reading and writing which students achieve in the classroom should 'involve figuring out the relationships between words, larger units of meaning, and between texts and the real world or imaginary worlds' (Kern, 2000: 17). Therefore, when students are exposed to texts with highly-constructed rhetorical conventions and elaborated vocabulary in a foreign language they do not master, they are likely not to understand the context (academic world) in which the texts were and are still constructed and can only adjust to its cultural politics. In this case, their needs are not met because EAP practitioners want them to think the way they themselves do. Because the relationship between teachers and students might still be traditional and because highly-constructed academic language seems to be a gatekeeper to good jobs, students surrender to whatever instruction is given to them and adhere to the academic status quo even when they face language-related problems that would be otherwise removed by allowing them to use communicative strategies they already possess. Students are reluctant at reacting and liken their thinking to that of those who wish to alienate them thus escaping their own world (Freire, 1970). However, without an understanding of the world, students will constantly be regarded as listening objects or empty vessels in which knowledge has to be poured or deposited by teachers the way bank deposits are made. Students, particularly those facing communication barriers in English, will always be considered to be absolutely ignorant.

Seen as a cultural action for freedom (Freire, 1970), education should then be problem-solving rather than a standardized process and this through dialogue (Cree, 2011). Cree (2011: 118) also emphasises the importance of dialogue which changes the relationship between the teacher and students. Therefore, Cree provides insights on what the problem-solving concept of education should be. In her view, through dialogue,

the teacher-of-students and the students-of- the teacher cease to exist and a new term emerges: teacher-student with students-students. The teacher is no longer merely the one who teaches, but one who is himself taught in dialogue with the students-who themselves while being taught also teach. They become jointly responsible for a process in which all grow (Cree, 2011:118).

According to Cree, problem-solving education perceives men (teachers and students in this context) as ‘beings in the process of becoming, as unfinished, uncompleted beings in and with a likewise unfinished reality’ (Cree, 2011:118). This view of education has had an impact on educational researchers who sought for means to meet students’ needs.

With the aim of meeting students’ needs, there has been a gradual shift from a technocratic to a more participatory curriculum model which puts students at the centre of the learning and teaching process and addresses their needs. Students contribute to the design of the teaching materials which depend on issues they experience (Auerbach, 1992; Nunan, 2013; Richards & Schmidt, 2013), that is, which are responsive to their needs (Eslami, 2010). This implies that there will be as many curricula as there are different learning contexts. However, this kind of curriculum requires the teachers’ knowledge and understanding of the national learning outcomes. It also requires teachers’ close collaboration in order to avoid disparities and to respond to national aspirations. Another point is that there might be a gap between what the model suggests and what really happens. Students may not be given the right to contribute to the development of their learning materials because of some teachers’ traditional conception of their students’ role.

Even though participatory curriculum models are learner-centred, Kern (2000: 4) asserts that they did not initially develop students’ critical thinking despite the role of the teacher as a ‘guide rather than a sage on the stage’ Today, language curriculum takes into consideration students’ needs and helps them to reflect on their learning, develop their critical thinking, and become independent and lifelong students (Belcher, 2009).

For example, genre instruction considers the fact that not all students are familiar with texts they are exposed to and urges teachers to show them how language is used in specific contexts rather than providing them with freedom to write (Hyland, 2007: 150). Tasks assigned to students aim at exposing them to rhetorical conventions embedded in similar genres/texts to make them aware of how meaning is construed. Students are taught how to deconstruct and construct texts (Bruce, 2011: 70; Hyland 2007: 150), how to effectively interact with peers or work independently, how to use new technologies, etc. (Bruce, 2011: 112-113).

However, it has been asserted that 'no learning strategy is effective for all students' (Killen, 2007; Griffin, 2014: 98) and appropriate to all situations (O'Sullivan, 2004: 585; Aburizaizah, 2013) and that each teaching method has advantages and side effects (Aburizaizah, 2013). Aburizaizah goes on to say that the problem is with the way a methodology and the ideas it generates are 'amended and adopted to fit the needs of students who come in contact with them rather than with the methodology itself and those ideas. Then, even though earlier learner-centred methods failed to develop students' critical thinking, the learner-centred method is still useful as it focuses on students' interactions with others and with the teacher, meaning construction, and collaboration, and depending on how it has been developed and applied in the classroom.

2.6.2 Curriculum development

Curriculum development includes needs analysis for EAP, planning the EAP course, syllabus design, methodology, teaching the different skills, assessment, and programme evaluation (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001: 177; Hyland, 2006: 103). As the development of any curriculum should be informed by needs analysis and as the success of any curriculum depends on the way it is implemented, it is imperative to discuss learner needs and issues related to the implementation of the learning and teaching of EAP materials.

2.6.2.1 Needs analysis

Needs analysis refers to the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities (Jordan, 1997: 20). Needs analysis means ‘identifiable elements of students’ target situations (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991: 299; Benesch, 1996: 723). Needs analysis constitutes ‘an essential point of departure in language teaching’ (Hyland, 2006: 105) as it ‘provides the basis for setting goals and objectives’ (Nunan & Lamb, 1996: 29). It allows EAP course designers to make decisions on both the materials to teach and the teaching approaches pertaining to the students’ needs (Petrova, 2008). Thus, all EAP activities revolve around students’ needs and it is crucial that these needs be thoroughly investigated and identified before any activity is undertaken. Literacy cannot be acquired ‘in a vacuum’ (Hyland, 2002: 387; Hyland, 2004); therefore, knowledge of both students’ schemata and aspired goals is necessary. As Bruce (2011) observes, it is important to understand students’ present situation and target situation and the context in which the learning will take place so as to contextualize the programme. Students’ present situation includes communication skills they already possess in the target language, their strengths and weaknesses whereas the target situation refers to their ambitions (Hyland, 2006).

Bruce (2011: 7) regards knowledge of the level at which the course will be offered as another important factor that informs the needs of the students for EAP programmes which might occur before students engage in their chosen courses or concurrently offered with other academic subjects (Bruce, 2011: 7). Unless the English language proficiency of students taking ‘pre-sessional’ and ‘in-sessional’ (Bruce, 2011) EAP is different, classes will be less privileged because they focus on content subjects in case they are not allotted more hours of training.

The identification of need, that is, the ‘investigation of the academic world’ (Bruce, 2011) is of paramount importance in that it informs EAP practitioners about the teaching materials to develop (Bruce, 2011:15) and provides students with the materials they need rather than relying on the EAP practitioners’ intuition or on previous successful curriculum models (Harwood, 2010).

For the design of appropriate teaching materials, research has recommended that there be observation of how language is used in contexts and that the concerned design take account of students’ perceptions. It has also been recommended that needs analysis be conducted not only

by language experts, but that other stakeholders like teachers, education authorities and others be involved (Harwood, 2010: 6). The question is to know the feasibility of this kind of research even though the materials to be generated will be advantageous for both the teachers and their students. Research also questions whether teachers should receive findings unquestioningly and whether students are just to imitate them (Harwood, 2010: 6).

Another important issue is that needs analysis has an ideological stance. Needs are defined differently by different stakeholders and the final decision on what to be taught and how it should be taught involves issues of authority (Hyland, 2006: 79). However, teachers know better than anybody else what happens on the ground and their students might need to develop their language skills and acquire scientific knowledge in general. Benesch (2001) and Long & Doughty, (2011: 207) argues that EAP teachers should not sustain the interests of their peers working in different faculties by subordinating ‘their instruction unquestionably to the demands’ of content subjects. She suggests that needs analysis be supplemented with rights analysis (Benesch, 2001; Hyland, 2006) to enable students to know their rights (Kubota & Chiang, 2012: 483) and be democratically and actively involved in decision-making as members of their academic community (Hyland, 2006: 79). But, as Bruce (2011) observes, EAP pedagogy’s role is responding to students’ needs rather than teaching them how to resist the powers in place and one way of catering to students’ needs is giving them space for interaction using communicative strategies at their disposal (Canagarajah & Wurr, 2011; Cenoz & Gorter, 2014; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011), particularly their primary language in case their English language proficiency is low. The following section elaborates on the implementation of EAP curriculum and challenges to this implementation.

2.6.2.2 The implementation of EAP and challenges

EAP is taught all over the world and contexts in which it is offered vary considerably. Because of this diversity of teaching and learning environments of EAP, its implementation requires teachers to address students’ needs by selecting appropriate teaching and learning materials, using appropriate teaching methodologies, assessing both the course and the students, and providing students with the feedback (Hyland, 2006:103) whose contribution to the development of students’ language might be of paramount importance. With regard to students’ needs, university students need exposure to their disciplinary discourse(s) to help them cope with their

studies and prepare them for their future professions. Stated differently, EAP should be used across the curriculum.

(i) Language across the curriculum (LAC)

(a) Defining concepts

The term curriculum refers to the programme which an institution of learning designs and implements to provide ‘balanced’ education to its learners or students whereas language is the medium through which that programme is delivered in a dialogic way. That is, teachers and students actively communicate and discuss the knowledge brought to class ‘using language as a pedagogic and cultural tool’ (Fletcher, 2014: 45). Language serves as medium through which knowledge is imparted and assessed (DiCerbo et al, 2014). Thus, there is a close interdependence between language and curriculum.

Vollmer (2006) defines LAC as a ‘means to acquire new and appropriate discourse varieties within each subject or within a domain or across the curriculum as a whole’ (p. 38). Therefore, the concern of LAC also known as Content and Language Integrated learning (CLIL) or Content-based instruction (CBI) is the improvement of students’ language (Fillion, 1979) and the incorporation of content subjects or subject disciplines (Grenfell, 2002) such as Micro or Macroeconomics, Accounting, Finance, and so forth into the teaching and learning of a language. In other words, the content of language learning in a curriculum based on the concept ‘Language Across the Curriculum’ (Fillion, 1979) goes beyond the usual grammatical points, communicative language functions and the four language skills (Stoller, 2008) it normally develops to include curriculum content (Grenfell, 2002). Learning a language steps ‘into another world of values, senses, and points of view’ (Grenfell, 2002:1). LAC broadens teachers’ understanding of language, helps students to learn to use language and to use language to learn (Fillion, 1979) and provides students with knowledge of new discourses.

(b) The rationale for Language across the Curriculum

L2 teaching and learning programs were traditionally offered as subjects in isolation from other academic subjects (Lo & Lo, 2014). But it was later realised that language teaching and learning does not take place in a vacuum and that it has to take into consideration other values (Grenfell,

2002). The teaching of language across the curriculum provides students with exposure to content to facilitate the learning of language whose mastery, in turn, makes the comprehension of content subjects easier (Stoller, 2008) rather than teaching both language and content in isolation. Thus, there is recognition that subject matter learning is closely linked to the amount of exposure to the language of instruction students have and to their competence in that language as well (Byram, 2006). LAC is then considered as a holistic approach that can facilitate even the learning of students from disadvantaged groups who have otherwise been deprived of good education by language education policy (Fetcher, 2014). During content subject lectures, students get exposure to more L2 meaningful input and are likely to produce meaningful output when communicating with peers and teachers (Lo & Lo, 2014).

According to Vollmer (2006), scientific literacy is seen as something that underlies students' competence in the core subjects and this competence cannot be developed and attained without communication or else without language competence as an 'integral part of subject competence' (p. 27). The use of language across the curriculum enables all students to develop both their language proficiency and academic literacy from their entry to university until the completion of their studies (Briguglio & Watson, 2014). Through language, subject-specific knowledge is mediated and developed and this requires language classes to incorporate appropriate academic genres and vocabulary in texts students have to read (Vollmer, 2010). Not only is there interdependence between language and other academic subjects, but there is also interconnection between all the disciplines that makes Communication Across the Curriculum (CAC) possible. For example, Adams and Hamm (2014) posit that bridges should be built between subjects to show students understand ways in which knowledge is interconnected.

What Adams and Hamm (2014) claim can only be achieved through communication. Language helps bring together all the subjects and makes them alive. It also helps both teachers and learners remove cultural and linguistic barriers and develop intercultural and interlinguistic competences. In the same vein, Shyyan, Dunn, and Cammarata (2013) argue that 'classroom teaching of cognitive content' is regarded as one of the efficient methods to address both students' linguistic and cultural diversities (p. 272) as heterogeneous groups of students communicate, negotiate meaning and interact rather than focusing on linguistic forms alone (Byram & Hu, 2013).

LAC is seen as a counterbalanced approach to language learning that draws on both linguistic forms and on the disciplinary content to help students notice their own linguistic weaknesses and become aware of the appropriate use of language (Byram & Hu, 2013). Therefore, teachers have to be flexible and consider their students' cultures during content subject classes (Shynn, Dunn, & Cammarata, 2013) as the intercultural communicative competence of students enables them to grasp the different tasks they have to perform and to appropriately communicate with their interlocutors (Byram & Hu, 2013). In this case, every teacher has to be a teacher of language by controlling what students are doing with language to develop it and to learn other subjects (Fillion, 1979) and English language learners (ELLs) are no longer judged against their non-ELLs counterparts. Language is used for a purpose, but not for the sake of communicating.

LAC exposes students to different academic registers, develops their linguistic and cognitive academic proficiencies and prepares students for the job market in that it equips them with strategies to become autonomous and independent (Van Lier, 2013). It responds to their expectations by providing them with a rich and varied package of knowledge from various sources which relate to their everyday life and offer students opportunities to achieve a variety of purposes (Fillion, 1979).

Based on the issues raised so far, we can say that LAC brings together second language learning and cognitive content. This is to suggest that LAC lays the foundation for graduates' success at workplace and can help teachers at the College of Business and Economics who already offer all content subjects in English, but who still have difficulty in helping students to overcome linguistic barriers they encounter to improve their teaching methodology in order to make LAC a success. I propose to discuss this point further in section 3.7. However, whatever improvement they have to make, EAP curriculum should enable students to communicate and become 'academically literate' as well (Kagwesage, 2001: 27). In the next section, I explore the notion of academic literacy/literacies.

(c) Academic literacy/literacies

Academic literacy can narrowly be referred to as 'the ability to read and write effectively in an academic context for the sake of being promoted from one level to another (Leibowitz, 1995). Although surface features of language transferrable from one context to another are provided

(Kern, 2000), literacy goes beyond mere reading and writing. It refers to ‘literate talk’ that is, being able to ‘make the reasoning explicit, use precise language, question and critique others’ ideas, and rethink one’s own ideas’ (Gibbons, 2009: 7). This suggests students’ independence, critical thinking and commitment in academic literacy in ways required by their academic discourse.

Kern (2000) argues that literacy is dynamic rather than static and that its changes occur across and within discourse communities and cultures. In other words, rhetorical conventions underlying academic literacies vary from context to context and students need to be familiar with conventions related to their own specific area of study. They should be able to interact with the different writers whose texts they come across in order for them to raise their own voice in ways which are accepted in their own discourse communities. In the same range of ideas, Lea and Street (2006) refer to academic literacies as written social practices performed in different discourses communities. Students are acculturated/socialised into disciplinary discourses and genres.

One implication of exposure to new literacies is the acquisition of a new identity, one that is being seen as an on-going process achieved through exposure to a new language, and individuals’ aptitude to ‘recreate their linguistic systems so as to resemble those of the people they wish to resemble’ (Hornberger, 2008: 121). For example, a learner’s appreciation of a writer will lead him to the adoption of his/her writing style and this involves his/ her ways of interacting with his/her readers. However, the aim of the present investigation is not to compel students to lose their identities. To the contrary, it is meant to help them acquire an academic identity without losing their own identity, an issue which, I intend returning to in section 3.7. The question as to how EAP should render students academically literate may seem problematic, but there seems to be a close link between academic literacy and the four language skills or modalities which are listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Kagwesage, 2001) and through these skills students’ academic needs may be fulfilled . EAP can teach the four skills along with integrated skills such as grammar and vocabulary and study skills although even disciplines normally develop new literacies and language shift to meet literacy tasks and purposes (Scarcella, 2003). As grammar and vocabulary are always embedded in the genres students are taught, only details on the four macro language skills and some information about study skills are

provided below. However, culture is also considered as an important component that students should learn as a fifth macro skill.

(d) The four language skills

The four macro language skills or modalities (listening, speaking, reading and writing) are common to all kinds of language teaching, but what is peculiar to EAP is that it attempts to link them to content subjects in order to meet the needs of the students. Details on each skill are provided below.

Listening

Listening is seen as the basic skill involving hearing and understanding (Offorma, 2009). In higher education, the usual mode of knowledge transmission in big lecture rooms is the lecturers' monologue and students are exposed to a huge listening load (Miller, 2014). Students need to be equipped with adequate listening skills in order to comprehend the carefully planned academic speech/ material delivered to them and behave as active listeners who can negotiate meaning when necessary. If not, students may fail to capture and grasp what the teacher is explaining when they need to listen beyond the content of the material taught to them (Goh, 2010). To enable them to understand the content of academic lectures and be able to critique that knowledge, teachers should require them to read over the notes before attending a lecture, allow them to ask questions for clarification when points are not understood and make them aware of their roles as listeners in the lecture event (Miller, 2014). Without this kind of help, students may hear the teachers' lectures without understanding and fail to develop their listening skills (Offorma, 2009) and this might impact on students' acquisition of the speaking skill whose role is also crucial in their learning process as detailed below.

Speaking

While the previous section dealt with listening, this section develops the notion of speaking. Speaking refers to uttering words or expressing oneself orally, and is likely to occur after students have successfully acquired listening skills (Offorma, 2009). However, most lectures are teacher-oriented, particularly when they are conducted in big lecture rooms. Even in courses such as ESL which aim to teach the four language skills mentioned earlier in this section,

‘speaking tends to receive the least formal attention in the classroom’ (Bruce, 2011: 177) when there is common agreement in this field that it is a vital skill (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). Where speaking activities are conducted, they range from verbal communication means such as question/answer activities and oral presentations to non-verbal communication (Bruce, 2011). They help students to negotiate meaning and draw on each other’s knowledge in order to build new knowledge. Such speaking activities as oral presentations help students acquire reading and writing skills as they have to read and make notes prior to their presentations. Oral presentations, small group discussions, and seminars also introduce students to genres such as paraphrasing and summarizing and to develop their communicative competence (knowing what to say, when and how to say it, and who to say it to) (Jordan, 1997). With the globalisation of the world today, there is a need to help students engage in interactions in order to remove their difficulties in pronunciation, spelling and intonation and enable them to become fluent in both speech and reading (Offorma, 2009). Reading is another important skill in the academic community as will be seen below.

Reading

Reading is an important skill in academic life as most of the materials students write is closely linked to what they read. For example, prior to a new lecture, writing assignments and take home exams, students have to read materials relevant to the researched topics and to understand them. Thus, reading is an interactive activity involving meaning-making from the materials students use in their different fields of study and academic disciplines as each of them presents its own ‘terminology (specialized vocabulary) and presentation styles’ (Spolsky & Hult, 2010: 57).

The main purpose for reading in an academic context is for students to familiarize themselves with academic texts in order to promote their own writing skills as they attempt to integrate their personal ideas and information drawn from the reading to build new knowledge. Students interact with the writer before, during and after reading by integrating the information presented by the author with their background knowledge (Kirmizi, 2010), which requires them to be skilful readers.

Reading is then perceived as a linguistic ability encompassing different skills such as fluency skills which enable the reader to comprehend the text under study (Pretorius, 2002). In addition,

because reading is purposeful, the reading strategies that the readers apply vary considerably in accordance with what individuals want to achieve. In the academic context, students need exposure to reading procedures such as relating the text to their schemata, identifying main ideas and recognising signals and enhancing the knowledge of vocabulary and grammar (Savaş, 2009). These procedures also include note-taking, summarizing information, drawing conclusions and posing questions that might facilitate the reading process and enable students to read, analyse and construct reasonable knowledge from literacy texts in the L2 (Kirmizi, 2010). Such reading skills can only occur if students understand the meaning of specialized vocabulary embedded in their reading tasks. Thus, students need exposure to intensive reading which takes place under the guidance of a teacher (teacher's scaffold). The teacher helps students to analyse the material that is being read.

Besides familiarizing themselves with academic terminology, students need extensive reading in order to become independent and lifelong learners. Students who read a wide range of materials in the target language 'become better and confident readers', develop their listening and speaking skills, enrich their vocabularies, and 'develop positive attitudes toward and increased motivation to study the new language' (Nwabudike & Anaso, 2013: 36). Because extensive reading aims at getting students to read in the target language (English) for pleasure (Savaş, 2009), it focuses on content rather than language and motivates students to become responsible for their own reading. Students need to read a wide range of materials within a short period of time for getting the general picture or understanding the general meaning of what is being read (Carell & Carson, 1997).

Seemingly, both intensive and extensive approaches to reading are likely to play a crucial role in an EAP course since through well-selected texts on a given topic or academic subject, students' language skills may improve and knowledge may accrue from these texts as well. For example, Lynne (2004) posits that in Content-Based Instruction (CBI) or LAC the assumption is that real language learning is most likely to occur when learners become aware of the relevance of communicative purposes in real language learning. In such a curriculum, intensive reading and extensive reading are complementary. The former enables students to develop their language skills and acquire specialized vocabulary while the latter helps them acquire large amounts of

knowledge within a short period of time and makes them aware that reading skills are improved through reading (Pretorius, 2002). Furthermore, both kinds of reading across the curriculum enable students to give meaning to ‘the content of texts’ (Bruce, 2011: 143) and to improve the students’ reading pace when reading activities are time-controlled (Bruce, 2011: 149).

In the case of Rwanda, where students’ proficiency in English language is low and where the culture of reading seems unusual in schools, students first need exposure to intensive reading. Explanations may be provided in Kinyarwanda to raise their motivation, retain their identity in L1 (Sewell, 2009), and reduce reading difficulties and misunderstandings between them, the teacher and the writer while reading academic texts. It is only after acquiring reading strategies from intensive reading that they can engage in extensive reading. Once they are acquainted with both strategies, they will then see the relevance of reading because it is through reading that one becomes a good reader and develops various writing styles. As Goodman (2014) points out, ‘children make a strong beginning as readers and writers as they encounter print in the environment and learn to understand its functions’ (p. 190). Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) point to the fact that reading is the most needed skill and a prelude to writing in academic disciplines as it enables students to understand the genres they need to accomplish tasks related to their academic fields. Students read first, decode the meaning of written symbols, comprehend and extract relevant information before they set up writing.

Writing

Writing plays a significant role in students’ academic lives and workplace (Klimova, 2014). In academia, writing arguably as well as demonstrably remains the most important language skill as almost all academic activities (assignments, tests and exams) are written (Evans & Green, 2007). Its acquisition involves practice and knowledge of the listening, reading and speaking skills (Klimova, 2014). Research normally discriminates between product and process writing, but this study factors in the socio- constructivist approach as a third strategy to writing.

Product-oriented approach to writing

This approach focuses on the product of writing. It is concerned with introducing students to the writing style, lexical precision and breadth, grammar and rhetorical structure and urging them to imitate models they are presented with (Hinkel, 2013; Klimova, 2014). After discussing and analysing a model text, students are required either to imitate it or construct a parallel text (Klimova, 2014). Students produce insightful themes on topics related to their personal experience in a coherent manner without necessarily relying on research. In this kind of writing, both the writer and potential readers are removed from any specific setting and are represented as living outside of history and having no investment in particular issues as shown by Dias et al. (2014).

Process-oriented approach to writing

According to Penahi, Birjandi and Azabdaftari (2013), a process approach to writing consists in encouraging as many encounters as possible between teachers and students, encouraging teachers to shift away from the final product by providing students with opportunities to revise their drafts after they have received feedback. In process writing, the focus is invention, creativity and discovering the purpose of writing and the quality of writing depends on three stages which are prewriting, drafting and revising (Hinkel, 2013). High quality writing is expected, but less emphasis is on rhetorical structure, vocabulary and grammar. In other words, more emphasis is given to the development of language use (Klimova, 2014) rather than the product of writing.

Steele (2004:1) and Klimova (2014: 148) draw a parallelism between these two common approaches to writing that I reproduce in Table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1: Parallelism between product and process approaches to writing

Product approach	Process approach
Imitate a model text	Text as a resource for comparison
Organisation of ideas more important than ideas themselves	Ideas as starting point, necessitating more than one draft
One draft	Focus on purpose, theme, text type...
Features highlighted including controlled practice of those features	The reader (audience) is emphasized
Individual	Collaborative with other peers
Emphasis on end product	Emphasis on creativity

The table above summarises the features of both the product and the process approaches to writing. As mentioned earlier, the former evaluates quality in terms of a finished or completed text whereas the latter involves planning and revising (Deane *et al.*, 2008). The process mode of writing encourages collaboration with peers and provides room for the revision of the draft after the teacher' feedback or peers' insights. Furthermore, it helps students to become creative rather than imitating model texts, enables them to identify the problems they encounter at each writing stage, and equips them with strategies for overcoming these problems (Deane *et al.*, 2008).

Another implication of the process mode of writing for the learning is that it is purposeful and involves various activities that students practise with an audience in mind. Even though process writing presents more advantages than product writing, the two procedures should work together to help students acquire all the required writing skills. For instance, students with limited English language proficiency might not be able to set writing activities using the process approach to writing which is somehow challenging and may hinder classroom writing activities from running smoothly. Another mode of writing which might challenge students is the social-constructivist approach.

The social-cultural constructivist approach to writing

The social-constructivist approach was introduced by Dudley-Evans and St John in 1998 and pays attention to the context in which the writing is taking place and to writers' and readers' (in this context teachers and students) personality (Klimova, 2014). Given that the discourse community in which the art of writing is learnt has its norms, regulations and values, students are constrained to respect those norms and reflect them in the texts they produce (Klimova, idem). Writing is then seen as a social act requiring writers' caution on what to write and how to develop their ideas. In academic discourse, for example, students write to prove the understanding of ideas and information they draw from readings and lectures and the ability to analyse, interpret, communicate and relate this material to their fields of studies (Cummins, 2014). They do not write for the sake of writing, but rather for a purpose and in a systematic way (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2013). They rather compose coherent and content responsible written texts in conventional formats (Cumming, 2014).

Not all contexts across the world view writing the same way, but L2 writing is generally meant to facilitate students' understanding of subject content rather than their learning to write (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2013). It is generally considered as genre-based with recognition of the diversity of discourse communities, each of which has its own writing norms and conventions and produces its own texts accordingly (Wingate, 2012; Wingate, Andon, & Cogo, 2011). Wingate and Andon's view of writing is that the writing practice be embedded in the disciplines and that the discipline teachers (insiders of the discourse community) be responsible for it. Therefore, both language and content subject lecturers should offer students opportunities to interact with writers in different disciplines and acquire different writing styles as academic writing is given more consideration in higher education and is always purposeful.

Apart from these language skills, EAP provides students with study skills they need to cope with their studies and there is a need to provide a brief overview of study skills.

(e) Study skills

Study skills are perceived as 'abilities, techniques, and strategies which are used when reading, writing, or listening for study purposes' (Jordan, 1997: 6) and EAP equips students with these skills to help them reach good academic achievement. Some of these strategies are adjusting students' reading speeds to the kind of material they have to read, teaching students how to use a

dictionary and/ or guess words from the context, interpret graphs and symbols, and how to take notes or summarise texts. Others are group discussions, debates and oral presentations and each of them plays a key role in the teaching and learning process. For example, during group discussions, students negotiate meaning and become aware of their learning difficulties that they then can address, and their discussions become more interesting when they revolve around cultural issues.

(f) Culture

There is a close relationship between language and culture (Yang and Chen, 2014). Thus, culture should be seen as the fifth dimension or skill beside listening, reading, speaking, and writing (Holló, 2014). Traditionally, language teaching considers language as a set of abstract systems whose meaning resides in the forms themselves rather than in the uses for which they are put (Hall: 2013) and more focus is on the analysis of these linguistic forms. However, language should be seen as the mirror of a people's patterns of behaviours. Language carries and vehicles culture, that 'integrated pattern of thinking, evaluating and communicating that makes up a people's way of life with language as the most notable shared resource of thinking and acting' (Calhoun *et al.*, 1997: 10). In the view of Hall, culture should not be regarded as 'an invisible or incidental presence in language learning, but a strand with equal status to that of language' (Hall, 2013: 5). Thus, accommodating students to the academic discourses alone results in infusing them into another culture which is not necessarily similar to their own culture. EAP practitioners should remember that other cultures do not necessarily share their behaviours and ways of communicating (Munter, 1993; Martin & Pandya, 2003)) and that they have to incorporate their students' own cultural values in EAP classes rather than focusing on much on the highly constructed linguistic and rhetorical conventions of academic discourses which encompass native-like features only. These conventions are needed to allow students to communicate effectively. They should serve as a basis for the EAP curriculum and leave some space to the local, cultural and linguistic features which play a significant role in the students' lives. With globalisation, authentic materials should be drawn from the diverse varieties of English and from local languages to prepare graduates to communicate 'across cultures, and create linguistic awareness' (Yang & Chen, 2014: 58), otherwise globalisation will steal their 'culture and identity' (Nur, 2012: 10) and the ELT/EAP constructs will continue to hide the rich cultural and

linguistic diversity existing in the world (Bailey & Damerow, 2014). Integration of local cultures enables students to participate actively in the learning process (Khan, 2014). According to Khan (2014: 65), including local culture in EAP classes will allow the target students to ‘feel, touch, and smell the contents taught to them’ as they do not contradict with their own local culture. This teaching strategy differs from traditional ELT/EAP whose materials do not reflect the real world and contain ‘ephemeral subjects such as celebrities or teen topics’ of the target language which do not provide students with knowledge about the world (Phillips, 2012: 32).

In the context of Rwanda, where all Rwandans cherish oral traditions such as proverbs, songs, chants, and much of the Rwandan culture centres around dances, praise songs, and dynasty poems (Ndimurugero, 2004), EAP teachers can draw on these cultural traditions to renew or redesign their curriculum. Teaching and learning material should reflect Rwandan values (Manakul, 2007). Manakul’s (2007: 155) view is that ‘the internationalization of higher education is a hotbed of activity and a source of potential innovation leading to the development of new policies, programmes and practices’.

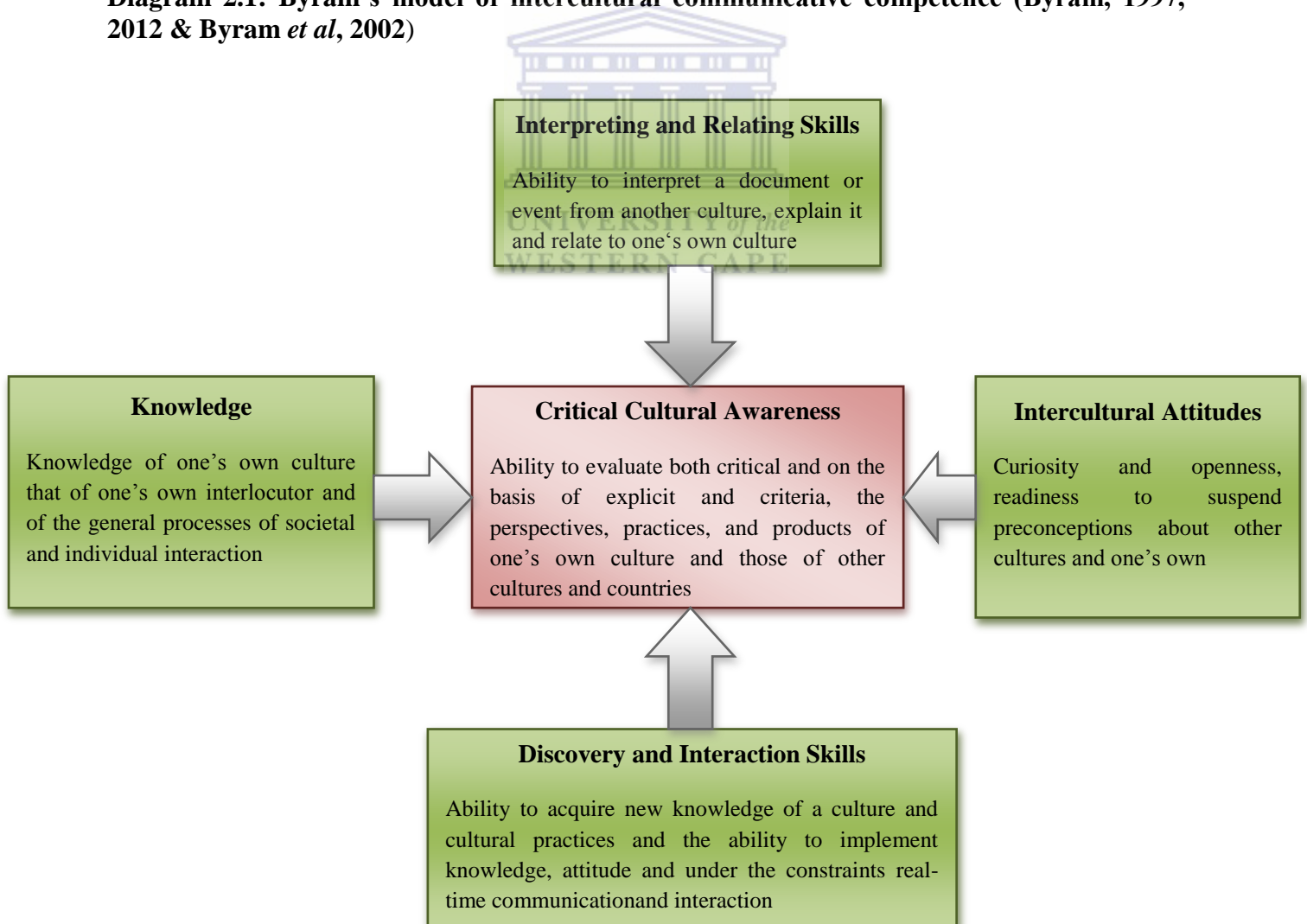
Materials related to students’ cultures can then be supplemented with good cultural aspects from the target language (Khan, 2014). Culture is part of the ‘five Cs’ of language learning (communication, culture, connection, comparison, and community) stated by American Council on the teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) of 1996 (Yang & Chen, 2014: 58).

Drawing on Yang and Chen, (2014), I argue that there is a need for students’ awareness of the cultural context of the target language as well as that of their mother tongue or local English for a better understanding of the relationship between language and culture (culture), and of foreign language and its cultures from diverse disciplinary perspectives (connection). In addition, students need to be able to compare the linguistic elements and cultural concepts embedded in both the target language and their own language (comparison) and to see the interdependence between the two languages. As for community, students should be able to interact in the target language in the classroom and beyond the classroom.

Dasli (2011) and Yang and Chen (2014) argue that intercultural communication has been at the heart of modern language education. Intercultural communication has known three moments/stages: cultural awareness or the equation between culture and country, cross-cultural

mediation which involve tolerance of the other, and critical intercultural language pedagogy which promotes the ‘sense of agency in wider political contexts’ (Dalsi, 2011: 21-22) and which Dasli emphasises the most. In relation to this, Byram (1997), Byram et al. (2001: 258; 2002: 10), and Yang and Chen (2014: 58) argue that the role of culture in a language class is (1) to give students an understanding of their own cultural identity, (2) develop their ability to see similarities and differences between cultures, (3) help students to acquire an interested and critical attitude towards cultural/social issues, (4) break down prejudices and develop students’ tolerance, and (5) make language teaching more motivating. Byram (1997), Byram et al. (2001: 258), and Yang and Chen (2014: 58) therefore suggest a model of intercultural communicative education that encompasses these features and provides students with both intercultural competence and linguistic competence. I reproduce this model in the diagram below.

Diagram 2.1: Byram’s model of intercultural communicative competence (Byram, 1997, 2012 & Byram *et al*, 2002)



The above diagram indicates that all activities carried out in the classroom aim at promoting students' critical cultural awareness (Yang & Chen, 2014), that is, making their values explicit and conscious 'in any evaluative response to others' (Byram *et al*, 2001: 7). The focus on critical awareness matches with Freire's (1974) view of problem-solving education which seeks to help students to read the world before reading the words and which is one of the theories framing the present study. Language teaching and learning should play a dual role: (1) raising the 'understanding of how language is used to construct our sociocultural worlds and using this understanding to improve our worlds' (Hall, 2012: 6). As mentioned earlier, language and learning and culture are intertwined since 'our cultural values are carried through language' and cultures make available certain taken for granted ways of organising our understanding, including those we use to learn and communicate' (Hyland, 2013: 56). To become successful in the Rwandan context where students' proficiency in English is low, Rwanda can help students understand the world which has created the words that they are learning by allowing them to use Kinyarwanda along with English in the classroom as suggested in section 2.7. Good usage of cultural facts including students' previous and current content subjects and of the different study skills as well as mastery of the four language macro skills can promote good classroom and time management and facilitate the implementation of the EAP curriculum which is unfortunately hampered by a number of factors.

(ii) Challenges to the implementation of the EAP curriculum

(a) The language of instruction as a barrier to the teaching and learning process

The language of instruction is of paramount importance in determining the quality of education (Quorro, 2006) and students' academic performance (Bohlman & Pretorius, 2002). Therefore, it has been argued that students learn better in a language they understand, notably their mother tongue (Mammino, 2013). In the absence of mother tongue instruction, both students and learners are assumed to have sufficient communication skills in the language of instruction. Otherwise, the learning and teaching process is hampered and can benefit only a few students from advantaged groups who could afford expensive private primary and secondary schools in English and use English in their home. With regard to this, Flowerdew (2013) and Sultana (2014) posit that English medium creates a divide between the haves and the have-nots. Flowerdew argues that students with facility in English, particularly the Anglophones, 'may take

on more gatekeeping functions, [and] assume a greater share in paradigm building' (p.3). Flowerdew's view can be sustained by studies that have revealed that, in countries such as Rwanda, Nigeria, Pakistan, Cameroon, and Bangladesh, English language skills have opened doors to people, contributed to their personal development and to the development of their employers (Pinon & Haydon, 2010). In Rwanda, individuals' level of English helps them to access better jobs than speakers of Kinyarwanda and French. Speakers of English normally do not take up manual jobs and are found in 'finance, administration, production, and distribution jobs' whereas people with mastery of Kinyarwanda only practice agricultural and manual activities (Assan & Walker, 2012: 183). Staff with a good command of English are more privileged than others in the remaining countries too as knowledge of English hastens their progress and companies' growth (Pinon & Haydon, 2010). Thus, 'a good degree and strong language skills lead to economic prosperity and individual wealth' (Pinon & Haydon, 2010).

The use of English as a medium thus perpetuates the divide created between the elites trained by colonisers during the colonial period and the masses without knowledge of English (Mishra & Pethak, 2014). English-medium still serves the interests of those in power and enables super powerful nations to take advantage of the global developments in science and economy. For example, as pointed out earlier, universities whose staff is proficient in English generate income from diverse sources such as publications, students' school fees, etc. As Rwanda considers the promotion of English to be a key to economic development, technological progress, and commerce, the language of instruction should contribute to students' personal progress and their participation in Rwanda's economic growth. If this does not happen, the learning through English will only 'produce an elite which is progressively alienated from the rest of the population' (Phillipson, 1996: 166), perpetuate the hegemony of students from well-off families, thus causing harm to the majority of Rwandan graduates and to the whole nation (Skutnabb-Kangas & Phillipson, 2001). This implies that a curriculum which serves a small group of students much to the detriment of the others is a failure.

(b) Teaching methodologies as an obstruction to the implementation of EAP

Language teaching methodologies may hamper the teaching and learning process, especially in contexts where English is used as a foreign language (Richards & Rogers, 2014). Richards &

Rodgers asserts that, in ELT contexts, the practicality of language learning has always been a concern. For example, Richards and Rogers raise the issue that modern languages such as English maintained traditional language teaching methods which were used in Latin classes. These methods focused first on the learning of grammatical rules and conjugations through rote learning or memorization (Gass, 2011; Gass & Mackey, 2012; Gass, 2013; Gass & Polio, 2014), translation, and the writing of simple sentences and then on more elaborate grammar and rhetoric. Grammar points were seen as autonomous or distinct units which could be taught in isolation (Chomsky, 1959). Classroom activities seem to have been taught in a linear manner and not to have actively involved students in the learning process, thus being ‘deadening’ (Richards & Rodgers, 2014: 4). Thus, the use of one teaching method that focuses on one aspect of the language is always detrimental to learning (Gass, 2013) whereas the use of different techniques may promote students’ interest in the lesson (Kharat, 2012).

Unfortunately, until recently, the use of the grammar-translation procedure in English lessons prevails in many EFL contexts (Bamwesiga, 2013) despite the global need for graduates who are proficient in the English language. This results in poor speaking, reading and writing abilities, and prevents students from accessing scientific resources needed for their academic achievement (Pretorius, 2002). Students are treated as empty vessels to which knowledge must be transferred; they are not given opportunities to construct their own knowledge (Cree, 2011; Freire, 2011; Freire & Macedo, 1987), become independent, critical, and lifelong learning students. Therefore, the lack of interaction between students and teachers, students and the different resources used in the classroom leads to poor academic language proficiency (Kirkgoz, 2009) which, in turn, results in poor academic performance and increased frustration (Kirkgoz, 2009; Sultana, 2014), low self-esteem (Sultana, 2014) and educational inequalities (Hu & Lei, 2013; Sultana, 2014). Because most teachers might have been taught in systems using traditional methods to teaching, they might themselves become a hindrance to the implementation of the EAP curriculum.

It is unfortunate, but true, that some academics teach students without having much formal knowledge of how students learn. Many lecturers know how they learnt/learn best, but do not necessarily consider how their students learn and if the way they teach is predicted on enabling learning to happen. Nor do they have the concepts to understand, explain and articulate the process they sense is happening in their students (Fry et al, 2009: 8).

(c) Teachers as a challenge to the implementation of EAP

LAC normally requires all teachers to be EAP teachers in order to help students familiarise with the registers used in their various disciplines (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). Both EAP teachers and subject teachers are supposed to work in collaboration in order to render language classes interesting and make EAP programmes successful. Unfortunately, both groups prefer to be autonomous and not to work as equals when most EAP teachers have been reported not to feel comfortable with specialized vocabulary related to the students' disciplines (Bruce, 2011; Wu, 2014) and when subject teachers might not have mastery of accurate pronunciation of the terminology used in their courses (Wu, 2014) and tend to avoid tackling issues on language (Fortanet-Gómez & Räisänen, 2008). Subject teachers prefer to maintain their traditional way of teaching rather than encouraging students to familiarise themselves with the terminology they need for their success. They also give little value to the development of students' speaking skills and devote most of their time 'explaining lessons and writing notes on the board' (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001: 185) thus maintaining the traditional relationship between students and teachers (Jiang, 2014). Such a strategy does not provide students with opportunities to be productive. Students remain passive in the classroom where they only develop the two receptive skills which are listening and reading, but even the reading they do is limited because they are likely to read the notes from teachers and memorize them for future assessment. Even after being assessed, students get feedback that cannot help them improve their communication skills. This seems to be the case in western European countries:

...ICL (Integrated Content Language) seems to be focused on writing, each teacher concentrating on his/her own domain (language correctness, or content accuracy). In science and technology, this usually still means that the students obtain feedback on the lexico-grammatical level, or the mathematical formulae level. The communication level, marriage of form and function, goal of the document (other than grade), disciplinary norms and proclivities, uses in the workplace, etc. are seldom dealt with... (Fortanet-Gómez & Räisänen, 2008: 43).

The main problem with both language and content subject teachers is that they seem to be slaves of their own previous learning experiences they fail to divorce with. Canbay and Berecen (2012: 71), Saba'Ayon (2012), and Mokiwa and Msila (2013) also assert that 'what teachers do in their classrooms is oriented by their conceptions of teaching which are derived from their beliefs including a teacher's prior experiences, school practices, and a teacher's individual personality'.

The kind of training they received influences their conceptions, their teaching approaches as well as their progress as teachers (Mokiwa & Msila, 2013).

Concerning language teachers, for example, Wu (2014) argues that they lack the qualification in EAP classes because the courses they themselves took were literature-oriented. The literature-oriented courses did not familiarise EAP teachers with ‘professional genre forms and discourse conventions, their purposes and conventions, as well as the value systems that underlie the discourse in various fields’ (Chang, 2014). To address these issues pertaining to teachers’ attitudes towards EAP, EAP should be taught through language and subject teachers’ collaboration, or, cooperation, or team teaching. Team-teaching, for example, promotes students’ motivation (Bruce, 2011; Wu, 2014) as each teacher gives the best of himself and all teachers complement each other through joint effort. Otherwise, the teaching and learning of EAP will take place without any purpose set in the teachers’ mind. As Kramsch (2014: 296) points out, ‘in the last decades, that [sic] world has changed to such an extent that language teachers are no longer sure of what they are supposed to teach nor what real world situations they are supposed to prepare their students for’.

(d) Lack of purpose in teaching EAP

Any language is ideally taught with goals ‘related to students and conditioned by the setting’ (McDonough *et al*, 2013: 6), but many academics are reported to fail to set learning outcomes which are meaningful to both academic staff and students (Fry, Ketteridge, & Marshall, 2008). Some discrepancies are normally identified between the students’ own expectations and the purposes set for the medium of instruction (Belcher, 2009). Students may be taught too much or too little of what they need (for example the omission of lexis and genre they need) because the language of instruction is likely to serve other people’s interests. This occurs because no initiative is taken to involve students in the design of their EAP courses. Rather than relying on students’ wants, and needs or necessities, teachers may rely on their personal intuition to designing the course (Harwood, 2010). They make decisions on behalf of the students for whom the course is meant. For example, Yürekli (2012) provides an account of EAP in Turkey, where its 94 state and 45 private universities do not know what should exactly be included in the course and who, among new students or the students transferring between universities by the end of the first or second year, should take the course. The EAP course bears the same name and code in all

universities, but the content seems to be completely different. The mismatches in the course content would not be seen as a barrier since each university has its own realities. The only problem is that EAP practitioners fail to identify the needs of their freshmen in order to design their courses accordingly.

As the dilemma due to teachers' background and personality indicates, students' language and knowledge development may suffer because of the teachers' lack of will to shift away from their old experiences. Teachers might want to protect their own interests or to cover their own weaknesses rather than developing new teaching and learning strategies or than adapting the teaching and learning materials to the local context. For example, a study by Jiang (2014) indicates that students suffer from their teachers' lack of proficiency in English while Chang (2014) points to teachers' lack of familiarity with academic discourse conventions. In both cases, it is difficult for teachers to overcome their weaknesses and to provide students with the genres appropriate to their field of study, particularly when they are confronted by unfavourable working conditions as is the case in different teaching and learning contexts. Briefly, unless an EAP teacher is 'creative, resourceful and flexible', and unless s/he has 'a good cross-communication and decision-making skills' (Sierocka, 2014: 13), s/he will be an obstruction to the success of the EAP curriculum. Sierocka (2014) and Celani (2008: 419) argue that all teachers (including EAP teachers or practitioners) must be

.. researchers of their own practice, materials producers, evaluators, experimenters of new approaches, explorers of reality, syllabus builders, teachers of not only language but also of strategies, builders of social contexts inside and outside the classroom, open to change, adaptable, ready to continuously review their own practice (Celani, 2008: 419).

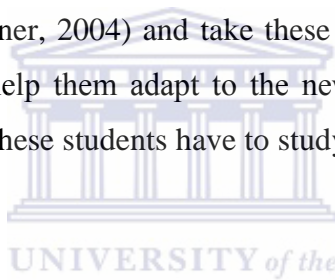
As can be understood from the quotation above, teachers play a crucial role in the success of the implementation of any curriculum and when they fail to do so, any requirement that they are assumed to fulfil becomes a challenge and may negatively impact on the effective implementation of this curriculum. When a teacher is not innovative, for example, the teaching and learning context tends to be a barrier to the teaching and learning process.

(e) The teaching and learning contexts

The contexts in which EAP courses are delivered vary considerably from country to another and even from university to university. Some universities have seen a rapid growth of their students when working conditions are not favourable at all. Coffin *et al.* (2005), for example argue that the imbalance between the student population and funds may impede the implementation of EAP courses. Their view is that when class sizes are big, teachers cannot adequately respond to all students' writing needs as they are unable to organize small group teaching and to give feedback with regard to their students' writing. This might also be true for speaking activities, especially for individual oral presentations (Bruce, 2011) as they are also time-consuming. The chances of a student to participate in any classroom activities, particularly in speaking, are determined by the student location and 'only students in the front rows have an active involvement in the lesson' (Baffoka, 2012: 58). The teacher's follow-up of students' learning is reduced as well, but there are instances where teachers fail to give support to students because of the incompatibility between students' current learning environment and their cultural backgrounds (Spinthourakis *et al.*, 2009). For example, because of their cultural identity marked by modesty and shyness, Chinese students feel uncomfortable to interact with other people in public (Jiang, 2014). Their modesty and shyness become an impediment to the teaching and learning process and teachers who fail to capture this cultural element consider them as passive, marginalized or culturally invisible students in multicultural classes (Dimitriadou *et al.*, 2011). Instead of understanding that there might be learning difficulties caused by foreign students' backgrounds, teachers generally associate these difficulties with the language of instruction (Straker, 2014). The university culture in which students are engaged might continuously conflict with the students' previous cultures (Gillet, 1996). For example, writing conventions such as referencing may vary from one academic culture to another and may take different students a long time to realise how different these new cultures differ from theirs (Gillet, 1996).

African students studying in the UK also find it difficult to cope with 'reflective practices to learning' whose local cultures emphasise a more 'didactic mode of teaching' (Baker *et al.*, 2014:131) or memorisation (Cox *et al.*, 2013). These students have difficulty reflecting on their development and need teachers' assistance through feedback, especially in writing. They also face stress from academic life; have hard time developing psychological autonomy, economic

independence and new identities, experience ‘culture shock, language difficulties, adjustment to unfamiliar social norms, eating habits, customs and values, differences in education systems, isolation and loneliness, homesickness, and a loss of established social networks’ (Veronika, 2006: 4). They have to respond to the requirements of the academic discourse community, particularly the academic linguistic demands when they have hardly ever heard about the notion of English for Academic Purposes (Hyland, 2006). Hyland also highlights that a student population with diverse backgrounds, be they cultural, linguistic, or educational, challenges the academic staff, thus hampering the implementation of the EAP curriculum. The linguistic and socio-cultural diversity that implies students’ various identities and ways of thinking makes it difficult for teachers to rely on students’ previous experiences. Yet, sometimes, students’ backgrounds are not taken into consideration because of economic interests as stated in the section on issues around EAP. Several higher learning institutions recruit foreign students to cover their economic deficits (Turner, 2004) and take these students for granted; they consider them as ‘cash cows’ and fail to help them adapt to the new culture that they have embraced (Andrade, 2006: 133). Left alone, these students have to study at their own peril (Andrade, 2006: 133).



Related to the contexts in which the teaching and learning take place is also the fact that there are almost always discrepancies between national policies which adopt the ESL/EFL international standards and give little value to local realities (Shaaban, 2013). Governments give prominence to Standard English when the teaching and learning environment does not allow students and teachers to promote it. In Africa, education seems to be defined by outsiders who are their main sponsors and who perceive African governments as incapable of transforming and improving their own educational systems, thus imposing on them ‘external education agendas’ (Stromquist & Monkman, 2014: viii). In most cases, the governments provide guidelines which match neither with the national socio-cultural context in general nor with classroom realities in particular (Ali & Walker, 2014). In Srilanka, for example, Canagarajah (1999) points out the mismatch between the value given to English in the language policy and its limited use in the academic discourse communities. Canagarajah goes on to say that the restricted use of English by the academic community, notably the academic staff who use their vernacular language in classroom, has affected the policy itself and led to the revision of the university requirements regarding

students' pass. Kuuteva and Airey (2014: 534) also argue that the use of English in Swedish universities follows national guidelines and university policies which fail to take into account disciplinary differences and the fact that these differences may have an influence on language use. Thus, language policies that opt for the teaching of Standard American or British English only compel teachers to use materials which are not appropriate to their own teaching contexts and to perpetuate 'monolingual immersion approaches' to teaching and learning (Lin, 2013: 524).

(f) Teaching materials as an impediment to instruction through English

The inappropriateness of learning materials can be a barrier to language learning and teaching and ELT practices continue to rely on materials produced in English-speaking countries (Matsuda, 2001) in order to shape students with native-like English proficiency (Charles, 2007). ELT as well as English for Academic Purposes still use materials from the inner circle, offer them without embedding them in other content subjects, and limit their own 'efficacy' as their relevance to students' studies is limited (Hyland, 2013: 56). In ELT contexts, the use of materials from the inner circle generally seeks to immerse students into a new culture (Benson, 2013) and to have a shift of identity as they are denied their voices and compelled to comply with 'powerful interests' (Hyland, 2006: 32; Charles, 2013: 157). Benson (2013) calls this kind of teaching *submersion* - a term he borrowed from Skutnabb-Kangas (2000). The term submersion was used because learners are held under the water without being taught how to swim. As a result, students may end up drowning. For example, Kirkgoz's (2009) study on the perceptions of lecturers and students on the effectiveness of English medium at Cukurova University in Turkey indicates that there is a gap between students' language proficiency and the language embedded in the tasks that students are assigned. This suggests that when the teaching materials are not adapted to fit students' needs, students lose interest in the learning process and look for ways of resisting the programme taught to them (Kumaravadivelu, 1999) and probably end up dropping out of school or failing.

In the case of Rwanda, teachers and students operate in a non-conducive environment, where several factors hinder the implementation of the EAP curriculum. Some of these factors are the traditional relationship between teachers and students (Bamwesiga, 2013; Kagwesage, 2013), large classes, the shortage of teaching materials, teachers' and students' levels of proficiency in

English, lack of language support, the widespread use of Kinyarwanda, time allocated to English, to list but a few. Even elsewhere, time assigned to EAP may constitute a hindrance to the implementation of the EAP curriculum and there are complaints about it around the world as indicated in the next subsection.

(g) Time allocated to EAP as a factor hampering the implementation of EAP curriculum

Time allocated to EAP courses is one of the main challenges facing EAP teachers and students. Research has revealed that fewer hours are allocated to EAP while non-native students still manifest acute language difficulties. This is evident in Jordan's (1997: xvii) definition of EAP as study skills whose length varies from two weeks to one year or more and Coffey's (1984: 3) advocacy for the speed of EAP to allow students to deal with other academic subjects. In contrast, Swales (1990) asserts that EAP contact hours rarely seem enough and that these hours are only available at the wrong time in the educational development of students. Turner (2004) also claims that time for learning EAP should not be underestimated and considers language proficiency to be part of academic knowledge. This contention needs attention because the severity of students' language difficulties identified in different universities requires enough time and cannot be removed as quickly as Coffey (1984) thinks. Not only should EAP courses remove the so-called difficulties for students' accommodation in the academic discourse, but it should also devote enough time to students' interaction with others during which interaction students are allowed to use their languages as larger meaning-making resources. For example, it takes time for students with different cultural backgrounds to comprehend each other's thoughts expressed through an individual's or group's cultural-historical artifacts unknown to others. EAP should then be an ongoing process that enables all students (depending on individuals' needs) to develop communication skills they need for their academic achievement and for national, regional and international mobility.

In Rwanda, where almost everybody speaks Kinyarwanda (the home language) today, students should also be allowed to express themselves in their home language that they are proficient in to enable them to fully participate in classroom interaction and contribute to knowledge construction. As Rwandan universities also receive students from neighbouring countries such as Congo, Burundi, Uganda, Kenya, and Tanzania, they have to cater for the heterogeneous body of

students in their new learning environment by including cultural components and topics on diverse academic subjects. They should also allow students to carry out discussions using all communication strategies and practices they are armed with and this requires enough time, especially as classes are generally overcrowded. As McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013: 8) observe, the setting in which the teaching and learning occur plays a crucial role in determining whether the aims set in relation to ‘students’ needs and characteristics (for example, age, language proficiency, learning styles) are actually feasible and realistic’.

Another factor which is closely linked to the above impediments, particularly to the teaching methodology, the teaching and learning contexts and the time allocated to English classes is students’ lack of practice.

Literacy practices in universities are new and challenging to undergraduates, for they differ greatly from modes of reading and writing required in high school; but in spite of this, instructors in the disciplines do not make college-level expectations explicit; guidelines are rare and feedback is minimal (Carlino, 2010: 284)

(h) Lack of practice

There is an English proverb that states that practice makes perfect. However, there have been complaints that, in most cases, EAP students do not have opportunities to use English outside of their school. In countries such as the UK, where English is used in the students’ environment, non-English speaking students who attend EAP classes hardly get in contact with native speakers of English and ‘spend little time in actually speaking English in a typical day’ (Jordan, 1997:45). Students’ lack of opportunities to interact in English results in their inability to develop their speaking skills. Jordan (1997) reports results of a study conducted at the University of Southampton to find out the causes of overseas students’ persistent inability to express themselves effectively. The study reveals that the majority of students spent one hour or even less interacting with native speakers of English. In a study on fostering foreign language learning through technology-enhanced intercultural projects, Yang and Chen (2014) argue that Taiwanese EFL students are also disadvantaged in that they lack opportunities to communicate in English both in the classroom and outside of school. Lack of practice in the classroom is reported to be caused by the fact that teachers of English often teach in Chinese and ‘focus their teaching on textbooks to help students perform well in their exams’ (Yang & Chen, 2014:57).

However, the teachers' use of Chinese is a pragmatic way of helping students in the understanding of the material they are exposed to as will be seen in section 3.7.

As signalled earlier, lack of practice has also been identified in writing. Students fail to write effectively because their previous learning contexts failed to provide them with opportunities to write long essays, use linking devices, and use formal expressions required in academic writing (Akincioglu, 2011). Consequently, students tend to produce academically unacceptable essays. For Van Dyk *et al.* (2013: 354), 'the language curriculum in secondary school does not necessarily equip prospective university students with the higher-order language-thinking skills they need' and 'non-cognitive skills such as... time management, note-taking, and help-seeking' (Barnett *et al.*, 2013: 4). There are also complaints about students' inability to express themselves and poor reading in the classroom because of lack of opportunities for interactive reading. Another dimension is that students may resist change and prefer to listen to the teacher rather than participating actively in the lecture. They prefer the traditional model of teaching which does not allow them to develop their different language skills and critical consciousness, thus becoming a hindrance to their own learning process (Li, 1998).

UNIVERSITY of the

(i) Students as a hindrance to the implementation of EAP curriculum

Students have different reasons for embracing university studies (Cox *et al.*, 2013). Some students just want to find a mate or to belong to a university football team (Cox *et al.*, 2013). This group of students attend English classes because they have to surrender to academic regulations. Other EAP students take EAP courses not for 'the sake of language knowledge, but in order to be able to use the language in a given context (Petrova, 2008), that is for functional purposes such as getting a job, taking a fuller part in the life of one's own country, having the opportunity to emigrate and the expression of one's political or religious beliefs (Cook, 2013: 1). Both groups of students may not attend classes on a regular basis when they are exposed to the highly-constructed academic discourse and their absenteeism may hamper the teaching and learning process. Their motivation is instrumental rather than integrative. They do not intend to identify themselves with the speakers of the target language, nor do they wish to integrate into their community (Gardner, 1985), and thus have less interest in the refined and sophisticated modes of communication of native speakers of English-speaking countries (Andrade, 2006).

Students might also consider English as a nightmare because of their past failure and develop a high level of anxiety (Cummins, 1979) which prevents them from participating in classroom activities and from performing well as they believe that success is impossible (Weiner, 1992). When anxiety becomes a stable rather than temporary personality, students tend to react nervously whenever they are required to use the target language (Mitchell *et al.*, 2013). In the view of Mitchell *et al.* (2013: 24), anxious students are ‘less willing to speak in the classroom or to engage target language speakers in informal interaction’. Students may also be given opportunities to engage in their learning and raise their voices, but refuse go against the pre-established norms on campus (Shor, 2012).

Cox *et al.* (2013) also raise the issue of cheating in examinations. When students cheat, their performance cannot reflect reality, that is, it cannot provide systematic indications of the quality of students’ learning for both teachers and students (Cox *et al.*, 2013: 4). In academic writing, when students are required to review their peers’ work, they avoid critical comments in order not to have conflicts with their colleagues; they also tend to hide their drafts and not revise them after receiving comments because they are scared of public mockery in the classroom (Morra & Romano, 2008). Students’ attitudes are probably influenced by their previous environment which considers the teacher as the only entitled person to respond their writing (Morra & Romano, 2008: 21). In the last two cases, teachers have failed to get information about areas that require change or need to be reinforced as students seem to give little importance to their own role as agents of transformation in their institutions (see Freire). Another issue that is worth discussing is the negative role tests and exams may play in an EAP programme.

(j) Assessment as a hindrance to the EAP teaching and learning process

President Clinton asserts that ‘good tests will show us who needs help, what changes in teaching to make, and which schools need to improve’... and ‘that they can help us to end social promotion, for no child should move from one grade school to junior high or junior high to high school until he or she is ready’ (Clinton, 1999: 144). However, the kind of tests administered before the enrolment of students at colleges or universities do not normally reveal the students’ real needs. Instead of collaborating with secondary school teachers and deciding on what to be taught and assessed in alignment with academic discourses in order to smoothen the transition

between the two levels of studies (Barnett *et al*, 2013), universities prioritise such tests as the TOEFL (Turner, 2004) which cannot ‘inform students of the knowledge and skills they need to gain in math, reading, and/or writing to enter college...’ (Barnett *et al*, 2013: 4) and reflect their readiness for university studies. Such tests fail to measure the language skills they are supposed to measure when they are presumed to help find out the relevance of the curriculum objectives (Ntam, 2012). In Sudanese universities, for example, the assessment of the EAP course suffocates students rather than motivating them to learn as it is summative rather than formative. That is, tests have little influence on the teaching and learning process (Bashir, 2012) as they do not provide teachers with feedback on the programme and are simply administered for the sake of accreditation of achievement (Cox *et al*, 2013: 18). Bashir asserts that these tests have deep drawbacks for both teachers and students in that they neither help meet academic requirements nor enable their government to implement its language policy. Both students and teachers are aware of the shortcomings of such tests, but institutions of higher learning and language centres ‘will go down the route of offering examination classes in the curriculum’ (Bashir, 2012: 51). In the same vein, Turner (2004) emphasizes that

the combined effects of a demand for easily measurable and easily processed university entrance criteria and the successful marketing of global language tests constitute a technicisation of language which is reducing the teaching of EAP to training for such tests. , in Britain...the tests have infiltrated institutional discourse and what is perhaps worse, how they distort students’ perceptions of the role of language use in academic performance. Students seem to want to ‘train’ to reach the appropriate entrance level score or band rather than to engage with the language as an essential, and integral, part of their engaging with their subject of study (Turner, 2004:98).

The above-mentioned view sustains the belief that tests administered in EAP seem not to be valid since they cannot inform about the students’ strengths and weaknesses or reveal those of the curriculum itself, for example, the way achievement tests which help identify individual students’ success and the success of the course would do (Bashir, 2012). This is because international proficiency tests such as the International British English Testing System (IELTS) and the international American English test known as the Testing of English as Foreign Language (TOEFL) which tend to be a common practice in EAP classes also do not consider all aspects of the academic discourse (Turner, 2004). Standardised tests also fail to consider the fact that no two learners have the same learning trajectory (Wells, 1999). The learning trajectory includes individual experiences (ways of learning and solving problems, cultural resources

involved in problem-solving situations) which cannot be tested through ‘decontextualized multiple choice or short answer tests’ (Wells, 199: 136). Thus, standardized assessment cannot adequately contribute to the evaluation of the knowledge the students already possess (*idem*). Unfortunately, countries such as China, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom (UK) have made these tests mandatory. In China, students take an IELTS module known as the Academic module meant for study purposes and students’ performance is measured against sub-tests of IELTS (Fox & Curtis, 2010). In Hong-Kong, IELTS test-taking has increased because of the decision by the ‘Hong-Kong Government’s University Grants Council (UGC) decision in 2002 to make IELTS the basis of their Common English Assessment Scheme (CEPAS)’ and to administer an IELTS exam to all year 3 UGC-funded university students, that is, before they are awarded their first degree (Fox & Curtis, 2010: 113).

In Korea, ‘there is no denying that ELT [EAP] instructors teach those tests’ (Choi, 2008: 40). Elsewhere, EAP teachers are tempted to follow the special international formats for their students to get high scores rather than providing them with the material which is needed for academic achievement and social advancement. This widespread practice impacts on the implementation of EAP courses as well as on students’ learning styles and future careers (Choi, 2008).

(k) Irrelevant feedback

Feedback may be irrelevant and affect the teaching and learning process. When the students are given corrections to show them that a particular form is unacceptable in the target language, students tend not to take into account the teacher’s correction and continue to produce the very same mistake (Mitchell *et al*, 2013). The feedback being offered remains ineffective (Mitchell *et al*, 2013). In some instances, particularly in writing across the academic disciplines, students’ texts are hastily checked before students receive the feedback from their tutors (Hyland, 2013). Tutors do not carefully read the texts and the feedback they send to students lead to discouragement and frustration rather than improving their language skills. Hyland states that tutors hardly even make EAP teachers aware of what is going on in the classroom:

sometimes EAP teachers have a vague sense that the feedback their students get from tutors, when they get any at all, tend to be prescriptive, cursory, and largely focused on content, thus conveying the idea that writing conventions are absolute, generic, and obvious (Hyland, 2013: 252).

Not only is the feedback irrelevant, but it is also given little attention. Thus, it cannot promote the learning process and some of the teachers who participated in Hyland's interview state that students care more about the grade in that they tend to forget tasks that they have already completed. For these teachers, feedback has 'doubtful significance' (Hyland, 2013: 249).

In sum, the implementation of an EAP curriculum depends on a number of factors, especially on students' needs and teachers' ability to respond to these needs. EAP teachers may write their own teaching materials, but they generally use commercial textbooks which are produced after analysis of a specific group's needs. These commercial textbooks must be taken as sources rather than courses (Harwood, 2010: 4). This implies that teachers must adapt them to their local contexts. What is required of a good provider of EAP materials is his/her ability to 'select appropriately from what is available, to be creative with what is available, to modify activities to suit students' needs, and to supplement what is available by providing extra activities' (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998: 73). In addition, EAP teachers are required to have specialized skills and an inquisitive mind. EAP teachers should engage with and investigate various aspects of subject courses as well as be able to interpret subject-specific knowledge (Bruce, 2011). They should also collaborate with content subject teachers (Bruce, 2011) and always reflect on their teaching methodologies in order to make the implementation of EAP curriculum successful. Unfortunately, most EAP programmes are offered in centres where employment is given to part-time language teachers who lack understanding of tasks, theories and discourses to work with as they hardly build up links with departments that receive students (Turner, 2004). Lack of full-time language staff will also lead to loss of opportunities to consolidate EAP as a professional and academic practice (Turner, 2004), but despite all these factors which hinder teachers from implementing the EAP curriculum smoothly, there is still hope that EAP can work and meet students' needs, particularly if teachers understand their role as the 'main organisers of the learning programme' (Adams & Hamm, 2014: 13) and accomplishers of the 'stated goals' (McDonough, Shaw & Masuhara, 2013: 9). It is in keeping with this position that my study attempts to discern and determine which EAP model can work in the Rwandan context so that

Rwandan teachers can reflect on their teaching materials and methodologies and open themselves to new ideas (Adams & Hamm, 2014).

2.7 Towards a model of EAP for the Rwandan context

The exclusion of African languages from the official domain, and from modern world, and from education in particular, serves to deprive the population of access to the modern world, to democratization and development; instead of encouraging national development it has led to the decline of national cultures and languages (Phillipson, 1996: 162).

In Chapter 1, it was stated that Rwanda is one of the few countries in the world where the whole population speaks the same language, Kinyarwanda. Kinyarwanda as a common language can facilitate the learning and teaching of English and content subjects through English. Its inclusion in classes will enable teachers to transmit knowledge with ease and students to grasp the knowledge imparted to them without difficulty as well. Used simultaneously with English, it will help students to become additive bilinguals rather than immersing them in demanding academic rhetorical structures only. Additive bilingualism might be better suited for the Rwandan context. As known, any methodology that is appropriate to a socio-cultural context rather than a methodology copied from another environment leads to the accomplishment of the stated goals (McDonough, Shaw, & Masuhara, 2013). Expressed differently, as stated earlier, a method, which has successfully worked in a given context, may be inappropriate in a different teaching and learning sociocultural context. Therefore, there is no need to borrow or copy such a method.

2.7.1 Additive bilingualism as a proposed model of EAP in the Rwandan context

2.7.1.1 The origin of bilingualism in the world

Bilingualism is as old as humanity and probably no country in the world is purely monolingual (Genzuk, 1988). Bilingualism seems to be the norm in many countries, particularly in African and Asian countries where different language groups occupy the same geographical areas and have to communicate (Grosjean, 1982). Because of their proximity, these language groups speak more than one language and bilingualism is present in their everyday life or else their language contact results in some form of bilingualism (Grosjean, 1982). Grosjean goes on to say that bilingualism is present among linguistic minorities concentrated in some specific areas.

(i) Defining the concepts of bilingualism

The term bilingualism has been defined in many different ways and ‘has open-ended semantics’ (Beardsmore, 1986: 1). According to Aronin and Singleton (2012: 2) ‘the 1961 edition of the Webster dictionary’ defines the term bilingual as ‘having or using two languages especially as spoken with the fluency characteristic of a native speaker; a person using two languages especially habitually and with control like that of a native speaker’ and bilingualism as ‘the constant use of two languages’. In this line, Bloomfield (1935: 56) refers to bilingualism as ‘a native like control of two languages’. Bilingualism then refers to the ability to speak two languages perfectly. On the other hand, bilingualism is said to include multilingualism (Aronin & Singleton, 2012; Baker, 2011) as it is the only possible form of multilingualism (Aronin & Singleton, 2012). Thus, it is seen as ‘the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual’ (Mackey, 1957: 51), ‘the use of two or more communication systems, identity and personality, globalisation and assimilation, thinking and reading, education and employment, politics and culture’ (Baker, 2011: ix). However, Baker also distinguishes between multilingualism and bilingualism. He refers to the former as the use of more than two languages and the latter as that of two languages. Unlike Bloomfield who perceives bilingualism as full or native-like competence in two languages, Baker is rather cautious and does not provide the extent to which an individual must use the two languages.

As stated earlier, the term bilingualism is multifaceted. It is also seen as the use of at least two languages by the same individual who does not necessarily have equal ability/ competence in both or all languages and whose way of using any of these languages depends on its role in the society (Beardsmore, 1986).

In the educational system, bilingual education refers to the use of two languages throughout a lecture. It is education that provides students with opportunities to use two languages. Rather than teaching the two languages as subjects for the students to learn or acquire them, bilingual education uses them as modes of instruction (Olivier, 2011).

According to Skutnabb-Kangas (1988: 21), bilingualism should be defined in terms of the educational goal which varies from context to context. She refers to it in terms of origin, competence, function and identification. With reference to origin, a bilingual is a speaker who

has learned two languages in the family from native speakers from the beginning and has used the two languages in parallel as a means of communication from the beginning. Competence involves the following: complete mastery of two languages, having native-like control of two languages, having equal mastery of two languages, being able to produce complete meaningful utterances in the other language, having at least knowledge and control of grammatical structures of the other language, and having come in contact with another language. As for function, is bilingual a speaker who uses or can use two languages in most situations depending on her wishes or on the demands of the community. In terms of identification, Skutnabb-Kangas' view of a bilingual speaker is two-fold: a speaker can recognise himself/herself as bilingual (internal identification) or be recognised by others as bilingual (external identification). One implication of this perception of bilingualism by Skutnabb-Kangas is that there exist various types of bilingualism.

(ii) Typologies of bilingualism

The complexity of the concept of bilingualism informs how different labels may have been assigned to the term. For example, Beardsmore (1986) provides a long list of types of bilingualism, but only few which are likely to inform the current study are explained. These are early and late bilingualism, and additive and subtractive bilingualism.

Early bilingualism vs late bilingualism

Early bilingualism (also known as infant bilingualism, bilingualism as first language, or ascribed bilingualism) refers to the acquisition of a second language before or around the age of five (Genesee, 1978; Pangilinan *et al.*, 2014) or the acquisition of more than one language before adolescence (Baker, 2011; Beardsmore, 1986). Early bilingualism can be simultaneous or consecutive. According to Beardsmore, early simultaneous bilingualism occurs when a child learns two languages at the same time from his early childhood, particularly before the age of three whereas early consecutive (successive, subsequent) bilingualism occurs when a second language is introduced to the child after this age. Early simultaneous bilingualism generally occurs when a child grows in a home environment where two languages are equally used. This kind of bilingualism is also referred to as compound bilingualism (D'Acierno, 1990). One example of early consecutive bilingualism is bilingualism which occurs when a child moves to

new environment around the age of three and learns a dominant language which is different from his/her native language. This is also true when the child's home language is completely different from the language of instruction (D'Acerno, 1990). Early bilingualism normally results in additive bilingualism.

With regard to late or achieved bilingualism, it occurs when a child who has acquired his/her first language before the age of eleven adds another or other languages to his linguistic repertoire (Beardmore, 1986). Seemingly, this form of bilingualism occurs in adolescence or adulthood. As the individual is required to use a second language probably after mastery of the first language, her/his first language will help him/her in the use of the former (Cummins, 1979), but late bilingualism is likely to challenge students and may result in subtractive bilingualism in case effective instructional strategies are not applied. When the choice of instructional strategies is well made, adolescents or adults may develop second language academic proficiency rapidly and attain 'higher levels of their first language academic proficiency' because of the interdependence between proficiencies in both languages (Cummins, 1984: 2). Thus, late bilingualism may also result in additive bilingualism. Details on the notions of subtractive and additive bilingualism are provided in the next lines.



Additive vs subtractive bilingualism

Research discriminates between additive and subtractive bilingualism (Cummins, 1998; Swain & Lapkin, 1991, 2014). The concept of additive bilingualism was introduced by Lambert in 1975 (Swain & Lapkin, 1991, 2014: 203) after he had noticed the close connection existing between language and culture (Taylor, 1991, 2014: 6). Originally, additive bilingualism refers to a situation whereby the learning of a second minority language cannot endanger or replace a pre-existing dominant and prestigious language. Cummins (1998) refers to additive bilingualism as the addition of a second language to a learner's linguistic repertoire without endangering the development of the first language. In contrast, Lambert's subtractive bilingualism refers to a situation where the learning of a second dominant and prestigious language may threaten the pre-existing minority language (Swain & Lapkin, 1991, 2004: 203), but Lambert's belief is that all people can achieve additive bilingualism (Taylor, 2014). Additive bilingualism bears a positive

connotation whereas subtractive bilingualism accounts for the negative consequences of adding a new language to one's first language (Cummins, 1998).

Lambert's view of bilingualism is that it enables people to have a 'dual perspective rather than a confined or incomplete intellectual and social development' (Taylor, 1991, 2014: 6). In the same vein, Cummins (1979) asserts that cognitive proficiency in one of the bilingual's languages contributes to the development of cognitive proficiency in the other and Cummins (1998) posits that bilingualism positively impacts on students' intellectual and linguistic progress.

Different studies conducted on early bilingualism have shown that the introduction of an additional language in an environment where the first language is widely used has resulted in additive bilingualism (Taylor, 2014). This is the case of Canada, where St. Lambert's attempt to help English-speaking children learn French more efficiently was successful (Lo & Lo, 2014). However, when the same initiative was taken to help immigrant children living in the United States of America, it resulted in 'partial bilingualism'. Consequently, learners were proficient in neither language (Lo & Lo, 2014: 49) because the school focused more on English, the dominant language, and assigned/accorded little value to children's home language(s) (Baker, 2014). Gradually, English has become dominant in these children's lives (Baker, 2014: xviii).

Lo and Lo (2014) argue that the introduction of bilingualism normally entails teaching some, if not all, academic disciplines in the language being learned as a second language in order to get more comprehensible input through interaction. Yet, the success or failure of such programmes depends on both the approaches used and variables ranging from the status of the mother tongue to the availability of teaching and learning materials in the two languages (Desai, 2012).

In the context of Rwanda, Kinyarwanda is the most if not the only widely used language both at school where English is assumed to be employed and outside of school. It is the national language and the symbol of Rwandaness. Students and teachers, except foreigners, can fluently speak the language, but lectures are assumed to be solely conducted in English. English is given a higher status at the expense of Kinyarwanda, but sometimes teachers unofficially have recourse to the use of Kinyarwanda to facilitate the teaching and learning process. With regard to this, in their study on Language and space in a multilingual undergraduate physics classroom, Anderson

& Rusanganwa (2011) observed a teacher's shift from one language to another: English (the official medium of instruction), French (the former medium of instruction) and Kinyarwanda (a not allowed medium of instruction) depending on the physical space separating him from the students. When occupying the official space for teaching (standing by the board), he uses English, but when he is closer to the students, he shifts to other languages in order to alleviate or remove misunderstandings and to help students construct knowledge. The teacher's strategy of recourse to other languages present in the learning environment is said to have helped him to bridge the gap between students' language proficiency and the language competence aspired by the government language policy. In view of this, Higgins (2009) states that large amounts of research conducted to see how code switching contributes to class management in ESL environments where English is used as a medium of instruction came up with the findings that

code switching is used as a means by which teachers create order, provide scaffolding [help students understand what is being taught] for learning new concepts, mitigate low proficiency in the medium of instruction, and encourage student participation (p. 152).

Code switching plays multiple roles; particularly, it enables teachers to help their students understand the material taught and students themselves utilize their bilingual or trilingual competences to negotiate meaning during group discussions, construct knowledge, and develop proficiency in academic language (Andersson, Kagwesage, & Rusanganwa, 2013). Thus, following the view of researchers of postcolonial societies or communities who believe that genres and texts are ideology-laden as they carry identities, students can alternate their mother tongue and the English language in a way that allows them to negotiate their 'identities, roles, and statuses' (Canagarajah, 1999: 30). The use of both languages will enable students to gain space for their voices, thus meeting their interests and aspirations. In a bilingual program, students will have access to 'dominant linguistic resources and discourses by capitalizing their indigenous linguistic and cultural resources' (Lin, 2006: 287). Both immersion in Standard English (SE) and use of local meaning-making resources to scaffold students during content subject classes which embed very elaborated linguistic conventions may play an eminent role in rendering the teaching and learning process smooth (Lin, 2013: 523).

In the context of Rwanda, studies indicate that teachers and students unofficially make use of all languages present in the teaching and learning environment. They are 'on the path to

bilingualism' (Baker, 2014: xviii), but they do not actively exchange interactive information and should be encouraged to develop additive bilingualism.

Rwandan teachers need to understand what must be done for teaching and learning to be effective (Coffin *et al.*, 2005). Like anywhere else in the world, writing is the focus of the teaching and learning process in Rwanda, but teachers might not have knowledge of what students need for succeeding or how to help them develop their English communication skills. To borrow Coffin *et al.*'s (2005; 12) words, 'successful teaching is a scaffolded activity' as students have to be familiar with ways of making meanings from what they read and when activities involving meaning-making might be far beyond their English language proficiency (Kagwesage, 2001). Students with limited proficiency in English need scaffolding from their teachers and/or peers. Teachers or other more knowledgeable experts provide students as much support and guidance as possible (Coffin *et al.*, 2005) to enable them to accomplish tasks they would not be able to perform on their own (Littleton & Mercer, 2013: 53). As Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976: 90) put it, more knowledgeable partners control 'those elements of the task that are initially beyond the learners' capacity and permit him/her to concentrate upon and complete only those elements that are within his/her range of competence'. For scaffolding to take place effectively the teacher or the more knowledgeable expert must identify the actual development level or zone of current development (ZCD) and the level/zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978; Harland, 2003; Wass, Harland, & Mercer, 2011; Wass, 2012). In other words, more knowledgeable people must discover activities that students can do unaided and those that require scaffolding. In the context of writing, students need to be aware of conventions governing academic writing and how to use them in their own writing (Coffin *et al.*, 2005). Furthermore, students need to use strategies such as the introduction of local cultural artifacts in class in order to negotiate meaning and build knowledge. In this case, scaffolding refers to the learning and teaching strategy whose peculiarity is the dialogic nature of the discourse in which knowledge is constructed, the significance of the kind of activity in which knowledge is embedded, and the role of artifacts that mediate knowing (Zhang, Fan, & Wanyi, 2013; Wells, 1999:127). Classroom interaction which comprises various tasks, teacher and peer resources, subject content, languages students bring to school and textbooks should aim at promoting

additive bilingualism rather than sustaining the EAP monolingual habitus which silences the voices and stultifies the agency of students with limited English language proficiency.

With regard to the use of Kinyarwanda along with English, Cummins (2005) posits that strategies that focus on a two-way transfer across the two languages are better than monolingual strategies to teaching. This appears to chime in with Cummins' (2005: 4) interdependence hypothesis according to which the development of skills in the language of instruction (in this case English) correlates with the development of 'a deeper conceptual and linguistic proficiency that is strongly related to the development of literacy in the majority language' (Kinyarwanda in this context). As transfer from one language to another is possible, Kinyarwanda will help students easily develop their basic interpersonal communication skills as well as their cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1979) and English will help them deepen the knowledge of concepts and linguistic features in their own language. As the 'social language' students bring to university (DiCerbo *et al.*, 2014: 5), both their Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills and their academic language known as Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), EAP should address these deficiencies. Along with complex academic literacies, EAP should help students to acquire the accent and oral conversational fluency required to be able to interact with others (Cummins, 2013) and comprehend easy tasks carried out in the classroom. It should also develop students' CALP by including specialized vocabulary and complex sentence structures as well as discourse features such as cohesive markers (Scarcella, 2003) that can be acquired when language is taught across the curriculum.

Briefly, it is not enough for teachers in Rwanda to use English as a medium of instruction to equip students with skills they need for responding to their needs and the government's expectations because recent studies on English-medium in Rwandan higher education have revealed that students English communication skills remain poor (Andersson & Rusanganwa, 2011; Andersson, Kagwesage, & Rusanganwa, 2013; Kagwesage, 2001, 2012, 2013; Muhirwe, 2012; Bamwesiga, 2013; Rusanganwa, 2013). EAP, in this context, has to develop another kind of bilingualism which allows students to make use of both the dominant language (Kinyarwanda) and English to help them transcend their learning difficulties.

2.8 Conclusion to the chapter

This chapter has dealt with the role and spread of English globally, particularly in non-English speaking countries. Both the positive and negative impact, which the spread of English has had on individuals, especially on students in their academic communities, have been discussed.

This chapter has also presented issues and insights related to the notion of EAP and the concomitant controversies around it, the notions of discourse communities, discourse(s) and genres, and about EAP practices as well as factors that impede them.

Based on the discussion that I have provided in this chapter, I am inclined to believe that an EAP model suitable for the Rwandan context should signal an epistemically discernible post-colonial stance. Such a position and model is better placed to foster bilingualism which allows the use of English, the minority language in Rwanda and Kinyarwanda (one of the semiotic resources present in the learning environment) which is widely used both inside and outside of school. It can enable teachers and the more knowledgeable peers to help students with limited language proficiency to attempt and complete tasks that they cannot do on their own. In the next chapter, I deal with the research design and methodology.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In Chapter 1, I mentioned that this study would be underpinned by an interpretive qualitative epistemology. Qualitative research is said to be basically interpretive (Creswell, 2003). This study promotes a learner-centred rather than a teacher-oriented methodology to language teaching and learning. In a learner-centred classroom, students actively participate in activities taking place in the classroom and construct knowledge rather than memorise the knowledge teachers impart to them or information drawn from textbooks. Students' active participation in lectures implies that they have to converse and interact with teachers and peers, and through interactions, they have to make meaning of the world surrounding them. In order to produce knowledge from this world, I conducted my research through an interpretive 'theoretical lens' (Morse & McEvoy, 2014: 4).

An interpretive paradigm to research seeks to explore perceptions and 'shared meanings and to develop insights into situations' (Wellington, 2015: 26). It seeks to produce knowledge by 'exploring and understanding the social world of the people being investigated, focusing on their meaning and interpretations' (Ritchie *et al.*, 2013: 12). It stresses the importance of understanding their lives from their own view points as they are the ones who are best placed to experience those lives. In light of this, I have to make meaning of the data by 'developing a description of an individual or setting, analysing data for themes or categories, and finally making an interpretation or drawing conclusions about its meaning personally and theoretically, stating the lessons learned' (Creswell, 2003: 182).

In this study, I observed how interactions were taking place in the different classes I researched and how both teachers and students interpreted their own 'ways of interaction' (Nomlomo, 2007: 150), and used this as a basis to construct meanings. I also needed to understand the meanings and interpretations lecturers and students assigned to their social world when I was conducting both individual and focus group interviews to find out how they perceived the ways in which the

current English courses are offered at the College of Business and Economics. Ways of interaction and meaning-making were also discovered during the analysis of learning materials.

With regard to the research design, my present study is a qualitative case study which seeks to explore how the current English courses taught at the College of Business and Economics in Rwanda prepare students for their academic work and for their future professions and whether they meet students' needs in relation to other academic subjects. The study seeks to gather deep knowledge of the materials and strategies used to make the learning and teaching process implementable as well as attainable in keeping with students' needs. This led me to pose the research questions which I foregrounded earlier in Chapter 1.

In order to operationalise and achieve the aims, I made use of varied qualitative approaches to data collection. One-to-one and focus group semi-structured interviews were employed as research instruments in order to facilitate my easy access not only to the participants' opinions but also to their feelings, reactions and intentions (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Classroom observations were also made to capture how classes are normally held, that is, whether they are student-centred or teacher-oriented and to understand how meaning was negotiated and knowledge constructed during student-teacher interactions, student-peer interactions and group or class discussions. Further to this, the learning and teaching materials that were made available were analysed to investigate whether they reflected local realities and responded to students' needs. These varied research instruments were employed to factor triangulation into the study, thus attempting to enhance its validity. The research population was selected from students and lecturers at the College of Business and Economics in Rwanda. As for the methods of data analysis, they are characteristics of the interpretive stance adopted in the current study. Meanings, I believed, would derive from the data through induction and deduction, an issue that I wish to explain in section 3.4 of this chapter.

In keeping with the above-mentioned points, this chapter provides an understanding of the research design, the research methodology applied in data collection, data analysis methods and the ethical considerations. However, before I proceed with this chapter, I wish to restate the research questions that I foregrounded in Chapter 1 as that is in keeping with the quintessence of this chapter.

Research questions

1. What are the teachers and students' views on existing English courses at university level in terms of strengths and weaknesses?
2. Can the current English courses meet the students' linguistic needs in relation to content-specific courses?
3. Which academic discourses and genres do teachers and students consider necessary in order to meet the demands of the academic world?
4. Which learning and teaching strategies can help students improve their communication skills?

In the next section, I deal with the research design.

3.2 Research design

Research design refers to the entire process of research questions ranging from conceptualizing a problem to drafting research questions, and on to data collection methods, analysis, interpretation and report writing (Creswell, 2012). The term design also refers to a plan or protocol for carrying out or accomplishing something (Maxwell, 2012). Even though this definition presents a research design as a work plan, Yin (2009) argues that this concept is far beyond a work plan in the sense that it guides the researcher on how to get evidence which is compatible with the initial research questions. Thus, an envisaged research design prevents the researcher from collecting irrelevant data. Yin (2009: 27) then perceives design as the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to a study's initial research questions, and, ultimately, to its conclusion (Creswell, 2012; Yin, 2009). However, Maxwell (2012) rejects the idea of a linear model and proposes that, in a qualitative study, research design should be a reflexive process operating through every stage of a project. That is, all activities carried out in the project should influence each other and occur more or less simultaneously (Maxwell, 2012).

Every empirical study has its own research design (Yin, 2009) depending on its initial research questions. According to Flick (2014), the choice of qualitative research as an approach to conduct research relies on the research question central to the study that requires nothing but a qualitative design. Thus, the present empirical study follows a qualitative case study research design to critique the current English courses taught at a college of business and economics in Rwanda. The qualitative case study research design also allows for finding out whether EAP can promote students' English proficiency in order for them to achieve their academic goals and to fully participate and survive in the increasingly competitive labour market. The next section describes the concept of case study design.

3.2.1 Case study design

As indicated in the previous section, the present study follows a qualitative case study research design which is largely used in the domain of education, including the field of applied linguistics. Language-related issues are so complex that they can best be understood through in-depth research of the case. Case study design was then useful to this study as I am involved in critiquing the current English courses offered at the College of Business and Economics. It enabled me to get detailed information about the strengths and weaknesses of the English courses as they are currently taught at CBE, one of the actual settings 'in which the policies are implemented' (Anderson, 2010: 1).

With regard to the definition of case study design, there have been several attempts to define the term, but researchers have not agreed on its definition (Hsieh, 2004). Thus, this term has been assigned a variety of definitions, a number of which are provided. A case study refers to the study of a case in action, the 'inquiry around an instance' (Adelman, 1980: 48-49) or 'the study of a specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle' (Nisbet & Watt, 1984: 72). A case study can also be defined as a single instance of a bounded system (the case), such as a child, a clique, a class, a school, a community (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000: 181), an event, a programme, an activity (Creswell, 2003: 15), a policy and a decision (Punch, 2009). This definition seems to be tight since a case study should be seen as a study of a case in its context (Cohen, *et al*, 2011). A case study is an in-depth study of a system based on data collection materials, and the researcher situates this system or case within its larger context or setting (Hoang-Kim, *et. al*, 2014). Thus, a case study potentially provides a rich and deep

description of the case, which is investigated within its natural setting, its complexity and its context with the purpose of understanding it as much as possible (Punch, 2009). Through various data collection procedures, a case study provides the researcher with detailed information about a case.

Baxter and Jack (2008: 546) and Yin (2003) assert that a case study should be considered when: (a) the focus of the study is to answer ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions; (b) you cannot manipulate the behaviour of those involved in the study; (c) you want to cover contextual conditions because you believe they are relevant to the phenomenon under study; or (d) the boundaries are not clear between the phenomenon and context. Thus, the current study looked at students and teachers’ perceptions on the teaching and learning of English. Some behaviours would not have been discovered without spending time with and listening to students and teachers in their academic context. It was also necessary to observe what actually happened in the classroom and analyse some of the documents used in the teaching and learning process. It would also have been impossible to capture the reality about the phenomenon itself and the context in which it took place. As can be seen, based on my on-going discussion, case study research provides first-hand and possible in-depth data from a ‘wide data source’ (Qi, 2009: 23).

With regard to first-hand and in-depth data, Cohen *et al.* (2007: 253) state that case study research portrays ‘real people in real situations’ and that one of its strengths is the fact that it recognises context as a powerful determinant of both causes and effects and studies effects in their real context. Case study research is then ‘strong in reality’ as it is a ‘down-to-earth’ experience (Cohen *et al.*, 1994: 123).

Drawing on Yin’s (1994: 13) definition of a case study as ‘an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomena [sic] within its real context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident’, Rowley (2002) argues that

[a]n important strength of case studies is the ability to undertake an investigation into a phenomenon in its context, it is not necessary to replicate the phenomenon in a laboratory, or experimental setting in order to understand the phenomenon. Case studies are a valuable way of looking at the world around us (Rowley, 2002:18).

Rowley’s view of case studies suggests that information gathered from the context in which the phenomenon occurs is so reliable that there is no need to verify it through experimentation.

Phenomena are contemporarily studied in their context and events under study are happening in their natural settings (Hsieh, 2004).

Context plays a key role in the study of a case. Cohen *et al.* (2000) and Qi (2009) argue that the crucial concern of a case study is the understanding of effects in real contexts and the acknowledgement of context as a ‘a powerful determinant of both cause and effects’ (Cohen *et al.*, 2000: 181). Therefore, I found it crucial to carry out the investigation at the three different sites where the College of Business and Economics has its operations. There was a need for a deep study of the learning of English by eliciting views and observing classes from the different sites in order to gain meaningful insights about the English courses at the college as a whole. Not only are the insights gained from case studies enough to make the phenomenon understandable, but they can also have an immediate effect on staff and individuals (Desai, 2012). According to Adelman *et al.* (1980) and Cohen *et al.* (2000) case studies lead to action as

[t]hey begin in a world of action and contribute to it. Their insights may be directly interpreted and put to use; for staff or individual self-development, for within-institutional feedback; for formative evaluation; and in educational policy making... at its best, they allow readers to judge the implications of a study for themselves (Adelman et al., 1980: 60.

In relation to the above citation, Rowley (2002) posits that case studies may address the needs of their potential readers including academic colleagues, policy makers, and funders of the research. Case studies are seen as ‘a prime strategy for developing educational theory which illuminates educational policy and enhances educational practice’ (Basseby, 1999: 1). Therefore, the outcome of the present study can contribute to the improvement of the language teaching and learning curriculum and help policy makers strengthen and/or review the language in education policy in Rwanda. Thus, the case study can serve various audiences and ‘contribute towards the democratisation of decision-making’ (Adelman *et al.*, 1980:60)

Case studies differ in form and vary in accordance with research circumstances (Hsieh, 2004) or with the objective of the research if not the paradigm underpinning it (Qi, 2009). Hsieh (2004: 92) typifies researchers’ case studies according to a number of criteria: by functionality, by sites, by analytical level of the study’s outcome, by subject under study, and by purpose of the study.

As regards the purpose of the study, Hsieh states that Stake (1995) divides case studies into three groups: intrinsic case studies which seek to understand the particular case - the case itself, instrumental case studies which examine a case in an attempt to gain insight into an issue or theory, that is, ‘to understand what is not obvious to the observer’ (Tellis, 1997: 1), and collective case studies or a group of individual studies aiming at gaining a fuller picture of an issue. The aforementioned categories of case studies also appear in Stake’s publication of 2013.

With regard to functionality, case studies include ethnographic, evaluative, educational, and action research case studies (Stenhouse, 1985: 49-50). Drawing on Stenhouse, Sturman (1994) typifies case studies into two groups: single site case studies encompassing ethnographic and action research case studies and single or multi-site case studies including evaluative and educational case studies. Nunan (1992) also groups case studies by functionality.

Echoing Stenhouse, Nunan (1992) uses the term neo-ethnographic rather than ethnographic case studies, retains evaluative and action research case studies, and names the fourth group multi-site case studies. Below I capture the aims of the three types of case studies:

Table 3.1: Three Types of Case Studies and their Aims

CRITERIA	CASE STUDY	AIM	AUTHOR
Functionality	Neo-ethnographic	To study from an outsider’s view, emphasizing causal or structural patterns of the actors	Stenhouse & Nunan
	Evaluative	To provide decision makers with information in order to evaluate a programme or an institution	Stenhouse & Nunan
	Educational	To understand an educational action	Stenhouse
	Action research	To study the development of a case, using feedback to guide revision of the action	Stenhouse & Nunan
Sites	Single site (ethnographic or action research)	Are more often independent	Sturman
	Single or multiple site (evaluative and educational)	To fulfill purposes such as evaluating educational policies or developing educational theories	Sturman & Nunan

Note: the above table groups three almost similar case studies. Stenhouse’s and Sturman’s classifications were respectively adapted from Hsieh (2004) and Cohen, *et al.* (2007) whereas

Nunan's was drawn from Nunan (1992). All the aims were reproduced from Hsieh's (2004) classification of case studies.

Concerning the remaining classifications, Hsieh (2004) argues that Yin (1993) categorises case studies into three types according to the analytical level of their outcomes. These are explanatory, exploratory, and descriptive case studies. Exploratory studies define the questions and hypotheses; explanatory studies explain cause-effect relationships and discover theory (Hsieh, 2004) whereas descriptive case studies narrate accounts (Merriam, 1988).

The above-mentioned list of typologies of case studies is not exhaustive (Yin, 2009), yet it portrays the complexity of case study research and mirrors its flexibility. Researchers have the freedom to define their boundaries and to choose their methods of data collection depending on how they intend to disclose the reality about the case (Hsieh, 2004), that is, depending on the objectives of their research and probably on the paradigm underpinning this research (Qi, 2009). With regard to the present study, it sets out to assess the English programmes offered at the College of Business and Economics (CBE) and the use of the language of medium which is not the students' own language and suggests their improvement by adapting the teaching and learning materials to the Rwandan context. Therefore, it is an evaluative case study, trying to bring beneficial change (Bassey, 1999) at the College of Business and Economics in Rwanda.

Although case study research presents several advantages, some researchers view their strengths as weaknesses (Hsieh, 2004). Even though case studies use various procedures such as 'protecting against threats to validity, maintaining a chain of evidence, and investigating and testing rival explanations' (Yin, 2009), they are believed to 'provide little basis for scientific' generalisation (Yin, 2009: 15), i. e., they barely allow generalisation beyond the immediate case (Yin, 1994), thus being 'singularistic' (Bassey, 1999: 23). Bassey (1999) goes on to say that some researchers often regard case studies with suspicion and hostility and few understand their features. As can be seen here, the first characteristic concerns the validity of case study research. Case study research is considered as soft research (Yin, 2013), but Yin provides investigators with means to make it hard research. He advises them to use multiple sources of information for the sake of triangulation. Selection of cases based on their validity can also lead to generalizability (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Yin (2013:15) argues that

[c]ase studies, like experiments, are generalizable to theoretical propositions and not to populations and universes. In this case, the case study, like the experiment, does not represent a 'sample', and in doing a case study, your goal will be to expand and generalize theories (analytic generalization) and not to enumerate frequencies (statistical generalization).

Yin (2013) supports his ideas by drawing on Lipset, Trow, and Coleman (1956: 419-420) who are of the view that the goal of a single case study 'is to do a 'generalizing' and not a 'particularizing analysis'. As far as the current study is concerned, various research tools were applied in order to come out with valid data as will be seen in the section on research tools and in Chapters 4 and 5. However, its intent is far from generalizing the findings so long as each case manifests peculiar characteristics which are specific to the real world in which it occurs and is contemporarily studied. For instance, the School of Finance and Banking as an independent public higher learning institution was my initial case study, but when I set up the field research, its name had already changed. The school had been renamed 'College of Business and Economics'. Furthermore, it was no longer an autonomous entity but rather one of the seven public institutions of higher learning which have been merged and which became the constituent blocks/units of the University of Rwanda (UR). The data I collected and the findings that I will present in Chapter Four might differ from those that I would have obtained before the implementation of the merger policy, which might have altered the teaching and learning policies.

Apart from the issue of generalisability, the reliability of case study research has also been questioned (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Flyvbjerg (2006) and Yin (2009) point out that case study researchers are said to be subjective and hold biased views that lead to arbitrary judgement, that is, investigators' views 'influence the direction of the findings and conclusions' (Yin, 2009: 14) as they might not be completely detached from their research participants (Desai, 2012). With regard to this, three research sites with different backgrounds were researched and provided rich insights, several of which converged. The converging views helped minimize subjectivity as far as data and findings were concerned, reflected the English teaching and learning practices through a foreign language at CBE, and provided information about what might be happening in other institutions of higher learning in Rwanda. However, there is need to remind the reader that the issue of generalisability is not the concern of the current study as 'the outcomes of a single case study may only be meaningful to the subjects in the particular case' (Hsieh, 2004: 109), but these outcomes can be reliable because they derive from varied methods as a result of

triangulation. The issue of triangulation will be developed later in the section on research methodology or data collection procedures while the next section deals with the research setting.

3.2.1.1 Research setting

The research setting is the site where the research is conducted. The present study was conducted at the College of Business and Economics in Rwanda, at its headquarters in Kigali and at its two extended sites operating in Mutara in the eastern region and in Huye in the southern region. A detailed description of the site is provided in the following sections.

3.2.1.1.1 Physical description of CBE (Headquarters)

The College of Business and Economics is located on top of Mburabuturo Hill in Kigali City, Kicukiro District, Gikondo Sector, Rwampala Cell. It is surrounded by the industrial area, Kiyovu, and Upper Gikondo. It is housed on Mburabuturo Hill along with several old private houses which are squeezed together and look like a slum area. At first sight, they make newcomers wonder whether anything good can be found in such a place covered with a thick forest separating the houses from the college. It is only after reaching the entrance of the college and entering its premises that one can admire the beauty of Mburabuturo Hill.

At the entrance, there is a tiny white house for the security guards, a road barrier, and a welcoming note on top of a curved monument. The welcoming note reads ‘Welcome to the School of Finance and Banking’ even though the school has been renamed College of Business and Economics and is currently hosting the top management of the University of Rwanda (UR).

As already mentioned, from the entrance, one begins to see the beauty of the college with its tall green trees and neat short grass in the large garden that makes it attractive and favourable for ceremonial photo opportunities and for reading. Students use the garden for revising their notes and doing group discussions at any time of the day as there are lights at night. They also use the garden to relax.

The beautiful green scenery can be seen all around the college which also owns a large green football field/soccer field/ where its graduation ceremonies normally take place. This football field which can accommodate thousands of people is also used for reading during weekdays and at weekends when it is not used as venue for official ceremonies.

Next to the beautiful soccer field are attractive basketball and volleyball courts where CBE players and their fans enjoy time at weekends, especially on Saturday mornings. Generally, the two playgrounds are hired by outsiders and constitute an important source of income for the College of Business and Economics.

Briefly, the beauty of the green vegetation found at the College of Business and Economics makes it unique and attracts people from outside the college. Outsiders almost always use the CBE auditoriums for official functions at weekends, not because of the beauty of the buildings but rather because of its garden from where they take nice photographs.

On the other hand, the College of Business and Economics operates in old buildings the majority of which are detached houses. These houses painted in white serve as offices, an IT laboratory, stores, canteens, school clinic, and accommodation for foreign lecturers. Buildings used as classrooms are small and were originally meant to accommodate only thirty students. Today, the rooms are allocated to between eighty and one hundred students. As a result, some students attend lectures from outside by looking in through the windows. Only the Old Small and Big Auditoriums can accommodate two hundred to five hundred students respectively. Near the small auditorium, there is a small building painted in blue and rented by the Bank of Kigali (BK) which serves the community of CBE.

Four of the old buildings are flats known as Blocks A, B, C, and D. Blocks A and B serve as students' residences while the remaining two serve as offices for lecturers assuming administrative duties such as faculty deans, heads of departments, and examination officers. The remaining old flat is used by the management of the College of Business and Economics.

The college also owns two new buildings. One of these buildings, painted in yellow and brown, has six floors the last of which is temporarily being used by the management of the University of Rwanda (UR). In addition, it comprises around 2000 seats in the classrooms, 500 in the computer lab, 200 in the restaurant, and 20 individual offices. It also comprises eight offices, each of which is shared by four lecturers, and four staff rooms which accommodate twenty staff members each. The other new building painted in brown and yellow has three floors, blue-tinted glasses, and wooden doors. It serves as classrooms, library, librarians' offices, and a computer laboratory for languages used for conducting online listening examinations, particularly the TOEFL

examinations. It contains 400 seats. With regard to classrooms, this new building has two big classrooms known as Audi 1 and Audi 2 with 400 hundred seats each and a medium size classroom which contains 150 seats.

It goes without saying that the College of Business and Economics has attracted telecommunication companies. Companies such as RDB, TIGO, and MTN have found Mburabuturo a favourable mountain for telecommunication network and installed their towers which bear the names of the companies: RDB, TIGO Rwanda, and MTN Rwanda. The MTN tower is painted in yellow, the TIGO in one blue, and RDB in red. I will provide more information about the College of Business and Economics in the following section on historical background.

3.2.1.1.2 Physical description of CBE/Huye Campus

CBE/Huye is located in the Southern Province, Huye District, Ngoma Sector, Mamba Cell. This campus is built on a hill called Ruhande. On the hill is also a nice forest known as the arboretum that shelters monkeys and other beautiful small animals as. This forest provides a good environment for students to relax or revise their notes.

CBE is not the only college that has some of its departments in this big campus. There are also the College of Agriculture, Animal Sciences and Veterinary Sciences, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, College of Science and Technology but whose headquarters are found in other provinces. Unlike other colleges, the College of Arts and Social Sciences has its headquarters in this same campus.

CBE/Huye has offices and classrooms in what is called the *Main Building (Batiment central)*. The Main Building was built by the Belgians between 1948 and 1949, and it belonged to the white sisters. Until 1957 it was the home of the primary school for white children, at which time it became a multiracial school. It comprised classrooms, dormitories, a refectory and a house for non-religious people. In 1953, ownership of the building passed from the Dominican brothers of Canada to house the National University of Rwanda. In 2013, the National University of Rwanda together with other public universities were made part of one university, the University of Rwanda.

The Main Building which is a two-storey (ground and first floor) old building has a square shape and is all painted in white. It contains offices, classrooms and computer labs. Some of the classrooms are big and can have about a hundred students but others are so small that it is often a big challenge for lecturers to find spacious rooms where they can teach their huge classes. Lecturers are sometimes compelled to go and ‘borrow’ classrooms from other colleges of the same campus.

In the Campus there are grounds where students can play different games and a stadium where some ceremonies like graduations can take place. There is also a health centre where students and staff suffering from minor diseases can be treated.

3.2.1.1.3 The physical description CBE/Nyagatare Campus

CBE/ Nyagatare is the former Faculty of Commerce and Applied Economics of Umutara Polytechnic (currently UR-Nyagatare Campus) within which it operates and which comprises both Muvumba and Kinihira Campuses. Originally, Umutara Polytechnic, an institution of higher learning, inherited the site of a former rural secondary school in 2006. The institution expanded its plot and constructed new buildings. One of these new buildings is erroneously referred to as Kinihira Campus because of its location in an area called Kinihira. This campus is officially known as CBE/Nyagatare Campus.

CBE/Nyagatare is situated in a remote area in Nyagatare district in the Eastern Province of Rwanda the border with Kagitumba/Uganda. It is in the midst of part of Akagera National Park, the trees of which were cut down to settle former Rwandan refugees after 1994. It is surrounded by threatening bushes, a two-storey building that accommodates female students, an administrative block with detached houses, a building belonging to the District of Nyagatare and which is opposite its main entrance. Its location is far from Nyagatare centre and Muvumba Campus.

CBE/Nyagatare Campus is painted in blue and white. Its building is divided into two parts: the left and right wings. The building has nice big classrooms with precarious fixed green plastic chairs, many of which have already broken down and small green boards. Its white walls have gone whitish because of dirtiness.

Besides classrooms, the building has a library which serves research purposes only; it shares the football, basketball, and volleyball play fields with the rest of the colleges functioning in UR-Nyagatare Campus. It also still shares facilities such as the computer lab, the clinic and hostels with those colleges, but expects to become autonomous in terms of academic facilities soon. Apart from the library and the hostel for female students, the rest of the facilities are found at Muvumba Campus (the real former secondary school).

Even though the three colleges have been described using their real names, I will refer to them as College A, B, and C in Chapters 4 and 5 for the sake of privacy and anonymity. The numbering will not necessarily occur in the above order. In the next section, I provide a brief historical background of the College of Business and Economics.

3.2.1.1.4 Historical background of CBE

As previously mentioned, the College of Business and Economics (former School of Finance and Banking) is located on Mburabuturo Hill and mostly operates in old buildings. These old buildings belonged to a secondary school run by a Swiss religious community known as the Presbyterians in the 1960s. They later on became government property and served many purposes. In the early 1990s, for example, they hosted the Faculty of Law of the former National University of Rwanda. In 2002, the buildings were inherited by the School of Finance and Banking after its establishment by the government. The school became fully operational in 2005. Since then, it has known a lot of changes and ran several different programmes in continuous search to provide Rwandans with managerial and leadership skills in business and management, particularly after it had inherited the Faculty of Management held by the then Kigali Institute of Science and Technology (KIST) in January 2006. The KIST Faculty of Management was felt by the Rwandan government to be a better fit in SFB.

Currently, the School of Finance and Banking also inherited all faculties dealing with management-like programmes from three public institutions of higher learning which have been merged with the aim to form a world-class university in Rwanda. The merger policy was installed in 2011 and put into effect in September 2013. The School of Finance and Banking was renamed and is now known as the College of Business and Economics. CBE operates from different regions. Its main branch is located in Kigali whereas the extensions of the college are

still functioning in the buildings of the institutions which used to run the different faculties of management it acquired.

After the implementation of the merger policy, academic realities appear to have changed. The college has seemingly inherited qualified PhD holders from the ex- National University of Rwanda whose staff had academically progressed because of its partnership with many international organizations which funded their studies. It has also acquired some of the brightest students in the country as the government used to send almost all the best students to the former National University of Rwanda. Today, there is also an exchange of lecturers between CBE/ Gikondo (main branch) and its other two branches. However, this exchange does not concern language teachers. Each branch has kept its own staff probably until Mutara and Huye extensions are transferred to the headquarters.

As can be seen from this historical narrative, the College of Business and Economics has known a lot of changes which might have impacted on its curricula.

3.2.1.1.5 The choice of the research site

The College of Business and Economics was selected for its uniqueness. The Rwandan government has always had high aspirations for the college and wanted to give it international standards in management education. The college is, in turn, presumed to promote capacity building in Rwanda. In an attempt to reach the aspired goal, CBE has known several changes. In addition, immediately after the promotion of English as the sole medium of instruction in Rwanda, all public institutions of higher learning in Rwanda except the School of Finance and Banking (present College of Business and Economics) dropped the French programme. They also cancelled the existing English Intensive Course that normally lasted nine months and significantly reduced the number of hours allocated to the English Course. Where English was still taught, it was not ascribed points. Francophone teachers who could not impart knowledge in English lost their jobs. One case is that of the former National University of Rwanda which drafted a policy on language teaching by the end of 2008 (NUR, 2008). The policy stated that all academic disciplines, except those focusing on French or African Languages and/ or literature and the course of law requiring skills in French and Kinyarwanda, would be delivered in English.

It also stated that all academic and administrative issues pertaining to the National University of Rwanda would be held in English (NUR, idem).

As regards the school of Finance and Banking, it acknowledged the importance of language in good service delivery and continued to offer both English and French, and even allotted them credits. Furthermore, the two subjects were as mandatory as the other subjects for all students because the School believed that they needed communication skills, which would enable them to communicate with customers from different linguistic backgrounds. The endeavour of the college to value languages has stimulated me to find out what can be done to help improve students' communication skills in English, which is seen as the major way to reach to national development. This required me, as a researcher, to gather deeper knowledge of the kind of learning and teaching materials and strategies used, and the teachers' and students' views on a specific course. As Punch (2009: 119) observes, a case study seeks to gain a deep understanding of the case in its natural setting by considering its complexity and its context. Investigating this case from one site only could not give a clear and full picture of the nature of English courses which are offered at the College of Business and Economics (CBE) and of how the English medium is used to help students develop their English language skills.

The College of Business and Economics (former SFB) was also chosen for its proximity as it is located in Kigali, my home town, and for all the managerial and educational changes it has experienced as discussed above.

Another reason for the choice of the College of Business and Economics is its heterogeneous student composition. The student population at the College of Business and Economics comprises both the youth normally aged between 18 and 40 (in Rwanda, people aged 40 are regarded as youth), middle-aged, and elderly students. The majority of the adults are employed in the private and public sectors and can only attend evening classes. Some young students who attend evening classes are also workers.

The student population is composed of Rwandans and students from neighbouring countries such as Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania, Burundi, and Congo. It is heterogeneous in terms of age, culture and linguistic background. Thus, my research sample was predicated on this diverse population.

3.2.1.2 Research Participants

Participants in the study were second-year day and evening students at CBE/Gikondo campus, and second-year day students at CBE/Nyagatare and CBE/Huye, all taking English courses and attending content subjects in a medium of education other than their mother tongues. The research also involved language and subject area teachers.

The choice of second-year students was purposive as well as strategic. Silverman (2005: 127) asserts that purposive sampling makes the choice of the case easy in that it portrays features of the researcher's interest. The sample population must also be identified for its suitability to maximize the researcher's benefits (Cohen *et al.*, 2007). Thus, after having had a course of English along with other courses taught in English medium for a whole year, second-year students were able to provide better information about their academic language challenges and about the weaknesses and strengths of language and content subjects than first year students. Furthermore, as a researcher, I selected participants (both teachers and students) I assumed to be able to deliver information that would help reduce or prevent threats to the validity of my study (Yin, 2009: 3).

Prior to collecting data, I reported to the office of the Principal of the College of Business and Economics, presented to his personal assistant the ethical clearance form from the University of the Western Cape and an application letter requesting official permission to carry out the research at his college. I asked the Principal's personal assistant if I could meet the former and report to him, but the gentleman was so reluctant that he did not want to arrange for an appointment for me. He told me there was no need to meet the principal and that he would submit my file himself. Disappointed, I left his office without knowing how long it would take to grant me permission to conduct research. Fortunately, the academic year 2014-2015 started with delay. Classes began on September 29 instead of September 5 and until then I had not been granted permission to conduct my research at the College of Business and Economics. I waited for a call from the office of the Principal, but nobody called. I then went there to inquire about when I would start the research. It was then that the principal's personal assistant informed me that my file had been sent to the office of the UR (University of Rwanda) Director of Research and that she was the one to grant me permission to carry out research. Had I not gone to the

office of the Principal for inquiry, I would never have known that my file had been transferred to another office.

At the beginning of October, after finding out that the file was pending in the office of the Director of Research, I went straight to her office, which was unfortunately locked. The next day, I went back there and found the Director in her office. She warmly welcomed me and asked if she could help. I informed her that I needed permission to conduct research at the CBE and that she had been keeping my file for quite a long period. She asked me what my names were and after I had told her the names, she was very sorry for having kept the file for long without responding. The issue was that she thought I was an outsider wanting to carry out research at the CBE. She therefore wanted to see me first and talk to me. After she had realised that the file belonged to me, she granted me verbal authorisation to undertake the research. I thanked her and left her office for mine. When I checked my mails later on that day, I saw a mail with an attachment of an ethical clearance form that she sent to me after we parted. I had to fill in the ethical clearance form and send it back to her with the hope to get official permission in writing within a short period of time. Unfortunately, I was not granted official authorisation and wondered how I could tell people that I was allowed to carry out research in their departments. I was compelled to go back to her office to request for official permission, but the response to my query was that, as a CBE staff member, I could begin the research without written authorisation.

Immediately after being granted a second verbal authorisation to undertake my research, I made contact with the Coordinator of the Language unit at College A. I informed him that I wanted to conduct research at the college and that I had been granted the verbal approval to undertake my research at CBE. After discussing some research ethical issues with him, he showed himself very sceptical and pessimistic. He told me that it would be easy to conduct interviews, but difficult to make classroom observations. He wondered whether teachers would allow me to observe their classes. As I was personally convinced that everything is possible, I told him that things would be alright. He then granted me verbal consent. Without delay, the population sample among teachers at that college was selected and informed about the nature and usefulness of the research to be conducted. Arrangements were then made for interviews and classroom observations.

On October 29, 30 and 31, I made the first classroom observations and conducted nine individual interviews and one group interview with students who were selected with the help of their

teachers, who knew them better than I did. In mid-December, I visited a second non-language subject at Campus A.

On 3 November, I wrote and sent messages to the Coordinator of Campus B as a whole and to the Coordinator of the Language Unit via their e-mail addresses to request authorisation to carry out research in their institution, but none of them responded to me. Therefore, official authorisation for carrying out research there was never granted to me.

I was then compelled to make arrangements with teachers. One language teacher was very helpful. She played an important role in my work plan. Actually, she made contact with the rest of the teachers with whom I prepared a schedule for the research. Because teachers were involved, my schedule suited their teaching time table and was not going to clash with students' continuous assessment tests (CATs). I was not able to conduct my research according to the set schedule in semester 1 due to my son's bad state of health and admission in hospital soon after I had started collecting the data at Campuses A and B. When my child's state of health improved, I prepared another schedule with College B teachers and conducted the research in a systematic manner.

As for Campus C, it took quite some time before I was put in touch with a lecturer who connected me with the Coordinator of its programme. To avoid frustration, I called him rather than sending him an e-mail. The coordinator put me in contact with the coordinator of the Language Unit to whom I introduced myself and gave my query. The coordinator of the Language Unit promised to call me some time later after he had inquired about the time and the language teachers whose names figured on the time table.

On the morning of 3 December, the Coordinator of the Language Unit at Campus C called me and asked whether I could observe a class which was already taking place. By then, I was more than 150 miles away from the college. Thus, it was practically impossible for me to observe that class.

A week later, I called the coordinator of the programme reminding him that I wished to carry out research in the institution under his responsibility. He advised me to travel there so that he could make arrangements for me. I followed his advice and journeyed the same morning. I reached the place around 1:30 pm and found the coordinator in his office, where he had been waiting for me.

He did his best to talk to the most flexible teacher whose class I could observe that afternoon and to the coordinator of the Language Unit whom he requested to join him in his office so that we could make arrangements for the next morning. The latter promised he would join us between 2 and 2:30, but he did not show up at all. At ten to three, I took a motorcycle to the place where CBE classes normally take place in order to observe a non-language class which was supposed to start at 3:00 pm. Evidence will be provided Chapter 4, section 4.2. The next morning, the coordinator of the Language Unit himself asked me to join him at Campus for classroom observation as he had already made arrangements for me. When he called, I was already at Campus waiting for him. I told him that I had been waiting for him on Campus for quite some time and described myself so that he could easily identify me. He then told me to meet him at the main gate. I did as requested. The two of us then went to his office, where he introduced me to the teacher who was informed beforehand about my research and who had given her consent for the observation of her class.

In semester 2, I observed the course of Business Communication. At Campus A, I did not encounter problems, but at Colleges B and C, negotiation with teachers started afresh due to a change of English lecturers. With the help of two of the teachers whom I interviewed in semester 1, I managed to get in touch with new teachers of Business Communication and to arrange for observations. At Campus C, the teachers I contacted were very helpful, which enabled me to conduct research without difficulty whereas the teacher of Business Communication at Campus B was not so cooperative. He postponed the appointment for observation twice and even advised me to make an arrangement with another teacher of Business Communication whose name was not on the teaching timetable when I was making observations of that particular course.

In semester 2, I also conducted the remaining interviews at the three campuses. The task was not easy due to some teachers' lack of willingness to help. Many times, I made arrangements for the interviews with teachers at Campus A, but they failed to respect the agreed time. I felt depressed because I knew that I had already done the pilot study with the most caring teachers and that the information they had provided would not be part of the work, yet on the eve of my return to South Africa I managed to interview a new teacher in that college. The next section provides details about the research methodology applied.

3.3 Research methodology

Research methodology refers to ‘a systematic way to solve a problem’, that is, procedures used to describe, explain and predict phenomena. (Rajasekar, 2006: 5). As stated in 3.1, the current study employed qualitative approaches to data collection. A qualitative approach to research enables the researcher to enter the research subjects’ real world, to make this world visible through interpretive and material practices (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003, 2011), and to get in-depth insights from them. It helps understand people’s beliefs, attitudes, behaviours, culture and lifestyle (Hoang-Kim, *et. Al.* 2014). Because of its flexibility, it makes it possible to probe beyond the research subjects’ answers (May 2001: 123) for the adjustment of the information collected. Qualitative method is a generative form of inquiry (Ritchie & Spencer, 2002: 308) that uses varied techniques for triangulation. Before I discuss the different methods I employed, it is important for me to explain the notion of triangulation.

Triangulation

Triangulation refers to the use of multiple perceptions to clarify meaning, verifying the repeatability of an observation or interpretation (Stake, 2005: 454). Triangulation is also perceived as a means of widening and deepening a study (Hussein, 2009). Hussein (2009: 4) discriminates between ‘between-method or cross-method triangulation’ and ‘within-method type of triangulation’. The between-method triangulation utilises quantitative and qualitative methods to investigate one single phenomenon whereas the within-method triangulation involves the use of different but complementary methods within the same research paradigm in collecting and analysing the data. Only the within-method triangulation suits the present study which has been informed by a qualitative research paradigm rather than mixed methods. Data were collected by means of multiple methods to ensure the validity and reliability of the same fact (Rowley, 2002). Rowley (2002: 23) asserts that triangulation is ‘one of the great strengths of case studies’. As the importance of triangulating a case study has already been pointed out, I now discuss the different data collection methods I used. The present research used observation and interviews as two mutually supportive techniques (Silverman, 2006) for data collection. It also made use of document analysis and analysis of teaching materials. I explain the notion of classroom observation and provide an account of how I proceeded.

3.3.1 Classroom observations

Observation is a popular method used in almost every form of qualitative research and which provides the researcher with first-hand data (Dowling & Brown, 2010; Baker, 1999). Research discriminates between participant and non-participant observations. In the former, the researcher takes part in what is happening. In non-participant observation, the researcher ‘follows the flow of events’ (Flick, 2009: 223) without being involved in the situation under study (Petty, Thomson, & Stew, 2012: 380). In the present study, I employed non-participant observation.

Prior to making classroom observations, I learned how to use a tape recorder. With my colleagues’ authorisation, I would listen to and record conversations taking place among them and then practise how to transcribe them. When I felt confident to use the tape recorder, I decided to start collecting the data.

To gather information that would help respond to the research questions posed in Chapter 1, namely to find out the strengths and weaknesses of the current English courses taught at the College of Business and Economics, the discourses and genres brought to the classroom, and the strategies used by teachers to help students improve their communication skills in English, I made observations of four different language and subject matter lectures. I observed two language lectures and two content subject lectures at the college which runs day and evening programmes. I also made observations of a language and content subject lecture at each of the remaining CBE colleges. I followed what was taking place in all these different lectures without being part of it. I used the following observation protocol:

Table 3.2: Classroom Observation Protocol

	Yes	No	Comment
The teacher and the students have a good command of English language.			
The material taught is relevant with regard to students' needs.			
The teacher allows students to engage in interaction with him/her and peers and to contribute to knowledge construction.			
The teacher provides language support to weak students.			
More knowledgeable students provide language support to their peers.			
Language teachers incorporate material related to content subjects in the classroom.			
The teacher helps students to understand the academic world and the world in general.			
The teacher is a slave of the prescribed curriculum.			
The teacher encourages students to use all communicative resources and strategies at their disposal in order to facilitate the teaching and learning process.			
The teacher develops students' cultural competence.			
There are no disruptive elements in the classroom and in the surroundings.			
Learning materials are sufficient to facilitate the learning and teaching process.			
The classroom is big enough to accommodate all the students.			
All the students attended class.			
The time allotted to the lesson is enough.			
The time allotted to the lesson is well managed.			
All students' sociocultural backgrounds are taken into account.			
The teacher uses other communicative tools to facilitate the understanding of the material being taught.			
Students are active in the classroom.			

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, I made the first classroom observations at Campus A by the end of October 2014, at the beginning of and in mid-December. The location of the Campus made it easy for me to physically reach the authorities, the teachers and students, and to ask for informed consent to carry out my investigation at their institution. In the day programme, I observed a language lecture which took place between 8 and 8:50 before my research participants (teachers and students) became tired and a non-language lecture which was presumed to start at one in the afternoon. It also started the first period in the afternoon and that day students had not had another class in the morning. As for evening lectures, I also observed those occurring during the first period. The non-language subject was supposed to take place between 5 and 9:30 pm, but it strangely began after 6:00. The evening language class started at 10:00 am and ended at 5:00 pm on Saturdays, but I made my observation between 10:30 and 11:30 for reasons that I discuss in Chapter 4.

In the beginning of November, I made classroom observations at College B whereas research at College C was conducted in mid-December. The non-language class took place in the afternoon whereas the language class started in the morning. Finally, in February 2015, I made observations of Business Communication, a language module that always takes place in semester II. In all cases, attempts to make observations on different days of the first week at each college were made because I wanted to keep the same morning hours in order to have a real picture of what normally happens in classrooms. My target was to minimise factors such as weariness and boredom which would have had a negative impact on the teaching and learning process and provide me with false data. In all colleges, I managed to make classroom observations in the first period in the morning for day programmes and in the afternoon for the evening programme.

As my study aims at critiquing the current language courses offered at the College of Business and Economics, the classroom observations enabled me to understand the type of language curricula, the teaching and learning methodologies and resources, particularly the kind of discourses and genres used to carry out the teaching and learning activities. The observations enabled me to identify their strengths and weaknesses and those of the observed teachers. They also helped me understand how both language and content subject lecturers conducted their lectures with regard to the use of English and to students' needs.

During the classroom observations, with the authorisation of my participants, I used either an iPad or a tape recorder to capture how classroom interactions occurred and to avoid missing relevant information. At the same time, I wrote down notes in a diary every time my participants used non-verbal communicative strategies to negotiate and construct meaning. These strategies play a crucial role in teaching and learning through a second or foreign language as seen in Chapter 2. They might inform the last chapter on recommendations on how EAP teachers would review the current EAP curricula to facilitate the interactions between teachers and students, and students and their peers. Some excerpts of the recordings are provided in Chapter 4 on data presentation and analysis.

My presence in the classrooms was planned in accordance with the scheduled time-table in order to enable the observed teachers to be as natural as possible. The teaching and learning environment was not disturbed as teachers had already given me approval for the observation of their classes. I also attempted to minimize my effect on this environment by focusing on observations, being objective and making myself as invisible as possible (Flick, 2009: 224). Meanwhile, the events did not occur in a natural way as expected because the mere act of observing the participants impacted on their behaviour (Flick, 2009) and as some lecturers willingly introduced me to their students after I had informed them that I was a non-participant observer and that students should not be told about the investigation. In line with this, it is assumed that the researcher's influence is unavoidable (Dowling & Brown, 2010) as there is 'reactivity' (Jackson, 2012: 82). So, even in classrooms where students did not know anything about me, my presence inevitably influenced the teacher's and students' attitudes in a positive or a negative way. In most cases, it stimulated teachers who changed their behaviours in the classroom. One case is that of a lecturer who is known for sitting when teaching, but who did not sit even for one minute during the observation. As a limitation, classroom observations could not enable me to access my participants' beliefs, feelings, thoughts, and intentions which cannot normally be directly observed and which are gained through interviews (Ohata & Fukao, 2014). Therefore, semi-structured interviews subsequent to classroom observations and to the piloting of the interview tools were conducted.

3.3.2 Interviews

3.3.2.1 A general view of interviews

The concept of interview literally means an interchange of views between two or more people conversing around a theme of mutual interest (Brinkmann, 2014: 278; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008, 2009). In the field of research, Kvale (2008: 1) defines the research interview as ‘an interview where knowledge is constructed in the interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee’, in this context between the researcher and the participant. Qualitative research interviews are ‘attempts to understand the world from the subjects’ point of view, to unfold meaning of peoples’ experiences, to uncover their world prior to scientific explanations’ (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009: 1). Qualitative research interviews vary in type and are probably the most widespread technique used for collecting qualitative data (Brinkmann, 2014; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Bryman, 2008; DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Baker, 1999), but only semi-structured interviews were conducted.

Semi-structured interviews are generally characterised by an interview guide which can be either an outline for the topics to be covered or a detailed sequence of questions (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). In both cases, interviews are guided by the interviewees’ or participants’ responses (Stuckey, 2013) which allow the researcher to probe beyond the interview guide if ‘the flow of the interview talk suggests it’ (Cousin, 2008: 72), that is, if it suggest to either adapt, alter, and add other questions to the prepared ones (Cousin, 2008). With regard to this flexibility, Brinkmann (2014: 286) states that

[s]emi-structured interviews can make better use of the knowledge producing potentials of dialogues by allowing much more leeway for following up whatever angles are deemed important by the interviewee; as well, the interviewer has a great chance of becoming visible as a knowledge-producing participant in the process itself, rather than hiding behind a preset guide...

Because of the latitude they offer to the researcher to participate in the construction of knowledge, semi-structured interviews are probably the most widely used types of interviews in qualitative research (Brinkmann, 2014; Stuckey, 2013).

Brinkmann (2014: 278) considers interviews to be an objective method of gaining ‘qualitative features of human experience, talk, and intersection’. As they are widely used in the field of applied linguistics (Nunan, 1992), interviews can provide resourceful insights on the teaching and learning of English and through English medium in a non-English speaking country.

Therefore, this study made use of both one-to-one and focus group semi-structured interviews focusing on issues pertaining to it. I describe the procedures used to conduct these two types of interviews.

3.3.2.2 Piloting the interview guide

A pilot interview refers to ‘a practice interview that can serve many purposes: getting started, practising interview questions, and getting feedback on the topic as well as the interview method’ (Griffiee, 2005: 36). According to Noor (2008: 1603), piloting may help in ‘identifying ambiguities, clarifying the wording of the questions, and detecting the necessary additions or omissions’.

To familiarise myself with the research instruments, prepare myself on how to behave in the course of the real interviews, and get feedback that could provide me with what had to be changed (Michie *et al.*, 2005) before conducting the actual interviews, I conducted informal interviews with friends who had similar characteristics to my research participants (Polit & Hungler, 1999). The two friends are bilingual teachers: a teacher of French and a teacher of English. The piloting was also aimed at checking whether the questions were answering the objectives of the study. As Kvale (2007) points out, piloting an interview guide allows the researcher to improve the questions. However, when the piloting of my interview guide was completed, both the interviewees on whom it was piloted and I reflected on it. The interviewees (university lecturers who had knowledge of challenges facing research interviewers) did not find it necessary to modify the ‘interview schedule’ (Ulph *et al.*, 2014: 411). The interviewees involved in the piloting were not part of the actual interviews and their responses do not figure in the Chapters 4 on data presentation and 5 on analysis, discussion and interpretation of the research findings. In the next section, I report how the interviews were conducted in the main study.

3.3.2.3 One-to-one interviews

One-to-one semi-structured interviews were conducted following well-detailed lists of questions deriving from the main questions that I posed in Chapter 1. I posed the following four questions to students involved in individual interviews:

1. *What do you think the strengths and weaknesses of the current English courses taught at your college are?*
 - a. *What are the strengths of the English courses currently taught to you?*
 - b. *What are the weaknesses of these courses?*
2. *To what extent do the current English courses meet your academic linguistic needs in relation to other subjects?*
 - a. *Do these courses help you understand other academic subjects?*
 - b. *If yes, how do they help you? If no, why not?*
 - c. *Do your teachers and peers help you understand and interpret the content of your courses?*
 - d. *Which activities (oral presentations, summarising texts, writing paragraphs and essays) do you consider necessary for language needs?*
3. *Which strategies do teachers use to help you acquire the English communication skills necessary for understanding academic subjects other than EAP ones?*
4. *Which language of instruction do you think would make it possible to understand the academic subjects better?*

Teachers were also involved in individual interviews. Language and non-language teachers were asked dissimilar questions. Some of the questions posed to language teachers are somehow similar to the above questions asked to students. However, I provide the whole list of questions which made the interview guide for language teachers:

1. *What are your views in terms of strengths and weaknesses of the current English courses taught at your college?*
 - a. *What are the strengths of the English courses that you currently teach at your college?*
 - b. *What are the weaknesses of the English courses that are currently taught at your college?*
2. *To what extent do the current English courses meet your students' academic linguistic needs in relation to other subjects and future lives?*
 - a. *Which criteria do you rely on to design courses for the students?*
 - b. *Do you normally cooperate with non-English teachers when designing and implementing the English curricula?*
 - c. *Which activities, particularly academic discourses/genres (oral presentations, seminars, reading texts, writing, etc.) do you consider necessary to address the demands of the academic world?*
 - d. *Which activities could help the students integrate in the world without difficulty after they graduate?*
 - e. *Which strategies do you use to help students acquire the English communication skills necessary for responding to the academic linguistic demands?*
3. *Which strategies do you use to equip students with the language skills they need to cope with the world in general? Which of them are the most successful and why?*
4. *Which factors hamper the implementation of the English curricula?*
5. *What suggestions and recommendations would you make for the implementation of English curricula at the College of Business and Economics to respond to students' academic and professional requirements?*

Non-language teachers were also interviewed to find out how second year (level 2) students managed to cope with content subjects and how the latter were helped to overcome academic linguistic difficulties in case there were any, and to gain more insights on what could be done in order to improve students' communication skills in English. The following are the questions I posed to non-language teachers:

1. *How do the students in your college cope with the content of your subject?*
2. *What English communication skills do your students have?*
 - a. *Can they listen to your lecture with understanding? Explain.*
 - b. *Can they participate in pair/group/class discussions using English?*
 - c. *Are they able to identify main ideas from a text?*
 - d. *Can they easily identify details supporting the main ideas?*
 - e. *Can they write their assignments and exams coherently in English?*
3. *Which learning difficulties related to language do your students encounter?*
4. *How do you help your students overcome the language difficulties they encounter?*
5. *Which suggestions can you make to improve your students' command of English?*

As can be seen, each series of questions follows a chronological order, but the questions did not necessarily occur in this pre-established order during the interviews. I was probing for more clarifications of my participants' responses. In total, the interviews involved 29 participants: 2 English teachers and 1 subject area teacher at each research site, and 20 students. The student body comprised five students from CBE/Gikondo day programme and five from the evening one, and five students from each of the other two CBE sites. The participants involved in the one-to-one interviews volunteered to be part of the current study after they had clear information about its goals. They expressed the need to provide information in private even though they allowed me to tape-record the interviews. The interviews were recorded in order to capture all the information provided. Afterwards, they were copied on CDs and transcribed.

In addition to the use of audiotapes, notes were taken in order to recall the different communicative strategies the interviewees, especially students, were using to make communication between them and the researcher effective. Non-verbal communicative strategies which cannot be recorded could not be ignored as they seemed to comply with and reinforce some of the views developed in Chapter Two where I suggested that students should be given the latitude to use the communicative strategies at their disposal to enable them to negotiate meaning and construct knowledge.

Views of the interviewees/participants in one-to-one interviews were free of any third party's influence. Thus, they were assumed to be limited and the one-to-one interviews were supplemented by focus group interviews.

3.3.2.4 Focus group interviews

A focus group is said to be a special group with a purpose, a well delimited number of people, common characteristics and procedures (Krueger & Casey, 2000). A focus group aims at listening and gathering information'; it aims at promoting 'self-disclosure among participants' (Krueger & Casey, 2000: 7), that is, at better understanding 'how people feel or think about an issue, product, or service' (Krueger & Casey, 2000: 4). Coenen *et al.* (2012: 360) state that focus group interviews may provide more insights than individual interviews since views from the group of research participants are explored and clarified in 'ways that would be less easily accessible in a one-to-one interview'. As Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) point out, focus group interviews encourage the expression of varied personal and conflicting views with the help of a moderator. Focus group interviews provide the researcher with various opinions and allow him/her to compare and contrast information collected from 'at least three focus groups (Krueger & Casey, 2000: 11)

Four groups of students were interviewed. Group formation followed the norms of focus group interviews which allow six to ten members (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008, 2009; Cronin, 2008) with 'certain common characteristics that relate to the topic' (Krueger & Casey, 2000: 4) being researched. Thus, each group was composed of ten participants and a moderator was chosen in order to introduce the research and regulate the discussions, that is, to facilitate the exchange of views and to ensure a permissive atmosphere for individuals' converging and diverging views (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The following questions were posed to students:

1. *What do you think are the strengths and weaknesses of the current English courses taught at your college?*
 - a. *What can help reinforce the strengths of the current English courses offered at your college?*
 - b. *What can help remove their weaknesses?*
2. *How do the current courses help you in understanding other academic subjects?*
3. *Which language skills do your teachers promote the most?*
4. *Which language support do you get from your teachers?*
5. *How do your teachers promote your problem-solving skills?*
6. *Which language of instruction do you think would make it possible to understand the academic subjects better? Explain.*

The data were collected in a short period of time compared to one-to-one interviews and rich insights emerged from the discussions. The above open ended questions were used as a guideline, but there was space for the research participants to interact freely (Chrzanowska, 2002). Interviews were recorded and notes were written down in order to capture participants' complete accounts which seem necessary to be quoted (Krueger & Casey, 2000). The moderator systematically jotted notes down in order not to 'interfere with the spontaneous nature of the group interview' (Krueger & Casey, 2000: 105) as the natural and free flow of participants ideas was needed. With regard to accounts recorded by a tape recorder, they were put on CDs and immediately transcribed as was the case with one-to-one interviews. This strategy was adopted to enable me to collect and analyse the data simultaneously, and to improve data collection after identifying gaps to address when interviewing later groups. According to Krueger & Casey (2000: 129), 'focus group analysis is done concurrently with data collection [and] each subsequent group is analysed and compared to earlier groups'. Unfortunately, it was practically impossible to conduct focus group interviews with teachers as none of the campuses composing CBE employs more than five language teachers. This number of teachers is below the required number of participants in and against the norms of a focus group interview. CBE/Gikondo Campus employs five teachers, Huye Campus four, and Nyagatare Campus five as will be seen on the module description form that is presented and analysed in Chapter 4 on data presentation.

To collect complete information from interviews with teachers, questions peculiar to focus groups were asked in the course of one-to-one interviews. I asked teachers if they could allow me to pose them extra questions, and all of them were willing to provide me with additional information.

The setting for focus group interviews allowed the research participants to be natural and enabled me to explore the kind of language they used (including body language) to build knowledge and share life experiences. It also permitted me to identify students' ways of interacting and their linguistic gaps as well as strengths which shed light on the materials used in language classrooms.

The transcribed text was sent to the moderator who, in turn, sent it to his group members to make sure that it did not contain irrelevant information and to add useful information where necessary. After the participants had cross-checked the draft, they sent it back to me, via the moderator.

Because there will be need for triangulation, it was necessary for the researcher to have recourse to document analysis as another qualitative research method.

3.3.2.5 Document analysis and analysis of teaching materials

Document analysis is another efficient research tool (Bowen, 2009). Bowen goes on to say that document analysis has been used as ‘a stand-alone method’ (p. 29), but that it has often served as a complement to other qualitative methods to help ensure triangulation. Therefore, Bowen argues that documents play a key role in giving value and credibility to case study research and provides five functions documentary material can fulfil: (1) providing background and context, (2) suggesting questions that need to be asked and situations that need observation, (3) providing supplementary data, tracking change and development, and helping to verify findings. Documents also constitute an important research source for content analysis (Bryman, 2008) and are said to be ‘unobstructive’ and ‘non-reactive’. (Bowen, 2009: 31; Bryman, 2008: 515). Documents can range from manuals to visual aids such as movies depending on their availability in schools.

In the context of the present study, document analysis included teaching materials such as textbooks, syllabuses and handouts as well as learning materials (students’ assignments, students’ assessment tests and term exams). The analysis of these documents helped to gain insights that observation and interviews could not provide. Samples of excerpts from the documents I analysed are furnished in Chapter Four and some others in the appendices.

The analysis of teaching materials sought to inform me about how the content of the English programmes or curricula offered at the College of Business and Economics responded to students’ needs and allowed them to gain knowledge of academic genres and to develop their communicative competence through the use of the different communicative modes at their disposal. In other words, the analysis of teaching materials sought to identify the strategies that have been suggested for the teaching of English at the College of Business and Economics and to track areas of change.

In addition to the analysis of teaching materials, learning materials were analysed in order to identify the relationship between the aims set for the materials and what actually happens in the classroom and to see whether there was a need for the adjustment of the programme.

As stated earlier in this section, document analysis is neither obstructive nor reactive. Thus, the analysis of both learning and teaching materials sought to provide information with little influence on research results as it normally minimizes the issue of reflexivity (Bowen, 2009). I provide the checklist I used for document analysis. This checklist is composed of Part A which helped analyse teaching materials and Part B which guided the analysis of learning materials:



Table 3.3: Checklist for teaching materials

	Yes	No	Observation
The content in the textbook and/or syllabus reflects a pre-established curriculum.			
Grammar and vocabulary are isolated from their context of use.			
Activities are set to meet students' present and future needs.			
Activities are set to promote the development of the four language skills.			
Study skills are part of the content.			
The content allows students and teachers to discuss issues pertaining to society and to contribute to the transformation of society.			
The content focuses on students' specific needs rather than containing highly-constructed grammatical and rhetorical structures only.			
The content reflects local realities.			
The content indicates whether the English language is used across the curriculum.			

Table 3.4: Checklist for Learning Materials

	Yes	No	Observation
Tests, assignments and exams assess what they are supposed to assess. (There is a purpose for administering tests and exams, and for giving students assignments).			
Papers students write reveal the latter's weaknesses and strengths.			
Papers students write reveal the weaknesses and strengths of the course.			
The student's examination sheets reveal whether teachers assess the language or the content.			
The students' examination sheets reveal whether the feedback is frustrating.			
The students' examination sheets reveal the area of the content which needs improving and/ or adjusting.			

Whereas the above section described document analysis as a tool of data collection, the next section indicates how data will be analysed.

3.4 Data analysis

Data analysis is reported to consist of 'examining, categorising, or otherwise recombining the evidence' in order to address the research questions (Yin, 1984: 99). As qualitative research helps to study human behaviour and social life in many different ways, these ways make it possible to analyse the data through varied practices (Punch, 2009). Data analysis refers to a 'systematic examination of something in order to determine its parts, the relationship among parts and their relationship to the whole' (Lawrence & Tar, 2013: 29). In this study, I gradually analysed the data as I started collecting them to 'avoid playing catch up' (Silverman, 2005: 150). I inductively developed concepts from the data, rendered them more abstract, found out how related they were (Punch, 2009) and grouped them accordingly. For the reliability and the validity of the generated theories, I also examined them moving back to what was particular, that

is, to my participants' initial responses in order to avoid distorting the information they provided to me.

3.5 Ethical considerations

Research normally involves various parties on which it may have both positive and negative effects. Its outcomes may also have implications for researchers in the same setting/or people in the future (Hammersley & Traianou, 2012). With regard to this, Cohen *et al.*, (2007) argue that most research does not cause pain to and affect participants' dignity, yet they warn social researchers to seek to protect the latter by preserving their dignity as human beings. Ethical behaviour is an imperative when conducting any kind of social research and there are ethical standards that researchers have the obligation to regard as guidelines for the sake of their participants' protection (Ary *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, issues regarding informed consent (Silverman, 2010), confidentiality and anonymity (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009) and security (Boeija, 2010) were taken into account in the course of the present research.

3.5.1 Informed consent

Informed consent is usually required (Ary *et al.*, 2013). For consent to be given, research participants need clear information about the research before the investigation. Section 3.2.3 indicates that, prior to data collection, the researcher contacted CBE academic authorities and all the people who were presumed to take part in the research in order to seek their informed consent. Information about the purpose, the methods and the intended goals of the research was made as clear as possible to enable the participants to make an informed decision on their possible involvement (Silverman, 2010) in this study. Detailed information about the advantages and possible dangers participants might encounter once involved in the research was also broadly discussed for them to understand that they had the right to voluntarily participate in the research or to withdraw whenever necessary (Silverman, 2010). All participants reported to have understood the essence of the study and not to find it risky, and none of them withdrew from it. This implies that no participant was compelled to be part of the research and that the information at hand was gathered from participants who were fully willing to cooperate, but despite their willingness to cooperate, the researcher had to consider issues of confidentiality, anonymity and security.

3.5.2 Confidentiality, anonymity, and security

The fundamental characteristic of anonymity is that the researcher should not reveal the information provided by participants (Cohen *et al.*, 2007), especially when issues being researched are sensitive. As the current study critiques the English courses offered at the College of Business and Economics in Rwanda and as students were part of the research participants, confidentiality and anonymity were necessary for their protection (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009).

Cohen *et al.* (2007) assert that participants are likely to be vulnerable when their privacy is violated during data collection or denied after the investigation is completed, but in the present research their privacy was kept and no reference to their particular identities was made. This attitude was adopted because research participants were reluctant about the disclosure of their identities, that is, the disclosure of the source of the information. The researcher respected their right to privacy in order not to cause harm to those who revealed the weaknesses regarding the teaching and learning of English and through English at the College of Business and Economics in Rwanda. As Lichtman (2012: 52) points out, safeguarding participants against anything that may harm them is the 'cornerstone of ethical conduct'.

To achieve anonymity and make individuals' responses unknown, participants' names were not used. The researcher used fictitious names (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009) to refer to participants when transcribing information from the different participants as will be seen in Chapters Four and Six. Another ethical principle that was observed is equity (Hammersley & Traianou, 2012).

3.5.3 Equity

All research participants were treated equitably in terms of time allocated to both observation and interviews. Assuring equity in the course of focus group interviews was somehow difficult, but moderators were required to avoid marginalization of some participants by giving all of them equal opportunities to share their views. Moderators tried their best to control participants' turns in the discussions. However, they would allow more time to participants with strong views.

3.5.4 Validity and reliability

Validity and credibility are the two main concerns in discussions on the credibility of scientific research (Silverman: 2013). In qualitative research, these two factors are to be taken into account during all the research stages: while designing a study, analysing data and evaluating the quality of the research (Patton, 2001).

Reliability concerns the methods used to conduct research, that is, the consistency of the methods and procedures applied in the course of a research (Bapir, 2012). In qualitative interviews, reliability deals with the trustworthiness of research (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009: 245) as indicated below:

Reliability pertains to the consistency and trustworthiness of research findings; it is often treated in relation to the issue of whether a finding is reproducible at other times and by other researchers. This concerns whether the interview subjects will change their answers during an interview and whether they will give different replies to different interviewers.

The above quotation indicates that reliability is assured when the findings of research can be transferable and generalisable or replicated in case the very same study is conducted at some other time. This has to do with both internal and external reliability (Bapir, 2012). There is internal reliability when different observers agree ‘to what is seen and heard’ (Bapir, 2012:13) (trustworthiness) and external reliability when a study can be replicated. However, as stated earlier, generalisability is not the concern of the current study whose reliability was ensured through triangulation, research on three different campuses composing the same college and previous studies on the teaching and learning of English for Academic Purposes in Rwanda.

Besides research reliability, Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) also find the validity of research important. In ordinary language, Kvale and Brinkmann (2009: 246) refer to validity as ‘the truth, the correctness, and the strength of a statement’. The term validity bears various meanings in social sciences (Bapir, 2012), but our concern is the meaning it has been assigned in qualitative research. Validity is seen as an observable and achievable criterion in qualitative research (Bapir, 2012). Validity pertains to the degree that a method investigates what it is intended to investigate, ‘to the extent to which our observations indeed reflect the phenomenon or variables of interest to us’ (Pervin, 1984: 48). Such conceptualizations as internal validity (sound relation between observation and theories), external validity (the amount of generalisability of findings), cumulative validation (findings supported by other studies), communicative validation (findings

evaluated by respondents/ participants), argumentative validation (conclusion followed and tested), ecological validation (use of different methods and consideration of the life and conditions of the researched), triangulation (the use of different methods), and respondent validation (findings taken back to participants who verify them) have been associated with the concept of validity (Bapir, 2012: 9-10). To these conceptualizations, Bapir adds credibility and transferability as criteria for assessing validity. Credibility means trust in the findings and transferability looks at whether the findings apply to other contexts. Based on all the above characteristics of validity, he argues that validity is the ‘correct correlation between data and conclusion’ (Bapir, 2012: 12).

The terms reliability and validity somehow overlap, and Lincoln and Guba (1985) substitute the two concepts by the term trustworthiness already ascribed to the concept of reliability by Kvale and Brinkmann (2009). By the same token, Seale (1999) considers the trustworthiness of a research report to be central to issues of validity and reliability. Even though trust seems to be an issue in qualitative research, the researcher can make the readers trust their report ‘through a variety of procedures including triangulation, asking participants to evaluate pattern descriptions, having different analysts examine the same data...’ (American Education Research Association: AERA, 2006: 11 as cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2009: 149). As far as the current study is concerned, the following was done to assure trustworthiness:

As stated in sections 3.3. of this chapter, observations on different teachers’ lessons and the various interviews were recorded and transcribed soon after. Before the transcription, the tapes were played to the observed teachers for a check in. Participants were given the opportunity to listen to tapes containing the collected data to check for the accuracy of the data and react when necessary (Cho & Trent, 2006). After the researcher transcribed the lessons and the interviews, the transcript was also sent to the participants for a check because transcription implies transformation which may distort the lived social interview (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). In both cases, information was neither removed nor added to. All copies were returned without negative comments or changes. It goes without saying that during the interviews, no leading questions were asked to avoid the researcher’s influence on the participants’ responses (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009).

Furthermore, the researcher had to listen to the tape over and over again while transcribing the text. Even when the whole text was ready, the tapes would be listened to in order to fill in the gaps and remove inconsistencies. As semi-structured interviews contain open-ended questions and give the latitude to probe into the research participants' responses, discussions may diverge from the interview guide, especially in the course of focus group interviews if the moderator is not careful enough. Tape-recording the interviews then served as a means to remove inaccurate information.

Furthermore, the conditions under which classroom observations and interviews took place were controlled - as much as the researcher could. Morning classroom observations occurred at first period/hour of teaching before teachers and their students were exhausted. Evening classroom observations were also given equal chances with regard to time and the researcher's ethical behaviour.

The research was also triangulated through the use of classroom observations, one-to-one and focus group interviews, and document analysis. Triangulation is used to test or maximize the validity and the reliability of qualitative research; it allows controlling biases and establishing valid propositions (Golafshani, 2003), and deepening the understanding of the issue under study (Seale, 1999). In the next section, I provide a brief summary of the chapter.

3.6 Summary

This chapter has provided detailed information about the research paradigms framing this study, the research setting and participants, the activities carried out and how they were carried out to come up with rich, reliable, and valid data. I used varied methods to achieve the reliability and validity of my study and ethical issues were observed. As for research methods, the data was triangulated through the use of classroom observations, by conducting both individual/one-to-one and focus group interviews, and by analysing both the teaching and learning materials used to improve students' communication skills in English. Classroom observations enabled me to identify the discourses and genres brought to class and those developed during the lessons, to identify the weaknesses and strengths of the teachers and their students as well as the strategies used in the classroom. As for interviews, they provided me with insights regarding how teachers

and students perceive the current English courses taught at the College of Business and Economics as can be seen in the next chapter, which deals with data presentation.



CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION

4.1 Introduction

In both Chapters 1 and 2, I mentioned that this study would be conducted through an interpretive theoretical lens (Morse & McEvoy, 2014). Qualitative research is basically interpretive (Creswell, 2003). An interpretive paradigm helps explore, understand the social world of the people being studied and produce knowledge from the meaning and interpretation assigned to those real social lives and their interpretations (Ritchie *et al.*, 2013). I therefore observed varied language and non-language classes to explore the kind of education offered to students, the kind of genres and discourses promoted in classrooms and the different semiotic means of communication teachers make use of to help students express themselves and contribute to knowledge construction without difficulty. I also observed ways in which teachers and students, students and peers engaged in interactions, how teachers and more capable students scaffolded their peers with poor English communication skills. Furthermore, I observed whether teachers developed students' cultural competence and helped them understand the academic world and the world in general in order to contribute to its transformation. The observation of non-language classrooms also aimed at finding out whether teachers cooperated with language ones and gave language support to students.

In order an attempt to insure triangulation, I used document analysis and interviews. I analysed language textbooks, the English module description, and learning materials (assignments, tests and examination copies) to find out whether they met students' needs and matched local realities. Interviews were conducted with teachers and students to investigate whether the current English courses offered at a college of business and economics in Rwanda met students' needs and whether content subject teachers foster the English language. During interviews, I collected students and teachers' views of the current English courses taught at CBE. I also explored the way students and teachers expressed themselves in English. Thus, I present the data gathered by means of the three aforementioned approaches. I first present the data which emerged from classroom observations, then from interviews, and lastly from document analysis. In the next section, I deal with classroom observations.

4.2 Classroom observations

Observation is a qualitative research instrument which enables the researcher to perceive the events as they are occurring and obtain first-hand data (Dowling & Brown, 2010). Thus, I observed four non-language classes and eight EAP classes (one of the EAP classes was seen as a non-language class) in order to get awareness of what really happens in the classroom. Four of the seven EAP classes focused on the course of English Communication Skills III whereas the remaining three focused on Business communication. The class considered to be non-language also appeared to deal with Business communication. Therefore, it falls in the group of EAP classes for practical reasons.

Observations of language classes were meant to find out the strengths and weaknesses of the current English courses taught at the CBE, and how these courses prepared students for other academic subjects and the real world after completion of their university studies. With regard to other academic subjects, the importance of classroom observations was to find out whether content subject teachers gave language support to students, thus contributing to the improvement of their students' academic English. In both cases, classroom observations were also meant to identify the genres and discourses applied to help students improve their English and cope with academic subjects without difficulty and strategies used to facilitate the teaching and learning of academic subjects in a language that students do not master. Therefore, observations were meant to find out whether there was/is cooperation between language teachers and content subject teachers and whether English was/is taught across the curriculum. The information was gathered following the observation protocol discussed in Chapter 3 and the format of that protocol is in keeping with my motives to carry out my research using classroom observations. The protocol also helped in collecting information from different classes and each observation lasted an hour. I present the raw data that emerged from observations. I start with EAP classroom observations and then deal with non-language classroom observations. In each observation, I used a letter in the place of my participant's real name, that is, as my participant's fictitious name.

4.2.1 EAP classroom observations

4.2.1.1 EAP Classroom K observation

I visited a class taught by a male teacher with a good command of English on 29 October, 2014. I observed that the teacher was on time and entered the room ten minutes before the due time as I was standing by the wall outside his classroom. I entered the room at precisely 8:00 and sat at the back of the classroom. When the teacher saw me, he came to the place where I was sitting and greeted me. He talked to me for quite a while, apologising for not having had time to prepare a new lesson and for dealing with grammar exercises only. After a number of explanations, he shut the door behind himself before he resumed his place in front of the class to start teaching the morning lesson. I noted that he introduced the lesson telling the students that they were going to do grammar exercises and immediately wrote an exercise on a small green board. He instructed the students to put the verbs in brackets in the present perfect progressive:

'You look hot.' 'I... (run).'

I... letters. (write).

He... . (stand)

I observed that the sentences were written in isolation. After the teacher had finished jotting the exercise on the board, he gave his students about ten minutes to do it individually. After completion of the exercise, students were first required to provide appropriate answers, secondly to individually write down two sentences following the model sentences which were still on the green board, thirdly to have turns writing their sentences on the board for about four minutes, and lastly to draw grammatical rules regarding the use of the present perfect progressive from the series of sentences which were on the small green board. As the students were doing the task, the teacher began walking round in the classroom glancing at some students' copies and making comments. For example, I noted that he asked a student how the name Mary was spelled.

I observed that the following, which happened when the exercise on the board was being corrected:

T: This is the consequence. This is part of looking hot. When do you look hot? When you have been running? You have been running for instance, you have been running and you look hot because you have been running. Yeah, what have you done in morning, you have been running, that means you are still running.... Hum, hum. Goodness. So, the action actually is finished. By this evidence of the action, because that person looks hot. The action is finished. You can see the evidence that, that person is looking hot. Do you understand? The person looks hot because he has been running.... we use present perfect continuous, when one also can see the evidence in the present time.

The above extract implies that the teacher was inculcating grammatical rules into students' heads and more rules were drawn during the correction of students' own sentences. One case was that of a student who jotted down a sentence in which she used the verb to miss: *I have been missing my family since on 9 August, 2014*. The teacher said miss is a non-progressive verb and asked for more non-progressive verbs. The verb *die* was given and then the teacher told the student that the use of *die* depended on its meaning. He said that one dies once and for all, but that we can utter sentences such as *I have been dying for you*.

I noted that apart from sentence completion and sentence building and the statement of rules on the use of the present perfect progressive, no further activities were conducted. The teacher attempted to deal with a second grammar exercise on the past perfect, but when he noticed that the students had forgotten the rules, he erased both the instructions and the model sentence he had already written on the board. He sighed deeply and blamed the class for forgetting things they had studied the previous year. He said was looking for an exercise on the use of the infinitive and -ing form. This exercise would not be related to the previous 'two' at all and the attempt to do unrelated grammar exercises made me wonder whether the teacher had a specific goal in mind for the lesson.

I observed that the students were supposed to have memorised the grammatical rules and to know how to apply them in sentences. I also observed that the students were passive and bored. Many left the room as the teacher was attempting to get another exercise; others slept on their tables, chatted on their phones or murmured to one another to express boredom. I even heard one student say loudly that they were tired of exercises, but that nothing was done to raise students' motivation and involvement in the lesson which was supposed to last six consecutive hours. As

the lesson was teacher-oriented and students had few opportunities to express themselves, I could not evaluate their English communication skills.

4.2.1.2 EAP Classroom U observation

On 7 November from 8: 00 to 9: 00, I visited a language class taught by a female teacher with a reasonably good English. Fifty-two students attended the class. The teacher first greeted the class and introduced me to them as a PhD student conducting research on EAP. She then introduced her lesson as follows:

T: Mary is talking to John. What is this to standing here?

S: preposition

T: You see that a preposition comes before the noun John. Second sentence, she is writing with a pencil. Who has any proposition in this sentence? What is the preposition here?

S: with

They are discussing about tests. Then, we have about. You see that normally prepositions come before nouns. But they also come before pronouns. For example, if I say, he is looking at her. What is the preposition here?

Students: at

As the above extract indicates, I observed the teacher who gave model sentences in which she underlined the target words, stated grammatical rules and made use of short eliciting questions until she introduced the end position of prepositions in sentences:

T: Mary is talking to John. Let me ask you to use the relative who. Ask a question using the relative who for the same sentence.

S: Who is Mary talking to?

T: Now, what is the position of the preposition here? The position of the preposition in this sentence? It comes at the end of an interrogative sentence. Let give another sentence. She is writing with a pencil. Ask here a question where we have a preposition at the end of a question.

S: what she is writing with?

T: what she is writing with?

T and class: what is she writing with?

A new feature here is that the teacher and more capable students helped to correct a mistake produced by a weak student. I observed that after the teacher had raised the students' awareness of the end position of prepositions, she instructed the students to make their own sentences.

Students wrote sentences in their notebooks and then produced them orally. Thereafter, students did exercise 1 on page 38 in *The New English Cambridge Course 3* (see appendix3). Model sentences were provided to students before they filled in the gaps in the real exercise. I observed that the use of the end position of prepositions in sentences was followed by exercises on positive and negative tags. The introduction to negative tags is provided below:

Mary was 8, wasn't she?

He went to Kigali, didn't he?

They haven't phoned, have they?

He won't be late, will he?

I observed that the teacher wrote the above sentences on the board, read them, underlined the short questions they contained, and then asked the students to say the kind of questions they were and to make the rule. While dealing with tags, I observed that students had difficulty using irregular tags and produced sentences such as *somebody is knocking on the door, isn't they or doesn't they; let's go to school, will we/you*, and the like. But the teacher provided them with as much support as she could in order to have the rules mastered. However, I also observed that she blamed them for forgetting things.

You forgot about it. You left it. Hum. What did I teacher there? English is difficult with the same thing that you see all the time. So, you must sacrifice your notes. Starting from afresh when you see something that you saw last year. You cannot start from afresh because there are things that you saw last year, right? We are doing a revision now... I told you and you have that in your notes...

The above extract indicates that students learnt rules over and over again and took notes that they did not read for further application. I observed that the teacher's language support was followed by exercises 2 and 3 on tags on page 38 of the NCEC 3 (see appendix 3) and that they probably did more grammar exercises because, by the time I was getting ready to leave, the teacher said she was going out and instructed them to go to page 39 of the NCEC 3 if they had no questions related to the previous exercises. In case they finished doing the exercises on page 39 before she came back, she instructed them to go to page 42.

Throughout the lesson, I also observed that the students interacted with books, the board, peers and the teacher. I also observed that the books were few and that the teacher made use of Kinyarwanda to rebuke the students who were making noise in the classroom.

4.2.1.3 EAP classroom J observation

I made the above observation on 10 December, 2014. The lesson was taught by a female teacher with a good command of English. Before I entered the classroom, she informed me that she had planned to deal with oral presentations and that when she was selected for classroom observation she preferred to conduct activities on grammar. I requested her to deal with presentations, but in vain.

I observed that the teacher started her lesson by informing students that she had been marking their scripts and that their performance was poor. She said, *'start weeping as marks for your CAT were bad. I have been marking your papers and I realised that the marks were few.'* I then noted that more comments were made and instructions given before the real lesson started. With regards to instructions, I noted that she made use of Kinyarwanda to ascertain that the students had understood what she meant even though her Kinyarwanda was poor, but later I observed that when students made use of Kinyarwanda among themselves to negotiate and make meaning, the teacher said that they were using *Kinyarwanda in English*.

After the teacher had made comments, she said the class was going to deal with the passive voice and asked whether there was somebody who did not understand its use. An extract from the introductory part of the lesson is provided below:

A student: yes

Teacher: So, it's your first time? It's your first time? We looked at passive voice in the first year.

So, how do we form a passive voice? How is a passive voice formed? Yes, how is it formed?

What do you think about passive voice? Ah ah ah. What do you think about passive voice?

Student: (words not heard at the back of the class)

Teacher: So, it is formed using the verb to be, followed by the past participle. So, since it is not past, you have to look at some sentences which are in active voice, and you are going to change into a passive voice.

So, let's look at some of these examples in active, how do we change them into passive. Yes.

Student: beans are being eaten by Jane.

As the above extract indicates, I observed that the class had already learnt the use of the passive voice and that some students had forgotten what they learnt about it. I also observed that students were required to give the rules on the use of the passive and to change sentences from the active to the passive voice. The first model sentence *Jane is eating beans* was changed into *beans are being eaten by Jane*, and I noticed that the teacher asked whether there was an article missing and the students replied that there was. The teacher then said *The beans are being eaten by Jane* could be an alternative for that sentence. I heard the students murmuring, but a mistake was corrected.

I observed that this activity was subsequently followed by an exercise on verb conjugation in context which led the teacher to tell her students that they preferred P1 (primary 1) work to work which made them sweat and another on the use of tag questions. The exercise on tags was introduced as follows:

*So, we are going to talk about question tags. Still I think, it is not the first time that you going to see question tags (*2) But some people are given questions to put in tags, I am coming from Cameroon and you start saying Comen't I? When you are given questions like I am coming from Cameroon, you say Cameroon't I? comen't I? Don't you say that? Coment' I? I think it happens to you, Cambaran't I? Talkign't I? You make sure that the teacher laughs. That is drama that has not been even paid. Grammar doesn't change. Still there are things that seem to be unusual...you love me, and tag is; loven't me? men't you?*

As indicated in the above excerpt, I realized that students' common mistakes were echoed several times and that students laughed at their own mistakes. I observed that, for the three exercises, the teacher first wrote everything on the board silently and then sent one student to the board for the correction of a whole exercise, which caused noise and boredom in the classroom and was time-consuming. Students' mistakes were later corrected by the teacher. I also noted that there had been a cheating case during the CAT and that students had been penalized. Furthermore, some students came late and others left prematurely.

4.2.1.4 EAP classroom R observation

I observed this lesson on 11 February, 2015 at the beginning of semester 2 which started on the 9th of the same month. The lesson I observed was the teacher's first encounter with the students in semester 2. The observation started at 9:24 instead of 8:00 after a long time of negotiation with the teacher who wanted me to observe his Saturday class. He informed me that he was not

sure of what to teach since he and a colleague of his had been discussing the programme to be taught, but could not make a final decision without the accord of the module leader and other two language teachers who were absent. He thus said he and his colleague were going to rely on old notes.

I observed that the teacher silently stood in front of the class for quite some minutes before he apologised for being late and promised to catch up. After he had apologised, the teacher said that the course of General English was taught in semester 1 to prepare the class for Business Communication. He said they were going to have six hours that day as usual as the time table had not changed and to deal with subject-agreement, something important they would have covered in semester 1. He said he found it important because students normally fail to match subjects and verbs when writing compositions and that their small mistakes can make readers question the authenticity of their texts and even hinder communication.

I observed that one activity was conducted after the teacher had drawn grammatical rules on the use of singular and plural verbs from the sentences *The Mayor, with/as well as/together with his cancellers, is going to prison, Either my brothers or father going to sell the house. (is, are), Either my father or brothersgoing to sell the house. (is, are)*. Primarily, I observed that the teacher gave the rule concerning the sentence *the Mayor...*

Okay, the Mayor, of course what we have between commas can modify what comes before comas, but it will not change the subject. The subject is the mayor; it is not a mayor with his counsellors. So, we say a mayor is going to, okay, is going to prison. We don't consider the words between, okay, between comas. Why? Because, we have with, okay, with introduce with, as well as, together with. When we have a noun that is followed by a modifier that begins with as well as or together with, okay this does not change a subject. So, we say, a mayor with his counsellors is going to prison....

I realised that the teacher gave the above explanations and asked questions that he himself answered. He proceeded in the same manner with the two sentences with *either* after the students had filled them in with wrong answers. The teacher rectified the two answers and said,

In the first sentence is is the best alternative, why, because, when the conjunction or, okay, we have the conjunction or. Okay it can be nor or or. When, it is used, it is the noun closer to the verb that determines the number of the verb. Because the noun closer to the verb is singular, the verb must be singular. In the second sentence, because the noun that is closer to the verb is

plural, a verb must be plural. So, that is the rule. It is very simple. When you know the rules, it becomes very simple.'

I observed that the teacher justified why he had used *is* in the first sentence and *are* in the second and that he provided rules on subject-verb agreement in paired sentences containing either...or and neither... nor. I also noticed that the teacher found the knowledge of rules prior to practice of paramount importance.

I also observed that after the teacher had provided the above rules, he conducted one grammar exercise consisting of 20 sentences that were silently written on the board. I observed that she instructed the class to do the exercise in groups and to only jot down answers in order to save time, but I noticed that the students copied everything and that they gradually completed the sentences as they were taking notes. The first four sentences are as shown below:

The Price of these jeans ... reasonable. (is/are)

Butter and bread ... our daily food. (is, are)

The boy who won the two medals ... a friend of mine. (is, are)

The famous composer and singer ... arrived. (has, have)

I observed that twenty isolated sentences were written on the board and that each time a couple of verbs: one in the singular and another in plural were given for the students to make a choice. Twenty minutes after the students had been doing the exercise, I observed that the teacher sent teams of five students to the board at a time and asked them to fill the gaps in the sentences. After all the gaps in the sentences were filled in, the teacher proceeded to the discussion with students. He would ask whether an answer was wrong or correct and then justify why the singular or the plural was used. For example, he said a singular verb was used in the second sentence because butter and bread were our daily food and made one thing. The teacher asked for the students' agreement and they complied with him. Thus, I observed that during the negotiation of answers with students some mistakes were passed on.

In general, I observed a total absence of interaction in the classroom. Teacher-talk was also very limited and students did not have textbooks or any other materials to interact with apart from the board. I also noted that more than three quarters of the class were absent. Sixty-eight out of more than 200 attended the class.

4.2.1.5 EAP classroom M observation

On October 30, 2014, I observed a lesson on composition in the course of English communication skills 3 in semester 1. The lesson I observed was taught by a male teacher who had a reasonable command of English. I started observing the lesson 30 minutes late because of miscommunication between the teacher and me and missed the introductory part, but when I entered the room, I realised that the teacher was dealing with composition:

Teacher: a composition is therefore a kind of writing in which thoughts and ideas are put together using words in a certain way to express one's feelings or imagination. Er, all are talking about writing a composition. You saw, it is derived from the word compose. It derives from the word?

Students: compose

Teacher: which means to put together so as to form a whole entity. You see now how we are putting together and then we are trying to express, how we put, how do we put together different ideas to come up with a complete entity. And if you are asked to write a composition, you are going to either describe something or you are going to narrate something. You understand? Either to describe something or to narrate something. It may be a descriptive composition or it may be a narrative composition. Now you have to express, put them together, compose and put together and come up with something complete, something complete, are we together? ...

As the above excerpt indicates, I observed the teacher who had prepared notes that he narrated to the students and that he talked about the same point over and over again. I observed that the students were assumed to listen and comply or disagree with the teacher whenever he asked if they understood or were following the lesson. But as the lesson went on, I observed that the teacher wanted them to contribute to their own knowledge as indicated by the excerpt below:

T: 'Members participate! You read what you have written and try to discuss.... I was expressing my concern and I wonder whether we shall ever understand one another. I have been agreeing with you since we met, that is, we should always share ideas, exchange talk, it is not only the matter of pour knowledge in your heads. I don't have that capacity. We have to share ideas, you understand.'
S: hum, hum, hum.

However, students were passive and the teacher continued despite encountering learning difficulties:

Hum. Don't worry. I am going to repeat. I know where the problems are. Don't worry. Don't worry. Don't worry, but I told you this, do you remember what I asked you to do from day one? Put your work at everyone's disposal. If someone can't get what I am saying, maybe someone else has got it. Therefore, put it same at everybody's disposal disposal so that at least....This is not a high school, don't hide.'

I noticed that the teacher said the above after students started murmuring. The students had difficulty taking notes, but they had already been given a strategy which would enable them to fill in the missing text.

Throughout the lesson, I noted that the teacher made use of hand movements to facilitate the transmission and understanding of the lesson. He also used Kinyarwanda proverbs to give the class some moral lessons. For example, he told a group of students who were late that *nyakibi ntarara arushye* which could literally be translated as *if you have bad manners you cannot hide*. I observed that twenty students entered the room late at different moments of the day carrying chairs with which the lesson was disrupted.

4.2.1.6 EAP classroom N observation

I made the above observation on February 19, 2015. Before I went to class for observation, the teacher whose class I visited received me in his office like an old friend. In his office, he informed me about the lack of a Business Communication curriculum to cover, students' tradition not to attend classes the first week of the semester and the absence of teaching materials such as textbooks and radios. He also talked about students' failure in the English course in semester 1 due to administrative issues, particularly the late start of the academic year 2014-2015, the late registration of the survivors of the genocide, and the academic rule according to which students with repeat subjects were not allowed to enter classrooms before their payment of outstanding fees for these subjects. He said all these factors impeded the implementation of EAP courses.

At precisely 8:00, I observed that two classes were waiting for their teachers in the same room and that the teacher I visited told those who were formerly taught by a lecturer whose contract was terminated to follow their new teacher who had entered the room along with us. Thirty-three students left and only 17 stayed in the room. I observed that after the 33 students had left, the teacher introduced me to his own students as a PhD student conducting research for the completion of doctoral studies and requested them to be active. He distributed a one-page text to the class, told them that the copies were not sufficient for each student to get a copy of his own, and that two students should share a copy and read the text silently. The text consisted of eight paragraphs the first and last of which are given below:

1. *If you want to do business in an English-speaking country, you should learn English, of course. But that is just the first step. You also need to understand the culture. However, there are large cultural differences among English-speaking countries. The differences between the United Kingdom (UK) and countries with shorter histories are especially large. Australia and the United States, for example, are much younger than the UK. Their business cultures are also different. Here is some information that can help you if you do business in the UK...*

8. *In conclusion, remember that the UK has a long history and many traditions. In business, the cultural rules are not the same as they are in younger countries such as Australia and the United States.*

I observed that the text had no title and that all the paragraphs had been numbered and clearly separated. The silent reading lasted 13 minutes and was followed by five consecutive questions and another reading activity. The text was read paragraph by paragraph. Throughout the reading, I noticed that a student mispronounced the word *suit* contained in paragraph four and that the teacher repeated it twice with the right pronunciation to help the student correct his own mistake. He then asked for the meaning of this word and that of the word *stripes*, but nobody answered. I noted that the teacher himself explained the term stripes:

Stripes like maybe, this one is wearing stripes. Stripes can be straight. Stripes can horizontal or whatever. Those are stripes. Ni imirongo niba nabyita imirongo, amashati y'imirongo ya za careaux careaux (they are lines, if I can call them lines, shirts with both vertical and horizontal lines).

A student wearing a striped shirt and code mixing (Kinyarwanda and French) were used as tools to communicate knowledge. I also noted that the difference between bright and dark colours was given by means of examples and the expression *small talk* that occurred in paragraph 5 was also explained through an exchange of ideas between the teacher and the students and examples. At the same time, the teacher exposed students to British business-related culture.

I observed that towards the end of the reading activity, the teacher gave a summary of the lesson, asked students comprehension questions, gave them a written task and said they should produce texts similar to the model text they had been reading:

Now, I want you to write one paragraph and this paragraph is going to start with the same topic sentence. You are all from a short break. Some of you had a wonderful break and some had a terrible break. The topic is I had a wonderful/terrible or bad break. Suppose this is our topic sentence. Now, I want your supporting sentences and your conclusion....this is an individual work, not a group work. I will tell you when to share. Please do not think too much. Write whatever comes to your mind... Exchange copies with colleagues. Go through your peers' paragraphs. Read your peers' paragraphs and see if there are any mistakes, maybe grammar, spelling, punctuation, sentence structure, things like those. Don't change anything, when you find

a mistake discuss it with your peer.... Discussions should be in English, not in Kinyarwanda. Talk in English. Now you can shout talking to your friend, but do not shout in Kinyarwanda. Talk in English.

The implication from the above extract is that (1) students individually developed a one-paragraph text on the same topic following the stream of their ideas, (2) exchanged copies with peers for error correction, (3) discussed their mistakes with peers, and (4) were not allowed to make use of Kinyarwanda during their discussions.

After pairs of students had exchanged ideas, some paragraphs believed to be well-written by their producers were shared with the teacher and the whole class and the mistakes were gradually corrected. I heard a student read the following passage:

I had a wonderful break. I met with my friend. I met my friend whom contacted two years ago. I had the chance to know some interested information concerned to my own home. I took information on my English course. I had converse with my friend. I had a break me. A break is very important for a student I have met.

I observed some errors in the paragraph. The teacher said that the student had tried but that the paragraph certainly contained mistakes. Therefore, both he and the class provided him with language support as he re-read the paragraph sentence by sentence to enable them to correct it efficiently. For example, I noted that the teacher and the class negotiated the meaning of the sentence *I met my friend whom contacted two years ago* until they agreed that it meant 'he met someone that he had not seen for two years'. The teacher also gave the difference between the participial adjectives *interested* and *interesting* and instructed the student who had produced the paragraph to revisit it as it had some problems. Thereafter, another text was examined and the teacher focused more on the use of connecting words such as *however*.

4.2.1.7 EAP classroom R observation

On February 21, the teacher and I entered the classroom. He wrote the title *Business communication* on a green board and introduced the lesson:

T: What is communication?

S: Communication is the exchange of information.

T: Apart from information, what else can you exchange? Ideas, facts, opinions. Why do we communicate?

Ss(silent)

T: So, communication is the sharing/exchange of information, ideas, and opinions in order to have a common understanding. Is there a difference between communication and information?

Ss: They are the same.

T: hum. They are different. In communication, there is feedback. Be sure that the message was received and that there was feedback. If there is no reaction, there is no communication. Feedback is important as far as communication is concerned. The target of information can be unknown.

I noted that the teacher drew on students' input to define the term *communication* and established the difference between *communication and information*. After the teacher had done this, he named students to talk about the importance of communication and when he saw that they had given various insights, he put an end to their contribution stating *and many others*. He then completed students' views with his own.

I observed that at the beginning, students were involved in the lesson, but their participation was followed by total silence on the part of the teacher who silently copied notes from a book on the board for 25 minutes. I noticed that he did not turn his back to see what was happening behind him. Only 3 students out of 26 were jotting the notes whereas others were busy doing different things.

When the teacher finished writing the first part of the notes on the board, he kept quiet for another 10 minutes waiting for the students who were taking notes to finish. He then started reading the notes sentence by sentence and explaining some technical expressions. For example, he explained the terms internal and external communication, but he relied too much on his notes as he had difficulty expressing himself. His explanations were followed by group work requiring students to discuss eight components of effective communication. He drew a map of the concept of effective communication from a book and told the class to discuss its constitutive elements. He also told the students that he would give his own insights after they had completed the task. I left when this group activity was happening, but I noticed that the students were exchanging ideas and building knowledge through Kinyarwanda.

4.2.1.8 EAP classroom D observation

On February 27th, 2015, I visited a class of Business Communication. I was thirty-minutes late due to the teacher's constant change of programme. The teacher had promised that I would observe his class at 2:00 on February 27th, but late on the eve of my observation, he called to inform me that the lesson would take place at 10:00 as he had a meeting at 2:00. It was late for me to book a seat on the morning bus.

When I entered the classroom, I noticed that the 210 students were present and that the following was written on the board:

Introduction to Business Communication

i. What is business Communication as long as organs are concerned?

ii. Effective communication (completeness, conciseness, consideration, courtesy, clarity, correctness, and concreteness)

iii. Barriers to Business Communication (lack of knowledge, lack of confidence, lack of trust, bias, and noise)

I observed that the above points had probably been covered or that they were to be covered during the lesson. I then heard the teacher say

well, we were talking about effective communication and we were talking about lack of knowledge and lack of attention. All those we saw, you have talked about are in the area of, they are barriers to effective communication. There is lack of communication skills. What did you say? Language issue? You talked about conflict between two parties which are communicating.... So if you want to communicate effectively without any barriers, you have to be confident...

I observed that students had been given input concerning barriers to effective communication and that the teacher was repeating what the class had already said. Later, I observed that he asked for more barriers to effective communication and read pre-established notes from a laptop to comment on them. For example, the teacher said a *bias* could be a barrier to communication and asked for its meaning. Nobody replied and the teacher said a *bias* was nothing else, but information people capture. I observed that the students were not satisfied with the explanations and that they twice asked the teacher to be more explicit. The word *bias* was then explained as

When there is no clarity. Because there is no clarity; a message has been communicated but not understood. The person delivering the message maybe has no capacity.

I noted that a mistake was communicated and that students seized the opportunity to ask for the distinction between the concepts of bias and rumour. The teacher gave explanations in English, used the structure of the college in which he was teaching to explain the word *rumour* better, and even checked students' understanding by asking for its French equivalent. I noted that the students made fun of the teacher's explanations by loudly assigning the term *rumour* wrong definitions such as *lack of power* and *lack of attention* and laughing. I observed that the teacher also made use of practical examples and referred to local organisations to explain certain concepts when there was miscommunication between the students and him due to poor English communication skills. For example, a student asked *if is someone in an organisation can have his own perception with the others*, but the teacher could not understand the question. After negotiation of meaning by means of examples by the teacher and the student, the question was understood and an answer was provided.

Throughout the lesson, I observed that teacher-talk prevailed and that the students were allotted few minutes at the end to discuss assignments on barriers to communication they were given the previous day. Students barely put their hands up, and the teacher made his own choice of who should talk. I observed that during the discussions students were not allowed to raise points that could lead to the transformation of their academic world. For example, a student raised an issue pertaining to studies at her institution of higher learning. She said that students were always given the same package of notes due to teachers' resistance and she asked in Kinyarwanda why it should be so. The teacher required her to show the similarity between her statement and the lesson and the student said she had considered challenges at her institution because the college was of great value for students. Rather than listening, the teacher asked if her view aimed at closing the lesson and said that challenges would always be there.

Furthermore, I noted that the students at the back of the classroom could not hear what their peers were saying. For example, a student sitting next to me purposely rang his phone alarm three times to disturb the class and I heard him exchanging words with another student sitting behind me. The student behind me asked in Kinyarwanda what it was the teacher was doing and my neighbour said he did not really know what it was.

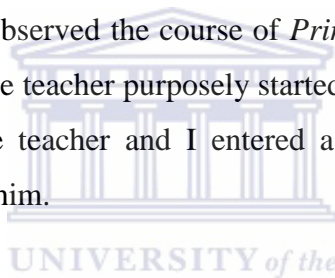
By the end of the lesson, I noticed that students were informed about my presence in the classroom and that I was requested to introduce myself to the class. I therefore walked to the front of the classroom and introduced myself. The class clapped their hands and I said farewell.

4.2.2 Raw data from non-language classes

The express purpose behind the observations in content subjects was to see whether teachers gave language support to their students and whether there was cooperation between both language and content subject teachers. Thus, I visited four non-language classes in semester 1 to find out whether my assumptions with regard to this were real on the ground. Two lessons were on Taxation and the other two on Information Management System (IMS).

4.2.2.1 Principles of Taxation 1

In the afternoon of October 30, I observed the course of *Principles of Taxation*. The lesson was supposed to start at 1:00 pm, but the teacher purposely started 30 minutes late as he had to go for lunch first. At precisely 1:30, the teacher and I entered a nice big room where almost two hundred students were waiting for him.



I observed that the teacher first asked the students whether they were fine, and said that students looked tired because they were not active. He actually told the students that they were not vibrating. I then realised that the teacher had a look in two different students' notebooks and said that it was important to know where the previous teacher had stopped so that he would not duplicate the notes. He then introduced his lesson entitled *corporate tax*, made comments that revealed that he owned a specific commercial book from which he normally drew questions and their corresponding answers, and encouraged the class to look for it so that it could serve them as a guide.

I realised that from the beginning to the end of my observation, the lesson was teacher-oriented:

So, when you make profit from your business, you pay taxes. so that is why you have something, but there are taxes that must be paid by an entity or a corporation basing on the amount of the profit generated. So when you get profit you are required by the law to pay taxes. But what about if you incur a loan? What would happen if you incur a loan? Because it is not every time that you have to get profit. There are some instances that you will definitely get losses when the business is not growing, when the economy is not fine and the consumption demand is low and when most of your consumers are not employed, that means that the consumption is going to be low and the

supply is going to exceed the demand. Prices are going to be lowered and definitely you will get losses. So what about if you incur a loss, what could happen? Hum. What is going to happen? Are you going to pay taxes on loss?

Students: No.

I observed that the teacher transmitted knowledge speaking at the top of his voice and moving round the classroom which was too big for somebody to move up and down for a long time. He had mastery of the lesson that he delivered without reading notes as he moved from one place to another. He only stopped walking when there were calculations to show to students. I also observed that he asked a series of questions that he himself generally answered through his explanations. In most cases, when the students replied to his questions, they clearly articulated the yes/no responses and spoke in low voices when answering open questions, which prevented the class from sharing insights and engaging in discussions. For example, I report what happened on one occasion:

Very good. I have got the answer I have been looking for. Now I am not going to bother you. I know you were scared. You were scared. (Noise) Hum. You were scared thinking I am coming for your answers. So I have got what that person has given me, that is, the answer I was looking for.

I noted that a student gave an answer which only the teacher caught and that the class wanted their peer to repeat it. Rather than asking the student to repeat the answer for the whole class to benefit from it, the teacher said they should not worry as he got the answer he needed. I thus noted that he seemed not to care about the students' understanding and contribution to their own learning. As a result, the class was generally inactive and noisy until the teacher made use of Kinyarwanda to explain the expression *group lending facility* that students appeared not to have understood in English:

Hum. Muri mu group y' abantu cumi, mwishyize hamwe mujiye kwiguriza amafaranga muri microfinance institution kugirango mwikorere umushinga wanyu mwatekerejeho ariko mwese uko muri icumi ntanumwe ufite ingwate none icyo mujiye gukora nuko umwe wese ari bube ingwate yundi, ingwate. Mu bantu icumi. Iyo niyo bita group lending facility. Wowe sha, uragenda umwe akishingira undi. Hagira uwambura abandi icyenda bakabyishyura bate? Hanyuma hagira ubura abandi bakaba responsible. Hagira uhemuka akaba ahemukiye bagenzi be. Banki yo ntakibazo, it is going to get there.

I realised the whole class was listening and taking notes when the teacher was providing explanations in Kinyarwanda. The class also got excited and involved in the lesson when the teacher gave examples of organisations (religious, humanitarian, charitable, scientific, and educational) which do not normally pay taxes. I noticed that students were interested in such

topics and in figures. For example, the whole classroom was awake when figures were used to explain difficult expressions such as *tax benefit*. I also noted that the teacher referred to the Rwandan context to explain the lesson. Examples related to the Rwandan context such as BRALIRWA (Brasserie et Limonaderie du Rwanda, KCB (Kigali Commercial Bank), Rwanda Media Group and others were used.

I observed that, even though the teacher explained some difficult expressions and asked short questions, he did not intend to develop his students' communication skills. He narrated the lesson from the beginning to the end of one-hour observation and the notes I transcribed cover more than 25 pages.

4.2.2.2 Principles of Taxation 2

It was 8:00 a.m when I arrived at one of the former higher institutions of learning in Rwanda, where there is a CBE branch. I went straight to class for observation. Two teachers of different subjects and from different colleges along with their students had a clash in the same room. They argued over the room for an hour and their disputes indicated that there was a shortage of rooms at the college under study. At precisely 9:00, I started my observation. I noticed that more than 200 hundred students were present.



I observed that the lesson was entitled taxation. The teacher explained the concepts of Value Added Tax under its various forms. From the beginning to the time I left, the teacher made use of many examples with calculations. These examples were related to the Rwandan context. An extract is provided to support this:

Let us state three business people. We have A. We have B and C. A is being with standard rates. Okay. B is doing storage and supplies and C is doing with exempted. Let's do with this. Assume that all these people when they are buying from people who are registered on VAT and they are charged VAT. And suppose these people have furnitures. Let be started by sells. Suppose all the sells are equal. This one has 30,000 of sells, and this one also this is A. this B also has 30,000 of sells and C has 30,000 of sells. This is the amount of sells. The one who is being the standard rate will tax the value added tax on the sells. Let us apply 18% of 30,000 of the amount. Calculate the percentage. How much? Okay VAT is 5400. The one who is doing zero rate because on sells he will not apply 18% because there is no value added tax here collected...

The above extract indicates that the teacher's English language proficiency was poor. I also observed that the lesson was teacher-oriented and that only eliciting questions such as *is it understandable, are we together, and is it okay, and any question of that* were asked. No

language support was given and students were barely given opportunities to talk at all and the teacher stood near his computer to have a glance at his notes. I observed that only few students occupying the front part of the class were listening and busy taking notes. The majority of the class were making a noise, chatting on phones and with neighbours. Some students would even leave the room without permission, come back to class or stay outside. Others would enter the room late and at different moments of the lesson. Others were sleeping. Generally, the teaching and learning environment was not conducive to serious engagement. The classroom was on a main road.

4.2.2.3 Information Management System 1

On 9 December, I visited a lesson on E-commerce. The lesson was supposed to start at 3: 00 p.m., but it commenced at 3:10 p.m. It was taught by a male teacher with a Ugandan English accent. The teacher introduced the lesson by reminding the class what they last saw: the different definitions of the internet by different scholars, and said that as far as his course was concerned, he was going to talk about e-commerce - the buying and selling of goods and services using electronic means, especially the World Wide Web. I noted that, at some point, the teacher noticed that the whole class had syllabuses and congratulated them for having managed to have syllabuses. I then heard a student loudly say '*aratunguwe*' (which means, he is surprised as he did not expect the students to have the notes.)

Throughout the lesson, I observed that the teacher explained difficult terminologies such as the intronet, etronet, explanet, the Internet Service Providers (ISPs), Hypertext Markup Language (HTML), and the World Web Wide (WWW). The WWW was explained by means of examples or translated into Kinyarwanda or French. For example, he referred to WWW as *wa wa wa or double v, double v, double v*. French and Kinyarwanda were made use of to find out what people call *sit down*. The teacher told students who were late, '*asseyez-vous, s'il vous plait* (sit down, please). What do we say? *Assis-toi*' (singular form of sit down). *Asseyez vous* (sit down).' I noted that the teacher's use of French amused the students who laughed a lot. The teacher then asked them in Kinyarwanda, '*bavuga*' (they say)' and a student replied, '*asseyez vous*'.

I also observed that the teacher made drawings on the board, used slides and body movements to explain the channels through which websites and tags are created, the different phases of a

website, and how tags are attached to texts. I noted that the students were excited during the whole lesson, but that the teacher had told them not to ask questions, but to keep quiet and write. Only by the end of the lesson did the teacher authorise the class to ask questions. The material was prepared in advance, but the teacher did not use the slides all the time. He rather used practical examples to explain the lesson. The time was somehow well managed even though the class started late. Few students had attended the class. More than the half of the class were absent and even those who attended the lesson entered the room one by one at different moments and interrupted the teacher all the time. These students who came late made noise when looking for space to sit, pulling their chairs, and unfolding them. The room was big enough to accommodate all the students who had attended the class and it could even accommodate a class four times the one I observed.

4.2.2.4 Information Management System 2

On the 17 December 2014, I observed a lesson taught by a male lecturer with a good command of English. He said he normally started class at 6:00 rather than 5:30 pm and purposely went to class late. At first he did not greet the students. He remained silent for about five minutes after which he greeted them in Kinyarwanda, asked a question in Kinyarwanda inquiring in which year the students were and went outside. I sensed that he was furious because only 21 of the 100 students were present. He came back at precisely 6:20 and asked another question in Kinyarwanda to know if the students were willing to study. The comments went on for quite some time and this was time-consuming.

After the teacher had asked whether the students were ready to study, I observed that he did not immediately tackle a new lesson. He first wanted to promote interaction between him, module descriptions and the students (31 at that time) to find a chapter that had not been covered.

In the course of the lesson, the teacher mostly made use of code switching and code-mixing even though the official language of instruction is English. For example, he mixed Kinyarwanda and English when introducing a new chapter. He said, '*Now, hari ichapter tugiye kwiga entitled E-market places and mechanisms*' (*Now, we are going to study a chapter entitled E-commerce places and mechanisms*). I later heard the teacher resort to French:

And what we call portals, do you know what a portal is, irembo, irembo mugifransa baryita ngo iki? Mu gifaransa baryita ngo iki?

Student: portail.

Teacher: mubifate noneho ko ibingibi bimeze nka portail.

I noticed that all the means of communication at the students' disposal were used to disseminate knowledge and that the students were involved in the learning process:

Teacher: Now, we are talking about doing business on ...If you are a company manager, could you advise your company to transform into electronic business? Yes or not?

A student: sure. Yes, it is yes?

Teacher: can you stand up and explain e-commerce, why do you advise your company to do electronic business?

Student: I would advise my company to go through electronic commerce because, in nowadays, it is the one that people like to buy things through internet, more than going to the market.

Teacher: why people like that? Are there advantages? Yes or not?

Student: yes.

Teacher: Can you give two advantages?

Student: the first advantage is that, a client doesn't want to waste time going to market searching for something that he wants or she wants. So, he decide to...

Teacher: another one?

Student: another one, it is more convenient and simple, to buy things on the internet more than going to the market.

I observed that a student communicated knowledge to the class through the guidance of the teacher who posed him a series of questions to help him build and communicate more arguments. Furthermore, I observed that students were also allowed to use Kinyarwanda. For example, a student said, 'the output is how much, *impuzangendo*' and the teacher asked her to give the meaning of the Kinyarwanda word, which the student did. The teacher also skilfully raised students' awareness of appropriate vocabulary after they had made mistakes. For example, while describing a market, a student ran short of words and said, '*ntakindi navuga*' (there is nothing else I can say). The teacher did not allow her to resume her place, but rather asked her more questions until he made her aware of the use of cashiers rather than *care* or *clerks' payers*. The teacher also used real physical and local markets and malls to explain words as was the case for *mall* and *store front* and to draw a parallel between physical and e-markets or malls. This parallel was drawn by the end of the chapter as a conclusion drawn from students' own insights.

I realised that after the teacher had compared e-markers/malls to the physical structured markets students had been describing, the teacher wanted to show them how to do e-commerce using smart phones, but that he failed to because only one student owned a smart phone and did not

know how to access its internet. Thus, the teacher instructed the students to visit websites such as ebay.com, priceline.com, yahoo.com when they have access to the internet.

In addition to the *savoir and savoir faire* (see Chapter 2), I observed that the teacher taught the *savoir vivre* (see Chapter 2). For example, he asked a female student who was chewing a gum while talking the class to go outside and spit it since the classroom was different from a restaurant. He also required students to stand up before answering questions.

Obviously, the teacher used varied strategies to facilitate the transmission and understanding of his lesson. He also attempted to safeguard Rwandan culture by teaching students how to be polite. I did not hear students complaining about the teacher's frequent use of Kinyarwanda. In contrast, they paid great attention to what he was saying and several of them were busy taking notes in English when their colleagues were answering questions in English and being scaffolded by the teacher in Kinyarwanda. I observed that the teacher had no prescribed notes to provide to students. He used slides to show the headings of his course.

4.2.3 Summing up my observations

The above observations inform the reader about the materials brought to class, the teaching and learning materials, the strategies employed, disruptive elements, and the class size. They reveal that almost all the classes were teacher-fronted and marked by a monolingual habitus (in this context, the predominance of the English language in a multilingual context), which generally prevent students from participating in lessons. In EAP classes, they indicate that the focus was on grammar to the detriment of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), study skills, students' problem-solving skills, discipline-related materials, and local cultural values.

EAP teachers attempted to familiarise students with the grammatical rules governing the English language and encouraged rote learning, but some occasionally made use of other semiotic means of communication such as Kinyarwanda, French, and gestures to facilitate the teaching and learning process. In EAP, the programme taught varied from one group to another, particularly in Business Communication. However, all groups normally write standardised examinations. The programme taught was prescribed and teachers did not bring additional materials such as discipline-related materials or culturally-oriented topics to class, nor did they develop students'

problem-solving skills and allow them to contribute to the transformation of their academic world. The use of English and narrative lecturing was also predominant in content subject classes, except in one classroom. Almost all the lessons I observed were marked by students' lack of agency and boredom. Both the lack of discipline-related materials in EAP classes and the lack of language support in non-language classes indicated that there was no cooperation between teachers.

The observations also show that classes sometimes started late and that there was scarcity of teaching and learning materials and chairs. Teachers mostly wrote notes and exercises on the chalkboard, and this was time-consuming. Some teachers also displayed gaps in English proficiency that they communicated to students. Furthermore, although classes were big, most students were absent. Some of those who were present disrupted the lessons. The above emerging themes will be developed in Chapter 5. In the next section, I discuss the data generated from interviews.

4.3 Interviews

In the previous section, I presented data generated from observations. In this section, I deal with data gathered during interviews. Interviews are a powerful research tool which enable researchers to explore people's views (Briggs, 1986) of a given past, present or future situation. In the present study, interviews were conducted with twenty individual students (S1-S20), four focus groups consisting of ten students each (F1-F4), five language teachers (LT1-LT6), and four non-language teachers (NLT1-NLT4) one of whom was offering a course presumably perceived as an EAP course by the CBE. The raw data from interviews helped me check whether there was a correlation or a disjuncture between teachers' accounts and the actual practices I observed in the classroom. As I interviewed many participants, it will not be possible to present all the data I gathered in the restricted space in the current study. I will therefore provide the data that illustrate the research questions and will not bring any modification to the accounts in order to remain faithful to my participants and highlight the language-related difficulties some currently encounter.

4.3.1 Students' views of the current English courses offered at CBE

In Chapter 1, I stated that students in higher education in Rwanda, particularly at CBE, face academic linguistic challenges which need to be addressed. In line with this, I conducted individual interviews to identify the weaknesses and the strengths of the current English courses offered at CBE, the extent to which they meet students' needs, how teachers and more capable peers gave language support to weak students, the most promoted genres and discourses, and the strategies used to help students overcome the academic linguistic challenges they face. On the other hand, focus group interviews were conducted to see what can be done in order to respectively remove the weaknesses and reinforce the strengths of the English courses currently taught at CBE. I also explored how the English courses help students understand other academic subjects, language skills that teachers promote the most, language support students get from their teachers, how teachers promote students' problem-solving skills, and the language of instruction that students would prefer to study through to make it possible for them to understand content subjects.

Individual and focus group interviews were complementary in that focus group interviews provided me with information I failed to get from individual ones and vice versa. Both kinds of interviews allowed me to explore the academic world as lived by students and teachers. I asked slightly different questions to enable me to gather meaningful and complete insights. Interview guides for each group of my research population were similar, but probing questions varied depending on the kind of responses I got from my participants.

In the next section, I consecutively present the data that emerged from individual and focus group interviews with students and from individual interviews with teachers. The emerging themes will be discussed and interpreted in Chapter 5.

4.3.1.1 Individual interviews with students

Each student involved in the current study was asked four questions, two of which had sub-questions. The answers to the four questions were almost similar on all campuses I investigated. Therefore, rather than presenting the data as provided by each participant (student) on each Campus, I consider and present their similarities with the most striking illustrations and provide diverging views in case there are any.

The student population involved in the current study was selected from the three research sites as already stated in Chapter 3. All 20 answered the same questions, but in some cases, I found it necessary to ask follow-up questions. However, raw data that emerged from these interviews are so similar that only some of them, along with views contradicting them, are presented.

The first question concerned the strengths and the weaknesses of the EAP courses currently offered at the CBE. It consisted of two sub-questions. The rationale underlying this question was to help find out the strengths and weaknesses of the current English courses offered to second year students at a college of business and economics with the aim to see how English for Academic Purposes can serve as a remedy to the shortcomings experienced in the teaching and learning of English at the above college.

The first sub-question concerned the strengths of the current EAP courses taught at a college of business and economics and the following emerged from the interviews:

S1: We have acquired too much knowledge grammar and tense, things related to tenses. Apart from the grammar or the tenses, we acquire knowledge about punctuation and knowledge about listening skills and a part of writing. We have the strengths in listening skills and in things related to phonology and phonetics as well as things relating to conjugating different verbs in different tenses. Yeah. We have strengths in these issues.

S4: I think the English courses currently taught to me, as like the strengths are so many. The English courses help to know the all grammar and all spelling included in that course when she/he knows that they may lead to know oral presentation, speak without duties because she study what they use the tense or grammar in English courses. Anyway, English course may interest me because are the language which are useful in this moment like in business and so on.

The implication from the two excerpts is that the focus on grammar is seen as a strength. The English courses are also considered as a long-term investment in that they help in business transactions.

S6: I think the strengths with this course is that we are studying business. Our concern is about business. So you see that communication issue is important. Then as we study English this will facilitate us er for many transaction for many communication about business...

This participant also considers EAP courses will enable him to deal with business transactions.

S7: English I learn here helps me to have or to be confident while am speaking because as we are studying, we will need the job which will require the oral interview so in this case I will use the vocabulary and grammar to answer.

The English language I study here will help me to interact with foreigners and to be able to express myself while speaking but I had more practice.

The knowledge of grammar and vocabulary acquired from the English course is said to prepare for job interviews and communication with foreigners. Some students also stated that the English courses are necessary because they helped them learn other courses. For example S19 said:

So the strengths of the English courses as you know, the English is necessary in our life because the English help us to learn very well our courses. If you don't know English, to learn your courses it is very difficult. English is necessary because it help to how to formulate phrases, how to formulate sentences, and how to understand difficult words...

These above students view the English course as a short-term investment. Furthermore, the majority of participants considered EAP teachers as the main strength of their courses:

S1: Another strengths we have in our course is that the lecturer or who teach us er have a great, they are so more knowledgeable. They are qualified and competent. They teach us things they really know and by doing so that we acquire knowledge from them. It is difficult to acquire something from the one who knows nothing. So, in our campus, our lecturer is intelligent and we profit from them and we acquire knowledge from them.

S1 stated that the EAP teachers were qualified and competent. Teachers are knowledgeable and students draw knowledge from them.

S9: The strengths of the English courses currently taught in our college through the student attendance and lecture attendance both makes the class to learn well, also through continuous assignment and exam they help us to do more practice in English courses which allow us to pass with the highest marks.

Teachers' attendance, continuous assignments and examinations motivate students to learn.

S16: Okay other strength I can see regarding the courses is that we are we are being helped in different ways whereby the lecturers anyway they are they attend they don't miss any any lecturer they attend us they teach us by all means and I see that we are improving and anyway the means the way they are they they teach us it's good it favors us so that we can say that it is good anyway at all.

What can be implied from the above excerpt is that teachers' attendance and endeavour, and teaching methodology are also seen as strengths. S20 also said that teachers strive to deliver knowledge as efficiently as they can.

The second sub-question focused on the weaknesses of EAP courses currently taught at the CBE. The majority of the participants complained about the teaching and learning facilities and some of their views are stated below:

S2: There are many weakness like lack of teach enough teaching materials; teaching aids are not enough for students so that they can access how they understand the language... For example, lecturers they do not come in the class with speakers and other materials that enable students to pronounce well English...there are no books as an encouragement to understand English

S19: ... but the weakness are many we didn't have radio of listening to listen the library, the library the books are not enough and it is very difficult to borrow the the books in library because when you go when it is the morning you go in the library and you borrow a book then they they that one who work in library told me that you have to submit evening so the the the time to read the book is not enough.

The first two excerpts indicate that there is a shortage of teaching and learning materials that can help students to understand their courses. Of these materials, S1 said:

The weakness is that there is no no enough er reference books. We use only the Cambridge books, yet we can use other books containing different texts in order to acquire many vocabularies in these books. In these books of Cambridge, er they are written in summary. If yo are not able or you have no no language skills, you can't understand what they really want to mean. In these books, er only lecturers can understand and acquire something from them.

The above view implies that the available teaching materials are inappropriate and monotonous.

In addition to the issue of teaching and learning materials, four students saw their teachers as an impediment to the implementation of EAP courses. For example, S3 said

... The second weakness is that er lecturers of English here it seems that they have no outline that they go through because the lecturer taught whatever he want to teach and another one whatever he want to teach. It means simply that there is different ern from there is different er coursed that being erm held. In group A, it is completely different from that was taught in group B.... it becomes a problem when erm at the time of examination because erm for instance when I belong to group B and another belongs to group C when the examiner is focusing on what has been taught in group B, the opportunities will be for the students of group B and it will be a kind of losing for the students of group C because they will be examined on what they haven't covered during the course... teachers do not enable students to carry out their research on English... and another weakness is black lecturers, Black people whose pronunciation are not appropriate.

What emerges from the above extract is teachers' incompetence, lack of harmonisation of EAP for all groups when they write standardised CATs and examinations, lack of course design and needs analysis. S6 argued that Rwandan teachers lacked an innovative spirit and that they made use of code mixing during classes. He found the failure to use English both in and outside the classroom a big disadvantage. S8 also questioned the EAP lecturers' teaching techniques and suggested that they should borrow some of the techniques used in TOEFL to prepare students for studies in foreign countries.

Three students also complained about the English language as shown below:

S4: I think that English courses have many weaknesses because it isn't the tongue mother language that may lead the difficulty to understand so that courses because are the first time of study that course. I have misunderstand because I think that are the language of the neighbour which are complicated.

S7: ...We are not able to learn well our language of English because the students study well, know well the language when it start from the primary school or advanced level. English is like an obstacle because for me, I know well French as compared to English because I learnt well from primary to advanced because I think iima my 'cerveau c'est quoi en anglais'? (What is cerveau in English)? My brain was too fresh when I learnt well in French I have to conduct well rather than English.

S17: ...we used to be taught almost of the things in French, so you find that our language has gone. It is, we normally use, we used to learn French more than English. So, you can see when we are being taught in English, even if you can write it, but when comes for spoken you find it very hard because of the kind of background which has affected us...

According to the above three students, English makes it difficult to understand academic courses because it is not their mother tongue and because of their French background. S17 stated that students could manage to write things in English, but that their speaking skills were poor.

Three participants said that students lack opportunities to interact in English. For example, S2 said:

Er English lecturers it is also I come again on that issue. It is a main issue. While ere r for example me I have started to study English from primary school up to university, but different lecturers come in front of us telling us how to conjugate different tenses while tenses it is somehow simple matter of English. There are other some technical terms terminologies we need to know as university students so that we can come up with real English so that we can communicate so that we can remove any hindrance (to mean hindrance) in our communications and in worldwide and the lecturers they have erm they are familiar with or they used to teach us they are used to teach us familiar or repeated topics similar topics which are somehow simple that also lead lead students to reject or to get tired of studying similar items in different years in different hours times. That is why we don't erm in that case we suffer from lacky of other additional language and we remain at the same stage and we are acquired to to use our own effort to search additional language different from lecturers.

S1 is of the view that there is a focus on recurring grammar points which do not enable students to interact. S1 argued that there was too much silence in EAP courses even when group discussions were initiated whereas S10 said that most of the teaching hours were spent on writing rather than speaking when students needed to talk. S8 also said that teachers could not collaborate with all students due to large class sizes and small classrooms and that some educated people with a good command of English may fail to appropriately share the knowledge

they have with students. Obviously, this implies that there is boredom and students' lack of agency in the classroom and that little if no time is devoted to other skills. S1 argued that lack of agency was due to an inconvenient teaching time-table according to which they spent six consecutive hours on the same course the same day:

...another weakness we have in our course is about is about or how it er the time table. We study this or this course only once a weak and we spend the whole six hours studying one only one course and if we see that it is somehow boring. It bores us. When you study this course er at least three or three hours these another three hours you are not too much interested. These are somehow boring because we are already bored. It is somehow bored.

Other weaknesses have been identified. For example, S2 said that students did not devote much time to English which they did not consider as a main subject whereas S9 said that both the teachers and students neglected it. S3 also stated that English has been allotted few hours compared to other academic subjects. What is evident from this is that there is lack of investment in the EAP courses.

The second question dealt with the extent to which the current EAP courses met students' academic language needs in relation to other academic courses. The first and second sub-questions focused on whether the courses met the academic linguistic needs and ways in which they met them. Nineteen students said that the courses were useful, particularly, in that they helped them understand other academic subjects. For example, S17 said:

... many theories in Mathematics are written in English and many formulas we applied or we apply in that course also we use English. Also in other course, you cannot get any meaning of the course without knowing English. That is why English is very helpful in our studying of our different courses.

As argued earlier in this section, English is seen as a short and long-term investment. According to S1, the EAP course

help us too much. It is so much essential and it is a medium language we use. It help us to learn other courses as you see. It help us to learn mathematics, accounting, and another. This course does not concentrate on on vocabularies in a given domain. English is very wide.... We cover all terminologies which may be used in all domains. So, it help us too much. It help us to learn all these courses we acquire in this campus. So, without this this language we cannot goes on. So it is very good to help us.

EAP courses are said to equip students with core vocabulary that enables students to follow other subjects. Furthermore, S4 and S16 argued that the courses provided students with technical

words which helped in understanding content subjects, but when asked a follow-up question S16 said that teachers gave students exposure to texts containing core vocabulary and to stories which were not related to content subjects. He then said that it could be a good thing to bring texts relating to content subjects to class.

According to S6 English

... helps us..., it means that you can't be a manager without knowing English or speaking English without knowing or some languages to communicate. It means as I said, English is taken as an international language, it means that it will help you within your organisation you are employed to communicate, to plan to do everything or but the most thing is about to plan and how to motivate employees or or motivate employees without giving them the go without communicating to them. You can't write announcement without like without saying without communicate to people. It means that you have to communicate in a language where everyone is available, is where everyone can understand easily.

English is still seen as a short and long-term investment. This also implies that students become self-confident. Many students stated that EAP courses help them develop the four language communication skills, deepen their knowledge of grammar, acquire skills for international communication. For example, S7 said that lessons on grammar help them to know tenses which, in turn, contribute to good academic achievement whereas S8 stated that oral presentations in EAP courses helped in overcoming fear and making good presentations in other subjects.

Three participants questioned the relevance of EAP courses. S16 said that they were not related to content subjects. S19 said that they were taught as a language only whereas S2 argued:

English lecturers... I have started to study English from primary school up to university, different lecturers come in front of us telling us how to conjugate different tenses while tenses it is somehow a simple matter of English. There are other technical terms terminologies we need as university students so that we can come up with real English, so that we can communicate, so that we can remove any hindrance in our communication and in worldwide. And the lecturers they erm they are familiar with or they used to teach us familiar or repeated topics, similar topics.

The implications are that EAP teachers are incompetent and that there is too much focus on grammar to the detriment of authentic, discipline-related terminologies.

The third sub-question focused on teachers' and capable peers' language support to weak students. Thirteen students acknowledged getting language support from either teachers or peers:

S1: Our teacher help us to understand the course well because he is teaching. We the students we are free to ask him questions. Besides, the students has also the light to ask another student. If we

have some discussion groups, we share ideas and students equi themselves in these groups. So the lecturer helped us that way by asking questions or through the discussion groups.

S4: The teachers help me to understand and interpret the content of your course through what they teaches. When the teacher get the topic of interpretation are the first way the student have know that courses it help to the speak. The second is the dictation about that course are the way that helps to be able to write what to understand about that course. So the teacher are the first helpful of that course because when I don't understand what he/she said, may take time of studying what don't understand.

S9: Our teacher try their best to make me understand the course because after teaching they asks if we have problems...

The implication from these students' accounts is that teachers are knowledge providers and that the narrative lecturing method prevails in the classroom, and that students scaffold each other when they have group discussions. In the same vein, S2 said

the lecturers, as their normal obligations, they plan their course and they come with their planned course. They don't propose us what we are able to understand so that we can discuss on them and remove the obstacles. Erm, the lecturers try to classify erm what we have as confusion when we ask on that course and also they help us to understand the language and to tell how to pronouncias but they don't give us examples of their own. They help us to know vocabulary but in manner that is somehow not good order which are somehow unpredicted. They teacher something as come in their mind...

Obviously, teachers bring pre-planned notes to class, lecture and provide students with explanations when necessary. S2 also stated that teachers were not innovative. He also argued that content subject teachers did not offer students' language support as English is not their focus and that students themselves managed to understand the meaning of specific terminologies.

Two students estimated their teachers' support in terms of a percentage. S6 rated this contribution at 30% and said that more support was given by more knowledgeable peers. S17 also said that teachers did not scaffold students a hundred per cent due to their low proficiency in English. Four students said that they were not provided with any language support. For example, S19 also stated that lecturers went to class with hand-outs and told students to read them on their own since at university lecturers did not teach but rather lectured.

The last sub-question aimed to find out the activities (oral presentations, summarising texts, writing paragraphs and essays) students considered necessary for meeting their academic linguistic needs. Most students said that they found speaking activities, notably oral presentations more necessary:

S3: The activities that I ever like in my education, in my studies, is giving, is being given a case study and then we go and develop. We write ourselves what we understand by those topic and then after we present them before the class.

S3 likes learning autonomy through research and presentations. In the same manner, S6 said he would like the teacher to organise group reading exercises and discussions so that students can scaffold one another to remove their respective learning difficulties and become self-confident as they dare to raise arguments they would not give in front of a big public audience. S8 found sharing ideas with both the teacher and peers more helpful since many people who normally display good writing skills and produced faultless texts could not express themselves easily. S8 found classroom interaction and oral presentations more useful in that they prepared students for job interviews. S19 also stated that oral presentations prepared the potential job seekers for interviews and interaction with foreigners and S17 was interested in debates. Eight students found both oral presentations and writing activities such as summary, paragraph and essay writing important. One of them (S11) also found the promotion of listening skills helpful. Two students said that all above listed activities were necessary.

The third question dealt with the strategies that teachers used to help students acquire the English communication skills necessary for understanding other academic subjects. Various answers were provided:

S1: ... They first equip themselves by leading, by making researches and he/she come to class well full of knowledge and by a giving in the class he er introduce us a spirit of silence in the class. He tell us what he has read what he/she know and as students we have agendas. We write those which is essential and we are happy that knowledge spirit of silence. So at any time a student get a problem, they has the room...to ask different questions to the lecturer.

S2: The most of the time of course they write on the backboard or they don't use most of the things we need more time, more we need to read some many stories, but they don't familiar with stories... they come wiz grammar, most of the time, it is grammar. Grammar which are somehow limited... English have meaning in the different scientific subjects so that we can adapt ourselves in each and every topic or subject without any limitation.

S17: They are teaching the first they write on the whiteboard.

The implications are the focus on grammar and teacher-fronted lessons. Furthermore, six students said that they were given opportunities to interact either through oral presentations or group discussions.

The fourth question concerned the language of instruction the students thought would make it possible for them to understand the academic subjects. Thirteen students chose English and some of their responses are provided below:

S1: English, English, yes is good. We may use it and acquire too much knowledge... Little by little we are now er have knowledge about these language. So it is good to carry on using this language.... The shift to Kinyarwanda may help us but the problem of Kinyarwanda language, Kinyarwanda may not be competent on the labour market.... so we prefer English too much good because it may help us to use it internationally.

S2: Yes, it is clear. Er, of course medium of instruction as English language, I can say that it is of course English, because English is spoken all over the world....we are future businessmen, we are future entrepreneurs, future diplomatic person, politician where we will need to communicate with other countries. That is why we can't escape English because it international language. We need to improve our language in English whether we like where we don't like because it is an obligation...

The above students believed that the use of English as a medium of instruction was better as English would help them integrate into a globalised world. When asked follow up questions, S2 said that teachers sometime switch to Kinyarwanda as a way of helping students to understand the content of their subjects, but that they could rather use many examples as some foreign teachers without knowledge of Kinyarwanda do. He then stated that teachers could shift to Kinyarwanda to maintain Rwandan culture and help students who were ashamed of using English to understand courses. He also found it necessary to design textbooks based on Rwandan culture in order to preserve it. He gave an example of a Rwandan public servant he saw using Kinyarwanda, French, and English to provide all tourists with clear explanations on artifacts such as traditional weapons and buildings.

In the same vein, S3 chose English, but stipulated that Kinyarwanda was needed to help weak students understand the content of their subjects clearly. As far as he was concerned, he said he would require teachers to provide him with deep explanations in English so that he could understand the meaning of concepts being taught. He suggested the introduction of English as a separate academic course for the sake of cultural maintenance and the development of materials related to Rwandan culture. He also suggested that a Kinyarwanda-English dictionary be written to help improve Kinyarwanda and help foreigners also learn it.

S4 also chose English because of its international flavour, but said that she understood courses taught in Kinyarwanda, which is the mother tongue. S18 chose English as it required few writing

rules and regulations compared to Kinyarwanda, for example. He said that Kinyarwanda contained difficult words known as *inshoberamahanga* (*amahanga* means other/foreign countries and *inshoberamahanga* literally meaning sophisticated words requiring deep analysis before one understands them) which made the understanding of the conveyed message difficult to guess. When asked a follow up question on whether *inshoberamahanga* could also be regarded as *inshoberabanyarwanda* (hard for Rwandans to understand), he said that they could somehow be as the 21st century-generation of Rwandans does not rely on Kinyarwanda as much as their forefathers did. S5 also chose English because it can enable him to adapt in America in case he got the opportunity to study there, but he stated, ‘Kinyarwanda would make it easy to understand academic subjects because it is mother tongue...’

S7 simply said, ‘It is English because in our country they favour English rather than French...’ When asked if he found English to be a hindrance to the understanding of other academic subjects, he said that compared to the French he was used to, English was an obstacle. When asked which language he would choose in case the promotion of English was not a decision by the government, he said he would choose French that he liked very much and that he had been schooled through since the primary school. S19 also preferred French to English because he used to understand subjects offered in French when it was still serving as the medium of instruction. When asked whether French facilitated the teaching and learning process better than Kinyarwanda, he said that people should be instructed in a foreign language since they need to communicate with foreigners.

Two students (S8 and S10) chose Kinyarwanda and one (S20) chose either Kinyarwanda or French. For example, S8 said

... I think you know that English is not our language. I think if we could learn in our own language, you know like in our language you know that in Chinese country they use their own language. That is why they understand better what they are learning. I know that this is not our language, but we try but I wish we could learn in Kinyarwanda because it is the language we we know. It is our mother language. Yeah. Mais (but), I don't know. It cannot be possible. That's why we have to learn how to speak English...

S8 chose Kinyarwanda as it is the language students know and gave the example of the Chinese who understand their academic subjects because of the use of their indigenous language. However, he stated that students were constrained to use English as he did not know whether it would be possible to use Kinyarwanda in Rwanda. When asked which language he would advise

the government to promote, he said he would suggest Kinyarwanda- a language understood by all students. On the other hand, he said that Rwanda, as a developing country, should follow the current international linguistic trend, particularly as the use of English is a widespread phenomenon in developed countries. He said teachers could occasionally provide explanations in Kinyarwanda in order to help students develop their communication skills in English. He said that regular code switching might prevent students from making efforts in English. He also revealed that sometimes teachers shifted to Kinyarwanda to make their lessons more understandable, but did not allow students to speak Kinyarwanda. Thus, he said Rwandan teachers could allow students to express their views in Kinyarwanda.

S17 would prefer to study in Kinyarwanda- the mother tongue which may facilitate communication and promote both Kinyarwanda as a language and Rwandan culture.

4.3.1.2 Focus group interviews with students

Focus group interviews were conducted to supplement information collected through individual interviews, obtain deeper insights and to capture controversial views from different group members. As mentioned in 4.3, the different focus groups are referred to as F1, F2, F3, and F4 which were named according to the colleges rather than the order in which interviews were conducted.

The first question concerned the students' views of the current English courses offered at the CBE; particularly their views of factors that would help reinforce the strengths or remove the weaknesses of these courses.

Before focus group members suggested factors which would help improve the teaching and learning of EAP courses, they provided insights on the weaknesses of these courses. F2 complained about the time allotted to EAP courses. They said EAP courses were allocated few hours per week when business communication required students to acquire enough knowledge of English. F3 said that more time was devoted to *studying*, i.e, to teachers' explanations and that there was no room for debates to enable students to 'acquire accent and pronunciation'.

An F2 group member also argued that the language of instruction prevents students with a long French speaking tradition from understanding other academic subjects. Her view is given below:

When I am contributing in Rwanda before the the years the long years, we was from the francophone system. So we are we are shifting from francophone system to English, the English system. So that a a affect our our learning English or ho how we learn English. Means er maybe, I don't know for those who are at high school today. Maybe they will when they reach in university, it will facilitate them, but today er there is circumstances whether someone who begin his studies or her studies in the French and then when he reach he reaches in university he begins to study English whether he learn before in French that affects circumstances.

The above participant stated that the current university student population has been affected by the change in the medium of instruction and that probably younger generations may benefit from education through English. She also critiqued the English teachers' focus on grammatical points such as indirect speech and the passive voice which were also taught at secondary school. She said that university students needed to do activities which would promote their speaking and reading comprehension skills. As argued in the aforesaid section, this student also said that students needed more exposure to speaking activities since some of them with poor speaking communication skills could write nice texts. The whole focus group consented with her by nodding their heads in approval.

Probing her response further, this participant was asked whether students had never had opportunities to express themselves during English classes. She cleared her throat and said she did not mean that no room was given for classroom interaction. She rather gave the example of TOEFL classes which promoted students' listening, speaking and writing skills. She further said that students lacked self-confidence, shivered and failed to utter a single English word when they were asked to talk in front of the class since they were not accustomed to using 'those languages'. She even wondered why her teacher could ask students to express themselves in English when he could not himself speak French. The language issue was also raised by F3 in which a student said that students were from 'francophology [sic] high schools' and that it was difficult for them to understand English.

F2, F3 and F4 also said that the teaching and learning materials brought to class were insufficient and/or inappropriate. For example, an F3 participant critiqued the Cambridge books used at the CBE:

We use Cambridge books written in England. It means the understanding is somehow difficult. Even if the books are rich, the examples are concentrating on England. We need books concentrating on the history of the country, on Rwanda, not England. We need books concentrating on Rwandan culture. We need our books because other writers base on their culture to write books.

For example, we cannot base, for example, on American books in order to promote our culture and improve our skills, it is better to use books basing on Rwandan culture.

This participant found the Cambridge books inappropriate for a Rwandan learning context and said there was no way to promote one's culture when relying on books depicting a foreign culture. With regard to teaching and learning materials, an F2 group member also said:

...we can learn about an updating courses that are available today but as you can see these are old these are old what can I say old versions of English we are learning. So we need an update an update courses e of English of today and material. That's it.

As the above extract indicates, the F2 member questioned the relevance of the current courses and when asked what he understood by updated materials, he said that the Cambridge books used at the CBE were produced in the 1980s, 1990s when new books written annually might provide teachers with new techniques of teaching reading and grammar which some students find to be the main strength of the course and others considered unnecessary. He also stated that teachers could use more advanced techniques of teaching, such as the search of materials on Google or on Facebook. Another F2 member said that teachers made use of an old teaching system as they stood in front of the students and delivered their lessons using chalk and other old materials rather than promoting speaking skills for future use and bringing radios to class to help in improving students' listening skills.

Besides the critique of teaching and learning materials, another F2 member said that the educational system in institutions of higher learning in Rwanda was not good since teachers used the same course outline for years without considering students' future needs. He said that teachers failed to consider the job requirements in the labour market which necessitated oral skills rather than grammar that students can teach themselves.

One F4 group participant complained that EAP courses were literature-oriented and that students learnt them for the sake of points only, but the other members of the group said that English helped them comprehend non-language subjects.

The first sub-question concerned ways of reinforcing the strengths of EAP courses. The four focus groups (F1, F2, F3, and F4) said that there was a need to increase the teaching and learning materials and to focus on speaking activities. For example, F1 was of the view that his college should increase the number of grammar books and provide students with videos and audios. F2

also said that the use of radios would help students find ways in which interviews are conducted at other universities whereas other materials would help understand the courses better. F4 said they needed reading books and F3 said that the increase in the number of books, the improvement of library services, the employment of competent and experienced language teachers, the promotion of debates would help in reinforcing the strengths of the current English courses offered at their college. They said that debates might help increase students' speaking skills and acquire the right pronunciation of words. F1 and F2 participants also argued that further training should be organised for students to improve their English. They further suggested the college should increase teacher training sessions, dismiss incompetent teachers and hire qualified ones, particularly foreigners whom they believed to know English better, and provide teachers with updated documents in order to increase their skills. Besides teacher empowerment, F2 suggested an increase in the number of hours allocated to EAP courses, and the safeguarding and improvement of library services. Both F1 and F2 suggested that the CBE should promote research for the students to increase their knowledge. F1 went further to say that more attention should be paid to weak students by supplying them with books to read and encouraging them to regularly go to the library and do some research.

Other insights emerged from F3. F3 argued that the increase in the number of teachers and the increment of teachers' salary could motivate them to work better. They also said the organisation of competitions whereby EAP examinations would be administered to students from different colleges and rewards granted to the best performers could help EAP teachers do their job effectively.

The second sub-question dealt with ways of removing the weaknesses of the current English courses taught at a college of business and economics. All the groups echoed that there should be more room for practice through group discussions, presentations and debates in order to build students' self-confidence and three groups (F1, F3, and F4) advocated an increase in the number of teaching materials. A F4 participant said that his college did not own a single Cambridge book and that only teachers could read the book. Thus, he said that the increase in the number of Cambridge books could help improve the EAP courses. In contrast, a F2 participant stated the following:

What I can see is that, in order to sustain the English Programme, they should provide us with books other than these very same books we used in level 1 as they contain materials we studied in primary and secondary schools. We already know the grammar which is drawn from those books. So when we come to class, we just listen to the teacher, understand everything he teaches and take notes as it is a requirement. We do not need to revise our notes. We sit for exams without having revised our notes. It is not necessary for us to revise the notes as the material is already known to us. We need new, updated grammar books, grammar which enables you to speak, not the kind of grammar that constrains you to memorise principles. Those books are there, books which teach you how to make words follow one another very well in a sentence.

What the above implies is that recurring grammatical points were taught and memorised, and that they made students lose their interest in EAP courses. They suggest a revision of the programme to enable them to speak. With regard to speaking, for example, an F1 participant whose idea was initially conceived in Kinyarwanda said

... In order to remove the weakness of teaching the same grammatical points, teachers should give interesting topics to four students and ask them to discuss on those topics in English. They should then make sure that discussions are taking place in English. Discussions may take even two hours only before the teacher selects a student who can report the view points of his/her group to the whole class. Even though only one student reports the group's view, at least each student will have spoken during group discussions.

In relation to the above quotation, F1 suggested group discussions prior to presentation in front of the class. He also said that the use of English should be mandatory both on campus and outside of school. F2 also said that as future leaders, managers and presidents, university students needed to feel self-confident when communicating. They said it would be shameful for them to fail to join the East African Community because of lack of speaking skills. They said that competition with Ugandans, Kenyans and Burundians at the labour market required them to have a good command of English when Rwandan university leavers could not stand speaking English for at least half an hour. They argued that the latter generally succeeded in written examinations and failed to explain their knowledge (what they knew) during oral interviews. They concluded that teachers should focus more on individual oral presentations, discussions and debates to enable students to express themselves.

F1 also said that classrooms should be standardised, students' needs taken into consideration, and the student population distributed equally to avoid big numbers of students in some groups. They also reiterated their view of organising training for teachers, dismissing incompetent teachers and providing the remaining ones with suitable teaching materials. They suggested that the college should hire foreign teachers as they are better at English. In the same vein, F4 said

they needed trained teachers who would be capable of teaching them business-related English rather than lecturers who offer English as a subject. F3 said that teachers could be empowered through seminars whereby they would socialize and get awareness of changes occurring in English. They suggested that a well-equipped library of EAP books should be built in their proximity. Finally, F3 participants had divergent views on the amount of the time to be allocated to English courses. Some advocated for the increase in teaching hours and others for their decrease.

The second question asked how the current English courses helped students in the understanding of other academic subjects. Nine F1 group members and nine F3 participants said that the English courses helped them understand other academic subjects and perform well. One added that it could enable him to communicate with foreigners once abroad, and listen to news and songs in English. All F4 participants were also unanimous that the English courses helped them understand other courses, but that teachers did not specifically prepare them for other academic subjects. A short piece of the interview is provided below:

Interviewer: Do English teachers specifically prepare you for other academic subjects?

Interviewees: No

Interviewer: So, all of you say no?

Interviewees: yes.

F2 did not see the relevance of the EAP curricula. One group member gave her view point and the whole group supported her. She said that English was of paramount importance, but that the material brought to class was similar to the senior six English programme which only dealt with English, that is, with how to make a sentence and use tenses. She was of the view that the programme was already known to them, that it did not contribute to the understanding of other academic subjects and it did not help students improve their communication skills in English. When I asked this student to make her view point clear by telling me whether she was fed up with the teaching and learning of grammar and would like the English courses to take into consideration the terminologies needed for understanding other academic subjects, she responded that her college dealt with business and that its concern was not languages. She went on to say that the students did not need many materials, but rather a strategy that would enable them to improve their skills in the English language within the few four hours covered on

Saturdays. Rather than spending the four hours on useless grammar exercises, she said more time should be devoted to speaking and the improvement of students' knowledge. She said that students could read grammar by themselves once at home or in their workplace.

The third question dealt with the skills the teachers promoted the most in the classroom. F1, F3, and F4 group members held diverging views and mentioned the four language skills and subsidiary skills such as grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. With regard to listening and writing, one F4 member stated that these two skills were more promoted in that students listened to teachers during lectures and wrote continuous assessment tests, part of which required them to write a one-page essay on any topic. F2 participants also stated that their teachers focused more on grammar at the expense of speaking skills and other more needed skills.

The fourth question aimed to find out the amount of language support students got from their teachers. Nine F1 participants provided different insights varying from one individual to another. These were (1) giving language support to weak students, (2) giving group work, (3) promoting interviews to enable students to pronounce words correctly, (4) giving many grammar exercises drawn from the Cambridge book and explaining some difficult words, (5) providing students with deep explanations of lessons, shifting to Kinyarwanda and using dictionaries. The last three were (6) promoting problem-solving skills through reading and oral presentations, (7) carrying out debates in order to improve students' speaking skills, (8) teaching well to the extent that students understand the lessons and gain vocabulary, and (9) promoting reading and debates. One participant did not answer the question.

F2 revealed that the only way in which their teachers helped them was to deliver the material without caring whether students understood the courses or not and respond to students' questions in case they encountered difficult words. One participant said that even though non-language teachers transmitted knowledge without caring about students' level of English, he preferred attending their courses which enriched students' technical vocabulary. One F4 participant said that the teacher gave them little support as they spent most of the time on grammar and another considered the fact of being taught English as valuable language support.

The fifth question aimed to find out whether teachers promoted students' problem-solving skills. All groups had little understanding of this question that I tried to explain in Kinyarwanda. However, despite the explanations I provided in Kinyarwanda, almost all the responses to the questions were inappropriate as shown through the excerpts below:

F1S1: My teacher promote my problem-solving skills by providing me exercises and some reference books and pages where there are many explanations.

F2S1: By presenting I think the things we call presentation in class so someone can't say their their ideas and they promote us and they they when when we are learning for example for example taxation when we when we meet with with the difficult word they can explain us so so we know that words what they mean.

F3S1: The teacher help us to solve the problems by using English language only in the class.

As argued, students had little knowledge of the meaning of problem-solving skills, but two F2 and two F4 participants appeared to understand the question.

One F2 participant said that academic courses help students as intellectuals to resolve the problems of the population. He gave the example of the course on Taxation in which students learnt why business people pay taxes and what the usefulness of taxes was for a country. Another participant said that teachers promoted students' problem-solving skills by giving them typical examples of problems as they used to happen or still happen in real life and telling them how people managed to solve them. He said that teachers showed them the processes through which given problems were resolved. As an illustration, he said that the lecturer of Taxation could inform them about how people were scared of paying taxes and how RRA (Rwanda Revenue Authority) could successfully make them pay these taxes without causing any harm. He argued that exposure to ways in which problems were solved made students acquire experience of how they could solve problems they might face in the future. The two F4 participants respectively said that teachers sharpened students' brains by requiring them to construct texts on topics such as poverty reduction (how to eradicate famine) in Rwanda and that they gave assignments on issues related to real life that they researched and presented to the class to help them understand how such issues could be solved.

The sixth question is similar to the fourth question I posed to individual participants during one-to-one interviews. It was about the language of instruction students thought would make it

possible for them to understand academic subjects better. The privileged language on all campuses was English and different reasons were given as shown below:

S1: The language of instruction I think would make possible to understand the academic subject is English. This is because English is very easy to be understood by people of all level. Another reason is because it is an international language.

S2: The language that can help us in order to make better is to remain in English language because English do the summary of everything but like French you go in details so that in English or to study in English for me it is better than others language.

The reasons for F1 members to choose English are three-fold: (1) English facilitates the understanding of other academic subjects, (2) English is easy, and (3) English serves as an international language. F3 and F4 held almost the same views, but one F3 member added that English could help acquire the ability to compete globally because of its international flavour and another perceived it as a gatekeeper to job opportunities and social equality. An F4 participant also added that English is easier to memorise than Kinyarwanda and said that English was better because all the information students need on the internet is written in English.

F2 participants held diverging views. Whereas one stated students should be taught through the language that they mastered the best, another sustained the use of code mixing and code switching and the remaining one was a proponent of the use of English as the sole medium of instruction.

F2S1: Yes. Me. Okay. My contribution I can say it depends on what I understand well if I understand well English I can say I can study my subjects in English, if it is French I can study in French I think it can depend on the language I understand very well.

The above extract indicates that F2S1 said students should be taught through the language they understand the best.

F2S2: Is the teachers as we are Rwandan and our academic courses we learnt in English the they know that the we are not erm we are not we are not experienced in English they are someone who's well, others know less. The teachers can erm can teach that courses in English accordingly but they are some some some of some of us that know that that the teachers express he can mix in Kinyarwanda my mother language and teach in English by academic English.

F2S2 said that courses should be offered in English, but that teachers could sometimes resort to Kinyarwanda. S3 disagreed with the above two students and said he would always prefer English because of its regional utility. He argued that recourse to Kinyarwanda might prevent students

from making efforts to improve their English. In the next section, I present the raw data I collected from interviews with teachers.

4.3.2 Raw data from interviews with teachers

In order to have a full picture of how the EAP courses are currently taught at the CBE, I also collected language and non-language or content subject teachers' perceptions during interviews. In both cases, the participants were named LT1 to LT5 and NLT1 to NLT4, according to the colleges they came from.

4.3.2.1 English teachers' views of the current English courses taught at CBE

In this section, I present the data generated from the interviews I conducted with English language teachers at a college of business and economics. Four teachers were audio recorded, others did not want to be recorded and only authorised me to take notes of their responses to my questions. One teacher even preferred not to talk as she felt stressed and exhausted after her morning class. She asked for the interview guide so that she could write down the answers herself rather than speaking and being recorded. The views of EAP teachers were collected from individual interviews only as their number was below the number of participants required in focus group interviews. Thus, in accordance with ethical considerations set in Chapter 3, I could only conduct individual interviews with language teachers whose number was very limited. Each teacher on each campus was asked four questions and these questions were similar. Question 1 comprised two sub-questions, question 2 had four, question 3 three whereas question four was not composed of sub-questions at all. However, probing questions emerged depending on individual teachers' (LT1-5) answers. Data emerging from interviews by means of these tools will help verify what I observed in the classrooms. LT1 is from Campus A, LT2 and LT3 are from Campus B, and LT4 and 5 are from Campus C.

The first question dealt with the strengths and the weaknesses of the current English courses taught at the College of Business and communication.

With regard to strengths, LT1 said the inclusion of Business Communication, that she also referred to as English for Specific Purposes, in EAP programmes was a strength. LT2 said that the teaching of EGAP in year 2 helped consolidate the English language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) acquired in year 1 and that Business Communication helped

students cope with the business world after they graduate. She also said that EAP courses had been credited and that their new status made students work hard and succeed in these courses. LT3 also said the credit-bearing status of English made students eager to learn and know in order to succeed in the exams. LT4 said that the courses were enriched with varied skills that students could benefit from. According to LT5, more knowledgeable students offer language support to their peers during pair/group discussions or oral presentations and currently teachers handled manageable groups which enabled them to identify the strengths and weaknesses of individual students and to help students in accordance with their needs.

The second sub-question concerned the weaknesses of EAP courses and the following views were given:

LT1: ... the strengths of teaching English, General English here at CBE, the major weaknesses are teaching big classes but you know as a language teacher, teaching more than a hundred students when you want to improve their skills: their writing skills, their speaking, but you know that it is not easy and it is not but it is not easy to teach them and to improve their language skills. Another weakness I can mention is hmmm lack of teaching materials. Here in CBE they don't have enough resources related to teaching English languages... there are not enough teaching materials including books er dictionaries for students, etc.

LT1 is of the view that the CBE owns few teaching resources including books and teachers were assigned a big number of students.

LT2: Students are put in groups in which they will take the course without considering their level of English. Indeed, some students are very good at English, whereas others are not at all. Therefore, they shouldn't study together as they don't learn at the same speed. Lack of material to teach and learn the course efficiently and effectively.

Two issues are raised. These are the grouping of students irrespective of their level of English and lack of materials.

LT3: The time allotted to English (six hours per week) is not enough for teachers to cover the whole content. As a result, some points are left uncovered; yet, they could help students improve their skills. The number of students (60 students and above) is very high. Consequently, it becomes difficulty to focus on each individual student. Those who perform better (quick learners) are the ones to follow lectures very well whereas slow learners lag behind. In a word, participation is not full for everyone.

LT3 also complained about the class size and the time allotted to EAP courses. T4 said, 'The weaknesses come in with the lack of the appropriate materials to aid teaching, materials to help drive the point are not availed.'

LT5: ...concerning weaknesses, there are many weaknesses, especially the historical background of our students and they have many problems with the English language, specially some of them have a had a French background. They studied their courses in French and then switched to English and it was, it is a weakness to many of the student. So that they are many who cannot express their selves. Er, other weaknesses, we have no materials, we have no sufficient books. We have no er no electronic materials that can help us in teaching listening especially and no books for reading the we try to provide them with some materials but they are not sufficient.

The issue of lack of teaching and learning materials is raised again along with students' French-speaking background. When asked which books were used for the teaching of General English, LT5 said that they normally use the New Cambridge English Courses (NCECs) as main books and guidelines.

The second question concerns the extent to which the current EAP courses met the students' linguistic needs in relation to their content subjects and future lives. It helped generate data that addressed the second main question of the present study.

The first sub-question focused on the criteria teachers relied on to design EAP courses and various insights emerged as shown below:

LT1: Normally, for us, we've been using er Cambridge books so we don't, the material we design it is to complete that program which is already designed but the Cambridge, I don't know people from.

The above excerpt indicates lack of course design and use of prescribed textbooks. When asked further questions, LT1 said that Cambridge books were used to teach EGAP and that in Business Communication she was using somebody else's notes as she was new. She also stated that needs were generally assessed by administering a test that revealed their levels of English and that, after the identification of students' weaknesses, teachers used the already designed programmes to address them as they contained all the needed activities.

LT2: The first criterion we rely on is the level the students have after their secondary studies. They are bad at English in general, and that is the reason why they are exposed to general English. Then, considering their field of study, students are taught Business Communication.

According to LT2, the students' levels of English and fields of study inform the course design.

LT3: At the beginning of each academic year, there is an entry test which helps determine the level of mastery of English the students have. Then, based on their respective levels, they are put in different groups where they are assigned appropriate contents.

LT3 also said that EAP course content was determined by students' levels of English and LT4 argued, '*We look at the learners' level of their language, their course.*'

LT5: We have recommended materials that we use especially that Cambridge and other books that we have, but when we are selecting materials we have a course outline and we don't go out of it unless we find that there is a need there is any need of going out of that one cause sometime we may find that there is something that they need which is not part of the course outline. I think that we rely on what they are required to, they are supposed to get at the end of this module, this is what we rely on.

LT5 said teachers used prescribed materials and considered the course outcomes. When asked how teachers identified students' needs in order to meet them, he said that, at the beginning of semesters, they asked students to say what their expectations from the courses were to enable the language unit to decide on what to focus on.

The second sub-question asked whether there was cooperation between EAP and content subject teachers and the following answers were given:

LT1: No.... Never. I've never talked to them.

LT2: We have never been given the opportunity to work with lecturers who teach other subjects.

LT3: There is no cooperation between us (teachers of English) and non-English teachers while designing and implementing the English curricula. There is no forum for that, no opportunity, no meetings.

LT4: We don't usually do so, but maybe they could help with some ideas.

The above four teachers are of the view that they do not cooperate with non-language teachers.

LT5: We sometimes cooperate with them but not because for us we have a center and our center is not part of the college, cause for us we hear it is a campus. We have students from different colleges... We teach students of those three different colleges. This means that we are not part of this College of Business and Economics, but we work with them not only with this college, but we work with other teachers other lecturers from other colleges and we try to know how far students are going cause sometime we teach them and we go to other colleges but we try to talk to other lecturers and see what what is happening , how long will this take and we know the program the calendar from the college but we even try to inquire about how what students are able and able to and many things that we want to know from the what we want that we want to inquire from other lecturers of the college.

This excerpt implies that language teachers generally cooperate with content subject teachers to inquire about academic-related issues such as the academic calendar, the timetable, and students' progress.

The third sub-question focuses on the activities (academic discourses/genres such as oral presentations, seminars, reading texts, writing, etc.) found necessary for addressing the students' academic linguistic demands.

LT1: Erm, you know most of the time I usually give them er essay writing, take home activities. I also give them some oral presentations where I give them sub-topics or I tell them to find topics for themselves, then they say something about those topics. Also I sometimes tell them to go in the library and may be read a magazine or a newspaper and an article related to business in magazine or newspaper and I tell them to come in class and to tell us what they read.

From the above extract, it appears that LT1 promoted reading, writing, and speaking skills. LT1 also said that she included grammar, vocabulary, and listening in classroom activities.

LT2: I believe all the following activities are of paramount importance to comply with the demands of the academic world: oral presentations, lots of reading, writing, actively participating in seminars and workshops, and attending conferences.

LT3: I may say that all these types of activities are necessary. First, with oral presentations, students acquire the basics to avoid any reticence in public speaking; they build their confidence in terms of speaking in front of others. Second, with seminars, students could get and share their knowledge about a certain field or just how to learn/do something, all using English. Third, with reading texts, students of English indirectly acquire the basic structures of a language, the culture of people who speak the language or just the knowledge of the domain the text is about. Finally, writing helps students to produce/show what they know and even express themselves in a written form.

The above two extracts indicate that oral presentations, extensive reading, writing, participation in seminars, workshops and conferences were important. LT4 said that she found group work, pair work, and role play necessary whereas LT5 stated the following:

LT5: Er about activities that we consider that are necessary to address students need: first of all, it's this discussion. We focus on students to discuss especially among them. They try to talk to each other so that they may improve their speaking skills. After that we have also oral presentations...we recommend them what they will do especially er in selecting topics that they need....They can be free to choose whichever topic they need and be fully er put more effort so that they can profit from that one.

LT5 also promotes group discussion and oral presentations on any topic of students' choice.

The fourth sub-question concerned the activities which could help the students integrate in the world after they graduate and teachers made mention of the following:

LT1: You know the activity I think should be, should help them when they finish their studies here I think should be oral presentation, should be among the major activities to include in class also they need writing skills, speaking skills and writing skills. Any activity related to those skill, I think may

be very helpful even if I don't er I cannot forget the role of grammar and vocabulary. But I suppose when they are reading and summarising maybe something, they get that grammar and vocabulary that's why when a student can speak and can write good English, I think it can help.

LT1 considered oral presentations to be the most prominent and then mentioned writing and reading skills.

LT2: Some of the activities that can help the students integrate in the world are: knowing how to deliver a good speech, using good arguments to convince people, smooth writing, etc.

The above teacher gave prominence to speaking and smooth writing skills.

LT3: Oral presentations, reading and writing could help students very much after they graduate. Seminars come at the second place because someone can easily adapt to the outside world without having participated in a seminar....

LT3 thought that speaking, reading and writing skills and seminars would help students cope with the outside world after they graduate.

LT4: Activities that make them speak and gain confidence (building students' confidence) like oral presentations, role play that help them think and be creative.

LT4: ... I think that oral presentation will help them to fit in the world outside because they will be able to present, because they are going to enter the organizations outside and and when you have those skills, those speaking skills, those presentation skills, it helps you to fit in organization... you will be able to state them [ideas] to convince others....When they are just applying for jobs. They will be doing, sitting for written exams. In addition, they will also need to sit for those interviews they will go to face the panels....

LT5 also thought that speaking skills were more necessary for graduates to fit in the world after completion of their studies.

The third question focused on the strategies used to help students acquire English communication necessary for responding to other academic linguistic demands and to the world outside of school.

The first sub-question was about strategies used to address the students' academic linguistic needs. LT2 said she gave students regular listening comprehension, speaking, reading comprehension, and writing exercises whereas LT3 stated that he sometimes gave students individual, pair and group work. LT4 said she helped students devise innovating and interesting topics that involve all students. LT5 stated that students were given activities such as oral presentations which are transferable to the outside society.

The second sub-question dealt with strategies used to equip students with language skills that they could use outside school and asked to say which ones were more successful. The following data emerged:

LT1: Er, in general I first present the, I first teach the lesson. Then after teaching the lesson, I give them practice. You know, for example, in the morning I was teaching phrasal verbs. I say everything related to phrasal verbs, and when I finish, I gave them an exercise. So, I think whatever we learn, we learn theories and then they put those theories into practice er that's how I always do.

The teacher said she always taught theory first and then followed it with practice.

LT2: Students are often requested to stand in front of the class and give a talk. In this case, they are getting acquainted with speaking in front of an audience, which may be very helpful in the world outside university. They are also given debate sessions and this is a good opportunity for students who seldom speak in class to participate. Students are also requested to work in small groups, discuss a topic and come up with an oral or written report. The activity the students like the most is working in small groups because they are not afraid of making mistakes so they can talk more freely.

The above teacher promoted student talk, debates, and small group discussion which is the most preferred activity.

LT3: Working in pairs and in groups of three people and more is more successful. This is because it reduces students' fear; they feel more confident and it facilitate communication among fellows.

Once again, small group activities are said to be the most successful. LT4 and LT5 reiterated the activities they stated when answering the previous sub-question and LT4 said that all those activities were successful, but LT4 did not mention the most successful ones.

The third sub-question dealt with factors which hampered the implementation of the English curricula. Data indicate that teachers' responses to this question were similar to the weaknesses of the EAP courses earlier identified. However, the data provide us with two more insights. Besides lack of adequate materials such as books, radios and tapes, LT1 said that students themselves gave little value to EAP courses because they thought that they were good at speaking and writing English and that there was no need for them to learn English. LT2 also stated that policy-makers gave prominence to science and technology at the expense of EAP courses.

The fourth question focused on suggestions or recommendations to make the English curricula at the college under study prepare students for their academic and professional requirements.

LT1: I can recommend the college to include the course in all levels. I don't know if they are called levels. From year one to level four.

LT2: I would suggest that a placement test be given to students before they start learning English in order to group them according to their levels of proficiency. Another recommendation is focusing on practical exercises where students are given more opportunity to use this target language.

LT3: Provide enough time for English as it has become the medium of instruction in the country. Split students in smaller groups to facilitate participation for everyone.

The implications are that EAP courses should be taught as an on-going process from year 1 to year 4 of study and allotted enough time, and that there should be a proficiency test and focus on practical activities, particularly by allocating teachers small groups.

LT4: Oral work should carry more marks, activities like debates should be boosted by our leaders, so that students take them seriously and work harder at speaking. There should be prizes too; writing competition, quizzes, etc. should all be part of it. The learners' practice books should be availed to every student.

LT4 suggested the promotion of speaking and writing activities through various stimuli and the availability of Student Practice Books. LT5 also advocated for teaching materials such as a well-equipped language laboratory to help expose students to various English native accents, varied books, and ICT facilities to enable the students to access online materials.

As the number of teachers required for focus group interviews to take place could not be reached, I added question two from the focus group interview guide to the individual interview guide for teachers in order to cover the gap. Even though the question would closely be linked to question one about the strengths and weaknesses of the English courses offered at CBE, it is also indirectly related to question 4. The question concerned the strategies used to reinforce the strengths and to remove the weaknesses of the current English courses taught at a college of business and economics.

Raw data indicate that, in order to reinforce the strengths of EAP courses, teachers rely on learner-centred methods to teaching such as improvisation, keep the available course materials safely and use them properly, and enrich the NCEC with published authentic electronic sources. With regard to strategies used to remove the weaknesses of EAP courses, one teacher stated that they should keep on advocating for the CBE to put in place more printing and photocopying sites and facilities, and request more ESP books from the college.

4.3.2.2 Non-Language teachers' views

In this section, I present the data gathered during interviews conducted with non-language teachers. The different teachers were asked five similar questions, the second of which was composed of 5 sub-questions: a, b, c, d, and e. All non-language teachers were audio-taped, except a female teacher who confessed that she had never wished to be audio-taped and have her voice listened to by other people. She promised she would provide me with all the information I needed, but without being audio-recorded. Therefore, I took notes of her responses to my questions. One male teacher I interviewed taught Business Communication counted as an EAP course by the Management of the college under study, particularly the English module leader. He claimed to be offering a non-language subject entitled Business Communication in an organisation where he had always taught even before the merger policy. He said that his course was totally different from the Course of Business Communication offered at other colleges. As proof, he told me that he was a non-language teacher. He did not study languages, but rather completed his studies at the former Kigali Institute of Science and Technology (KIST) before its Faculty of Management was transferred to the former School of Finance and Banking (SFB).

Interviews with non-language teachers aimed at finding out teachers' views of how students coped with their subjects including CATS and examinations, the learning difficulties students encountered in non-language classes, and strategies teachers used to help students overcome those difficulties. They also aimed at collecting suggestions which could help improve second year students' English communication skills. Interviews would also reveal whether the teachers' views matched the reality lived during classroom observations. I present the questions and corresponding responses as shown below:

The first question asked whether their students coped with the content of their subjects. All the teachers responded that their students could in general follow their academic subjects. For example, NLT3 said

Well, in brief I see there is no problem to cope with it properly because the methodology I use I make my teaching simple in most cases we face language problems their background is not fully English so you need to simplify your teaching so that they get it better but so far I don't see any problem...Well, the way I simplify it is through examples because my courses are business related. I do give examples from typical companies that they know and try to simplify even the grammar.

NLT3 used simplified language and examples to facilitate the teaching and understanding of the content of his subject. When I asked a follow up question to know if he sometimes made use of Kinyarwanda, he said he never encouraged using Kinyarwanda and that it was his last resort when a student could not properly ask a question in English. On the other hand, NLT1 said

Basically my students cope very well with the, my subject er though some of them normally face problems. If they have a different background if they didn't do accounting er er if they didn't do, if they didn't do the accounting courses at their secondary schools, it is a bit difficult, but at the end it becomes easy. It is by the end of the course because a subject normally has to take a semester. So by the end of the semester you find that they have familiarized themselves with new terminologies.

This implies that language-related difficulties are there and that students whose educational background did not prepare them for accounting genres gradually got accommodated to them.

The second question concerned students' English communication skills. The question aimed to find out whether students faced language-related difficulties when attending content subjects.

The first sub-question asked whether students listened to lectures with understanding. Raw data that emerged from all the interviewed non-language teachers indicated that students followed lectures with understanding. For example, NLT1 said

They do they do understand. Er, they listen and understand, er, probably, er, the course that I teach in second year, it is a theoretical one and when I give them some presentation. After I have given lecture I can see that they have understood. After I have given them some presentation and they come up with good presentations, sometime of course having difficulties in expressing themselves but still you see that they have understood.

NLT1 stated that students listened with understanding, but that they somehow faced speaking skills. Probing beyond this answer, I asked the teacher how he helped students with language-related problems to overcome the problems they experienced, especially during oral presentations. The teacher said that he had noticed that the students were not given exposure to public speaking and that he had increased the number of presentations to enable students to use the grammar and vocabulary they knew to make sentences. NLT2 said that students did not have any problem understanding and following her course and that they only had difficulty expressing themselves. NLT3 stated that all students had understanding of his course because he tried to be slow when teaching and NLT4 said that the students enjoyed his course and that there was no way they could enjoy it without understanding its content.

The second sub-question focused students' participation in pair/group/class discussions using English. This helped find out the language students used for the negotiation of meaning:

NLT1: On that point er students are reluctant. If you have them into groups, you go to one group you understand that they are using local language Kinyarwanda. So it is very much difficult. I've been talking to my students asking them to use English, but in most cases, I find them using Kinyarwanda, and even you find when you go into those groups, when they ask you a question they are reluctant to use English although they know that you cannot accept to answer their questions in Kinyarwanda but most of them they are tempted to use Kinyarwanda.

Obviously, students made use of Kinyarwanda during discussions. When asked the reason why students were tempted to use Kinyarwanda, NLT2 said that their attitude was due to lack of academic disciplinary measures prohibiting the use of Kinyarwanda at the CBE. His response prompted two follow-up questions. I asked whether the use of Kinyarwanda was a weakness or a strength and whether the teacher had ever shifted to Kinyarwanda to explain difficult terminologies. He said he found the use of Kinyarwanda a weakness that he could never sustain even though he knew that Kinyarwanda could facilitate the transmission and understanding of his course. He argued that he could never allow students to ask him questions in Kinyarwanda.

NLT2 said students did oral presentations some of which are good and others bad and NLT4 stated that students shared information in groups. NLT3 confessed that he did not often organise group discussions, but that whenever such activities were conducted in the classroom, discussions were carried out in Kinyarwanda as students are better at Kinyarwanda. He said that students shifted to English when they had to interact with him.

The third sub-question concerned students' ability to identify main ideas from a text. All the teachers simply said that students were capable of skimming texts. The fourth sub-question focused on students' ability to identify details supporting the main ideas. NLT2, NLT3, and NLT4 said the students could scan texts, but NLT1 said that not all of them could. He said a good percentage could find the details. The fifth sub-question dealt with students' ability to write assignments and exams coherently in English and aimed to assess students' writing skills. NLT1 argued that his students could write coherently. This response seemed controversial to a previous answer in which the teacher stipulated that his students experienced difficulties in writing. It then led to probing questions.

The first question aimed at finding out whether students could write their assignments and exams coherently and accurately. The teacher assessed his students' accuracy in terms of percentages and rated it at 70%. The second probing question was about the criteria that the teacher relied on to grade students and the teacher said that the consideration of accuracy in non-language subjects would be unfair and that he took into account the figures he needed and probably the technical terminologies. This answer prompted another question as to whether the teacher penalized students who used Kinyarwanda or French to respond to some questions during his tests or exams since he did not consider language accuracy. The teacher said that he had never had such a case, but that in case it happened he would penalize the students. The following excerpt points to that:

Er I probably have not met that case where a student had written in another language he or she may write wrote wrongly English er I didn't come across a situation where a student has used a different language so but to my understanding I had come across that I could penalize that student because I specifically note that on instruction that the language to be used is only English. So if I had come across such a situation, I could penalize the student... I need both the language and a correct answer.

The teacher argued that students' use of Kinyarwanda in CATs or examinations would lead to penalty as he needed both the language and correct answers. NLT2 was of the view that some students could write coherently and some could not. NLT3 said that his students' genres were coherently written but that thorough examinations of their copies had revealed that they sometimes initially conceived their ideas in Kinyarwanda and then translated them into English, which made it difficult to understand the conveyed message unless one had knowledge of Kinyarwanda. Because of the interference of the mother tongue, I also asked NLT3 whether he penalised students with such a weakness or just considered the content he needed when marking students' copies. The teacher (of Business Communication in an Organization which is counted as an EAP course) said he was interested in the content of his subject rather than in the language. NLT4 rated students' writing skills at 80% as they were better at writing than speaking.

The third question asked which language-related learning difficulties students encountered. It aimed to check whether students coped with content subjects offered in English. NLT1 said the following:

... Normally, I would say that my students... they still have a gap on the part of expressing themselves or when they have to present on a given topic. You find that they still have difficulties on that point they can listen no problem they can write though not a hundred percent accurate but when it comes to speaking they still have difficulties on that point.

The above excerpt implies that students' writing skills were fairly good whereas their speaking was poor.

NLT2: They have difficulty expressing themselves. You cannot pick just anybody. When they are in groups, they discuss in Kinyarwanda, and then choose a group member with good English communication skills to present on the behalf of the group. They cannot just pick anybody, but for me, I do not consider their arrangements.

NLT2 also argued that students could not express themselves in English and held their discussions in Kinyarwanda. NLT3 and NLT4 respectively said that students could not use English due to their French-speaking background and the switch to English when they were half way in their studies, and because of the Kinyarwanda learning environment.

Before responding to the above sub-questions, teachers provided an overview of their students' level of English. NLT1 said his students' level of proficiency in English was average as they could listen without difficulty, write with some problems and express themselves with difficulty. When asked how NLT1 found out that his students had difficulty speaking English, he said that students were generally reluctant at responding to questions and manifested low English proficiency when asking questions. NLT2 put her students in three categories: good, fair, and weak. She said the last group constituted the biggest number as the majority of them were adults with a French background who had difficulty expressing themselves.

In the same manner, NLT3 said 'some students' level of English was good, others' fair, and some others' far lower'. He said that this last group gradually managed to understand the content of his subject, but that they could not communicate properly. NLT4 stated that his students' English was generally good and that it improved step by step due to oral presentations during which they expressed themselves.

The fourth question asked how teachers helped students to overcome the language learning difficulties they encountered. This question would reveal whether content subject teachers gave language support to students and help envision solutions to students' language-related problems:

NLT1: ... I have noticed that most of them have a good vocabulary but they cannot form a sentence. So what I do, I encourage them to speak and as I told you earlier I have increased the number of presentations... so that I see that the vocabulary that they have can be applied probably in my subject.

NLT1 said he had increased the number of presentations to help students use the package of vocabulary they are acquainted with.

NLT2 said she organized group discussions and made sure that all the students were involved. NLT3 stated that he gave as many assignments as he could as he knew the value of English as a medium of instruction and believed that assignments would lead to extensive reading of both books and authentic materials from the internet. He also encouraged students to discuss in English among themselves. NLT4 said that, through oral presentations, he corrected students' mistakes. He said that he gave students time to express themselves in English, but he could not give them debates which are part of the language teachers' job.

The fifth question asked which suggestions teachers could make to improve students' command of English. This question would help envision remedies to students' language problems:

NLT1: ... we should adapt a participatory approach whereby not only the lecturer will be coming and delivering but will also let the students participate and involve by normally through presentations or through er discussions on a given topic and that would help to increase their level of speaking. Er, as far as the English is concerned, another part that I would suggest even though I say that they can listen and understand but if for example they meet someone with a different accent I'm not sure whether they would be able to listen. So I also.....suggest that they the may be exposed to the listening from several English accents.

NLT1 suggested the use of a participatory rather than narrative lecturing approach to teaching and the improvement of students' listening skills by exposing them to speakers with different English accents. This response was followed by a number of probing questions. The first question was about the students' exposure to speakers of English with a quick speaking pace and accents different from their teachers. I wanted the teacher to provide me with explicit explanations. The teacher said that even though students may not catch everything foreigners utter, they can at least improve their listening skills. He highlighted the need to give students opportunities to listen to several people with various speaking accents.

The second follow up question was related to a participatory approach to teaching and learning. I asked the teacher whether the prohibition of discussions through students' mother tongue was an impediment to students' active participation in the lessons and to knowledge construction in the classroom. The teacher was embarrassed and somehow indecisive before he responded that prohibition of the use of Kinyarwanda was partly a hindrance to the teaching and learning process. He explained saying that, for example, he was aware that students could not engage in discussions during his lessons due to lack of English language proficiency, but that he could not allow them to use Kinyarwanda since one of his goals was to help students acquire English communication skills and understand the content of his subject. Thus, allowing students to use Kinyarwanda in the classroom would be a failure to fulfill his mission as a content subject teacher. He would rather require students to have oral presentations in English. Part of his response is provided below:

...they may not be coming up with discussion because probably they don't know English, but to the other extent why say no because I would not only be helping them to know English to know my course but also to know English. So, I think that they go hand in hand or we know that we train them not only for the purpose of knowing the subject matter I mean the content but also to be able to present what they have known.

This non-language teacher believed that he had a two-fold mission as a teacher: (1) to make his students understand his subject and (2) to help them become capable of expressing what they knew in English. Thus, I asked him to tell me how he normally cooperated with language teachers in order to fulfill his mission efficiently. The response was that teachers did not cooperate, but that cooperation would be necessary for the improvement of both students' and teachers' knowledge. NLT2 also advocated for students' participation in lessons as shown below:

Keeping on making them participate, giving them a lot of assignments so that they can present and using simple language (English) when they are stuck. Students can use Kinyarwanda during group discussions, but not as a whole class considered to be an audience. They can ask me questions in Kinyarwanda. Kinyarwanda helps them understand better without forcing. If I take the example of my children who spend 24 hours using English at school, they may come home and ask me questions such as: living things ni iki? The kids understand better when I provide an answer in Kinyarwanda and it is the same when dealing with adults.

In addition to participation, NLT2 suggested the increase of assignments that would lead to oral presentations, the use of simple English when students are stuck, and the authorisation to use Kinyarwanda in group discussions. NLT3 stated the following:

...The leadership, the principal or the faculty, they have to come with programs that can still improve their English....Well, there are public lecturers. They, well, we can we have other higher learning institutions that we cooperate. We can be inviting those people. We can take students outside to the English er English speaking environment where they can. We want them to maximize speaking capacity er their speaking I think all those things can help them to improve.

NLT3 suggested that the management of the CBE should provide suitable language programmes, promote public lectures and cooperation with other institutions of higher learning and students' mobility to English-speaking countries. The above arguments were promoted by a non-language teacher whose class I observed because I believed it to be part of the English courses offered at CBE. But, I was surprisingly told that the course was not related to English courses at all. After the teacher had told me that English was not his domain and provided suggestions on how students' English skills could be improved, I requested him to inform me about how he cooperated with other non-language teachers and language teachers in order to provide academic linguistic support to students.

Well again I don't know how it is done because me I am just there to cover what I am supposed to cover. There is, well, students are learning language, but I am not involved in the process. What I believe is that when they are learning, I don't even know what kind of English they are learning now to see how much it can assist them to even understand my courses. So I would say there is no link between what I am doing and what the English teachers, lecturers are doing. Maybe the department knows or the faculty knows but me as a lecturer I am not.

The implication is that NLT3 distanced himself from language teachers and did not cooperate with them as his role was to just cover what he was supposed to cover. Therefore, I asked how the programme which was supposed to be the same but was seen differently would be harmonised. His response is reported below:

Well I think English should be the basic of not only business communication, even other courses because we are teaching in English. So students should be they should be given that, those English courses. I know at maybe the former SFB they used to have that program which was English taking the students to managing, management turn. They have that, but here in the former NUR, we have it we have the business communication skills as a separate course without knowing what students learnt in English communication, in English skills. So we would have sat together to see what have you taught the student, so that we proceed there but here I know what you see it is a different thing.

NLT3 considered EAP courses as a bridge to enable students to follow other academic courses whereas NLT4 said

Actually, the first one is to give them er to promote debates er secondly is to encourage the students to use English even if they are out of classes. Even if they are not in the in the groups we

talked above of discussions, whenever they are in dormitories, and the more they speak that language, the more they gain much of it.

The use of English as the sole medium of communication was seen as a solution to the language-related difficulties that the students encountered. As NLT4 considered the use of Kinyarwanda to be a big challenge, I asked him whether it could hinder or promote the students' English communication skills once used to help them understand the content of their academic subjects. In response, he argued that Kinyarwanda had become a hindrance since students loved it as their mother tongue and did not make room for the rehearsals of other languages. He gave the example of Uganda—a multilingual country with more than forty aborigine languages, where all citizens prioritize English and become conversant with it.

4.3.3 Summing up the interviews

The raw material from the interviews informs the reader about the strengths and the weaknesses of the EAP courses currently taught at the CBE and what can be done in order to make the implementation of these courses successful. They reveal that the majority of students consider them as a long-term investment and see their teachers' qualification and competence, attendance and endeavour, and teaching methodology as a strength along with continuous assignments and examinations. In turn, teachers said the new status of EAP courses made them valuable.

The above interviews also reveal that the CBE faces the following problems: lack of teaching learning materials, lack of time for practice due to focus on grammar, large classes, students' reluctance at participating in lessons and failure to express themselves, and little time allotted to English courses. The other emerging weaknesses are teachers' incompetence, lack of harmonisation of the programme, lack of course design and purpose for teaching, the English language and the students' French-speaking background, the Kinyarwanda learning environment, lack of course outlines, code switching, boredom due to many consecutive learning hours per day, lack of cooperation between language and non-language teachers, and lack of investment in the English courses.

With regard to the relevance of the English courses, interviews revealed that some students view them as a tool to become self-confident, succeed in academic subjects and cope with the

globalised world. Other students considered the courses to be irrelevant as they did not relate to other academic subjects.

The interviews also revealed that teachers minimally gave language support to students, who were mostly aided by their peers. Most students said that teachers helped them by transmitting knowledge whereas teachers said they helped students by being slow and giving them language support, using Kinyarwanda, giving many examples, and prompting the four language skills. However, data reveal that speaking activities such as oral presentations, group discussions and debates, participation in seminars/workshops and conferences, and smooth writing would be more beneficial and that students preferred small group discussions.

Raw data show that many solutions to the effective implementation of the EAP programmes were suggested. These were the provision of appropriate and sufficient teaching and learning materials, students' practice of the language or focus on speaking activities, employment of competent teachers vs dismissal of incompetent ones, teacher training, the increase of the number of hours allocated to EAP, the increase in the number of teachers, the revision of the EAP curricula. Other participants suggested the use of a participatory rather than narrative teaching methodology and the use of code switching was echoed by many students, even those who chose English due to its international importance.

In the above section, I presented the raw data that emerged from interviews. In the next section, I proceed with document analysis.

4.4 Presentation of data from relevant documents

Documents vary extremely to include 'advertisements, agendas, attendance registers, and minutes of meetings; background papers; books and brochures, diaries and journals,...maps and charts, newspapers, and organisational or institutional reports' (Bowen, 2009: 27-28). In the current study, I present raw data from the English Module Description Form (EMDF), teaching textbooks, and learning materials.

4.4.1 English language module description form (EMDF)

Year 2 English language module description form is part of a 16-page document that describes the courses (modules) of year 1 and year 2 of study, but as the current study is concerned with year 2 courses, I describe the last EMDFs only. Each of these EMDFs comprises the thirteen parts, but only parts relevant to the current study are presented in Table 4.1 below:

Table 4.1: Modified English Language Module Description Form (MEMDF)

Course title	English communication skills III	Business Communication
Prerequisite	To have completed BUC111 &122	To have completed BUC213
Aims	To help students improve their communication skills further and serve as a bridge between EGAP and ESAP	Promote skills students need to communicate in their professional lives
Indicative content	The four language skills and three integrated skills (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation)	Essential communication skills, effective business writing, technology and communication, ethics in communication
Learning & teaching strategies	PPP (Present Practice Produce)	PPP (Present Practice Produce)
Strategy for feedback and student support	Teachers will offer consultation to students who need special attention and give feedback and comment on pertaining to the whole class	Teachers will offer consultation to students who need special attention and give feedback and comment on pertaining to the whole class
Main books	The New Cambridge English Course 3	Business and Administrative Communication

The above components of the EMDF have the following implications:

1. The materials ascribed to year 2 students depend on previous courses.
2. The four language skills, the three integrated sub-skills and students' future communication skills are taken into consideration.
3. The teaching methodology is well-defined.
4. Feedback and language support to students take place outside the classroom.
5. Each course has a pre-established commercial book as a guideline.

In the next sections, I discuss the NCEC III and other teaching and learning documents that were available to me.

4.4.2 The New Cambridge English Course, Book III

The New Cambridge English Course III is the main textbook used in the course of English Communication Skills III. It was written in 1992 by two writers. It is level three of a four-level curriculum and was devised for intermediate students with a European educational background learning English for ‘general practical or cultural purposes’ (Swan & Walter, 1992: viii).

The NCEC 3 comprises five blocks (Blocks A-E), a 14-page grammar revision section at the back of the book, additional material, a vocabulary index, acknowledgments, phonetic symbols and a list of irregular verbs which occurred in different blocks and lessons. Each block encompasses eight lessons (Lessons A1-A8), a summary of the whole block, a revision and fluency practice part, and a test. Each of these parts comprises various activities.

Every first, third, fifth and seventh lesson of each block deals with topics of general interest referred to as ‘general-purpose topics...’ (Swan & Walter, 1992: ix) which focus on grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation which may lead to speaking and writing. The second and sixth lessons are entitled *focus on systems*. They also focus on grammatical points, vocabulary, and pronunciation, but these language systems are selected to address students’ needs. Lessons four and eight focus on skills referred to as *skills focus*. The two lessons are supposed to promote listening, reading, and writing skills. The consolidation section summarises the language learnt in each block whereas the Fluency and Practice section consists of various fluency activities.

The structure of the book indicates that the four language skills and the integrated skills are dealt with and that students are given exposure to topics of general interest only. According to the guiding principles provided in the introduction of the book, prominence is given to grammar practice because students prefer activities against which their progress can easily be measurable. In the next section, I describe a book entitled Revision Book.

4.4.3 Revision Book

Revision Book is a small grammar book written in 1968 and which was used by a language teacher during the observation of her class. Revision Book deals with three major points which are tenses, the passive, and other verb difficulties such as indirect speech, articles and words of quantity, relatives, comparatives and superlatives, word order, prepositions and adverbs, and topics for continuous writing. Some grammatical points contained in the book are in isolation whereas others appear in contexts. Obviously, the book deals with grammar alone.

4.4.4 Entrepreneurship Simplified

Entrepreneurship Simplified is the title of a book that was written in 2009. Part of the book had been photocopied and been used by a language teacher to introduce the course of Business Communication. The photocopy which was from pages 552 to 791 contained 14 chapters (28-42), but chapter 31 was not part of it. The different chapters are Communication - An introduction, Business Communication, Media of Communication, Barriers to communication, Principles of communication, Human communication; Oral, visual, and audio-visual means of communications, Speeches and listening, Written communication, Business letters, Business reports, Various types of reports, Agenda and minutes of meetings, and Business communication technology. In case the above chapters were taught as they appeared in the book *Entrepreneurship Simplified* and the course of entrepreneurship was taught at the college under study, there would be duplication of the programme. The EAP course would familiarise students with highly-constructed pre-established materials from one subject only instead of giving them exposure to texts embedding terminologies from various disciplines and the local culture.

4.4.5 Syllabus of Business Communication

The syllabus of Business communication was compiled in 2010. The first part defines communication and develops topics such as the needs for communication, the importance of communication, the objectives of communication, media of communication, the benefits of effective communication, and barriers to communication and ways to remove them. The second part of the syllabus deals with a word, a phrase, a clause, sentence, the common sentence errors, wordiness, conciseness, redundancy, repetition, note-taking/note-making, paraphrasing, summarizing, quoting, plagiarism, capitalization, punctuation, and paragraph writing and essay

writing. The third part deals with letter writing, curriculum vitae, memo writing report writing, and report writing. The fourth part concerns effective oral communication (interviews, and oral presentation). The last part focuses on technology and communication (theories on the use of a telephone, fax, email, and the internet). The syllabus reveals that highly-constructed generic skills rather than specific academic terminologies are the focus of EAP courses and that no cultural artifacts have been included in the programme.

4.4.6 Learning texts/genres

In this section, I first discuss EAP genres and then discipline-related genres.

4.4.6.1 EAP genres

The first excerpts deal with EAP assignments that I provide below:

A. Choose the best synonym for the underlined word.
1. They worked from dawn to dusk with such ... that they were exhausted.
a. boredom b. distraction c. debility d. zeal
B. Choose the best synonym for the underlined word.
1. A funeral is a melancholy event.
a. meaningful b. medical c. expensive d. sorrowful

The above extract indicates that only vocabulary was assessed in isolation and that the paper could hardly reveal the features which were being researched. Another extract is also shown below:

(1) Put the following sentences in the passive voice:
Example: John's house has been being cleaned by Peter.
(2) Add question tags to the following:
Example: Don't make noise,...?
(3) Complete the following sentences
Example: He liked dancing... I didn't.

The above paper also assessed grammar in isolation. The two assignments were marked and the student respectively got 13/15 and 5/15, thus revealing students' lack of mastery of the assessed grammatical points. In the next section, I discuss an EAP continuous assessment test.

The EAP test is made up of three main sections. The first main section deals with reading comprehension. Students had to read a text without a title and without any relationship with other academic subjects, but which concerned the way people's memory functions to remember things

such as exams and cell-phone numbers. The reading comprehension section was composed of four multiple choice questions which required students to select answers which suited the context the best from a series of four answers numbered as a, b, c, and d, and one question required them to write at most a three-line summary to show their understanding of the text.

The second main section combines grammar and vocabulary. It presents two subsections: grammar, and vocabulary and language in use.

The grammar part was composed of four questions. The first two questions concerned short texts with gaps to be filled in. Grammar was somehow dealt with in context, but it did not require students to make efforts by conjugating verbs themselves. Students had to simply comprehend the short texts and complete them with verbs which had already been conjugated for them. The third question concerned the use of the infinitive and -ing form whereas the last one was about prepositions. Once again, students had to fill in gaps.

In the subsection entitled vocabulary and language in use, students filled in gaps left in a short text related to the students' field of study. The last vocabulary exercise offered two lists of opposite words in two columns and words from column A had to be matched with words from column B. The listed words were specific terms used in business.

The third main question is on essay writing. A choice had to be made between two topics on financial institutions in Rwanda. The instruction said, 'choose one topic and make a short essay on it: (1) the socioeconomic impact of Saccos on Rwandan economy and (2) the role of financial institutions in Rwanda. Students had to write a short essay, but the instruction did not specify how short this would be, and neither did it state the kind of essay to write.

The set of questions indicates that two language skills (reading and writing) and two integrated sub-skills (grammar and vocabulary) were assessed. The CAT was marked out of 70 and the feedback provided. The student got 1.5 in reading, 15/30 in grammar, 9/ 13 in vocabulary and language in use, and 8.5 in writing. In writing, data indicate that both the form and the content of students' texts were not given much importance. The next section discusses the EAP semester 1 final exam.

EAP semester 1 final examination

Semester 1 English communication Skills III paper was very similar to the above CAT. It comprised three sections A, B, and C. Section A assessed students' ability to comprehend a text and respond to questions adequately. The reading passage was entitled *the benefit of being bilingual*. It consisted of a sub-question dealing with open questions and another with vocabulary related to the text. Section B was made of grammar and vocabulary. For grammar, sentences were given in isolation and students put the verbs in brackets in the correct form. In the vocabulary part, students had to read a passage and fill in the gaps. Thus, vocabulary was dealt with in context.

Section three on writing consisted in writing a one-page composition on either topic (1) where do you see Rwanda in 20 years from now, (2) compare Rwanda of 2015 and Rwanda of 1995, and (3) if you were to convince a foreigner to come and invest in Rwanda, what would you say? Use reasons and examples to show the advantages of investing in Rwanda. The data provided is from an examination sheet by a student who chose the first topic. I provide only this part of the exam and propose to provide the remaining parts of the exam in appendix for further ease of reference.

Rwanda in 20 years from now there are very good just important in Rwanda vision some time can satisfied people middle in the country there are a good commodity and peace.

Firstlly Rwanda in 20 years from now an importante people, because increasing manufacturing, political stability, increasing relationship between people, Decreasing bad condition, Making decision for life an people some one can be fast realy, Increasing life skills. It can help technology skills Using Internet, Amerialation of Eastern Africa

Normally Rwanda in 20 years from now are increased beginning pourer of many for country.

The following were underlined with a red pen: the letter *e* in the word *important*, the *yed* in *satisfyed*, the *stll* in *firstlly*, the *e* in *importante*, the word *amerialation*, the *are* in the last sentence whereas the *are* in sentence one was circled. Two question marks in red were put at the bottom of the page. The composition was scored 9/15. In the next section, I discuss semester 2 Business Communication CAT.

1. *What do you understand by 'business communication?' (2 marks)*
2. *Mention and explain 5 key elements in the communication process. (7.5 marks)*
3. *Name and explain 3 types of language/semantic barriers. (3 marks)*
4. *List and explain five factors involved in the choice of the channel of communication. (7.5 marks)*
5. *What is the difference between verbal and non-verbal communication? (2 marks)*
6. *Explain three of the general guidelines that help maintain effective communication. (3 marks)*

The main feature of the above CAT is memorisation. In the following section, I present semester 2 Business Communication examination.

EAP semester 2 examination is made up of three sections. The first section consists in writing a job application letter and a CV to be appended to it. The second section concerns oral communication skills and instructs students to attempt any two questions of their choice among 7 seven set questions. For example, the first question asks students to suppose they are selected for a job and scheduled for an interview and to describe how they prepare and sit for the interview using the space provided to them on the examination sheet. Section C is about punctuation and capitalisation and requires students to correct the punctuation and capitalisation errors in a given paragraph that will be appear in the whole examination as part of appendix. The examination assessed students' writing skills and capacity to memorise the content of their subject. The next section deals with content subject genres.

4.4.6.2 Course content genres

Principles of Taxation genre (CAT)

This paper is made of four questions and counts for 30 % of the total marks of the module. It was prepared by two lecturers who share the same course of Principles of Taxation. The paper consisted of four questions, required students to attempt responding to any three, to clearly provide all the necessary information on the answer booklet, and to use non-programmable, noiseless and codeless calculators. The time allowed was one hour and a half.

The first, third and fourth questions dealt with calculations whereas the second required students (1) to display knowledge they had memorised by listing and describing the four principles or canons of good taxation and (2) to use local examples to explain how Rwanda tax system

satisfies these principles. Both the question paper and the student's answer booklet are provided as appendices. They indicate that figures and tables are the mostly used genres in the course of Principles of Taxation.

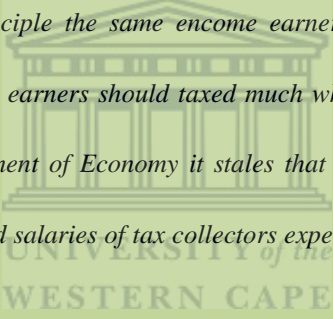
The answer booklet was separate. I reproduce some of the answers by a student who availed his learning materials to me. These are answers to question two that required students' use of the English language.

Qu2
The five characteristics are

- 1. The first characteristics is that a tax is paid to the Government and It's the Government to collect it.*
- 2. The tax is charged to the personal liabilities.*
- 3. There is No relationship between Benefit and tax.*
- 4. The tax is a sacrifice because it requires the sacrifice to pay it.*
- 5. The tax is the compulsory payment levies on the taxpayer.*

b.

- i. the principle of equity: from this principle the same income earners should be charged to Amount of money In a proportionally way.*
Ex Progressive tax: where higher income earners should taxed much while those of less should be taxed Less Means No excludability In tax pay system.
- ii. the principle of economy: to this Ptament of Economy it stales that the cost of tax collection should be less that the Amount of tax collected the taxpayers.*
Ex the cost of Fuels In the cars, wages and salaries of tax collectors experts must be less that Amount generated from those Activities In tax.
Etc.



All the above answers, but the second characteristic of taxation and the second example illustrating the principle of certainty were ticked V in red and the score was 21/25.

Principles and practice of Insurance genre

This was a joint CAT for all CBE Campuses. The instructions stated the number of questions to be answered. The paper was composed of two sections: section A and section B. Section A was made up of two questions, the first of which comprised four sub-questions whereas question two had no sub-questions. On the other hand, section B was composed of five sub-questions. While section A was compulsory, students had to respond to three questions of their choice in section B. Section A was on calculations and required students to draw a table as seen on the student's answer sheet provided as an appendix. Section B dealt with the theoretical part of the course

whereby students displayed their writing skills. An extract from the student's answer sheet is reproduced below:

Qu2

Those Factors are the Following

*. Average= where $\frac{\text{sum insured} * \text{loss}}{\text{market value}}$*

. deductible: refers to the Amount that ensuree wishes to be dudacted/ premium

. Excess: the Amount that the insurence ca can Not pay.

. Franchise: the Amount which any insurence can pay. But if it excess they are All your losses.

. Factor Limit Any one Item: for these statement are factor limit Any one articles are some Items that ... limit Any one to go ex: and ask to be indem...

. Sum insured: I refers to the Amount that Insuree has ensure In the Insurence company to be Indemnified: case of losses.

The above answers indicate that the students made a lot of spelling and grammatical mistakes and the original marked answer booklet shows that all the answers were considered to be correct and that the student was given all his marks.

4.4.7 Summing up document analysis

Raw data from the above documents indicate the use of prescribed material meant for other cultures. They indicate that all the language skills and sub-skills were developed in EAP classes, and that topics of general interest and highly-constructed materials were brought to class. The data also show that EAP courses assessed students' reading and writing skills, their knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, and their capacity to memorise the material taught to them. Non-language genres have revealed that calculations and rote learning played an important role. Documents have shown that language accuracy and coherence were given little value when grading students' CATs and examinations. In the next section, I provide a general overview of Chapter 4.

4.5 Summary of the Chapter

The above raw data gathered by means of various research methods namely observations, semi-structured one-to-one and focus group interviews, and the analysis of teaching and learning materials portray the strengths and the weaknesses of the current English courses offered at the CBE. They also reveal the activities normally conducted in the classroom and the strategies used by teachers to ‘meet’ the students’ academic linguistic needs and ‘prepare’ them for their future professions. The data also indicate the students’ and teachers’ views of what can be done in order to remove factors which hinder the implementation of EAP courses at a college of business and economics. In the next chapter I analyse, discuss, and interpret the data.



CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS, DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

Having presented the data collected in Chapter 4, I propose to analyse and interpret my data in this chapter with reference to the aims and objectives that I discussed in Chapters 1 and 2. In light of this, I believe that the substance of this chapter should serve as a sequel to Chapter 4. However, I wish to recapitulate it here. The aim of the study was two-fold: (1) to explore whether the current English courses taught at the College of Business and Economics prepared students for the academic world and for their professions after they graduate, and (2) to explore whether those courses met students' needs in relation to other academic courses. In keeping with this, the conceptual framework examined theories on (1) the role of English around the world, (2) world Englishes, (3) challenges with regards to using English as a medium of instruction, (4) English for Academic Purposes as an approach to help students, (5) discourses and genre, (6) EAP curricula, and (7) theories of bilingualism.

Just as I have recapitulated on the aims and objectives of my study above, I also wish to revisit in brief the historical context of EAP at the National University of Rwanda (NUR) as well as some of my key beliefs and value systems underlying the rationale of this study. In 1997, EAP was introduced at the NUR to prepare students for non-language subjects taught in English and for administration. Even after the shift from French to English as the language of instruction, EAP was maintained as the government wanted to help students acquire communication skills needed to cope with the academic world and with the world in general. In line with this, second year students at a college of business and economics are offered the courses of Communication Skills III (a continuation of Communication Skills 1 & 2 taught to year one students) and Business Communication which was presumably intended to help students acquire technical vocabulary related to their academic subjects. These two courses have been believed to help the students improve their communication skills in English and adapt to both the academic world and life after school. However, their main role was meant to integrate authentic discipline-related and

culturally-oriented materials and to make the teaching and learning process dialogic through the use of varied semiotic modes of communication which enhance the participation of all students in classroom activities. Without this, many felt that the students would become academically inactive and unable to contribute to the construction of their own knowledge and the transformation of their academic world.

The incorporation of discipline-related and culturally-related materials, teacher-student role shift, and the resort to modes of communication other than the medium of instruction require appropriate skills without which the whole teaching and learning process is obstructed. Students will continue to experience difficulty in improving their communication skills up to high levels of proficiency because when a language is learnt, language-related difficulties persist (Gass & Mackey, 2013), that is, these difficulties are not removed as students are not given opportunities to interact in the classroom. Thus, rather than practicing the narrative lecturing teaching methodology, teachers of English have had to develop other ways of teaching to meet students' needs. For example, Kharat (2012) provides techniques such as questioning, illustration, role-play, narration, presentation, and classroom management which may help a teacher render his or her teaching interesting and enjoyable, and succeed in developing students' language skills for business communication. Kumaravadivelu (1994: 33-42) also offers a strategic framework for language teaching consisting of the following ten macrostrategies: (1) maximise learning opportunities, (2) facilitate negotiated interaction, (3) minimize perceptual mismatches, (4) activate intuitive heuristics, (5) foster language awareness, (6) contextualize linguistic input, (7) integrate language skills, (8) promote learner autonomy, (9) raise cultural consciousness, and (10) ensure social relevance. Thus, teachers have to be aware of such teaching techniques and strategies and any others to make the teaching and learning process simple and natural (Kharat, 2012).

As far as my current study is concerned, the findings in it are meant to indicate whether the current English courses taught at the College of Business and Economics meet students' needs in relation to other academic subjects and prepare them for academic life in general and for life after they graduate. In light of this, I have been able to point out the varied themes that emerged during the presentation of the data in Chapter 4. However, the analysis and deeper discussions and interpretation of the data were reserved for Chapter 5.

Chapter 5 comprises four sections corresponding to the four specific research questions and combines findings obtained by means of the various research techniques used for data collection for the sake of upholding my study's trustworthiness. I wish to discuss and interpret the findings in keeping with the aims and objectives of the work and in accordance with the research questions outlined in Chapter 1. The overarching research question prompted by the aims of the research was to explore the way in which the current English courses taught at the College of Business and Economics in Rwanda prepare students for their academic linguistic demands and for their professional life. This question engendered four specific research questions which I have restated below:

1. What are the teachers and students' views on existing English courses at university level in terms of strengths and weaknesses?
2. Can the current English courses meet the students' linguistic needs in relation to content-specific courses?
3. Which academic discourses and genres do teachers and students consider necessary in order to meet the demands of the academic world?
4. Which learning and teaching strategies help students improve their communication skills?

These questions did not necessarily appear in this order when I was conducting the interviews as my participants' responses raised other questions. Sometimes, I was also compelled to restate the questions or resort to Kinyarwanda to make them understandable and suit my participants' capacity of understanding.

Both the main research question and its derivations, the probing questions, were related to the main and specific objectives of the study. The first objective was to investigate the extent to which the teaching of English and learning materials met and matched with the students' needs. The second was to explore the views of the teachers in language teaching. The third was to study the students' attitudes towards English as taught at their institution. The fourth was to observe the English language teaching strategies employed by English and content subject teachers whereas the fifth was to explore the extent to which content subject lecturers gave students language support. In accordance with the main aims and the objectives of the study, I analyse, discuss and interpret the data collected during classroom observations and interviews, and from

the analysis of the documents in relation to the themes that emerged from the raw data. These themes encapsulate the principal components of the research questions. I propose to bring in select strands of data in its original voice for the sake of conferring narrative immediacy and articulating the centrality of the issues I want to tease out from my findings.

5.2 The Organisation of the themes

In this section, I organise the various themes, which have emerged from the raw data I collected by means of observation, interviews and document analysis. These themes have shown remarkable congruencies, which embody my research questions. Therefore, I will address the research questions by analysing the data in accordance with these emerging themes the first of which is teacher pedagogy.

5.2.1 Teacher pedagogy

Teacher pedagogy includes the focus on grammar, teacher preparedness, authentic materials, and resourcing which I analyse and interpret in this order. It embodies and encapsulates the strengths and weaknesses of the EAP courses currently offered at the CBE. It also indicates some factors that were believed to be useful for the improvement of the teaching of the present EAP courses and my own beliefs regarding what could be done. I first deal with the focus on grammar.

5.2.1.1 Focus on grammar

Focus on grammar appears to be a strength and a weakness at the same time, but the majority of the students who participated in the present study considered it as more of a weakness than a strength. As for EAP teachers, they probably considered grammar as the major sub-skill students needed since most of them concentrated on it. However, findings from classroom observations reveal them as a weakness since students were not actively involved in the teaching and learning process.

As already argued, the focus on grammar was perceived as a strength. S1 stated the following, which can help illustrate this:

We have acquired too much knowledge grammar and tense, things related to tenses. Apart from the grammar or the tenses, we acquire knowledge about punctuation and knowledge about listening skills and a part of writing. We have the strengths in listening skills and in things related to phonology and phonetics as well as things relating to conjugating different verbs in different tenses. Yeah. We have strengths in these issues.

The above excerpt indicates that the focus on grammar particularly on tenses, knowledge of how to pronounce words and the use of the right punctuation marks, and the development of listening and writing skills constituted a big asset. It shows that the EAP courses had empowered students with knowledge of the above-mentioned skills. In another illustration by S2 (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.1.1), it appears that EAP courses helped students to acquire knowledge of grammar and spelling which, in turn, enabled them to make oral presentations.

On the other hand, the focus on grammar was considered as a weakness by other students who would like teachers to bring authentic materials to class so that their needs might be met. One case is that of S1, who complained that teachers would go to class, stand in front of the students, and start telling them how to conjugate verbs in different tenses and fail to deal with technical terminologies needed to meet academic linguistic requirements. The above complaints appear to corroborate with the realities of the classroom situations wherein almost all EAP teachers attempted to familiarise students with grammatical rules only and failed to provide students with opportunities to apply them in speaking activities.

As presented in section 4.2.1.1 of the previous chapter, findings from classroom observations indicate Teachers U and J conducted nothing but a series of unrelated grammar activities in isolation rather than contextualising them (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). Teacher U, for example, subsequently dealt with the use of the end position of prepositions in sentences and question tags during the first period and probably conducted more grammar exercises later on as she instructed her students to tackle other grammar tasks on pages 39 and 42 of the NCEC, Book 3. Teacher J also taught four different grammatical points one after another. These included the passive voice and verb conjugation involving different tenses and tag questions. Obviously, EAP teachers still used the narrative teaching method and their discourse was exclusively content-focused (Arnó-Macià & Mancho-Barés, 2015). Teachers K's and U's reproach to students for forgetting grammatical rules they had learnt several times (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.1) and an excerpt from LT1 can help illustrate this:

Er, in general I first present the, I first teach the lesson. Then after teaching the lesson, I give them practice. You know, for example, in the morning I was teaching phrasal verbs. I say everything related to phrasal verbs, and when I finish, I gave them an exercise. So, I think whatever we learn, we learn theories and then they put those theories into practice er that's how I always do.

LT1's excerpt indicates that she always inculcated theories (grammatical rules) to students who silently listened to her until she finished delivering her lessons. Her teaching methodology had become a routine. It indicates that some teachers probably failed to free themselves from their previous learning customs and the material with which they were familiar, thus focusing on grammatical rules and conjugations through rote learning (Gass, 2011; Gass & Mackey, 2012; Gass & Polio, 2014) and on the writing of simple sentences. In this case, the teaching and learning of EAP becomes a form of transmission that attempts 'to merely deposit knowledge into students' heads, thereby, 'stunting their minds and intellect and curiosity and creativity and voice' (Kumashiro, 2015: xxi). This kind of teaching may turn students into 'containers or receptacles' to be filled by the teacher (Freire, 2000: 72) and detach them from reality as they do not use the target language to see, understand and communicate about the world and/or create new knowledge.

As a result, students were tired of poor teaching methodology as shown through an excerpt from S1:

...they have erm they are familiar with or they used to teach us they are used to teach us familiar or repeated topics similar topics which are somehow simple, that also lead lead students to reject or to get tired of studying similar items in different years, in different hours times.

The implication from this excerpt is that teachers' repetition of the same grammatical points that they appeared to be familiar with made students lose interest in EAP courses. Furthermore, students did not give significant help to one another in EAP courses because they believed that these courses were easy, particularly because similar things would be taught over and over again as indicated by S1. The excerpt from an F4 member also showed that students only read their English notes during the examination period. This shows that the material taught to students was perceived to be below their expectations and that they would only read it for the sake of marks. On the other hand, an excerpt from an F2 member indicates that other students sat for examinations without revising their notes because they believed they knew all the grammar their teachers offered to them. However, findings from classroom observations show that they were generally rebuked for forgetting the grammatical rules and that they normally failed to formulate correct sentences. Findings from learning materials also indicate that their grammar was not as perfect as they thought. For example, the texts they produced in EAP CATs and examinations and their answers to questions assessing their memorisation skills appeared to lack accuracy as

far as grammar was concerned (see Chapter 4, section 4.4), which indicates the failure of the focus on grammar in isolation.

In my belief, the focus on grammar indicates that EAP teachers were still applying a traditional language teaching method according to which grammar points were taught through rote learning and rules on their use explained (Richards & Rogers, 2014). Teachers would probably use the PPP teaching methodology proposed in the EMDF and according to the assumption by the NCEC designers that students generally prefer activities such as grammar against which their performance is easily measurable. However, I believe that form-focused exercises and function-focused activities (Kumaravadivelu, 1994) do not work any more and cannot lead to students' mastery of the target language. As an illustration, I observed that students continued to produce the same mistakes for grammar points that they had studied over and over again for many years. Therefore, rather than teaching grammatical rules through explanations followed by short eliciting questions, I believe that teachers have the responsibility to activate the 'intuitive heuristics' (Kumaravadivelu, 1994: 32) of their students by providing them with texts occurring in different discipline- and culture-related genres from which they can infer the underlying rules. Without a change in the teaching methodology to promote classroom interaction, the EAP courses might not play their role. In the next section, I look at teacher preparedness.

5.2.1.2 Teacher preparedness

Teacher preparedness plays an important role in the success of the implementation of school curricula. Thus, lack of preparedness may lead to teaching and learning ineffectiveness. In this section, I look at the role played by teachers in the implementation of EAP courses.

Findings indicate that EAP teachers were generally perceived as competent, skillful, knowledgeable people capable of transmitting knowledge effectively and helping students to improve their English and comprehend other academic subjects. For example, S1 stated that lecturers taught things they really knew and that students benefited from their knowledge. The above belief indicates that some students would consider teachers as the only knowers from whom they could draw good knowledge and ignore their own aptitude to contribute to knowledge construction. However, I believe that language should not be viewed as a 'passive

process and the result of internalisation of outside knowledge, but as a result of the learner's internal construction of meaning' (Richards and Rodgers, 2014: 26).

Teachers were perceived as a strength in terms of their regular attendance and endeavour, the administration of many assignments and examinations, and teaching methodology, which students believed to contribute to the effectiveness of EAP curricula. However, I believe that the effectiveness of the abovementioned factors depends on other parameters such as the material to be covered and the goal for teaching it, the paradigm behind assessments and the appropriateness of the chosen teaching methodology. For example, the assessment of the EAP courses may have negative effects on the teaching and learning process (Bashir, 2012) in case they are summative rather than formative and fail to reveal the students' strengths and weaknesses and those of the curricula. For example, questions assessing students' memorization skills could not reveal what needs to be addressed (see Appendix 4).

Even though some students considered their teachers to be competent and knowledgeable, others questioned their preparedness in many various ways as shown below:

Some teachers' ability to express themselves in English was questioned. Findings show that their low level of English would prevent them from disseminating knowledge as required and that they would resort to Kinyarwanda and their switch over to Kinyarwanda was perceived as a weakness (chapter 4, section 4.3). This might be true as, in the real teaching and learning environment, the observations indicate that some teachers with poor English communication skills lectured through English and sometimes transmitted mistakes to students. One case is that of NLT3 (offering the course of Business Communication) who defined the term *bias* as the speaker's inability to clearly convey a message. Another case is that of Teacher R, who gave wrong idiomatic expressions such as *butter and bread*, and *singer and composer* to his class. These inaccuracies, which were found in teachers' discourses went unrepaired (Arnó-Macià & Mancho-Barés, 2015: 64) and such inaccuracies were also manifest during the interviews which revealed some EAP teachers' low level of proficiency in the English language (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.2). Teachers' poor command of English probably resulted from lack of exposure to relevant material and of engagement in classroom activities as teachers are generally affected by their previous learning experiences (Mokiwa & Msila, 2013).

Teachers' lack of preparedness was also measured against their lack of well-designed and standardised curricula as illustrated by the following data strand:

The second weakness is that er lecturers of English here, it seems that they have they have no no no outline that they go through because each lecturer taught wha whatever he want to teach and another one teach whatever he want to teach. It mea it means simply it means that there is different erm from there is different er courses that being erm held. In group A it is completely different from that was taught in group B...

Findings from this excerpt show that teachers failed to work jointly and decide on the same materials to cover within a certain time to give all groups equal chances to succeed in their CATS and examinations. Lack of standardised materials was perceived as a very big issue when it came to CATS and examinations as shown through an excerpt by S3:

... When the lecturer is is is tau? teaching according to his to his willing or views and another one comes teach according to his views, it gives it comes a problem when erm at the time of examination because, erm, for exa for instance when I belong to group B and another one belongs to the group C when the the erm the com the examiner is focusing on what has been taught in group B. The opportunities will be er will be will be for the students in of group B and it will be er a kind of loosing for the students of group C because they they will have been examined on on what they haven't covered during the course.

The above view reveals that one teacher set an examination meant for all EAP groups in accordance with the materials he/she taught to his/her own class and with his/her own way of teaching, irrespective of what happened in other groups. As a result, this teacher's students would perform better than the others. In line with this, findings from classroom observations, particularly in the introductory part of the Business Communication course indicate that teachers taught using completely different materials. For example, a teacher handling two different groups introduced the course with a grammar lesson on subject-verb agreement to one group and with a lesson entitled introduction to Business Communication in which he defined the term communication and taught elements related to communication to the other group. Another teacher dealt with paragraph writing as an introduction to the course whereas the third teacher did not admit to be offering the course of Business Communication even though the content of his first lesson was similar to the introduction of one of the lessons taught by the first teacher, yet all their students were supposed to write common tests and examinations as indicated in the above excerpt.

With regard to the above, I am inclined to say that EAP teachers were guided by what they thought (Borg, 2015). I also believe that the course outline could not have been problematised since the EMDS provides an indicative content for both EAP courses. The EMDF pointedly states that the programme of English Communication Skills 3 had to be taught as contained in the NCEC, Book 3 whereas Business Communication was to use *Business and Administrative Communication* as a guideline. However this indicates that teachers are ‘mere certifiers’ (Kumashiro, 2015: xxi) of an existing programme, which I do not subscribe to.

Even though the above book entitled *Business and Administrative Communication* was not available at CBE, I believe that disparities in the programme would have been minimised if the teachers had discussed the additional materials to bring to class as a team. Therefore, teachers’ lack of preparedness can also be judged against their lack of cooperation as mirrored through the abovementioned lack of harmonization of the material brought to class and through other findings that I discuss below.

Cooperation between language and non-language teachers also appeared to be non-existent. For example, excerpts from two of the four language teachers I interviewed stated that both teams of teachers had never had opportunities to meet while designing and implementing the EAP curricula. Their statements indicated that they were willing to cooperate provided that the management made decisions on their behalves by convening meetings wherein the issue of cooperation would be raised, which might never happen as decision makers generally lack awareness of what takes place in real classroom situations.

Furthermore, an excerpt by LT1 indicated that she had never talked to content subject counterparts. It revealed that the relationship between language and non-language teachers was not good and that the two teams could not work together for the betterment of the educational system which uses English, a foreign language, as a medium. Another excerpt by LT4 showed that language and non-language teachers did not usually meet, but that in case there was collaboration amongst them, the latter could help with some ideas. Yet, even EAP professionals are not normally aware that EAP covers different areas of academic communicative practice (Hyland, 2002; 2006) and do not prepare EAP courses accordingly to meet students’ needs (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001).

All the above declarations would denote lack of awareness that English courses are normally taught across the curriculum and that all teachers are EAP teachers who should cooperate in order to operate effectively. They reflected EAP teachers' lack of initiative and possible ignorance of the role of such collaboration. An illustration by LT5 can help have a better understanding of the probable ignorance:

LT5: We sometimes er cooperate with them[because] center is not part of the college, cause for us we hear it is a campus. We have students from different colleges. We teach students of those three different colleges. This means that we are not part of this College of Business and Economics, but we work with them not only with this college, but we work with other teachers other lecturers from other colleges and we try to know how far students are going cause sometime we teach them and we go to other colleges but we try to talk to other lecturers and see what what is happening , how long will this take and we know the program the calendar from the college but we even try to inquire about how what students are able and able to and many things that we want to know from the what we want that we want to inquire from other lecturers of the college.

As already argued, the above excerpt appears to confirm that EAP teachers lacked understanding of how to collaborate with content subject teachers. They inquired from them how the students were faring academically, how long their lectures would last and other related information in order to know when their own programme would commence. However, this was in most respects a vague exercise because these EAP teachers were supposed to collaborate with their peers in order for them to design the programme together which would suit the students' academic linguistic needs in their various areas of specialisation. By the same token, an excerpt by NLT3 offering an EAP course can help understand better the total absence of collaboration among teachers:

Well again I don't know how it is done because me I am just there to cover what I am supposed to cover. There is, well, students are learning language, but I am not involved in the process. What I believe is that when they are learning, I don't even know what kind of English they are learning now to see how much it can assist them to even understand my courses. So I would say there is no link between what I am doing and what the English teachers, lecturers are doing. Maybe the department knows or the faculty knows but me as a lecturer I am not.

The above-mentioned teacher's perspective indicates that some NLTs probably undermined language courses that they considered as subsidiary (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.2.2) and were so distant from them that they were barely interested in cooperating with language teachers so as to provide language scaffolding to students. It shows that some teachers had little knowledge of

their multidimensional role and set barriers between EAP courses and their own as shown through another excerpt by the same NLT3:

... here in the former X (for the sake of anonymity the name of the institution of higher learning is not provided) we have it we have the business communication skills as a separate course without knowing what students learnt in English communication, in English skills.... Students are learning language, but I am not involved in the process. What I believe is that when they are learning, I don't even know what kind of English they are learning now to see how much it can assist them to even understand my courses. So, I would say there is no link between what I am doing and what the English teachers, lecturers are doing. Maybe the department knows or the faculty knows but me as a lecturer I am not.

It appears that the above course of Business Communication was different from English courses offered at other CBE colleges. Yet its content was determined by the EMDF used as a guideline for all CBE language teachers and students taking it were supposed to write the same examination as their peers from other campuses.

The above excerpt also highlights better NLT3's reluctance and lack of will to cooperate. NLT3 possibly considers language teachers as lecturers having a subsidiary role compared to non-language teachers (Arnó-Macià & Mancho-Barés, 2015). However, in an environment where English is a second language used as an MoI, all teachers are required to be EAP teachers in order to make students acquainted with technical terminologies used in their various disciplines (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001) and help them improve their proficiency in English. However, although there was lack of cooperation, NLT1 perceived it as an essential tool for the improvement of teachers and students' knowledge. He had recognition that collaboration between the two teams could play a dual role: (1) improving the students' knowledge, and (2) improving the teachers' knowledge. In line with this, non-language teachers could provide language teachers with the specialised vocabulary students needed for the improvement of their academic English (Bruce, 2011).

In turn, language teachers could help content subject ones to acquire accurate pronunciation of these technical terminologies (Wu, 2014) and be capable of tackling issues on language (Fortanet-Gómez & Räisänen, 2008). This implies that language teaching and learning requires teachers and students to step into other worlds of values and points of view. Language teaching and learning materials can be expanded to include discipline-related topics to create a symbiotic relationship between language and non-language subjects (Grenfell, 2002). Thus, teachers need

awareness of the role of cooperation in order to help students learn to use language and use language to learn as language learning is ‘an integral part of subject learning’ (Fillion, 1997: 28). Nunan (1992:1) goes further to suggest collaboration that includes all shareholders in language education ‘in order to experiment with alternative ways of organising teaching and learning’, can create an environment where they are all teaching and learning from each other on equal footing so as to suit the needs of the students.

Teachers’ lack of preparedness was also reflected through their delayed starting of classes and allowing a kind of *laissez-faire* and *laissez-aller* approach (freedom) to/in classrooms. For example, a content subject teacher purposely went to class late because he decided to have lunch late whereas another simply said that he normally started evening classes at 6:00 rather than 5:30 p.m. Concerning the *laissez-aller*, teachers tolerated students’ lateness to class. Teachers allowed their students to enter the classroom at different moments of the day and the students disrupted the lessons in many several ways (pulling chairs on the floor or unfolding fixed chairs). Teachers also tolerated phone calls and chats and seemed not to be bothered when some students were sleeping during their lessons (see Chapter 4, section 4.2).

With regard to the above, I believe that some teachers’ previous learning experiences did not equip them with classroom management skills that would enable them to maintain order in their own classrooms. The fact that some teachers would go to class late deliberately, for example, reveals their lack of time management skills. Lack of time management skills was also mirrored through ways in which teachers carried out classroom activities. For example, some teachers would spend a whole hour on one grammar exercise (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.1.1) or keep silence in the classroom (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.1.4) or waste time by allowing one student to fill wrong answers in a whole exercise before the teacher himself/herself gave right answers (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.1.3). This arises as a contradiction to students’ consideration of teachers’ regular attendance and endeavour as strengths. The two components should not be seen in terms of teachers’ presence in the classroom and of their focus on grammar alone.

Furthermore, findings from interviews indicate that some teachers failed to give language support to their students. Language support from teachers was perceived as insignificant or non-existent. For example, S1 considered teachers’ explanations and students’ latitude to ask questions as language support from teachers as shown in the excerpt below:

Our teacher help us to understand the course well because he is teaching. We the students we are free to ask him questions....

Obviously teachers provided students with explanations that would enable them to understand the course and allow them to ask questions in case they had not grasped the knowledge they were communicated. Teachers were perceived as knowledge providers who would stand in front of the students and disseminate knowledge to them as they were passively following. Students would only talk when asking questions on the content they did not understand and teachers would clarify the difficult points by providing more explanations. I thus believe that if there were no questions, teachers would go on narrating their lessons. Teachers would fail to consider students as knowledgeable people with rich insights who could contribute to knowledge construction in the classroom and the transformation of the academic world, and whose insights could only be known when their voices were heard (Freire, 1974).

Some teachers could even ask questions from students at the end of the narration in case there were any as indicated by S9 whose view can be supported by findings from classroom observations. These findings show that, in one of the lessons on e-commerce in the Information Management System course (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.2.3), the teacher instructed his students not to ask questions, to just keep quiet and write, and only authorised them to ask questions after he had finished delivering the material he had planned to cover. However, I believe that by the end of the lesson, the students might be tired and hastening to go home or to get ready for another class. I also believe that even though students may ask questions, the kind of interaction that will take place by the end of the lesson cannot have the same significance as the dialogic interaction between them and the teacher in the course of the lesson when both parties are active and play a role in knowledge construction.

In some other cases, teachers would not provide students with language support as shown below:

“Not er sometimes the lectures come in class and give us handout and told us go and read. The university, in the university, the lecturer say that, in university, we don’t teach, we we we lecture. Er we lecture, we don’t teach. The lecturers give us a handout and we read ourself.... When we don’t understand er we have the groups. We have the group discussion in the classroom. When the teacher goes out, we discuss.

From the above excerpt, it appears that some teachers lacked integrity and took their students for granted, letting them study ‘at their own peril’ (Andrade, 2006: 133). It reveals that students

would make their own efforts to understand the materials brought to class as teachers would not care much about their level of English. Another illustration by an F2 member indicates that students would gradually manage to adapt to difficult discipline-related concepts on their own rather than attending EAP classes from which they would not gain much. Furthermore, findings indicate that teachers would fall into different categories as shown below:

Some it is not a hundred per cent but some are helpers but others they don't help us properly because even among, among of or one of them also I think English they don't speak English..... that is why some of them they don't help us properly.

The above excerpt indicates that teachers were classified into three categories: (1) teachers who provided students with support, (2) teachers who gave little support, and teachers who did not properly give support to students due to limited English communication skills. However, teachers with limited English language proficiency would provide explanations in Kinyarwanda, 'but not all students would be able to translate the knowledge transmitted in their mother tongue into English when answering questions', S17 reported. Another illustration by S6 indicates that some teachers' support could be measured in terms of percentages:

... They do but I think their contribution if we can put like in percentage, it is like 30%. And but i think the most the most contribute who contribute is your colleagues, your colleagues who have understand the course, they can even when during rev during.

Language support received from teachers was estimated to constitute 30% while the remaining 70% was offered by peers. Thus, teachers' support appeared to be of little importance. Their contribution to the understanding of the content of their subjects was far smaller than the students' mutual support. In group discussions for example, students would feel free to ask one another questions and share knowledge. For example, the original excerpt from S2 indicates that students formed groups according to their social affiliation and intellectual ability to discuss courses, particularly as non-language teachers would focus on discipline-related facts such as calculations and give little importance to the elaborate vocabulary embedded in their courses. Students managed to get the meaning of vocabulary related to taxation and accounting because teachers did not consider this elaborate vocabulary to be their concern. More capable peers rather than teachers would help weak colleagues to understand the content of their subjects as illustrated in the excerpt below:

....When we are in group we are having an assignment, we help one another because there is some weak students that we ever help to prepare what they will present. Then we tell them how they

should behave and how they should speak without fear. So those are the assignments being done outside the classroom. We do not have group discussions in the classroom. We never get group discussions during the class hours....

Support by peers would also occur when students were preparing oral presentations. More capable peers would help weak students to understand the content of their assignments and equipped them with strategies on how to overcome fear during presentations. The above perspective indicates that group discussions were the result of students' own arrangements to transcend the learning difficulties they encountered probably because, with teachers, language support would not happen without interaction. Students would conform themselves to the traditional technocratic models of teaching which are teacher-fronted, leave no room for interaction, and promote rote learning as seen through the tests and examinations administered to students (see Chapter 4, section 4.4.7). The relationship between teachers and students was one of "master and apprentice" in that the teachers were knowledgeable and that they could pour knowledge into students' heads. Students could internalise this knowledge unquestionably and fail to give their contribution which might add to the teachers' knowledge (Cree, 2011) and help understand both the world and word better in order to transform the world using words (Freire, 1974).

However, findings from classroom observations reveal few teachers with a good command of English who could provide language support to their students through the use of their mother tongue when students could not understand some terminologies. They also show that one non-subject teacher made use of code switching from the beginning until the end of the lesson to enhance interaction in the classroom and that students seemed to be excited. Data from interviews also indicate that some teachers would provide students with explanations in Kinyarwanda, increase the number of presentations to allow students to express themselves, organise group discussions, give many assignments to promote extensive reading, use simple language, to cite but a few (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.2.2). However, I believe that language support can occur when there is dialogic communication between teachers and their students. For example, there would be no necessity to require students to do many assignments if teachers do not give them any feedback that can help improve their writing skills.

Teachers also appeared not to promote their students' problem-solving skills. The concept of problem-solving skills appeared to be unknown to the majority of the students who participated

in the current study. Only four out of twenty individual students and four focus groups consisting of ten students each attempted to provide meaningful insights regarding whether their problem-solving skills were promoted in the classroom. One of the wrong insights is reproduced in order to show the severity of this issue:

In focus English because of English used all over the world. Use in all the school of East-Africa countries like Rwanda, Burundi, Uganda, Kenya to join all countries called EA.

The above excerpt shows that the students had never heard about the concept of problem-solving and that their problem-solving skills would not be developed during EAP classes. On the other hand, one account indicating that teachers would promote their students' problem-solving skills is shown below:

... They make our brain very sharp, er by bringing some topics. Okay, I was saying they help us like thinking capacity like the problem there is sometimes we do like writing on the topic they bring like they told you there is a feminine problem in Rwanda sp what can you do to eradicate it, what can you do to eradicate poverty in Rwanda and then you get some ideas you write an essay about that topic I think it helps us...

This excerpt indicates that problem-solving skills are promoted through written tasks rather than classroom interaction. Topics on issues students encountered in their everyday real life would be given and developed in a way requiring students to think and solve the problem(s) at hand. However, I believe that students with poor English communication skills would not be able to understand what the teacher required them to do and that through written essays, their insights would lie on paper and never be discussed in the classroom. Students' views would remain silent in the classroom, thus reflecting the banking model of education in which students are normally manipulated and domesticated (Freire, 1974).

Findings indicate that EAP teachers did not give value to their own subjects. Their lack of investment might be due to both policy makers and students' attitudes towards these courses. Policy appeared to favour science and technology at the expense of languages. Their probable belittlement of EAP courses can be confirmed by an extract from S2, who stated that the time allotted to EAP courses was insufficient compared to time ascribed to other academic subjects. However, their attitude towards EAP courses appears to contradict their decision to promote English as a medium of instruction, which would help improve the Rwandan socio-economic statutes and achieve the government's aspired goals (see Chapter 1).

The policy makers' attitude indicates that they perhaps lacked knowledge of the interdependence between EAP courses and other academic subjects or that they had the global view of EAP courses, that is, they play a subsidiary role. As a solution, they would need to be cautious before the promulgation and implementation of any policy by involving all the shareholders in its elaboration in order to minimize its negative effects. These effects might be the teachers' loss of identity and agency as educators, who might neglect their own courses as reported by S3 even though professional teachers are supposed to look for solutions to problems facing them.

As already indicated, teachers' focus on grammar appeared to have led students to lose interest in their subjects, but teachers were, in turn, probably discouraged by their own students' attitude towards EAP courses in which some of the latter did not invest as much as they did with other academic subjects as revealed by S1. Both the teachers' possible discouragement and the students' belittlement of the EAP courses were probably due to the remedial role generally associated with them (Long & Boatman, 2010). Both students and teachers view them as bridges which help fill the linguistic gap between the former's previous linguistic background and the highly-structured academic linguistic demands. However, I believe that EAP teachers are supposed to mitigate the existing biases towards their subjects by revisiting their teaching methodologies.

Further to the above-mentioned considerations, EAP teachers were reported not to develop students' learning autonomy. Teachers would not promote students' learning autonomy through research and avail English textbooks that would contribute to their understanding and development of English as indicated by S3. However, I believe that it is the role of the teacher to increase the autonomy of their students, but students' autonomy cannot be enhanced as long as teachers work under control (Kahraman, 2015). Students' autonomy depends on teachers' own autonomy (Huang, 2005). In the context of the CBE, teachers appear to be guided by the EMDF, which dictates what to cover and determines the methodology they should use. However,, they need to draw from their classroom experiences to devise alternative (Kumaravadivelu, 1994) teaching methods to the PPP (Present Practise Produce) method they normally apply in order to promote their students' self-confidence and independence. They need to know that no teaching methodology can be successful for all students all the time (Killen, 2007)

Findings indicate that teachers appeared not to be innovative, but their lack of innovation is dealt with in greater detail in section 5.2.1.2. Furthermore, they indicate that some teachers lacked understanding of the characters used in the NCEC. An extract from LT1 can help illustrate this:

Erm, Normally for us we've been using er Cambridge books. So we don't, the material we design. It is to complete that program which is already designed, but the Cambridge, I don't know people from.

From the extract presented above, I believe that it would be difficult for some teachers to function properly when they lack the ability to interpret and/ or help their students to interpret the pictures of the people they come across in the NCEC. I also believe that some teachers were not aware of their role to adapt the teaching material to the local context or else that they were not keen enough to adapt these materials because of their literature-oriented previous experience evoked by the same teacher.

Teachers' lack of preparedness was mirrored through more lamentations. Teachers lamented the lack of course design and appropriate teaching and learning materials (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.1.3). Some even went to class without knowing what to teach and blamed the module leader for not having designed the course of Business Communication for them. This portrayed their lack of professionalism and innovative spirit that I also observed in classrooms. One case is that of teacher K who got stuck after completing one grammar exercise and gave room to students' to express their annoyance.

All the above-mentioned shortcomings of EAP courses associated with teachers' lack of preparedness appeared to be a big issue as students would suggest that unskilled teachers be fired and qualified ones be hired. For example, one F3 member stated that the college should employ qualified and experienced lecturers, notably outsiders who were believed to be better at English whereas F1 and F3 members showed the need to train some teachers and fire the incompetent ones. Another illustration (among many) is that of a student who recalled that, in order to remove the weaknesses of the EAP courses currently taught at the CBE, the university must dismiss all lecturers who are not able to teach. Students' claims indicate that lecturers displaying limited teaching skills should be sacked to make space for trained teachers, particularly foreigners who would teach appropriate materials using effective teaching methodologies such as those applied in TOEFL. However, a contradiction arises between their claim to hire foreign teachers and the

reality I lived in a class held by such a teacher who considered her students' mistakes to be deficiencies and laughed at them, mismanaged her time by letting one student correct one exercise filling it in with wrong answers while the rest of the class would be making noise as indicated earlier in this section (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.1.3).

Findings also indicate that some students and LT1 I found teacher training necessary for the effective implementation of EAP curricula. For example, an F2 member stated that teachers needed to be informed about the various changes made in teaching English and the relationship between students and themselves. This implies that EAP teachers may not be aware of the strategies currently used to teach EAP courses at university and of the kind of relationship there should be between them and students. Therefore, they need to 'be open to new ideas and purposely invite reflective thinking' (Adams & Hamm, 2014: 42)

Teacher training was also perceived as a means to increase teachers' skills. An illustration of this was given by F1 and F2 members who thought that it would be better to increase training sessions for teachers and to equip them with updated materials in order to enhance their skills. However, teachers are believed to be the main organisers of the curricula even though students may help them devise them as they know better the programme that would meet their needs (Adams & Hamm, 2014). In line with students' views, an illustration by LT1 revealed the necessity of training EAP lecturers with a literature-oriented education:

...English language teachers, they need some kind of trainings on how to teach those er those components of business skills. But you know, sometimes some of us, they have learn, they learned linguistics. They didn't learn how to teach English language. They don't know methodology. So a kind of training is also needed in order to reinforce that business communication teaching here and learning.

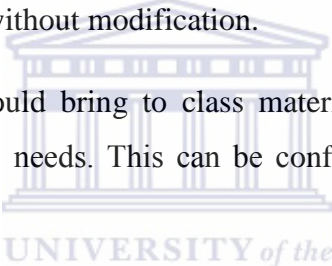
This excerpt indicates that there were some novices among EAP teachers and that their educational background did not prepare for the teaching of such courses, thus lacking adequate skills that would enable them to train students as required. Teachers' prior experiences and school practices influence their teaching methodology (Canbay & Berecen, 2012; Saba'Ayon, 2012, & Mokiwa & Msila, 2013) positively or negatively. In this specific case, their influence appeared to be negative. For example, LT1 was affected by her literature-oriented background which did not familiarise them with professional genre forms and discourse conventions, their purposes and conventions (Wu, 2014). As a solution, because the above excerpt indicates the

teacher's eagerness to improve her teaching methodologies, there would be an urgent need for teacher training sessions to help novices acquire knowledge of both these academic genre forms and discourses and of ways to teach effectively and efficiently. Furthermore, there should be well-set criteria for the selection and recruitment of teachers in order to facilitate the implementation of EAP courses. Otherwise, the issue of teachers' lack of preparedness will always be raised and the recruitment measures questioned. In the next section, I discuss the teaching and learning materials as used by EAP teachers.

5.2.1.3 Authentic materials

EAP authentic materials are generally commercial textbooks written in a context different from students' own context and needing adjustment to suit local needs. In the context of this study, findings are meant to indicate whether EAP teachers used textbooks at their disposal simply as guides or whether they used them without modification.

Findings indicate that teachers would bring to class materials they had prepared beforehand without considering their students' needs. This can be confirmed below with an excerpt from S2's response:



The lecturers, as their normal obligations, they plan their course and they come with their planned course. They don't propose us what we are able to understand so that we can discuss on them and remove the obstacles. Erm, the lecturers try to clarify erm what we have as confusion when we ask on that course and also they help us to understand the language and to tell us how people pronouncias but they don't give us examples on their own. They help us to to know vocabulary but in manner that i can say which are not good order which are somehow unpredicted. They teacher something as come in their mind.

The above excerpt confirms that pre-established materials were brought to class and that students' needs were not taken into consideration. Teachers would probably rely on their own intuition to designing teaching and learning materials (Harwood, 2010). Furthermore, the excerpt shows that the pre-planned materials would be taught exactly as they appeared since teachers were not innovative and lacked focus when teaching. This can be reinforced with a view that some highly educated people with a good command of English may fail to communicate knowledge (see Chapter 4, section 4.3) and with findings from classroom observations. For example, teachers K, J and M had a good command of English, but they failed to teach properly

(see Chapter 4, sections 4.2.1.1, 4.2.1.3 & 4.2.1.5). However, as argued in section 5.2.1.1, not all teachers displayed good communication skills.

Findings from interviews with teachers indicate their reliance on pre-determined materials. An excerpt from LT1 can help illustrate this:

Normally, for us, we've been using er Cambridge books. So we don't, the material we design, it is to complete that programme which is already designed...

From the above, it appears that teachers do not design materials or prepare lessons for their students. Their role is to cover the material contained in the NCEC books. There is over use of pre-established materials, without which it becomes difficult for teachers to prepare lessons as was the case with the above teacher who normally used the NCEC in General English and was using another person's notes to teach Business Communication (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.1.3). Another excerpt from the above teacher indicates that the Cambridge books contained all the activities needed to address students' needs, an issue that I will discuss in section 5.2.3. An excerpt from LT4 also indicates the heavy dependence on commercial books:

We have recommended materials that we use, especially that Cambridge and other books that we have, but when we are selecting materials we have a course outline and we don't go out of it unless we find that there is a need there is any need of going out of that one, cause sometime, we may find that there is something that they need which is not part of the course outline...

The above findings support S2's view that the material contained in the NCEC was taught as it appeared in the book. S2 argued that teachers simply taught how to pronounce words and helped them how to understand the language, but that they could not provide students with examples of their own.

From the above findings, it also appears that EAP teachers were bound to a given course outline and selected materials from the recommended books which were perceived to be complicated and meant for teachers only as shown below:

In these books of Cambridge, ere r they are written in summary. If you er are not able or you have no no language skills, you can't er understand what they really want to mean. In these books, er only lecturers can can understand and acquire something from them.

The above extract indicates that the material contained in the NCECs has not been adapted to students' level of English. Failure to adapt the material is also shown through the extract below:

Updated material, every year they design Cambridge University Oxford University. They produce books of English every year. They produce CDs that teaching listening, techniques of reading, techniques of writing. Yeah, so as you can see the book we are we are using today they are 90s, 80s yeah.

The textbooks brought to class were perceived to be old as they dated from the 1980s/ 1990s and students believed that the use of recent books would give them exposure to new learning techniques. In the same vein, the 1980 and 1990 textbooks were perceived not to contain as good English and advanced techniques of learning as found on Facebook and Google today:

... As you can see in the 90s, there are there were no the English level was was down, but now at least we have. We go to Facebook, it's in English; we search on Google, it's in English. So we need a little bit advanced techniques of learning.

The above excerpt simply means that textbooks written in the 1990s could meet the needs of the then student body and that they could no longer satisfy the needs of today's students. It shows that students are clamouring for up-dated authentic materials drawn from the internet and for change in the teaching methodology. As a solution, EAP teachers would need to constantly renew their teaching materials and adapt them to the students' needs. They would also reflect on and revisit their teaching techniques. Furthermore, the NCECs appeared to be monotonous as shown below:

... We use only the Cambridge books, yet we can use other books containing containing different texts in order to acquire so many vocabularies in these books.

The NCECs appeared to be the only textbooks students communicated with when these books seemed not to be rich in vocabulary. Thus, the above extract shows that students advocated for additional materials that would help enrich their vocabulary when it appears that teachers could not bring additional materials to class unless there was a need for such materials. Teachers appeared to heavily rely on the pre-established materials at their disposal, which was probably due to the recommendation in the EMDF (see Appendix 4) that they should teach the material contained in the NCECs as it appeared. However, findings from classroom observations and interviews, particularly with teachers indicate that teachers could not cover all the pre-planned materials and focused more on grammar at the expense of the four main language skills. Thus, as argued in section 5.2.1.2, teachers appeared not to be autonomous. They could neither choose their own materials nor innovate teaching methods based on classroom experiences. Even those who managed to use additional materials still relied on commercial books such as Revision Book

and Entrepreneurship Simplified (see Chapter 4, sections 4.4.3 and 4.4.4) whose relevance, along with the appropriateness of the NCECs, I will study in section 5.2.3. In the next section, I look at resources.

5.2.1.4 Resourcing

Resources play a key role in the teachers and students' lives as they might facilitate the teaching and learning process. However, teaching and learning facilities were perceived to be insufficient. Findings from classroom observations indicated that some classrooms were too small to accommodate the big student population allotted to individual teachers and that there was a shortage of chairs, compelling students to spend time outside looking for chairs. They also indicate that, in some instances, when chairs were found, it would be difficult to find a place to put them. This lack of chairs would result in disruption as students pulled them on the floor when the teachers were busy teaching.

Findings from classroom observations also reveal that the college under study was challenged by lack of EAP teaching and learning materials. Eight out of the eleven teachers I observed brought their notes and/or textbooks to class. They both read the notes and provided students with explanations before they dictated them the notes or explained their subjects as the students were simultaneously taking notes. EAP teachers regularly made use of the chalkboard to write grammar exercises from the NCEC 3 on the board because students did not own the NCEC: Student Book 3, and this practice appeared to be time-consuming. Only one teacher had distributed books to her students and the books were not sufficient for her class. Four to five students shared one book. Another EAP teacher had managed to copy a model essay for his class and two students also shared a copy. In non-language classes, one teacher was astounded when he noticed that students had managed to get his syllabus. His astonishment revealed that the teacher could probably not provide students with materials to interact with due to lack of photocopying facilities.

The above observations were confirmed by findings from interviews from both teachers and students. Teaching materials such as a language laboratory, radios and audio tapes, and textbooks were perceived to be either few or non-existent as shown through an extract by an EAP teacher:

...we have no materials. We have no sufficient books. We have no er no electronic materials that can help us in teaching listening especially and no books for reading. The we try to provide them with some materials but they are not sufficient.

The above excerpt shows that the college under study owns few books for the students to read and that there are no electronic facilities which could help teach listening. In other words, listening and reading skills were not likely to be promoted in the classroom due to lack of facilities. It also indicates that teachers tried to manage the few resources they had and provide them to students despite their insufficiency. Lack of teaching and learning facilities was also reported to prevent the teachers from implementing the EAP courses effectively and efficiently. In line with this, Mammino (2010) argues that students need to communicate with the different sources at their disposal. These sources are the teacher, textbooks and handouts, and the like. Provision in resources was then perceived as one of the strategies to remove the weaknesses of the EAP courses currently taught at the CBE as shown in the excerpt below:

The strategies to remove the weaknesses of the current English courses taught at our college are to keep on advocating until the CBE puts in place more printing and photocopying sites and facilities, and requesting more ESP books from the college.

Obviously, teachers have been advocating for the above facilities and believed they should continue their advocacy until decision makers heed their voices. The findings indicate that the above teacher considered herself as an agent of change in her institution and for change to happen, there was a need for perseverance. Her stand also indicates awareness of the challenges facing teachers and of their role to resist these challenges (Freire, 1974) in order to transform their academic world.

The same view indicates that some EAP teachers appeared to be satisfied with the content of the NCECs and/or any other textbooks they had currently been using and to believe that once they were provided with sufficient books, the teaching and learning process would be smooth. Teachers' claims for more materials appear to reveal that some of them relied on the quantity rather than the quality of the teaching and learning materials, particularly textbooks. They also indicate their lack of knowledge of some of their attributions, among which is the adaptation of the commercial textbooks to local needs or the design of materials which meet these needs.

Teachers' trust in the current teaching and learning materials also expresses itself as shown in the excerpt below:

...the strategies used to reinforce the strengths of the current English courses offered at the CBE are keeping the course materials safely and using them properly, enrich the New English Cambridge Course (NCEC) with additional materials from other electronic sources that are authentic and published.

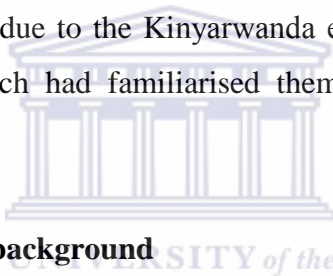
Even though the above excerpt indicates that the few materials owned by the language units were trusted to be useful and worth safeguarding, it reveals the necessity to complete them with more authentic materials. Following the students' complaints that teachers use one book only, the above thought is of paramount importance providing that the additional authentic and published materials suit the students' academic linguistic needs and relate to the Rwandan culture since cultural values are normally transmitted through language (Hyland, 2014) and enhance motivation. This would help teachers maintain a close link between education and the local culture as the classroom should be regarded as 'the natural extension of the broader culture' (Phillipson & Ku, 2014: 258), help students acquire a new identity and maintain their home identify at the same time. In the next section, I provide a brief summary on teacher pedagogy.

5.2.1.5 Summary of teacher pedagogy

In this section, I summarise the findings and suggestions on teacher pedagogy which includes the focus on grammar, teacher preparedness, authentic materials, and resourcing. Findings indicate that EAP teachers focused on grammar at the expense of the four language skills. This practice was seen as a weakness by many students who asked for more useful materials and I found their claims right in that focus on grammar no longer works. I suggested that grammar rules be induced from texts rather than through rote learning. Findings also indicate that teachers count on pre-established materials and rarely adjust the content of the textbooks recommended to them as guides, thus lacking autonomy and innovation. Teachers should then learn how to design materials to fit their students' needs rather than using predetermined materials uncritically. Resources also appeared to be insufficient and some teachers believed that the few materials their college owned should be safeguarded and increased. However, there is a need to adapt the teaching materials to the Rwandan context and to adjust them to suit students' needs. In the next section, I deal with the language of instruction.

5.2.2 Language of instruction (LoI)

The language of instruction is an enabling tool that normally facilitates interaction between teachers and students, and among students themselves. The LoI as a mediating tool plays a crucial role in that it influences the development of students' thoughts (Vygotsky, 1978) and without its understanding, there would be no mediation of learning. Unfortunately, in contexts where a foreign language is used as a medium of instruction, research has already shown that both teachers and students encounter language-related difficulties (Mammimo, 2010; Sultana, 2014). In the current study, findings indicate that the LoI was perceived to be simple compared to Kinyarwanda and French (see Chapter 4, section 4.3) and that it could continue to serve as a LoI because of its international flavour and other possible interests. In this case, there appears to be confusion between the teaching and learning of EAP for general purposes only and its use for academic purposes. However, the majority of students perceived it to be beyond their capacity of understanding. This was probably due to the Kinyarwanda environment and students' previous French-speaking background, which had familiarised them with French since their primary school education as shown below:



5.2.2.1 The French-speaking background

In Chapter 1, I indicated that French had served as a medium of instruction in Rwanda since the colonial period up to the sudden shift to English from French in 2009. The abrupt use of English as a LoI could negatively affect students with a French tradition as the latter could also constitute an impediment for the implementation of EAP courses. Thus, findings indicate that the English medium was seen to be hampering students with a French background from comprehending content subjects. It made it difficult for students with a French-speaking background to express themselves. An excerpt from LT5 can help illustrate this:

...there are many weaknesses, especially the historical background of our students and they have many problems with the English language, specially some of them have a, had a French background. They studied, they studied their courses in French and then switched to English, and it was, it is a weakness to many of the students so that they are many who cannot express their selves.

The implication from the above-given excerpt is that students were already familiar with French. Their long french tradition would not allow them to acquire the amount of English needed to overcome learning difficulties after an abrupt promotion and implementation of English as a

medium of instruction. For example, S7, who did not know the English word for *cerveau* (brain) said that his brain functioned better when he was schooled through French. With such a preconceived view, I believe that it would be difficult for this student and any others with the same belief to make efforts in order to communicate through English. However, I understand its essence as the shift occurred at a wrong moment during some students' academic itinerary.

Education through English appears to have greatly affected students with a French background. It led to students' loss of French as signified by S17 and discouraged students to the point that they were scared even for the forthcoming generations as illustrated by the excerpt from an F2 member:

we are shifting from francophone system to English, the English system. So that a a affect our our learning English or ho how we learn English. Means, er, maybe, I don't know for those who are at high school today. Maybe they will when they reach in university, it will facilitate them, but today er there is circumstances whether someone who begin his studies or her studies in the French and then when he reach, he reaches in university, he begins to study English whether he learn before in French that affects circumstances.

The above excerpt indicates how the introduction of English as a medium of instruction was made at a wrong time in her school life. An excerpt from S7 that a language is better learnt when it is used at primary or secondary school can confirm that the introduction of English as a LoI in the Rwandan educational system, particularly at university level appears to be too abrupt. Thus, university students were facing real language-related difficulties that were perceived as impossible to overcome and that these students would be forcibly requested to use a language they lacked mastery of. There is then a generation of students whose education has been sacrificed and which was hopeless as shown in the continuation of the above excerpt from an F2 member:

I don't even know whether our teacher can manage to speak some French. He requests us to speak, to participate in the lesson, but as we are not accustomed to the use of those languages, it becomes difficult to interact or to expect that one may speak English one day.

The above excerpt indicates students' lack of familiarity with English- the language of the others (teachers in this context) who were unable to speak the language with which their students were acquainted. Students distanced themselves from the language that would not enhance their communication skills and whose users (teachers in this context) would not make an effort to learn students' languages so that they could communicate using all the available modes of

communication. Therefore, it appears that the English language is being imposed on students whose existing linguistic repertoire is ignored. As a result, some students appeared to be discouraged and failed to participate in classroom activities.

Some would even resist the use of English by deciding not to participate in the lesson as was the case in some of the classrooms I visited (see Chapter 4, section 4.2) and as shown through an excerpt that I display in the next section.

Furthermore, in section 4.3.1.2, findings consistent with the above excerpts indicate that the current generation of university students questions the effectiveness of English medium in the near future. Their concern might be relevant in that the majority of primary and secondary school learners are taught by teachers with low English communication skills, who received a mere three-week English course before they could teach in English (see Chapter 1). It might also be pertinent since some university teachers were reported to have poor English communication skills (see the current work) and in that the college under study might hire new teachers among the current university student body who, for example, might echo words such as *francophology* (see Chapter 4) even after correction.

Probably due to the language difficulties that students encountered, some of them preferred to be schooled through French as evidenced by the excerpt below:

Yes me for me because some many of us have studied all subject in French so for today now we are learning in English all subjects we are doing it in English so what could be better for us maybe Kinyarwanda is specially it can help us but but we cannot use Kinyarwanda but French can be most when we are using French because in primary, secondary school we we studied through French.... The best is French... and then Kinyarwanda because everybody knows it... For me, the language which can help me to understand the academic subjects er I prefer French cause I remember when I was in 0 level I studied in French. So to to understand the course it was very simple for me. So now I prefer to use French.

The above excerpt implies that students believed that, due to their familiarity with the French language, it would be easier to **understand content** subjects effectively in this language. It also implies that there was a misconception about the use of mother tongue, whose use as a medium of instruction they thought to be impossible. It was believed that Kinyarwanda would not enable students to communicate with other people around the world and that, in order to communicate with foreigners, there was a need to use a foreign language. In the same vein, another illustration indicates that the choice of French was due to the fact that students were already familiar with it

and that it was impossible to study through Kinyarwanda even though Kinyarwanda would facilitate the teaching and learning process as everybody knew it. The belief was that people should study in a foreign language if they wanted to communicate regionally and globally. However, this reveals a lack of knowledge of the role a language plays in facilitating the development of the foreign language used as a LoI. In the next section, I discuss the use of Kinyarwanda.

5.2.2.2 The use of Kinyarwanda

Kinyarwanda is widely spoken and used by all Rwandans in all sectors of life, including areas such as classrooms where its use is not officially allowed. Its widespread use was perceived as a hindrance to the effectiveness of EAP courses, but it was also seen as a mediating tool which could help students with language-related difficulties to follow other academic subjects.

The widespread use of Kinyarwanda was perceived as a language-related difficulty by three non-language teachers. An excerpt from NLT 4 can help illustrate this:

The big challenge here we have we use the same language. All of us here, we know Kinyarwanda and actually language there is no way you can be good in language without doing more rehearsals. So they learn English within class. Immediately after getting to the gate or to the door, getting out, they start to use their natural language. That is the big challenge.

The use of Kinyarwanda also appeared to constitute a major hindrance to the implementation of EAP courses. Seemingly, English was used in classroom situations only and once outside of the classroom students spoke Kinyarwanda, their mother tongue, which was known by everybody. Thus, the above excerpt indicates that the use of English in the classroom alone was not enough to help students improve their skills in this language and that there was a need for more practice. NLT4 further showed that it was imperative for the students to use English on a regular basis as Ugandans do if they wanted to become proficient whereas NLT1 thought that the use of English should be made compulsory at the CBE. However, I believe that the Ugandan and Rwandan linguistic contexts are rather different from each other. Even though both countries are multilingual, all Rwandans share the same language whereas Uganda is a mosaic of peoples with different languages and in need of a lingua franca. It would then sound unfair to require students to divorce themselves from their home language. It would be even difficult for them to manage to speak English only when more than 90% of the population nationwide can speak Kinyarwanda

only. For example, an excerpt from a student shown below indicates how English makes it difficult for speakers of Kinyarwanda to comprehend subjects taught in English:

I think that English courses have many weaknesses because it isn't the tongue mother language that may lead the difficulty to understand so that courses because are the first time of study that course I have the misunderstand because i think that are the language of the neighbour which are complicated.

From this perspective, my findings indicate that English, the complicated language of the neighbour, rather than students' mother tongue is being used as a medium of instruction and that it hampers students from understanding other academic subjects. The English language is being imposed on students whose existing linguistic repertoire is ignored, thus causing them harm. As a solution, teachers can reflect on their teaching methodologies in order to revise them to suit the students' needs.

Some of the suggested methods that would make interaction and meaning making happen in EAP classes with self-confidence and engagement are (1) the teaching of English across the curriculum (Stoller, 2008, Van Dyk *et al.*, 2013), and (2) the consideration of students' diverse contexts and needs (Canagarajah, 2005) such as the use of world Englishes (Kachru, 2006) or students' mother tongue (Mammino, 2010).

Kinyarwanda, for example, was perceived by many students as the language that would make the understanding of academic subjects easier as a language known by everyone and through which everyone could communicate. An illustration by S8 can support this:

... I think you know English is not our language I think if we could learn in our own language you know like in our language you know that in Chinese country they use their own language that is why they understand better what they are learning. I know this is not our language but we try but I wish we could we could learn in Kinyarwanda because it is the language we we know it is our mother tongue language. Yeah. Yeah, mais [but], I don't know it cannot be possible that's why we have to learn how to speak English yeah.

Obviously, the above extract indicates that it would be better to study through the mother tongue. The mother tongue was still believed to facilitate learning, since it is the language students knew, unlike English, which is not their own language and requires them to make a lot of effort. The Chinese model of education was referred to as a successful model in which the use of a local language as an LoI has permitted students to understand their courses effectively.

The above extract also indicates some students doubt whether their desire to have mother tongue education would ever become reality. Thus, it shows that students attended school through English as a medium of instruction because they did not have any other choice and makes me believe that there was no mass consultation before the decision to shift to English from French was made. Even the main stakeholders - the teachers and students in this context - were not involved in the process to change; otherwise students like S8 would not have expressed their wish to study through Kinyarwanda in case it was possible.

Other findings indicate that code switching would be an important tool in classes where a foreign language is used as a medium of instruction. Further to enabling students who are generally ashamed of using English to understand the content academic subjects more easily, code switching could help remove confusion in the minds of students by providing them with the real meaning of some English concepts. An illustration by S3 is provided below to support the issue in focus:

Er. Basically Kinyarwanda is the the best one that could be used but also using er er being taught in Kinyarwanda our full courses, I don't prefer this one. I would prefer to be taught in English all all courses and sometimes during explanation they may use Kinyarwanda.'....Yeah, I think our lecturers may may adapt these methods of using Kinyarwanda during explanation because sometime it comes very difficult for weak students to get real concept of the coursewhen lecturers are completely using English. That is the reason as to which some students need other students for explanation because when stu students are explaining one another er they use Kinyarwanda.

The implication from the above extract is that a switch to Kinyarwanda would facilitate the transmission and understanding of the course content in case of language-related learning difficulties. A switch to Kinyarwanda would help students grasp the meaning of the difficult English concepts. When explanations were provided in Kinyarwanda, students would know their exact corresponding uses in English and this translates the existence of a correlation between various languages and their mutual interdependence in a learning context. Thus, the use of Kinyarwanda along with English rather than the monolingual habitus appears to promote a two-way transfer from the one language to the other (Cummins, 2005). It would also allow students to alternate the two languages in such a way as to negotiate their identities and gain space for their voices rather than being deadened in the classroom and this practice appeared to be existing as students would provide one another scaffolding in Kinyarwanda and be reluctant to use English. Their reluctance to use English is voiced below in an excerpt from an F2 member:

...but the problem is, the the students know English and they know how to write the word in English. The problem is that the student must, they have shame to speak English. They have they not they they have they not have confidence for what before others to say English. so for example more student know for example taking example of me I can understand English I can write the I can write the word in English but the problem is still on go before others to say English to say question when teacher write asking to who is go before others to speak English but others still hidden through their sitting...

The above extract indicates that speaking English was a real challenge for students who could not stand before others and express themselves. English made students frightened of speaking and lack confidence. Students were afraid of standing before the class to the extent that they would hide in order not to be requested to speak. Findings from classroom observations confirm that students were afraid of interacting in English. As an illustration, a non-subject teacher told his students that he knew they were scared of responding to his question, but that he would not bother them as he had already had the answer he needed, which answer was not heard by anybody else in the classroom (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.2). This teacher appeared to be interested in the understanding of the content of his subject regardless of whether students' input could benefit the whole class or not. He did not intend to help students improve their communication skills at all. His attitude indicates that he was the only person to possess knowledge and that students had to listen and respond to his eliciting questions only. It also indicates that students had to keep on being silent because they were either afraid or unsure of what to say. Students' reluctance to use English is also voiced in an excerpt from NLT1 as presented below:

...Students are reluctant if you have them into groups. You go to one group; you understand that they are using local language Kinyarwanda. So it is very much difficult. I've been talking to my students asking them to use English, but in most cases I find them using Kinyarwanda and even you find, when you go into those groups, when they ask you a question, they are reluctant to use English although they know that you cannot accept to answer their questions in Kinyarwanda, but most of them, they are tempted to use Kinyarwanda.

From the above excerpt, it appears that there was resistance to the use of English, but that students could discuss among themselves and pose questions to teachers in their mother tongue. Their resistance to English might be a strategy used to raise their voice and claim their identity. It would be an appeal to teachers to recognise students' identity and develop their tolerance of others (users of another language, teachers in this case). Thus, Byram et al. (2001), and Yang and Chen (2014) suggest the incorporation of culture in language classes to help students in understanding their own cultural identity, developing their ability to compare cultures, acquiring

a critical stance and tolerance, and promoting their motivation in the classroom. For example, the students' use of mother tongue during group discussions is a prognostic of possible agency in their learning process. Therefore, 'any recourse to code switching can enhance students' motivation and involvement in the teaching and learning process because they are better in Kinyarwanda', a content subject teacher said.

In line with the above-mentioned views, NLT2 also perceived Kinyarwanda as a useful mode of communication, which would help students communicate easily during group discussions, but not in a class discussion. The teacher's restriction of Kinyarwanda to group discussions is probably due to fear of disciplinary measures that might be taken against her in case she was caught openly using Kinyarwanda with students. In Chapter 1, I made mention of a note requesting the academic staff to teach through English only and appealing to Department Heads to keep watch over teachers and report those using Kinyarwanda in the classroom. Therefore, the above teacher's attitude appears to tally and concur with Anderson & Rusanganwa's (2011) findings that the teacher whose classroom they observed made use of Kinyarwanda (the unofficially allowed medium) depending on the physical space separating teachers and students. Anderson and Rusanganwa (2011) found out that the teacher used English when he was occupying teachers' usual space for lecturing (that is, near the board) and Kinyarwanda or French (the former medium of instruction) when he was closer to the students.

Perhaps the teacher in question did not want to be heard using a prohibited language in the classroom. However, findings from classroom observations show that students enjoyed a lesson during which a non-language teacher mostly used Kinyarwanda to conduct classroom activities and gave students turns to stand in front of their classmates and contribute to their own learning. They also indicate that students stopped making noise when another non-language teacher made use of Kinyarwanda for the explanations of difficult terminologies and gave examples related to religious beliefs. Students became attentive and began taking notes and giving their points of view regarding taxes and religious organisations.

I thus believe that code switching constitutes an efficient mode of communication that can help students acquire the English needed to function academically, locally, and internationally. However, it appears that some teachers could not allow students to use Kinyarwanda even when

they lacked appropriate English terminologies to use, which constrained students to remain silent as shown below:

Yeah but what you think what I think is the teacher can use when he saw that we don't understand what he is saying he can use Kinyarwanda, but we as are students it is not allowed for us to speak Kinyarwanda.

Obviously, some students were not allowed to express their opinions through the language they mastered the best. Their agency in the classroom was limited and there were claims to let them make use of Kinyarwanda whenever they were stuck. One case is that of NLT1, who had realized that his students were so reluctant at using English during group discussions that they even dared to ask him questions in Kinyarwanda, and who kept on asking them to use English (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.2.2). Findings from classroom observations also indicate that Teacher N forbade his students to use Kinyarwanda during group discussions. I am then inclined to say that teachers who prevent students with learning difficulties due to low proficiency in English from using Kinyarwanda when they cannot express their ideas in English lack knowledge of the significant role a mother tongue can play in mediating meaning and contributing to knowledge construction. Thus, I am also inclined to say that such teachers limit students' input, which can influence their teaching positively and that they should allow them to express their ideas through the mode of communication they master the best.

Further to facilitating the teaching and learning process, the switch over from one language to another (in this context English and Kinyarwanda) was perceived as a way of promoting Kinyarwanda as a language and of boosting Rwandan culture. An excerpt shown below from S2 can help illustrate this:

Kinyarwanda also as our mother tongue cannot be erm totally omitted... it is our special, our peculiarity. I mean that we cannot omit it in our daily activities because it part of our culture.

The excerpt indicates that Kinyarwanda symbolises Rwandans' identity and its omission from daily activities (in this case classroom situations) may entail the loss of Rwandan culture, thus creating a gap between home and school practices. Another excerpt from S2 indicates how skillfully an interpreter at the Rwandan National Museum made use of English, French, and Kinyarwanda to explain the role of artifacts such as traditional weapons and buildings. I believe that such a practice gives a country its national pride and respect and prevents Kinyarwanda from disappearing as English continues to spread and threaten local languages. For the sake of cultural

maintenance, it was also found necessary to introduce Kinyarwanda as a separate subject in the school curriculum, design EAP materials related to Rwandan culture and write a Kinyarwanda-English dictionary as a way of improving Kinyarwanda and helping foreigners from English-speaking countries to learn it. Thus, not only should Kinyarwanda be preserved, but it should also be known to the outside world. The above suggestion complies with Canagarajah's (2006) view that globalisation should be rooted from the local. As the cultural issue appears to be crucial, I will discuss it further in section 5.2.3.

It goes without saying that even though the majority of the students perceived code switching as an important mode of communication which facilitates the teaching and the understanding of the content of academic subjects, other students considered English to be the language that would enable them to reach their aspirations. I intend to highlight this in section 5.2.3. Other students simply believed that they could study better through the language that they understood the best, be it English, French, or Kinyarwanda. Had students had better mastery of French or Kinyarwanda, the LoI would be French or Kinyarwanda. In other words, each and every student's identity should be taken into account. As the above students are Rwandans studying in a Rwandan context, where everybody knows and speaks Kinyarwanda, I believe then that switch over from English and Kinyarwanda would help develop students' communication skills in English and meet their needs and expectations.

5.2.2.3 Summary of findings on the language of instruction

Findings indicate that the English language was perceived as a symbol of globalization and a tool that would benefit the students after they graduate. They also indicate that English seemed to prevent students with a French-speaking background from understanding their academic subjects and that these students considered it to be 'that' language and/ or the language of the neighbour, thus distancing themselves from it. Conversely, the students' French speaking background and the Kinyarwanda environment were perceived by some participants as a hindrance to the implementation of EAP courses. The latter suggested that the use of English could be made compulsory both at school and outside of school so as to make Rwandans more proficient in it. However, the majority of students and some teachers found code switching more beneficial. I also make suggestions that code switching would facilitate the teaching and the learning of

academic subjects and help meet students' needs and expectations. I propose to discuss this in the next section.

5.2.3 Student needs and expectations

EAP courses are needs driven and should normally respond to students' needs. However, findings 5.2.2 already show that English was perceived as a hindrance to the implementation of EAP courses even though some teachers and students considered it as an asset that would facilitate the understanding of other academic subjects without difficulty and integration into the world in general. With regard to integration into the world, findings indicate that students considered English as a gatekeeper to social mobility and communication with foreigners, transactions in a business world, job opportunities and removal of social inequalities. Thus, English was perceived as a short- and long-term investment, but for this to happen there are requirements such as the promotion of students' productive skills (speaking and writing), the link between EAP courses and other academic subjects and the link between them and the real world. I intend to discuss these requirements in the next sub-section.

5.2.3.1 Opportunities to use English in speaking and writing

Speaking and writing are productive skills that the students need the most in order to cope with the academic world and life after school. Thus, when given opportunities to use English in writing and speaking, students may develop skills needed to negotiate meaning, build knowledge, and coherently present their ideas in a written form. In this section, I thus look at students' opportunities to use English in speaking and writing.

(i) Opportunities to use English in speaking

Opportunities to speak English appeared to be very limited. For example, there appeared to be an imbalance between the students assigned to individual teachers and the time allotted to the EAP courses. The time ascribed to the EAP courses was perceived to be little and to impede the effectiveness and efficiency of the EAP courses. In light of this, LT3, who stated the following, can help illustrate this issue:

The time allotted to English (six hours per week) is not enough for teachers to cover the whole content. As a result, some points are left uncovered; yet, they could help students improve their skills. The number of students (60 students and above) is very high. Consequently, it becomes

difficulty to focus on each individual student. Those who perform better (quick learners) are the ones to follow lectures very well whereas slow learners lag behind. In a word, participation is not full for everyone.

From the above excerpt it appears that EAP courses had been assigned six hours per week which could not even allow teachers to cover the content of their subjects. As a result, some important materials that would help promote students' skills, such as speaking, remained uncovered and students' participation was not full. An excerpt from LT1 presented below can confirm this:

Teaching more than a hundred students when you want to improve their skills: their writing skills, their speaking skills, but you know that it is not easy and it is not but it is not easy to teach them and to improve their skills...

The implication from the above excerpt is that it was difficult if not impossible to improve students' speaking and writing skills due to their large numbers. Due to this imbalance between the teacher and student ratio, I believe that the CBE has limited funds, which cannot allow it to employ more teachers in order to respond to students' needs. In addition, the college management lacks awareness that the number of students per class may affect the teaching and learning process in EAP courses. When the class size is big, the chances of students participating in activities such as speaking which are time-consuming (Baffoka, 2012; Bruce, 2011) are reduced. As a solution, there appears to be a need to split the student population assigned to individual teachers into smaller groups and hire more teachers so that they can cater for all students as it has proven to be practically impossible to promote individual students' skills in a language class consisting of one hundred and sixty students.

Some students also seemed to believe that, due to the few hours assigned to EAP courses they were unable to acquire all the skills needed to participate in content subjects. As an illustration, F3 argued that they needed more time to gain everything in English so that they could be able to follow other academic subjects. Teachers' and students' attitudes suggest that the focus was more on content rather than on the outcome of the teaching and learning process. It shows that teachers sought to cover the programme set by decision makers and indicates lack of teacher autonomy to decide on the material which would suit students' needs-the prime objective of any EAP curriculum. Furthermore, the fact that teachers moved with quick-witted students and could not cater for weak students who lagged behind indicated that students studied through the eyes of the teachers who considered their own time more effective than their educatees' (Mbabazi, Dahlgren, & Fejes, 2012). Teachers did not help students to become an integral part of their own

learning. However, I believe that, drawing on their own learning and/or teaching experiences, teachers need to be autonomous, transcend both the academic and administrative constraints imposed on them (Kumaravadivelu, 1994) and decide on how to teach to address their students' needs and aspirations.

As the teaching and learning of English was occurring in a context where English, a foreign language, was used as a MoI, quick students meant those whose background has prepared them for the highly demanding academic linguistic requirements (Hu & Lei, 2013). On the other hand, students who lag behind are those from disadvantaged groups. With regard to this, the students from economically disadvantaged sectors struggle and social injustice becomes more pronounced (Kennedy & Anbazhagan, 2015). Their low proficiency in English perpetuates the divide between them and the privileged (Hu & Lei, 2013) and even causes tension between them (Sultana, 2014). Thus, teachers have the role of providing all students with equal opportunities to participate in classroom activities despite the big number of students they have to cater for, particularly as classroom observations have revealed teachers' time mismanagement, notably the imbalance between teacher talk and student talk.

Findings from interviews and classroom observations indicate that students were given little time to participate in classroom activities. An F2 group members who stated the following can help illustrate this:

There is a lot of time in studying but using less time in speaking.... There is few time to study. There is time for the teacher to teach, but there is no time for debate in order to acquire accent and pronunciation.

The above excerpt indicates that more time was devoted to the dissemination of knowledge by the teacher and that there was no room for speaking activities. Teacher talk prevailed over student talk, which did not allow students to acquire the right accent and pronunciation, and to be acquainted with oral presentations as indicated by S2. This can be confirmed by teacher M's call upon his students to involve themselves in the lesson as he was incapable of pouring knowledge in their heads all the time (see chapter 4, section 4.2.1.5). Therefore, the few hours allotted to EAP courses were mismanaged. This can be confirmed by the following excerpt from S2:

... the second weakness is that the time that students are given in the class to participate er in speaking in speaking is too short. During the class we neve it is hardly to find time that we can introd we can have such presentation in the class of English course and this becomes very difficult

for us when we we have the presentation in other courses such as... and economics when the lecturer of that courses gives us er the presentations. It becomes difficult for students to how the he or she can present his views or in in front of the public...

The implication from the above excerpt is that students were hardly given opportunities to interact in the classroom. It also appears that students were not trained in ways which would enable them to carry out discussions in other academic subjects since their speaking abilities and self-confidence were not developed. For example, illustrations by S2 and S10 indicate that most of the teaching hours were spent on writing notes on the board when students needed to talk.

The above two illustrations show that studying meant to listen to and acquire knowledge from the teacher whereas speaking referred to students' participation in the teaching and learning process. They also highlight the existence of an imbalance between time spent on explanations and time devoted to speaking activities, which is contrary to Freire's (1974) pedagogy that a successful teacher would communicate with his/her educatees in a dialogic way and regard them as knowledgeable subjects with valuable views which need to be heard. Students were passive rather than active in the teaching and learning process. For example, S1 stated that teachers enriched their knowledge through wide reading, brought their wide knowledge to class, and talked when students were silent, thus imposing silence on them.

Students' lack of agency in the classroom was also probably due to the timetable which would compel them to study English for six consecutive hours on the same day (see Chapter 4, section 4.3). These six successive hours, particularly the last three were perceived to be boring. I believe that the above students' voice is worth considering as it can help bring positive change in the way EAP courses are taught. It can help teachers reflect on their teaching methodology and revisit them to involve students in the activities taking place in their respective classrooms. It can also help the management revisit their timetables to suit students' needs. However, this situation was peculiar to one college only since EAP lessons lasted three or four hours at other colleges. It thus makes me believe, once again, that students were not given equal opportunities to improve their English communication skills as they studied under different learning conditions.

Students also lacked opportunities to interact in the classroom due to their own behaviour. Findings from classroom observations indicate that many students were absent from school and those who managed to attend classes would arrive at school late at different moments of the

lessons and make noise in the classroom. This arises as a contradiction to LTs 1, 2 and 3 that the English course was given a new status that motivated students to attend their courses regularly and to study hard in order not to fail. Therefore, I believe that students' attendance could not be judged in terms of physical presence alone. As indicated in section 5.2.2.2, students resisted to participating in speaking activities. An excerpt from NLT3 can confirm this:

... You were in my class when I asked questions. Not many put their hands up, but there are some hands which show that they have been following.

Findings indicate that students were not willing to put their hands up when they were given opportunities to speak. Students were not active in the classroom and only a few raised their hands to acknowledge their understanding of the teacher's explanations. Even after group discussions, students did not just pick anybody to report what their groups had come up with (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.1.4). They selected a group member with a good command of English to present and defend their views. I believe that the choice of a more capable group member was either motivated by students' sake for marks or by their perfectionism. Students did not want to be frustrated by uttering sentences that would be considered to be meaningless. They preferred to withdraw from speaking activities that would enhance their speaking abilities (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002). This is reflected in the extract presented below from an F2 member:

For instance, if you bring a radio or audios here so that we could listen to what is being said, we will doubt about our answers. You will see that the answer is easy and that there is nothing that can make someone shiver, but this is the problem. It is how the problem is.

The problem is that students were not self-confident and could not trust their answers even when they seemed to be simple. Students would refrain from speaking because they believed that they could not utter a single correct sentence in English. They felt uncomfortable to talk in front of others (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002) without being sure of the correctness of their sentences. As I have argued throughout this chapter, the students' attitude was an appeal for the change of the existing teaching methodology in order to enable them to express themselves freely.

Students' opportunities to interact in the classroom were also limited due to the late registration of the survivors of the genocide and the rule preventing students with repeat subjects to attend classes before their financial problems were cleared (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.1). Finances appeared to take priority over students' education and, as argued in Chapter 2, students were perceived as a source of income (Turner, 2004) even in their own countries. Thus, I am of the

view that the management should revise their regulations in ways that give all students equal chances to attend classes and participate in their learning because when registrations are done late, some students can just catch up with the notes provided to the class, but not with speaking activities.

Even though speaking activities appeared not to have been promoted in classrooms, students showed their need to have them given prominence over other activities. For example, an excerpt from S3 indicates that he wanted activities that would require him to share knowledge with others through oral presentations. In the same vein, S6 preferred group discussions as shown in the excerpt below:

The most important activities for me is that we can try as the teacher can try to come aah to come when he comes to teach us and try to provide for some books and try to to group us in groups and we do discussions this is a matter that can help us even those who have not understanding their courses well to understand so that they can be able they can be able within a specific time too to respond to the exams they are offered because some students who are really because some all of the people they can they don't understand at the same level each one can help each other because everyone have some weakness and some strength I think this could be the issue...

The above excerpt indicates that students benefit more from group discussions where everybody can contribute to knowledge construction. It indicates that some students could not gain much from teachers' explanations. It also indicates that all students whether brilliant or weak needed one another's support to add to their knowledge and succeed in exams. Students did not minimise the potentialities of their peers and considered themselves as gradual learners. They also believed in collective knowledge and in their own potentialities. In groups, students collaborate, share and construct knowledge through progressive discourse that requires them to work jointly and to analyse critically the emerging views (Mukama, 2009).

Group discussions were also perceived to be necessary because they helped students to build their own confidence. The continuation of the illustration by the above student can confirm this:

The one I think help me better is discussion, group discussion yeah because even some students they they don't have confidence in themselves as questions when they are many when they are many within er many students within the many students but if you are with your colleagues and you are doing conversation it helps you to tell even what you cannot talk in the public this could be this could help some students to understand well and get knowledge which direct them erm within the examination or other continuous test will be providing within the class.

Obviously, some students dared not talk in public probably due to poor English communication skills and lack of self-confidence as it appears that there were things which could not be uttered in public, but that were discussed with friends due to the freedom they had to use other semiotic modes of communication, namely Kinyarwanda. The assumption of the use of Kinyarwanda would be due to the observation of students' discussions in Kinyarwanda even when they were prohibited to and to the teacher's accounts that group discussions took place in Kinyarwanda.

Another illustration by a student also indicates that speaking activities were perceived to be useful:

I think it is speaking, the verbal speaking when we are sharing idea with with other student or we are sharing idea with the lecturer. I think it is the most important because I know so many people who know how to write English, they can write and they know many word but I know there is a difference in speaking and writing English... there is some people who don't make fault in writing. But I think that speaking is better because when you are going to make an interview sometime they make oral interview...

Prominence was given to speaking because it would enable students to interact with both the teacher and peers, and prepare students for job interviews. Students showed their need to be agentive in the teaching and learning process and considered interaction to be dialogic rather than a one-way process (Freire, 1974). I also believe that dialogic interaction between the teacher and the students, and interaction with peers help shift from the traditional view of education that students had to listen to teachers whose role was to impart knowledge to them to a new relationship between them. Both teachers and students should then be considered as knowledgeable beings that can learn from one another. Both parties should be seen as lifelong learners or beings in process responsible for the teaching and learning process (Cree, 2011).

Speaking was also perceived to be important because it would prepare students for the presentation of their final research papers (see Chapter 4, section 4.3). For example, findings indicate that, due to lack of speaking activities, university leavers generally failed to present their own final research papers (see Chapter 4, section 4.3) and I am inclined to agree with students. I thus think that speaking activities would play an important role in the students' academic life and in their lives after school. In keeping with this, LT3 believed that oral presentations could help students acquire basic skills that would mitigate their reticence to deliver a speech in public and build their confidence, especially when speaking in front of other people. This view likens

students' own perception that oral presentations prepare them for public speech by removing their fear and building their self-confidence. However, unlike LT5, who stated that oral presentations should focus on interesting topics rather than on discipline-related topics to prevent students from cramming their notes and presenting things drawn from their notes, I believe that we need both kinds of topics in order to meet the academic linguistic requirements and cope with the world outside of school. I would then suggest that discipline and culture-related topics should be given to students for presentations to equip them with the vocabulary they need at school and in their society at large using interaction strategies that could enable students to think critically and solve problems depending on classroom realities and on strategies which focus on meaning-making (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). If not, the speaking activities carried out in the classroom might not help students to master the target language. In the next section, I discuss the opportunities given to students to use English in writing.

(ii) Opportunities to use English in writing

In this section, I deal with opportunities provided to students to use English in writing. Findings from learning materials reveal a big gap in writing even for questions that required rote learning. In essay writing, texts produced by students appeared to be inaccurate and incoherent (see Appendix 4). The inaccuracy of students' texts was also revealed during a lesson on paragraph writing (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.1.6). However, opportunities to use English in writing appeared to be limited. An excerpt from LT1 has already indicated that it was impossible to promote students' writing skills due to large groups. An excerpt from a student presented below can confirm this:

We are not go used to do so many essays or so many interviews or so many presentations. We are used to do so many exercises in this level two.

The excerpt confirms the findings I discussed in section 5.2.1 which indicated that the teacher focused on grammar at the expense of the four language skills. It shows that students are not given exposure to writing. An excerpt presented below from F4 members also indicates that teachers do not probably conduct writing activities as indicated below:

... We learn English and they go there and the speak English and we understand what they are saying and we give they give us they give us some text and we writing it we answer it by writing....

It appears that the first writing activity that the students generally do is to copy reading comprehension texts along with questions related to them whereas the second is answering the questions in a written form. In cases where these texts are a selection of discipline-related genres, they might be helpful, but if they are similar to the EAP reading comprehension texts brought in CATs and examinations, they might not help improve students' writing skills as needed in academia.

It appears that students also learn how to write by taking notes and writing essays when they are sitting for CATs. An excerpt from an F4 member can help illustrate this:

... I see in the four main skills they promote a lot of listening and writing because when the teacher is expressing to us sometimes, he uses to teach us by speaking and then we can get analogy of listening from him and writing is like in cats each cat that we have done and even other cats they give us like on the last page they say you have to write an essay of one page write a story about you write anything or something like this which help us in writing and in reading is text that's another one like this.

The above extract indicates that the main writing activity is note-taking. Students carefully listen to their teachers and take notes. This appears to be one of the characteristics of crowded classrooms in higher education, where teachers expose students to a huge listening load (Miller, 2014) by means of the narrative lecturing method to teaching. In this context, the focus is on grammar, the explanations of grammatical rules, and the promotion of note-taking skills regardless of students' low proficiency in the English language, needs and expectations.

However, I believe that it cannot help improve weak students' writing abilities. Weak students might be generally lost and/or incapable of following the teacher's pace and jotting down meaningful sentences even though they were reported to follow academic subjects with understanding and to be good at writing. One case is that of Teacher M's students, who could not manage to take notes, took notes from more capable peers and were reminded to put their notes at their peers' disposal for completion (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.2). Even if students could manage to take notes, their writing skills could not be improved as note-taking does not require them to reason, write with a purpose and an audience in mind, and get awareness of the academic writing conventions. Furthermore, Teacher M's lesson was not actually meant for the dictation of theory as it concerned essay writing. I believe that it was an opportunity for students to develop or display their writing skills.

As I have already argued, it also appears that writing skills were displayed during CATs, the last part of which required students to write a one-page essay on any topic. Writing an essay on any topic implies that there was no purpose for writing. Even though there might have been a purpose for writing, opportunities to write CATs and examinations are very limited and cannot help students improve their writing skills. Furthermore, I find it unfair to assess students' writing during continuous assessment tests when they have not been exposed to the different ways of writing and to various academic texts that would have raised their awareness of the grammatical constructions and rhetorical structures and the specialised vocabulary embedded in these texts (Stapler, Kang, & Bisanz, 2014). I also believe that it is unfair not to prepare students for the production of accurate written academic texts when most of the activities conducted in academia and in the workplace require expressing themselves in writing (Klimova, 2013). However, this claim is not meant for sustaining the monolingual habitus according to which one language has to be used in the classroom (in this context English - the LoI) and teachers have to strictly accommodate students to academic English. Teachers would rather promote speaking and reading skills, which are believed to enhance students' writing abilities. For example, the extensive reading of discipline-related texts may improve the writing of disadvantaged students previously affected by the language education policy (Fletcher, 2014). In the next section, I deal with the relationship between EAP courses and other academic subjects.

5.2.3.2 Link between EAP courses and other subjects

EAP courses are needs driven and generally seek to help students cope with the highly demanding academic linguistic needs. In the context of the present study, English was perceived as a short-term investment in that it could enable students to have understanding of other academic subjects and write sentences due to the grammar and vocabulary acquired in EAP courses (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.3.1). Many students viewed English as an important asset without which they could not cope with non-content subjects and perform efficiently and effectively (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.1). For example, excerpts from S4 and 6 indicate that EAP courses equipped them with technical vocabulary needed for the understanding of academic subjects whereas an excerpt from S17 shows that EAP courses help students get the meaning of Mathematics formulae. EAP teachers also perceived their courses to be useful in that they would

promote skills students needed to meet academic linguistic requirements. An excerpt from LT2 can confirm this:

The skills that students learn in the English course enable them to read extensively for their research, use different types of notes (summarizing, paraphrasing, quoting, etc.) from what they have read or heard, give good oral presentations, write good paragraphs or essays, etc. In addition, students are equipped with skills that will enable them to write different types of business letters, memos, reports, etc. when they will have finished their studies.

The above excerpt shows that EAP courses would prepare students for academic research and develop their speaking, reading and writing skills including study skills such as summarising, paraphrasing and quoting, and oral presentations. Through oral presentations, EAP courses were also believed to remove students' fear and build their self-confidence. This appears to contradict previous views of EAP courses, which were believed not to allow students to communicate in the classroom.

EAP courses were believed to help students understand other academic subjects through error correction. For example, a student stated that the feedback on vocabulary read in texts or uttered in oral presentations helped her understand academic courses. However, corrective feedback is believed to be ineffective and irrelevant in that students might continue to produce the same mistakes despite the correction (Mitchell et al, 2013). This could be seen during grammar lessons. Students produced mistakes for grammar points that they had studied over and over again for many years. They were either rebuked or denigrated for these mistakes. One case was that of mistakes such as *cameroon't it* (a tag given in the place of aren't I? in the sentence I am coming from Cameroon) and the like which were repeated to students to ridicule them. Such negative correction will not help improve the language skills. It could rather inhibit students from speaking and prevent them from studying, as they may feel humiliated and uncomfortable (Bailey, 1996; Nicholas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001).

Findings indicate that EAP courses would provide students with specific vocabulary related to their field of study. For example, LT5 said that EAP lecturers currently helped students in their domains by giving them discipline-related terminologies. On the other hand, other excerpts indicate that EAP courses would only provide students with core vocabulary as illustrated with S2's excerpt below:

... This English course helps us too much. It is so much essential and it is a medium language we use. It help us to learn other courses as you see. It help us to learn mathematics, accounting, and another. This course does not concentrate on on vocabularies in a given domain. English is very wide. We teach ourselves about the terminologies of for example, in mathematics, or accounting, or management. We cover all terminologies which may be used in all domains. So, it help us too much. It help us to learn all these courses we acquire in this campus. So, without this this language we cannot goes on. So it is very good to help us.

Findings from the above excerpt indicate that, even though EAP courses would provide students with core skills that help them understand other academic subjects easily, there are deficiencies such as lack of discipline-related terminologies that teachers have to address. Findings reveal that students acquire less knowledge than needed and that English is taught as a subject rather than being taught across the curriculum. Students manage to acquire disciplined-related terminologies on their own since they need them to comprehend their courses and as EAP courses appeared not to be responding to their academic aspirations as shown in an excerpt from S1 below:

.... There are other some technical terms terminologies we need to know as university students so that we can come up with real English, so that we can communicate, so that we can remove any hindrance in our communications and in worldwide...

The material brought to class was perceived to be below university level and to be inappropriate since it did not encompass technical terminologies students need to cope with the academic discourse(s). Thus, it appeared not to reflect academic realities and to be far from meeting students' needs which were not taken into account (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.1.2), particularly as they were taught as subjects (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.1.1 & 5.2.1 in this Chapter). An excerpt from F2 can confirm the above observation:

... but the English that I I I taught here it's not it's not help me understand my other classes in my other classes because the the English that we we study here it is not we we were already studied it in senior six and it's already only about English, not about others it's it's it's to know how to to formulate the phrase how to to use how to use the the tense it's not it's it's not prepare prepare as for understanding with other course because what we we we use to the knowledge in English we use to learn in we we use to learn other courses is that we we already know it. I think this course, for me, it it doesn't contribute to understand my other courses because there is no improvement.

The above excerpt shows that students did not benefit from EAP courses taught to them. As a result, their level of English seemed stagnant in that EAP courses would neither help students improve their communication skills in English nor contribute to their understanding of other academic subjects. Based on the students' claims that EAP courses focus on grammar, on what I observed in real situations and from learning documents, I believe that it would be difficult if not

impossible to improve students' language skills if the teaching and learning materials do not suit the needs of the students. However, the best way to find out whether these materials were related or not to other academic subjects would be to look at the analysis of the textbooks and syllabus from which they were drawn as they were said by LT4 to be inappropriate. Therefore, I analyse the material as contained in the availed teaching materials. This analysis aims to find out whether their content helps meet students' academic linguistic needs. Because the NCEC 3 is huge, I provide a table showing the lessons which constitute Blocks A and F, and analyse one of each type of lesson in Block A based on the checklist for teaching materials:

Table 5.1: Contents of Block A and Block E

	Block A	Block E
1	Something in common	Another good day
2	Focus on systems: present and past tenses; hearing unstressed syllables; word families	Focus on systems: reported speech with would and had; contractions; words for everyday objects
3	Would you like to have...?	A dream
4	Skills focus: who should be paid the most?	<i>Skills focus:</i> Nice woman, 42
5	Language: what matters the most	This is great
6	Focus on systems: words for games and leisure, infinitive and -ing ; /əu/	<i>Focus on systems:</i> adverb position; words for clothes and parts of the body; pronunciation of vowel letters
7	Could you do me a favour?	Every hour
8	Skills focus: I told you a bit of lie	<i>Skills focus:</i> 'A shock'
Summary A/E		
Revision and fluency A/E		
Test A/E		

Block A

Lesson 1

In Lesson A1 entitled *something in common*, students learn how to request and give personal information, ask for help and correct misunderstandings, listen for gist, write and report surveys and how to practice the pronunciation of words. Exercise 1 requires students to write three words (job, sport or any activity they liked), go round looking for somebody having something in common or nice, discuss with this person and take notes of what he/she says. This exercise helps students to communicate in the English they have and motivates them to work hard to get information and record it as effectively as possible as they are aware they would report it in larger groups.

Exercise 2 is a piece on group work consisting of two different pairs who exchange their experiences from Exercise 1. It also helps students to communicate freely with peers and become familiar with the vocabulary being learnt. Language is used in real life. Exercise 3 deals with vocabulary related to people's physical appearance. The vocabulary is given in isolation. In Exercise 4, students listen to a recording and deal with the pronunciation of words also given in isolation. In Exercise 5, students write a report on the peers they interviewed in Exercise 1 whereas in Exercise 6, students listen to a song and identify each person corresponding to each verse of the song. The total number of the people in the picture is six. This is a contextualised way of teaching and learning the vocabulary used to describe people and of drawing students' attention as they feel relaxed when listening to the song and describing the people in the picture at the same time.

Seemingly, three language skills (listening, speaking and writing) along with vocabulary and pronunciation are covered in lesson A1. However, the vocabulary around which the activities are conducted might not help students to face the academic linguistic demands when discussing issues, for example, related to the Principles of Taxation, Accounting, Information Management System and the like.

Lesson A2

Lesson A2 is entitled *Grammar: Use of tenses*. Exercises 1, 3, and 4 assess the students' mastery of the use of tenses and do not require students' reasoning in case they have memorised the rules regarding tenses. For example, in Exercise 1, sentences and tenses are provided to students who are required to match each sentence with the names of its corresponding tense (present or simple). In Exercise 3, the rules are given and students name the tense corresponding to each rule whereas in exercise 4 they say why an exception to the rule had been used.

Exercise 2 is related to Exercise 1. Two diagrams showing three different uses of the present perfect simple have been drawn and students have to illustrate sentences, which are illustrated in the different parts of the diagrams and to make similar diagrams for other tenses. This exercise can help students think and know how to match tenses with real time.

Exercise 5 is about verb conjugation. Sentences with two conjugated verbs are provided and students have to choose the one fitting the context. Once again, the exercise does not require students' critical thinking. It rather checks their familiarity with the use of tenses.

Exercise 6 concerns the pronunciation of unstressed syllables. Students listen to the recording and identify the number of words used in each sentence. Even though students' listening skills should be developed, the present exercise appears not to suit the needs of students dealing with business and economy-related courses as they do not need knowledge of syllables. They rather need to listen to lectures, seminars, workshops, and conferences related to their field of study.

Exercise 7 deals with word-families whereby four groups of words (words related to the parts of the body, animals, food and drinks, and the weather) are mixed in the same box and students have to sort them out according to the category to which they belong. In Exercise 8, students are required to expand the list of the above words. The two exercises may require the use of a dictionary or help from peers. Students will add new vocabulary to their storage, but this vocabulary is not of much help with regard to their academic subjects. Neither do they help them to deal with real life as they are decontextualized.

All the grammar and vocabulary exercises were given in isolation. Thus, students could give a rule or match a rule with a tense because they had memorised them without understanding their

real essence. The fact of grouping and listing words without using them in context, for example, cannot be beneficial in that it does not give the mental representation of the academic writing conventions.

Lesson 8

Lesson 8 is entitled *I told you a bit of a lie*, but talks about sports. Exercise 1 is a reading activity requiring students to guess the meaning of highlighted terms whereas Exercise 2 requires them to check the meaning of a number of items and choose the right meaning for the context. These two exercises may develop students' reading and/or dictionary skills, and enrich students' vocabulary. However, the reading text does not relate to the academic subjects students normally take.

Exercise 3 is another reading activity requiring students to read the text in Exercise 1 carefully and choose the summary that best fits the context. Exercise 4 concerns vocabulary and speaking. Students choose a number of words to learn from Exercise 1 and tell one or more peers (group work) the reasons for their choices. Exercises 5 and 6 are about ride dressage practised by a certain Janice Burton, a former blind swimming champion, who is preparing for the Olympics championship in Greece. In Exercise 5, students are given her photograph and the beginning of an article on her practice of ride dressage and requested to end the story. Students learn how to predict. However, the picture and story given to them may not bear significant meaning as they have no idea of horse riding in Rwanda. Exercise 6 is about listening. Students listen to an interview on ride dressage and answer a number of questions. Some of these questions are *How did you learn that [dressage]?; How often do you work with your horse?; What do you enjoy most about the dressage?* and the like. This also seems to be irrelevant to the Rwandan context in which horses are not bred and ride dressage practised.

Exercise 7 is a speaking activity on sports in which blind people can participate and/ or ways which can make it easier for them to do the shopping in students' own context (Rwanda in this case). This exercise help students develop their speaking ability, but it does not engage them in discussions on topics which prepare them for the academic linguistic demands.

In short, the analysis of the above lessons which reflect what is covered in the whole book (as even the skeleton of Block E shows topics of general interest) indicates that all the skills are dealt with in one way or another even though there is a predominant focus on grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. However, none of the activities normally carried on in the classroom addresses students' academic linguistic needs since there is no inclusion of discipline-related texts embedding the vocabulary, grammatical and rhetorical structures students need to meet these academic demands. Furthermore, none carried students' cultural beliefs as indicated in section 5.2.3.3 or developed their students' problem-solving abilities as they only required them to state rules, match rules and examples, list words, etc. The exercises indicate that pre-established material is implemented without adjustment to suit the local reality and students' linguistic academic needs. Thus, it appears that English is taught as a subject.

In the same manner, Revision Book encompasses grammar exercises that can only be done in isolation as they are provided in isolation or within short texts, which do not match the students' academic linguistic needs. As mentioned in section 5.2.1, the focus on grammar no longer counts much in the EAP classes.

In Business Communication, part of the book entitled *Entrepreneurship Simplified* served as a guide to some EAP teachers. As the title suggests, the content of this book (see Chapter 4) reflects a pre-established curriculum with highly-constructed grammatical and rhetorical structures. It was meant for the course of Entrepreneurship and may familiarise students with specific terminologies used in Entrepreneurship at the expense of other courses. For example, classroom observations indicate that students were exposed to the definition of communication, the difference between communication and information, kinds of communication (internal and external), the constitutive elements of effective communication, and barriers to effective communication, to name but a few. The above elements were seemingly taught as they appeared in the book *Entrepreneurship Simplified*. In this case, there might be a duplication of the course on Entrepreneurship. This is also true for the syllabus of Business Communication, the content of which indicates that the course appears to familiarize students with materials drawn from specific books, but do not necessarily respond to their academic needs and prepare them for life after they leave school.

Findings from classroom observations also indicate that the material taught in EAP courses appeared not to reflect the discipline-related language students needed. For example, four out of the eight EAP classes I observed focused on grammatical exercises only. Grammatical points were reinforced to make certain that students had perfectly adapted themselves to their use. Grammar was taught in isolation and did not reflect the highly-constructed academic grammatical and rhetorical demands required at university. In two other classes, paragraph and essay writing were taught as core skills. Teacher M's lesson, for example, dealt with the definition and the kinds of composition, and the theory on how to write a composition and did not seem to match the realities students encounter when dealing with academic writing. In the other lesson, a model text related to British culture was used to introduce students to ways of writing a paragraph (see Chapter 4, section, 4.2.1.6). The text was titled *Doing business in the UK*, but the vocabulary it embedded would not meet the academic linguistic needs of the students. Furthermore, when the students were required to write paragraphs of their own, they were instructed not to think too much and to write about anything as though there was no purpose for writing.

In Business Communication, two lessons entitled introduction to Business Communication containing highly-constructed material were taught. Their content appeared to be different from what EAP courses should cover because the content of the course focused on communication issues rather than including subject specific terminologies that would prepare students for their academic linguistic needs and potential professions.

Obviously, the materials which were brought to class served as a basis for the understanding of other academic subjects, but could not address students' needs as EAP teachers seemed to teach what they were not supposed to. Thus, students had to teach themselves discipline-related terminologies so that they could cope with other academic subjects. This implies that both EGAP and ESAP were needed for the students to acquire basic communication skills and cope with courses other than English effectively. It also implies that EAP courses should be taught across the curriculum, but findings indicate that no single EAP teacher dealt with texts related to the genres I observed in non-language classrooms or to the students' learning materials I presented in Chapter 4. However, as stated in Chapter 2, EAP courses are needs driven and students take them because they have an identifiable and describable purpose in mind, which forms the basis

of these EAP programmes (de Chazal, 2013). This means that EAP programmes are rather driven by students' needs and should not be a mere adoption of a given commercial book even though students need materials with which to communicate.

As a remedy, findings indicate that EAP programmes would be reviewed to include materials which would not compel students to memorize grammatical rules, but would rather teach students how to make sentences follow one another effectively in a sentence (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.1.2; Focus). This appears to be a reaction to the learning of the general features of the English language in isolation and an appeal for texts normally used in the academic contexts so that students can be familiar with factors which contribute to their realisation (Bruce, 2011) through interaction and exchange of cultural values and transfer the acquired skills to mainstream courses (Kagwesage, 2001). However, teachers like LT3, who acknowledged that reading texts could help students indirectly acquire the basic structures of a language and the knowledge of the discourse the texts belong to, fail to bring relevant texts to class for students' better exposure to the academic writing conventions.

Findings also indicate that the management should provide EAP teachers with adequate programmes if they wanted students' communication skills in English to be improved (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.1.4: content subject teacher). However, I believe that management has always provided EAP lecturers with material to teach. In the case of this study, the English language module description stipulates that teachers should offer the English Communication III as it appears in the NCEC, Book III and that Business Communication takes up where Book III stops. In the eyes of the management, this programme is deemed to be efficient, but the designer and implementer of the EMDF did not actually consider students' schemata and the teachers' freedom to add to or subtract from the pre-established material which would not necessarily suit local realities and meet students' needs. In the same line, the EMDF designer planned the course of Business Communication last when it was assumed to provide students with ESAP.

Instead of providing students with EGAP and ESAP concomitantly and enabling them to interact through different modes of communication to facilitate the understanding of non-language academic courses, teachers provided grammar only. Thus, the programme by the management seemed to be questioned by some students, who might be right, since there would normally be

mismatches between governments' curricula and aspired goals and what really happens in the classroom. As a solution, teachers would play their role as educators and lifelong and innovative researchers who explore reality, build social contexts and produce materials accordingly. They should seek for practices and approaches to teach these materials efficiently (Sierocka, 2013) and reflect on their teaching methodologies in order to adapt and/or review them to meet students' needs when necessary. In the next section, I discuss the link between EAP and the real world needs.

5.2.3.3 The link between EAP courses and the real world needs

In this section, I look at the relationship between EAP courses and the real world needs. EAP courses were perceived as a long-term investment. English was viewed as a language of paramount importance in terms of job opportunities in that it would enable graduates to succeed in job interviews (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.1.1) and written tests and address managerial issues with convincing arguments and self-confidence (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.1.2). It was also viewed as a gatekeeper to social mobility in that some graduates were likely to become politicians and diplomats, and to pursue their studies in English native-speaking countries such as the United States of America. English was believed to enable graduates to fulfil their duties effectively, become competitive once in the labour market and fit into a globalised world (for example by being able to read notices on how to use medication, to know the components of different products). For instance, English was viewed as the language of business which would prepare students for their future professions as business people as shown in S2's excerpt presented below:

... English course may be interest me because are the language which are useful in this moment like in business...

EAP courses are perceived to be important because they might enable students to access the Business world. An excerpt from S6 can help support this:

I think the strengths with this course is that we are studying business. Our concern is about business. So you see that communication issue is important. Then as we study English this will facilitate us er for many transaction for many communication about business...

The above extracts indicate that the teaching and learning of EAP courses automatically implies students 'acquisition of communication skills needed for interviews and required in the business world. However, I am inclined to say that even though grammar is one of the 'backbones... out

of which a legitimate English sentence is constructed' (Kwan et al, 2015: 164), it is wrong to think that exposure to grammar in isolation could provide students with the skills they need to do business transactions and/or to pass job interviews. Students need business-related terminologies that would prepare them for the business world. For example, the two courses of Information Management System I visited could inspire language teachers with the technical vocabulary and rhetorical conventions students need to deal with e-commerce.

Further to exposure to appropriate vocabulary, I believe that teachers should apply methods that involve students in their classroom activities. If not, it would be impossible to develop the skills they need to operate effectively in the real world. However, classroom observations revealed that students barely participated in classroom activities, which implies that students were not taught how to deal with the world, particularly as teachers appeared not to develop their problem-solving abilities and learning autonomy. For example, Teacher D also referred to as NLT3 during interviews, prevented a student from expressing a view which could have contributed to the transformation of the world around her (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.1.8). The student wanted to know the reason why students should always be given the same package of notes over years. Rather than answering her question or letting the students conduct a debate on the issue, the teacher silenced their voices. I believe that the teacher's attitude was a bad precedent for students who might not dare to solve problems they may come across in their lives after leaving school. The teacher indirectly taught students how to remain silent even when their thoughts may lead to change. He thus protected the academic status quo which appeared not do justice to students and wanted them to act likewise. Furthermore, findings indicate that the material brought to class did not reflect the Rwandan context. An excerpt from an F3 member can help illustrate this:

We use Cambridge books written in England. It means the understanding is somehow difficult. Even if the books are rich, the examples are concentrating on England. We need books concentrating on the history of the country, on Rwanda, not England. We need books concentrating on Rwandan culture. We need our books because other writers base on their culture to write books. For example, we cannot base, for example, on American books. In order to promote our culture and improve our skills, it is better to use books basing on Rwandan culture.

The current excerpt indicates that the textbooks used in EAP courses were written in accordance with the British context and did not suit local realities. It reveals some students' understanding of the utility of teaching and learning materials related to one's own culture and their lack of interest in the materials taught to them even though they might contain rich insights. Students found it difficult to understand the culture in the book and believed that materials related to Rwandan culture would help promote this culture and enhance their motivation and English communication skills. With regard to this, I believe that instruction that does not take into account students' cultures makes them struggle rather than improve their skills (Kumashiro, 2015) in ways that would enable them to compete with others after they leave school.

The above excerpt also emphasizes the importance of recognising students' own identities. Put differently, recognition of students' identity would require envisioning globalisation from the local (Canagarajah, 2005). This means that, for example, EAP courses should draw teaching and learning materials from students' own academic and societal cultures to enable them to comprehend these worlds and compare them to the cultures of the others (Bryam, 2002).

In keeping with Canagarajah's view (2005), I believe that it would be difficult for students to integrate into the global world without knowledge of their own world in which the majority might be employed after completing their university studies. For example, findings have revealed that some teachers could not understand the meaning of the pictures used in the NCECs and that some students found these books complicated. Thus, I believe that the teaching and learning materials which appeared to be of little significance in the lives of the teachers and students could not help the latter understand and cope with the world. These materials transmit other people's ideas and ideologies which are indirectly transmitted to students who are primarily doomed to work in a different context from their own country. With regard to this, the materials brought to class should meet local needs first in order to shape the students' identities in accordance with Rwandan national ideas and ideologies and then the global culture so as to 'place English in its global context' (Awayed-Bishara, 2015: 2).

In order to help students, the current disciplines should then be re-examined and oriented to language, identity knowledge, and social relations by allowing them to have access to homogeneous discourses through the use of local modes of communication (Canagarajah, 2005) such as code switching which does not threaten Standard English (Kirland, 2010). Code

switching can help students acquire academic discourses effectively, transform this academic culture, and safeguard their own identity (Canagarajah, 1999). It can thus prevent students from being alienated and becoming unable to adapt to the outside world when they leave school.

English was perceived as the language that would remove social inequality and give all Rwandan graduates equal chances to access good jobs. However, findings from classroom observations indicated that students with low English proficiency lagged behind when their peers with good English communication skills could cope with the teachers' pace without difficulty. Thus, as already discussed in Chapter 2, section 2.3 and earlier in this chapter, whenever a language of instruction is not culturally-oriented, it perpetuates social inequality (Sultana, 2014) as the English of disadvantaged students barely improves or simply remains stagnant (see Chapter, section 4.3.1.1). Findings from classroom observations and document analysis indicate that students' speaking and writing skills, for example, could not allow them to work in today's competitive world in which the English language appears to determine the lives of people as its use has become 'an economic imperative' and many countries around the world require from prospective graduates a good command of English (Hyland, 2006: 2). In this case, English will continue to act as a 'convenient shield against the effective participation' (Pennycook, 2013: 15) of graduates from disadvantaged areas in individual, social, and national economic progress.

Activities which were perceived useful for the students' integration in the world after they graduated were debates, good speech delivery, the use of convincing arguments and fluent writing. Findings indicate that these activities could prepare students for job interviews, for written exams which precede or follow job interviews, and for work in organisations (see Chapter 4, section 4.3). However, I did not see evidence of such activities in the classrooms I observed, and therefore am inclined to think that the EAP courses are not likely to meet students' needs.

5.2.4 Summary of student needs and expectations

EAP courses are needs-driven and are assumed to meet students' needs. Findings show that students expected EAP courses to develop their productive skills so that they could cope with other academic subjects and with the world as a whole. They also expected these courses to provide them with special terminologies related to their academic subjects and to draw the

teaching and learning materials on Rwandan culture. However, findings indicate that students' needs were not met since there seemed to be no link between EAP courses and other academic subjects. EAP teachers did not incorporate the content of other academic subjects in their courses. There also appeared to be no link between EAP courses and the realities lived in the Rwandan context and in the world in general.

5.3 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have categorised the themes that emerged from the raw data and which encapsulated my research questions. That is, through theme categories I have discussed the strengths and the weaknesses of the current EAP courses taught at the College of Business and Economics and the factors which may help reinforce the strengths and/or remove the weaknesses of the courses. Drawing on the theories that underpin the current study, I have made some suggestions that may help teachers gain awareness of the essence of EAP courses and reflect on their role as EAP teachers and on their teaching methodologies. I have also made suggestions that may raise policy-makers' and teachers' awareness of the kind of education which is needed to meet the needs of students and help the latter contribute to their own knowledge construction and to the transformation of the world. Furthermore, I have made suggestions that may highlight the importance of the use of discipline- and culture-related materials and that of local languages to help students smoothly acquire communication skills in the target language. As it can be seen in this chapter, I have analysed the data in accordance with the emerging themes, which happened to embody the constituent parts of my research questions.

In the next chapter, I will provide a full overview of the study, discuss the relevance of the study at the CBE and at the remaining institutions of higher learning in Rwanda, make recommendations regarding the improvement of EAP courses and of the educational system in institutions of higher learning in Rwanda. I will also point out the limitations of the study and suggest areas which need further research. Briefly, I will attempt some final conclusions with reference to my research questions in a more definitive manner along with the aforementioned tasks that I have proposed to do.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The current study consists of six chapters. Chapter 1 dealt with the introduction to the present study, Chapter 2 examined the conceptual framework in which I discussed the theories underlying the current study while Chapter 3 depicted the research design and methodology underpinning it. In Chapter 4, I presented the raw data I collected whereas in Chapter 5, I analysed, discussed, and interpreted the findings of the present study. In this chapter, I present the summary of the findings and the limitations of the study, draw conclusions, and make recommendations.

6.1 Introduction

The present study explored whether the current English courses taught at the College of Business and Economics prepared students for their academic world and for their professions after they graduated and whether they met students' needs in relation to other academic courses by addressing the following set of questions:

1. What are the teachers and students' views on existing English courses at university level in terms of strengths and weaknesses?
2. Can the current English courses meet the students' linguistic needs in relation to specific content courses?
3. Which academic discourses and genres do teachers and students consider necessary in order to meet the demands of the academic world?
4. Which learning and teaching strategies help students improve their communication skills?

In order to gather the data to answer the above research questions, I made use of different data collection instruments techniques such as classroom observations, interviews, and document analysis. These were used for the sake of triangulation. Triangulation was also achieved by conducting the current research on the different CBE sites.

During classroom observations, the study explored teachers' and students' English language proficiency, the activities carried out in the classroom as well as their relevance, and the strategies used to help students acquire English communication skills necessary for coping with the academic world and the world in general. It also explored the teaching and learning environment, the time allotted to English lessons, the students' presence and/or absenteeism, and the students' involvement in their learning. In language and non-language classrooms, the study explored whether teachers gave language support to their students.

In the course of the interviews, participants were audio-taped. The data were then copied on CDs and transcribed before they were cross-checked by the participants, presented, and analysed.

Both teaching and learning materials were also analysed to find out whether the material brought to class matched with the students' needs and whether teachers evaluated what they were supposed to assess.

I analysed the data keeping in mind the key issues and insights that underlie theories around the role of English in the world, world Englishes, challenges with regard to using English as a medium of instruction, English for Academic Purposes, discourse analysis and genres, EAP curricula, and additive bilingualism. These theories have revealed that English is widely used around the world as an enabling tool for continents to cope with the rapid technological changes and globalization (Coleman, 2006). They have also revealed that, in non-native English-speaking countries, where English is used as a medium of instruction, students experience language-related problems. These language-related problems can only be addressed by considering a number of factors among which are (1) the teaching of English across the curriculum, (2) classroom interaction, (3) the consideration of the various communicative resources students are armed with (in this case Kinyarwanda), and (4) the use of teaching and learning materials related to the Rwandan culture. These factors are important in that, for example, the consideration of English and Kinyarwanda as two complementary rather than exclusive languages could enable students to negotiate their 'identities, roles, and statuses' (Canagarajah, 199:30). Local meaning-making resources help scaffold students during courses embedding highly elaborated linguistic conventions and facilitate the teaching and learning process (Lin, 2013). The teaching of the English language across the curriculum could help smoothen the transmission and understanding

of the content of the subjects and promote students' communication through interaction and scaffolding.

In this chapter, I provide a general overview of the major findings that derived from the analysis and interpretation of the data, make recommendations drawing on these findings and present the limitations of the present study. I first present the major findings of the study.

6.2 Summary of findings

The findings obtained from the analysis, discussion and interpretation of the data collected from the different research sites and through the three aforementioned research techniques were so congruent that they served to encapsulate the components of the different research questions. I thus present the summary of the study's findings according to these themes as they encompass the research questions.

6.2.1 Teacher pedagogy

The findings indicate that the current English courses taught at the CBE showed both strengths and weaknesses. They indicate that EAP courses focused more on grammar. The focus on grammar was perceived as a strength as it would enable students to acquire skills needed to follow other academic courses, but the participants who thought that grammar alone could help them cope with content subjects could probably not discriminate between a language taught for academic purposes and a language taught for other purposes. These participants who considered the English language as a useful tool through the teaching and learning of grammar alone probably lacked awareness that the focus on grammar makes language become an exercise requiring memorisation. Actually, the focus on grammar may reveal that CBE teachers lacked familiarity with academic discourse conventions (Chang, 2014) and are not lifelong researchers.

On the other hand, the focus on grammar was considered more as a weakness since language did not serve its purpose to help students understand the world and the words they use to understand it. Redundant grammatical points were taught to promote rote learning, thus leading to some students' loss of interest in EAP courses and advocacy for the employment of more capable

teachers, and the training or dismissal of the teachers whose qualifications were questioned. These students' attitudes are relevant in that the teaching of only one aspect of the language, and rote learning, generally result in poor target language proficiency as was the case in this study and limits students' access to scientific resources needed for academic achievement (Pretorius, 2002). The focus on grammar also divorces language from being a social practice in which students have to negotiate, create, and interpret meaning. Students lack opportunities to communicate their personal meaning to the teacher and peers so as to understand the target language.

The findings indicate that teachers were perceived as skillful and knowledgeable people who possessed knowledge that they could transmit to students on a regular basis and with endeavour. This is to suggest that some students still held the traditional relationship between them and teachers according to which teachers are the only trust-worthy knowers. Thus, some students considered themselves as empty vessels into whom knowledge is to be poured. This is in accordance with the banking concept of education that Freire & Macebo (1987) reject as teachers make deposits only and consider themselves as students' knowledge suppliers rather than learning from their students in dialogue.

Contrary to the above-mentioned, the findings also indicate that EAP teachers' preparedness to offer EAP courses was questioned due to a number of factors which are their: (1) low English language proficiency due to which mistakes were communicated to students, (2) lack of well-designed and common teaching and learning materials for all the groups taking the EAP courses, (3) lack of cooperation among themselves and between them and non-language teachers, and (4) delayed starting of classes, the *laissez-faire* and *laissez-aller* approach. They also reveal teachers' (5) lack of language support to students, (6) failure to promote students' problem-solving skills and learning autonomy, (7) lack of innovative spirit, (8) lack of consideration of their own subjects probably due to students' and policy makers' belittlement of EAP courses, literature-oriented background, and lack of understanding of some aspects of the materials taught.

The findings confirm that teachers overused pre-established materials that they generally were assumed to teach as they appeared in the commercial books which should otherwise have served as resources rather than courses (Harwood, 2010). These pre-established materials appeared to be

complicated for some students and outdated, yet they were not adapted to suit students' needs. Teachers appeared to only think of themselves as providers of the materials recommended to them. Not only were teachers supposed to deliver the content of the recommended material as it appeared, but they also had to follow a recommended teaching method known as PPP (Present Practice Produce) -a narrative lecturing method to teaching which is the characteristic of the banking model of education according to which teachers consider students as depositories who have to store the deposits through rote learning (Cree, 2011).

In a banking model of instruction (Freire & Macedo, 1987), teachers do not promote students' problem-solving and thus deny them the capability to read the world prior to reading the words. They maintain the traditional relationship between them and students and deepen the students' language-related problems as the latter attempt to escape their own world and accommodate themselves to the existing status quo. This relation fails to help students improve their communication skills in English and to comprehend the usefulness of the materials brought to class. This is probably the reason why some students requested more recent books which could help promote their English language proficiency. With regard to this, research has shown that teachers, as providers, should be able to 'select materials appropriately from what is available, be creative with what is available, and modify activities to suit learners' needs, and supplement by providing extra activities' (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998:173). Teachers are presumed to be (1) researchers of their own practice, (2) materials producers, (3) evaluators, (4) experimenters of new approaches, (5) explorers of reality, (6) syllabus builders, (7) teachers of not only language but also of strategies, (8) builders of social contexts inside and outside the classroom, and (9) open to change, adaptable and ready to continuously review their own practice (Celani, 2008: 419).

Further to the focus on grammar, lack of preparedness and the overuse of predetermined teaching and learning materials, they point to a shortage of teaching and learning facilities at the CBE. Some classrooms appeared to be small and could not accommodate all students comfortably. Chairs were also insufficient and their shortage negatively affected the teaching and learning process as students would spend time outside looking for chairs when others were having classes, enter classrooms late and make noise with their chairs, thus interrupting the lessons. Other facilities such as videos, radios, language labs that would enhance the promotion of

listening skills, and photocopying machines were either absent or limited. As my findings indicate, there was also a shortage of teaching and learning textbooks with which students could interact. Thus, some of teachers found it necessary to safeguard the few materials available at the CBE and to advocate for more materials, namely textbooks. Some students also asked for more books. Further to this, different views of the language of instruction were provided and I summarise them below.

6.2.2 The language of instruction

The language of instruction plays an important role in education as it is the language through which communication takes place and knowledge is transmitted. The language of education determines the quality of education (Qorro, 2006: 4) and students' academic performance (Bohlmann & Pretorius, 2002). In the context of this study, the language of instruction challenged students who could express themselves with difficulty or could not simply dare to talk because they lacked self-confidence or resisted the use of English. The findings confirm that English negatively impacted students with a long French tradition. These students were pessimistic and did not expect to overcome the language-related learning difficulties they encountered in the course of their studies because of the use of a foreign language-the language of the others and / or neighbours- as a medium of instruction. With regard to this, there is a belief that students normally consider the language of instruction as a nightmare because of their past failure and generally develop anxiety (Cummins, 1979). In the case of Rwanda, students had negative attitudes towards the use of English in the classroom because it had deprived them of their right to use French and had made them lose their communication skills in French- the former medium of instruction. They had developed anxiety and were skeptical about the effectiveness of education through English even for younger generations. Therefore, they preferred to be schooled in French, the language they had been using since their primary school and that they had already become familiar with.

The findings support the majority of students' belief that English made the understanding of the content of other academic subjects difficult because it was not their mother tongue. The majority of these students showed the need for the switch over from English to Kinyarwanda and vice versa to enable them to understand the content of their subjects. Others believed that students should be schooled through the language they mastered. In the same vein, unofficial switch over

from one language to another was perceived by NLT2 as a strategy to help students interact and understand their academic subjects, but the findings indicate that one NLT made official use of code switching from the beginning of his lesson onward and that the lesson appeared to be an enjoyable experience for the students. This was not surprising since the findings reveal that students initiated group discussions according to personal bonds with one another in order to negotiate and make meaning of the content of their subjects through Kinyarwanda.

On the other hand, the findings support some students' preference to be schooled through English as they thought it to be easy. They also indicate that the students' French educational background and the widespread of Kinyarwanda were perceived as an impediment to the implementation of the EAP courses by some teachers as they did not enable students to overcome the linguistic academic challenges they encountered. Therefore, some NLTs believed that the use of English should be made compulsory at school and outside of school. One of these teachers' beliefs was that, in cases where students used English only in their daily lives, their communication skills in English would develop due to regular rehearsals. Another group of students also considered English as a short and long term investment in that it might help them cope with other academic subjects and open doors to social mobility, competitiveness, and job opportunities as was seen in 5.2.3. Both these teachers and students sustained the monolingual habitus. Teachers considered students' socio-linguistic backgrounds as deficiencies and failed to consider these backgrounds as useful resources that could increase students' motivation, speaking abilities, contribution to knowledge-construction and transformation of the world, and help safeguard both individual and national identities. In the next section, I summarise findings on student needs and expectations.

6.2.3 Student needs and expectations

The findings support my understanding that EAP courses were perceived as a short- and long-term investment in that they would enable students to follow other academic courses and prepare them for their lives after school. However, the findings show that there were discrepancies between students' needs and expectations, the activities conducted in the classroom and the knowledge imparted to students. The language of instruction appeared to serve other people's interests (Belcher, 2009), in this context, to cover the programme recommended by decision makers, as the EAP courses were allotted few hours compared to the big number of students to

cater for and the time devoted to productive skills. Teacher talk prevailed over student talk and students writing skills were not developed. The only kinds of writing students did were note-taking, responding to reading comprehension questions in a written form and writing a one-page essay on any topic during examinations.

The findings also indicate that the EAP teaching timetable contributed to students' lack of agency in the classroom as students became bored after the first three hours. Further to boredom, the analysed data indicate that students would not be willing to participate in classroom activities as they appeared not to be self-confident or probably as a way of resisting the existing status quo. In other cases, some students were deprived of the right to participate in classroom activities due to managerial issues such as late registration and finance-related problems.

The findings further indicate that students were even silenced when they attempted to pose questions to teachers or use a language other than English in the classroom. It also appears that some teachers did not intend to promote interaction in the classroom and would keep them silent as a way not to bother students who are generally afraid of speaking in the classroom.

Even though students did not have opportunities to interact in the classroom as evidenced by the findings, they believed that speaking activities such as oral presentations, group discussions were needed to help them exchange ideas, contribute to knowledge construction, and prepare them for the presentation of their final research papers and for their future careers.

Further to the absence of speaking and writing activities that would prepare students for academic activities and for life after school, the findings show that the EAP courses offered at the CBE failed to incorporate authentic discipline- and culture-related materials which would enhance students' motivation as they are part of their academic and local cultures and would familiarise them with their academic registers and the language needed in the society after students left school. Discipline-related materials were not taken into account when they could have served as the basis for the EAP courses in order to help students communicate effectively without necessarily infusing them in the academic discourses. EAP courses also failed to integrate authentic materials from world Englishes that would enable students to communicate effectively across the globe. Failure to integrate these capital factors with meaningful input simply meant failure to raise students' motivation, meet students' academic linguistic needs and

expectations, prepare them for their future professions, and make the implementation of EAP courses effective and efficient.

In summary, it appears that the current EAP courses taught at the CBE are more detrimental than beneficial due to the following three factors:

(1) teacher pedagogy marked by teachers' focus on grammar, their limited preparedness, their overuse of pre-established materials, and the shortage of teaching and learning facilities;

(2) the language of instruction which appeared to impede the effective implementation of EAP courses due to the students' long French tradition and the abrupt shift to English, and to the Kinyarwanda speaking environment which were not turned into opportunities to involve students in classroom interaction;

(3) failure to meet students' needs and expectations as their speaking and writing abilities were not developed and as there appeared to be no link between EAP courses and content subjects, and between them and the real world. The content of EAP courses failed to include specialised genres with meaningful input, which would have addressed related difficulties students encountered in content subjects. EAP courses were also marked by the monolingual habitus in that teachers considered students' socio-linguistic backgrounds as deficiencies rather than considering them as useful resources that could increase students' motivation, speaking abilities, contribution to knowledge-construction and transformation of the world, and help safeguard both individual and national identities. This is against the current innovations in the areas of critical pedagogy and bilingual education which promote the integration of local culture in the teaching process to enable the students to 'feel, touch, and smell the contents taught to them' (Khan, 2014: 65) and become active learners.

Due to the abovementioned shortcomings in the teaching and learning of the EAP courses currently offered at the CBE, I believe that it would be beneficial to make some recommendations that may help the CBE, other institutions of higher learning in Rwanda, and tertiary education settings in non-native English-speaking countries around the world to use EAP courses as a solution to students' language-related problems rather than a cause of these problems. In the next section, I make recommendations as to how the EAP courses taught at the CBE can be improved to meet students' academic and professional needs, and to meet their

needs in relation to other academic subjects in an environment where a foreign language serves as the language of instruction.

6.3 Recommendations

Currently, English is used as the sole medium of instruction in Rwandan education. As a language of education, it is assumed to be an enabling tool which facilitates the teaching and learning of non-language academic subjects (Kyeyune, 2010). However, the present study has revealed a number of deficiencies that hamper the implementation of EAP courses taught at the CBE and the need for recommendations that may help turn these courses into a solution to students' language-related difficulties and address issues that remained unanswered through further research.

6.3.1 Teacher mindset shift

The findings indicate that EAP teachers lack knowledge of their role as EAP practitioners. For some, this lack could perhaps be due to their literature-oriented background, but for others, except the non-language teachers offering an EAP course I termed non-identifiable, the reason for the ignorance of the role of EAP practitioners remained unknown. All LTs and almost all the NLTs considered themselves as the only possessors of knowledge who could use simple language, advise students to use English at school and outside of school so that they could become proficient, and make use of examples to help students (seen as recipients) understand the content of their subjects. However, teachers should be aware that they are not absolutely knowledgeable beings who do not need input from their students. They need awareness of the EAP courses in a post-colonial era and in a globalised world. For example, the role of an educator as suggested by Freire (1974) and Kumaravadivelu (1994) should inspire Rwandan teachers on how to develop their students' problem-solving skills through a dialogic interaction between them and the students. Therefore, there is a need for seminars, workshops and in-service training in which teachers can be encouraged to read materials on problem-solving models of education and the development of students' critical thinking. This might help them shift from their role of knowledge depositors to that of lifelong learners who can also gain knowledge from students. It might also help them teach students how to read and write the world prior to how to read and write words.

However, for the above training to yield the desired outcomes I would recommend that further research be conducted on EAP teachers' educational backgrounds in order to find out the root causes of their focus on grammar, and use of the narrative method to teaching.

The analysed data have also indicated that LTS rely on pre-established materials to disseminate knowledge and lack an innovative spirit. This has led to negative attitudes towards EAP courses and claims for change of the EAP curricula. Therefore, in-service training is needed to raise LTs' awareness of the essence of EAP courses and all issues pertaining to them, particularly the importance of conducting needs analysis prior to teaching in order to avoid mismatches between their teaching styles and students' needs and expectations. During in-service training, seminars and or workshops, teachers will be exposed to the multifaceted role of an EAP practitioner. LTs role goes far beyond mere transmission of pre-established materials. As I have pointed out in Chapter 2, EAP teachers should normally be materials producers and syllabus builders, open to change, adaptable, and ready for a renewal of their own practice. Thus EAP teachers at the CBE need to perceive themselves as materials developers. If not, they should be able to adapt the materials from commercial textbooks to local needs. In fact, EAP teachers should stop taking commercial textbooks as courses; avoid developing their courses in a vacuum or relying on their own intuition. They should consider students' subjective needs more and group students accordingly, particularly by taking into account their field of study. If not so, various disciplined-related materials should be brought to class (in case EAP courses continue to be perceived as common courses for second year students at CBE).

As the CBE runs the Faculties of Business and Economics consisting of different departments, it would be better for the Language Units to distribute tasks to their EAP teachers so that each teacher can specialise in one domain. In order to avoid the usual routine, there should be rotation of LTS teachers and each teacher should be required to exploit his newly designed materials in such a manner as to raise students' motivation and promote interaction in the classroom. However, there is a need for collaboration between LTs themselves and between them and NLTs for the elaboration of suitable materials. Therefore, both LTs and NLTs should have a mindset shift concerning the relationship between them and ways in which the content of their respective subjects should be designed. They all need an in-service training on Language across the Curriculum to understand why they should cooperate. EAP teachers should continuously inquire

about the genres and skills students need in order to cope with other academic subjects. As knowledge evolves gradually, EAP teachers should keep on assessing the relevance of their designed materials for probable change or adaptation rather than advocating for relevant materials from Management. Thus, as argued earlier, they should be lifelong researchers.

Teachers should also have a mindset shift concerning classroom management. The findings show that there was a kind of *laissez-aller* and *laissez faire* approach in classroom practices. Some teachers purposely began their classes late or allowed too much freedom in their classrooms. On the other hand, the majority of teachers narrated their lessons. This led to boredom and to some students' engagement in discipline disruptive attitudes. I would therefore recommend that the CBE management should develop discipline policies for students in order to improve its educational system. Through the lens of these policies, teachers will take self-disciplinary measures which might help students to behave themselves. Teachers should also teach students important social and academic values because science without conscience is but the ruin of the soul, to borrow Rabelais's words. This means that science without conscience is not beneficial to students. Thus, students should be instructed to switch off their cell-phones or put them on silent for their teachers' due respect and in order not to disrupt the normal flow of classroom activities. I would also recommend that teachers should come to class well-prepared for their teaching in order not to be the source of boredom and indiscipline in the classroom.

There is also a need for change in teachers' perceptions of the language of instruction. In-service training is needed in order to empower them with knowledge of the postcolonial view of communication in the classroom. Teachers should learn that students can become good academic communicators by allowing them to negotiate using strategies and socio-cultural practices present in the teaching and learning environment and 'the expectations of the academia' (Van Dyk *et al*, 2013: 364). In-service training should also aim at changing the teachers' mindset with regard to the proficiency needed by students and the strategies students use to reach their goals (which are different from teachers). One of the teachers' roles is to equip students with strategies they need to succeed in their goals rather than banning the use of strategies such as the resort to the linguistic repertoire that they already possess, for example, the switch over from one language to another (in the context of this study, from the LoI to Kinyarwanda and vice versa).

6.3.2 Code switching

In Chapter 2 I use of English as a widespread practice around the world. Institutions of higher learning worldwide consider English as a response to globalization and internationalisation (Coleman, 2006) and have thus promoted it as a medium of instruction. However, its use has negatively impacted on both teachers and students. In the present study, the findings have indicated that the majority of students' and some teachers' English language proficiency was low and that there were instances where teachers provided students with explanations in Kinyarwanda (code-switching or code-mixing) to facilitate the teaching and learning process. Some would use code switching when occupying their usual official place in the classroom whereas others would only use Kinyarwanda when they were near the students.

Students also used Kinyarwanda in group discussions as a strategy to negotiate the meaning of the content of their subjects and build knowledge, and some teachers acknowledged that their students were better at Kinyarwanda. The majority of students, including those who preferred the use of English as an LoI, advocated the use of code switching in the classroom to enable them to understand difficult English concepts they encountered. Their claim confirms the view that mother tongue can quietly help bridge the target language (in this case English used as a foreign language). I therefore recommend that teachers should stop considering their students' French background and the Kinyarwanda environment as an impediment to the implementation of EAP courses and turn them into strategies that can help students acquire the target language without difficulty.

As research has shown the existence of mutual interdependence between or among languages (Cummins, 1979), the GoR would revise the language in education policy in Rwanda and promote code switching from the Kindergarten to tertiary education. Code switching is a form of additive bilingualism which does not threaten the LoI and its promotion will enable students to develop both their BICS and CALP in the target language, which will, in turn, deepen their knowledge of concepts and linguistic features in their own language.

The GoR should also promote code switching for the sake of upholding national pride and students' identities as the exclusion of indigenous languages from official use, particularly from education-an arena where students' identities are shaped, can lead to the decline of national cultures and languages and deny nations access to the modern world, democratisation and economic advancement (Phillipson, 1996). Although this appears to challenge decision-makers' view of education through English, I believe that denial of the use of communicative resources at the disposal of the students is rejection of their identities. Students are silenced because of their low English communication skills that are considered as language deficiencies. They become passive learners who silently accommodate themselves to other people's identities through their genres and texts, which are generally ideology-laden rather than negotiating their own identities, roles, and statuses (Canagarajah, 1999) and developing proficiency in academic language.

Code switching is also needed to remove the divide between students whose social and educational backgrounds have prepared them for the academic linguistic demands and students from disadvantaged groups. In the present study, the findings have confirmed that only students with a good command of English could follow EAP courses whereas students with poor English communication skills lagged behind. Therefore, the revision of the language in education policy that promotes code switching will help students from disadvantaged groups and/or with a French background gain space for their voices and meet their needs and aspirations. If not so, the imbalance between students' language abilities and the demanding academic linguistic requirements will persist and some students' language-related problems will always be referred to as deficiencies and be a source of frustration. Thus, the GoR should be made aware of the importance of the use of modes of communication other than the language of instruction in assisting students to develop the academic discourse(s) (Van der Walt and Dornbrack, 2011), and keeping their cultural and linguistic identities. Code switching should be perceived as a strategy to remove students' language-related difficulties and help them to acquire English communication skills needed to communicate academically and globally, but not a way of fighting national policies. In case, policy-makers do not officially promote code switching as a teaching and learning strategy, they should then allow teachers to work autonomously depending on the realities they encounter in classrooms. This will enable them to promote their students' autonomy. In the next section, I provide recommendations on teacher and student autonomy.

6.3.3 Teacher and student autonomy

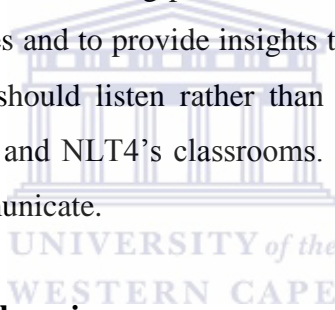
I recommend that teachers should take into consideration students' current proficiencies and future needs before they design their courses and that they should not rely on one teaching methodology if they want to be effective. The content of the EAP courses should rely on the needs of Rwandan students in a Rwandan context and teaching methods should arise from classroom realities rather than being defined in advance. Furthermore, they should set goals and objectives in accordance with students' needs. This requires teachers' autonomy without which they cannot promote their students' independent learning skills. Therefore, I recommend that the decision-makers, through the CBE management, should allow teachers to operate autonomously, that is, to be free to choose the content of their subjects in relation to the students' academic linguistic needs and to the labour market requirements. If not, teachers will continue to consider themselves as the only absolute knowers who have to pour knowledge into their students' heads and the knowledge they communicate will be received unquestionably as though it were motionless (Freire, 2000). Teachers should empower their students so that they become independent and lifelong learners. They should work towards the fulfillment of their students' needs rather than pleasing policy-makers' decisions, which are generally contrary to the realities encountered in classrooms. Teachers should know that students do not need to hear the sonority of their words; they rather need to communicate with them in a dialogic manner so as to contribute to the transformation of the world be it academic or outside the academia. Therefore, there is a need for students' voices to be heard.

6.3.4 Students' voices in the teaching and learning process

As argued earlier, the interaction among students, teachers, and teaching and learning resources promotes students' cognitive and linguistic skills. I would then recommend students to overcome their shyness and lack of self-confidence and seize the rare opportunities they are given for classroom interaction because if they continue to consider their linguistic backgrounds as deficiencies and to be pessimistic, they will neither progress educationally nor contribute to the transformation of their world. They will remain the students of the teacher and fail to develop their problem-solving skills. Thus, students should create space for themselves to interact and display their knowledge. As they are conscious that the use of code switching as a strategy to

comprehend the content of their subjects works when they have group discussions, they should also contribute to the transformation of their academic world by using Kinyarwanda whenever they search for English words to use so as to share the knowledge locked in their minds with teachers and peers. Lack of interaction with teachers and peers should be viewed as a great injustice done to students as students from disadvantaged groups are denied their language rights (Kennedy & Anbazhagan, 2015). I would thus recommend that teachers should involve students in their own learning through interaction to enable them to develop their critical thinking. Without interaction with the teachers and peers, whatever mode of communication teachers may use to help students understand the concepts of their courses might not work.

I would also recommend that teachers should bring to class materials drawn from students' academic subjects, world Englishes and from their own culture in order to raise their motivation and make them active in teaching and learning process. Furthermore, in case students are eager to participate in classroom activities and to provide insights that may contribute to the change of the existing status quo, teachers should listen rather than rebuking them and silencing their voices as was the case in NLT3's and NLT4's classrooms. They should also provide students' with materials with which to communicate.



6.3.5 Provision of teaching and learning resources

As I have argued in Chapter 2, access to scientific knowledge and effective communication requires interaction between the students and all the sources of information (teacher, textbooks, handouts, to name but a few). However, according to the findings, there is a shortage of resources at the CBE and teachers often use the chalkboard to jot down exercises. The teaching and learning appears to be ineffective as this practice is time consuming. Thus besides the local meaning-making resources that are needed to facilitate the teaching and learning process, the GoR should encourage and motivate EAP teachers to develop their own teaching materials based on students' educational and socio-cultural backgrounds' and on their academic aspirations. Materials development should be a priority in Rwandan institutions of higher learning as the current study has shown that the existing textbooks appear to be insufficient and outdated, and not to suit local realities.

As materials development depends on students' needs which require a sound analysis, the GOR through the CBE, should avail funds to enable the College of Business and Economics to organise in-service training and seminars in which teachers will get exposure on how to conduct a needs analysis. There is also a need for funds to help teachers carry out research in order to identify discipline-related terminologies, and the national and international socio-cultural artifacts that would be incorporated in EAP courses in order to meet students' academic needs and life requirements in general.

I would also recommend that EAP teachers and non-language teachers engage in collaborative discussions in order to provide students with meaningful input and improve their communication skills in English. In other words, I recommend that there should be integration of language in content subjects and incorporation of content in EAP courses. It is only through this kind of collaboration that teachers can make the content of their subjects relevant to discipline communicative needs. In relation to this, some EAP teachers at the CBE, if not all, may not be EAP experts in the students' target fields of study and may have difficulty understanding discipline-related genres and non-language teachers may not feel comfortable with language issues such as pronunciation. I would thus recommend that the management should organise seminars, conferences, and in-service training in which both teams of teachers will be taught how to collaborate.

Collaboration between EAP and non-language teachers will prevent EAP teachers from teaching English as a subject and help them equip students with communicative skills such as writing conventions they need to participate in the CBE academic and cultural contexts and in the world outside of school. Materials based on the abovementioned criteria will help enhance students appropriate discipline-related terminologies, safeguard Rwandan culture and encourage intercultural communication. They will also help raise students' cultural awareness, tolerance of the other and their sense of agency in a wider political context (Dalsi, 2011). Rather than immersing the students in a new culture and compelling them to have a shift of identity, materials drawn from local culture and content subjects will help students acquire academic discourses and bridge the gap between their home and school.

In terms of finances, research has questioned the neutrality of EAP courses and considered their widespread use as a long-term plan by the Americans and the British for their economic and political hegemonization and for the promotion of capitalism in the world (see Chapter 2). It is against this background that I would recommend that the GoR should invest in the development of materials based on local artifacts in order to spare money that would be otherwise spent on commercial textbooks and generate income by selling its own materials nationwide and abroad.

I also recommend teachers not to wait for the government's release of funds in order for them to design suitable materials. They should be agents of their own teaching and cooperate with non-language teachers in order to design authentic materials for students. However, they should not subordinate 'their instruction unquestioningly to the demands' (Long & Doughty, 2011: 207) of content subjects. The use of authentic discipline-related materials would help teachers and students to communicate and discuss knowledge embedded in these materials through language as pedagogic and cultural tool. In this case, the content of the language learning would go beyond the recurring grammatical structures, communicative language functions and the four language skills by helping teachers be familiar with knowledge of new discourses and students learn to use the language and to use the language to learn.

Both the government's and teachers' initiatives would help the CBE address the issue of imbalance in the distribution of teaching and learning materials and the lack of a harmonised programme that affects students' academic attainment to date.

Classrooms are also part of teaching and learning facilities and the findings show that there was an imbalance between the student size and the classroom allocated to them. Some students' working conditions appear to be unfavorable. Suggestions such as enlarging classes, splitting large groups into smaller ones and/or increasing the number of teachers were made. Rather than enlarging classrooms, I would suggest that the CBE management address the shortage of human resources in terms of EAP teachers. The increase in the number of EAP teachers and the allocation of a manageable group to each teacher can enable him/or her to conduct classroom activities smoothly. Alternatively, the CBE recruitment unit should register a number of students that the college is capable of caring for rather than recruiting a big number of students whose school fees will either boost its finances or help it cover its financial deficiencies. Thus, the CBE management or policy makers should reduce the imbalance between the student body and the

limited number of teachers, and between the student population and the probably limited financial resources of this institution of higher learning to avoid the deterioration of its educational system. This also applies to other institutions of higher learning in Rwanda.

The CBE should not consider students as cash cows. It should rather make their learning a priority and cater for their needs. Therefore, the decrease in the number of students allocated to groups is recommended, for the success of EAP courses highly depends on the amount of interaction there is between students and their teachers and peers, with the resources availed to them. Large classes do not allow teachers to work efficiently.

I also recommend that the GoR, through the CBE, should provide students with enough chairs. It would be unbelievable that in a country like Rwanda, which has recently known incredible economic achievement that students lack chairs to sit on and waste part of their learning time on the search of chairs.

Furthermore the GoR should also provide CBE with equipment such as language laboratories, radios and tape recorders, projectors and/ or televisions depending on the number of its extensions and student population. These will enable teachers to develop students' listening skills through movies and other listening authentic materials and study skills such as summarizing, scanning, and skimming.

6.3.6 Teacher recruitment criteria and pre-service training

The government of Rwanda seeks to produce highly skilled graduates that will contribute to the development of the nation. Manpower is the most trusted source of income and development. Thus, interviews are conducted with and written tests administered to job seekers to make sure that they put the right person in the right place. I therefore recommend that the CBE should revise its recruitment criteria since there appear to be loopholes in the teaching of EAP due to teachers' poor teaching methodologies and lack of English communication skills.

I recommend that the CBE should organise pre-service training for novice teachers in order to equip them with skills needed for the accomplishment of their multifaceted role. The CBE should also give them a probation period during which they display their talents. If they are found incapable of performing effectively, the CBE should then terminate their contracts.

6.3.7 Partnership with other institutions of higher learning nationwide and worldwide

The world has recently witnessed striking economic, political and educational changes that require educators to have global competence so that they can produce well-prepared graduates capable of competing successfully in the world global market (Brurstein, 2007; Van Roekel, 2010). Educators, particularly EAP teachers, should be aware of how EAP courses are taught in other institutions of higher learning around the world, namely in non-native English speaking countries, in order to be able to offer quality services to their students. I therefore recommend that the CBE should collaborate with other institutions of higher learning in order to arm its teachers with teaching strategies that may help them produce globally competent graduates. The CBE should make ‘cross-border collaborative arrangements’ (Altbach & Knight, 2007: 290) so as to send EAP teachers abroad or invite capable foreign EAP professionals who can train its EAP staff.

On national grounds, many EAP teachers have conducted research in the field of EAP and shown how the English language challenges students. Such EAP specialists can also help the CBE EAP staff improve their knowledge of EAP courses and the practices around it through in-service trainings, seminars or workshops. These specialists’ masters and doctoral theses, and publications should be availed in the CBE libraries in order to inspire teachers on the practices around EAP. The dissemination of their findings might shed light on the language-in-education policy in a post-colonial era.

As the seven institutions of higher learning in Rwanda have currently been merged into one university (UR), I would recommend that all EAP specialists should work jointly towards the improvement of the teaching of EAP courses in Rwanda and the production of graduates capable of competing internationally. This will also add value to EAP courses, which appear to have been given little value to date.

6.3.8 The status of EAP courses

The findings indicate that EAP courses were given a subsidiary status compared to other academic subjects, particularly science and technology. EAP courses were allotted few hours compared to these subjects and big numbers of students assigned to individual teachers who had difficulty conducting activities such as speaking and writing which are time consuming. To enable teachers to perform their tasks effectively, policy-makers should ascribe EAP courses equal status with other academic subjects. They should extend them to all the years of academic studies to give them their full meaning as they have to incorporate the content of other academic courses, which varies from one year to another. They should also know that knowledge of science and technology can only make sense when graduates possessing this knowledge can communicate it to others with ease. They need knowledge of the close link existing between languages and of how the shift to students' mother tongue can help transcend the language-related problems encountered in a monolingual system. Otherwise, the GoR will continue complaining about graduates' poor communication skills, which do not meet job requirements.

As there is a contradiction between policy-makers' decisions to promote English as the sole MoI, their lack of investment in EAP courses, and some students' views of English, I recommend that there should be mass consultation (particularly with teachers and students) before the installment and the implementation of any policy that may affect students' positively or negatively. I would also recommend that further research should be carried on policy-makers' knowledge of the role of the MoI in education and the strategies put in place to help teachers implement new policies effectively and efficiently.

Policy makers should also be aware of the damage 'global village-ness', to borrow Canagarajah's (2015) words, can cause to the Rwandan society and adopt strategies that draw on the local context such as the use of culturally-oriented materials and code switching in order to enhance students' motivation and abilities to learn foreign languages. I thus recommend that the dominant English discourse should not be given prominence over Kinyarwanda - an important local mode of communication that has been given a subsidiary status.

6.3.9 Error correction

Foreign language students generally make mistakes when using the target language and error correction is one of the pedagogical procedures that might either raise their motivation to learn or put it ‘in jeopardy’ (Fatehi & Akbari , 2015: 82) as far as language use is concerned. In the context of the present study, the findings show a case where students’ errors were repeated to them and considered as deviances. Such an attitude can result in students’ resistance to use the target language. I would therefore recommend that teachers should create a supportive classroom environment in which they encourage students to learn rather than making fun of their wrong answers (Fatehi & Akbari: 2015). I would also recommend that EAP teachers consider their students’ errors as a natural part of their learning or as evidence for learning (Richards & Rogers, 2014) and to provide them with indirect correction, as was the case in the course of Information Management System 1 (see Chapter 4). In all classroom activities, I recommend that teachers should give their students indirect feedback to avoid frustration and lack of self-confidence.

On the other hand, capable students should tactically provide their teachers with meaningful insights in case they realize that the latter are passing on mistakes which their peers with limited English language proficiency might memorise and retain in their memories. In the next section, I provide the general conclusion to the present study.

6.4 Limitations of the study and suggestions for further investigations

Research studies might have been carefully planned and conducted, but there will still be limitations. Limitations cannot be avoided and are likely to occur numerously, but they should be identified following all aspects of the research (As De Vos, *et al.*, 2005: 118). Therefore, the current study cannot be taken to be free of limitations. It has been limited to the exploration of how the current EAP courses taught at the CBE prepare students for academic work and their future professions and whether they meet their needs in relation to other academic subjects.

As seen throughout the current study, all the language lessons I observed, but two, focused on grammar which was taught in isolation and encouraged memorisation of grammatical rules. Even though some findings from interviews with students have revealed that students did not gain much from EAP classes, I propose that further research be conducted on the correlation between

the focus on grammar and students' stagnant levels of English. In the same vein, I suggest that further studies be done on the impact of the overuse of commercial books and the PPP approaches to language teaching on the students' development of proficiency in the English language.

Because almost all the lessons I observed focused on grammar and observations in language classes failed to provide me with information on how the four main language skills, culture, and other integrated skills are taught, I believe that there is need for an ethnographic case study of the same topic in order to get a full picture of the amount of time devoted to them, of how they are taught and of the material they do incorporate to mitigate the discrepancies between the responses provided by the teachers and those by the students due to the subjective nature of qualitative research.

During classroom observations, I noted a case where a student was silenced when she wanted to critique the pre-existing status quo with regard to unchangeable curricula. I also noticed that there was no room for students' voices. However, findings from interviews with students revealed that students held views that may help the CBE in particular, and Rwanda in general, to change the current educational system into world-class education. I therefore suggest that a further study be conducted on how students' voices can contribute to change their learning environment or on the root causes of established teaching and learning approaches in the Rwandan educational system.

The present study investigated the effectiveness of EAP courses in second year classes only. Therefore, I propose that further investigation be conducted to find out how the current EAP courses taught at the CBE prepare first year students for the highly demanding academic linguistic norms and meet their needs in relation with their academic subjects, and whether they prepare them for life.

During the interviews, there were claims that the time allocated to EAP courses was inadequate. Therefore, I suggest that research be done to find out whether the increase of EAP teaching hours can help improve students' proficiency in the English language. Another study can be conducted to explore whether the extension of EAP courses to years 3 and 4 of study at the CBE and in Rwandan higher education in general can equip the graduates with the necessary skills for the labour market and for adaptation to the world in general.

Seemingly, issues pertaining to finances are many and make me doubt whether the CBE has sufficient funds that would enable it to operate efficiently. However, as I did not look critically enough into the area of financial resources, which was beyond the scope and remit of my research, I recommend that this area be considered as another field for future research in order to find out how financial resources affect the educational system at the CBE.

6.5 Conclusion

The aim of the present study was to explore the extent to which the current EAP courses taught at the CBE helped students cope with their studies and prepared them for their future professions. It also aimed at exploring how they met students' needs in relation to content subjects. Findings have revealed several loopholes such as the teaching of grammar, the use of the narrative method to teaching, the overuse of pre-established materials, lack of harmonization of the EAP programmes which are offered to different groups of students at the same time, failure to prepare students for their studies and potential jobs, failure to meet students' needs in relation to other academic subjects, the consideration of students' French educational background and the Kinyarwanda environment, to name but a few. Briefly, teacher pedagogy, the language of instruction, and ways in which EAP courses met students' academic needs and their needs in relation to the world outside of school were generally questioned.

The findings have also indicated that a number of solutions were suggested. These were the dismissal and/or training of unqualified teachers, the employment of more EAP teachers, the provision of more teaching and learning materials, the design of appropriate teaching and learning materials, the compulsory use of English inside and outside school, the use of code switching, and many others as indicated in Chapters 4 and 5.

Concerning English, many students would prefer its use as MoI in higher education in Rwanda for its international flavour and other opportunities linked to it, but the majority still believes that only a language students understand can help them grasp the meaning of their content subjects. Findings also show that students could communicate better in groups, where they could exchange knowledge using Kinyarwanda - their mother tongue. They also indicate that some teachers were aware of the usefulness of the use of Kinyarwanda in enhancing students' academic advancement.

Arguably, the present study shows that both policy-makers and teachers need knowledge of the use of materials drawn from students' academic subjects and based on Rwandan culture as well as on world Englishes. It also indicates the priority of designing such materials as soon as possible so as to meet students' needs and aspirations. Students need meaningful input which can raise their motivation and from which they can learn the grammatical constructions and rhetorical conventions they need rather than learning grammar through rote learning and forgetting it soon after as findings in this study have indicated (Chapter 4, section 4.2).

However, findings indicate that the supply of adequate materials alone does not suffice to meet students' needs. They show that, further to appropriate materials, there is a need for a shift from the monolingual habitus to a switch over from one language to another to enable students to comprehend the content of their subjects, contribute to knowledge construction and to the transformation of the world around them. It thus shows that Rwandan policy-makers and teachers need knowledge of the importance of code switching in the effectiveness of EAP courses.

Even though the findings of the current study were triangulated by means of different research techniques, I would recommend that further research on the use of code switching in a context where a foreign language is used as a medium of instruction be done in order to find out sustainable solutions to the prevailing language-related difficulties encountered by Rwandan students. Findings from such research may foster my own findings, which I believe to be of paramount importance in that they may help Rwandan EAP teachers to revisit the content of their subjects and their teaching methodologies to meet students' needs. I also believe that the above findings may help Rwandan policy-makers and policy makers from other non-native

English speaking countries to revise their language-in-education policy or else to give teachers the autonomy to apply more suitable methodologies arising from classroom situations rather than sustaining the monolingual habitus.

For my findings to contribute to the improvement of the teaching of EAP courses, I envision to disseminate them through interpersonal communication, seminars and workshops with fellow EAP teachers at the UR at large, and at the CBE in particular. I also envisage disseminating my findings to a larger audience, particularly primary and secondary school EAP teachers, through media and policy-briefs. I may also organise in-service training with them and pilot the findings in some schools if the GoR is supportive and releases funds for such activities.



BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Aburizaizah, S. J. (2013). Developing a framework for classroom lesson delivery to empower English teachers' performance in the foundation year programme at a Saudi university. *English language Teaching*, 7(1), 1-8.
- Adam, C. & Artemeva, N. 2002. Writing instruction in English for Academic Purposes(EAP) classes: Introducing second language learners to the academic community.In: Johns, A.M. (ed.). *Genre in the classroom. Multiple perspectives*. (pp. 179-196). London: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Adams, D., & Hamm, M. (2014). *Teaching Math, Science, and Technology in Schools Today: Guidelines for Engaging both Eager and Reluctant Learners*. Maryland & Plymouth: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Adelman, C., et al. (1980). Rethinking case study: notes from the Second Cambridge Conference. In H.Simons (ed.). *Towards a Science of the Singular*. (pp.45–61). Centre for Applied Research in Education, University of East Anglia.
- Afful, J. B. A., & Nartey, M. (2014). Cohesion in the Abstracts of Undergraduate Dissertations: An Intra-disciplinary Study in a Ghanaian University. *Journal of ELT and Applied Linguistics (JELTAL)*, 2(1), 93-108.
- Akincioglu, M. (2011). *Teaching Academic Writing to Upper-Intermediate Learners*, 1-25.http://www.academia.edu/2605488/Mustafa_Akincioglu_-_teaching_Writing_an_Abstract_for_a_Research_Paper.
- Ali, M., & Walker, A. L. (2014). 'Bogged down' ELT in Bangladesh: Problems and policy. *English Today*, 30(02), 33-38.
- Altbach, P. G., & Knight, J. (2007). The internationalization of higher education: Motivations and realities. *Journal of studies in international education*, 11(3-4), 290-305.
- Anamaria-Mirabela, P., & Monica-Ariana, S. (2013). Benefits of English language learning-language proficiency certificates-a prerequisite for the business graduate. *Annals of the University of Oradea, Economic Science Series*, 22(2), 167-176.
- Anderson, C. (2010). Presenting and evaluating qualitative research. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 74(8), 1-7.

- Andersson, I., & Rusanganwa, J. (2011). Language and space in a multilingual undergraduate physics classroom in Rwanda. *International Journal of Education and Bilingualism*, 14(6), 751-764.
- Andersson, I., Kagwesage, A. M., & Rusanganwa, J. (2013). Negotiating meaning in multilingual group work: a case study of higher education in Rwanda. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 16(4), 436-450.
- Andrade, M. S. (2006). International students in English-speaking universities adjustment factors. *Journal of Research in International Education*, 5(2), 131-154.
- Arkorful, K.K. (2013). *Complementary Education Programme and the opportunity to learn in the Northern Region of Ghana*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Sussex, UK.
- Arnó-Macià, E., & Mancho-Barés, G. (2015). The role of content and language in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) at university: Challenges and implications for ESP. *English for Specific Purposes*, 37, 63-73.
- Aronin, L., & Singleton, D. (2012). *Multilingualism*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Artemeva, N., & Freedman, A. (2001). 'Just the boys playing on computers': An activity theory analysis of differences in the cultures of two engineering firms. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication*, 15, 164-194.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L., Soresnen, C., & Walker, D.A. (2014). *Introduction to Research in Education* (9th ed.). Belmont: Wadsworth Cengage learning.
- As De Vos. (2005). Research at grass roots for the social sciences and human services professions. Pretoria: van Schaik.
- Assan, J. & Walker, L. (2012). The Political Economy of Contemporary Education and the Challenges of Switching Formal Language to English in Rwanda. In Campioni, M. & Noack, P. (Eds.), *Rwanda Fast Forward. Social, Economic, Military and Reconciliation Prospects*. (pp. 176-191) Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Auerbach, E.R. (1992). Making Meaning, Making Change. Participatory Curriculum Development for Adult ESL Literacy. *Language in Education: Theory & Practice*, 1-149.
- Awayed-Bishara, M. (2015). Analyzing the cultural context of materials used for teaching English to high school speakers of Arabic in Israel. *Discourse and Society*. DOI: 10.1177/0957926515581154, 1-26.

- Azabdaftari, B. (2013). On the implications of Vygotskian concepts for second language teaching. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, 1(2), 99-114.
- Baffoka, M. B. A. (2012). Changing teachers' views about teaching and learning: A pre-requisite for improving ELT and student proficiency in English in Sudanese universities. In B. Gray & M. Krzanowski. (Eds). *Time for change: developing English language teaching at tertiary level in Sudan*. (pp. 53-61). Garnet Education.
- Bailey, K. M. (1996). Working for washback: A review of the washback concept in language testing. *Language testing*, 13(3), 257-279.
- Bailey, K. M. & Damerow, R. M. (2014). *Teaching and Learning English in the Arabic-speaking World*. New York: Routledge.
- Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism*. New York: Multilingual matters.
- Baker, C. (2014). *A parents' and teachers' guide to bilingualism*. (4th ed.). New York: Multilingual Matters.
- Baker, K. L., Perkins, J., & Comber, D. P. (2014). International students and their experiences of Personal Development Planning. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 15(2), 129-143.
- Baker, T. R. (1999). *Doing Social Research*. Boston, Mass.: McGraw-Hill College.
- Bamwesiga, P. M. (2013). A conceptual understanding of employability: The employers' view in Rwanda. *Journal of Adult and Continuing Education*, 19(1), 39-56.
- Bamwesiga, P. M., Dahlgren, L. O., & Fejes, A. (2012). Students as learners through the eyes of their teachers in Rwandan higher education. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 31(4), 503-521.
- Bamwesiga, P. M, Fejes, A., & Dahlgren, L. O. (2013). A phenomenographic study of students' conceptions of quality in learning in higher education in Rwanda. *Studies in Continuing Education*, 35(3), 337-350.
- Bamwesiga, P. M. (2013). *Quality in Learning in Rwandan Higher Education: Different stakeholders' perceptions of students' learning and employability*. Doctoral Dissertation, Linköping University, Sweden.
- Bapir, M. A. (2012). *Validity and Reliability in Qualitative Research: Is it possible for qualitative research to be properly valid and reliable?*

Academia.edu.http://www.academia.edu/997438/Validity_and_Reliability_in_Qualitative_Research

- Barnett, E. A. et al. (2013). Reshaping the College Transition: Early College Readiness Assessments and Transition Curricula in Four States. Available at <http://academiccommons.columbia.edu/item/ac:170476>. Accessed on 19th august, 2014.
- Bashir, I. (2012). Developing a comprehensive language testing system in tertiary education in Sudan. In B. Gray & M. Krzanowski. (eds.). *Time for change: developing English language teaching at tertiary level in Sudan*. (pp. 48-52). Garnet Education.
- Bassey, M. (1999). *Case Study Research in Educational Settings*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Basturkmen, H. (2014). Replication research in comparative genre analysis in English for Academic Purposes. *Language Teaching*, 47(03), 377-386.
- Bawarshi, A. (2000). The genre function. *College English*, 62, 335-360.
- Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report*, 13(4), 544-559.
- Beardmore, H. B. (1986). *Bilingualism: basic principles*. (2nd ed.). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Belcher, D. (2009). *English for Academic Purposes in Theory and Practice*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Belcher, D. (2009). What ESP is and can be: An introduction. In D. Belcher. (Ed.). *English for Specific Purposes: Theory and practice*. (pp. 1–20). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Benesch, S. (1993). ESL, ideology and the politics of pragmatism. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(4), 705-717.
- Benesch, S. (1996). Needs analysis and curriculum development in EAP: An example of a critical approach. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(4), 723-738.
- Benesch, S. (2001). *Critical English for Academic Purposes*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Benesch, S. (2001). Critical pragmatism: A politics of L2 composition. In T. Silva, & P. K. Matsuda. (Eds). *On second language writing*. (pp. 161-172). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

- Benson, C. (2013). Towards Adopting a Multilingual Habitus in Educational Development. In C. Benson & K. Kosomen. (Eds). *Language Issues in Comparative Education*. (pp. 283-299). SensePublishers.
- Bermingham, D. (2011). *The Interactions between Global Education Initiatives and National Education Policy and Planning Processes: A Comparative Case Study of the Education for All Fast Track Initiative in Rwanda and Ethiopia*. CREATE Pathways to Access. Research Monograph No. 67. <http://files.eric.ed.gov>.
- Bharuthram, S. & Kies, C. (2013). Introducing e-learning in a South African Higher Education Institution: Challenges arising from an intervention and possible responses. *British Journal of Education Technology*, 44(3), 410-420.
- Bhatia, V. K. (2014). A generic view of academic discourse. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.). *Academic discourse*. (pp. 21-33). New York: Routledge.
- Bhatia, V. K. (2014). Analysing discourse variation in professional contexts. In V. Bhatia & S. Bremner. (Eds.). *The Routledge Handbook of Language and Professional Communication*. (pp 1-12). Routledge: New York.
- Bisanz, G. L. (2014). Toward a Functional Analysis of Scientific Genres: Implications for Understanding and Learning Processes. In J. Otero *et al.* (Eds). *The Psychology of Science Text Comprehension*. (pp. 19-50). New York: Routledge.
- Björkman, B. (2011). English as a lingua franca in higher education: Implications for EAP. *Ibérica Revista de la Asociación Europea de Lenguas para Fines Específicos (AEFLFE)*, ISSN-e 1139-7241, 22, 79-100.
- Bloomfield, L. 1935. *Language*. London: Allen & Unwin.
- Boatman, A., & Long, B. T. (2010). Does Remediation Work for All Students? How the Effects of Postsecondary Remedial and Developmental Courses Vary by Level of Academic Preparation. An NCPR Working Paper. *National Center for Postsecondary Research*.
- Boeija, H. (2010). *Analysis in Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.
- Bohlman, C. A & Pretorius, E. J. (2002). Reading skills and mathematics. *South African Journal of Higher education*, 16, 196-206.
- Borg, E. (2003). Discourse community. *ELT journal*, 57(4), 398-400.
- Borg, S. (2015). *Teacher cognition and language education: Research and practice*. New York: Bloomsbury Publishing.

- Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9(2), 27-40.
- Brann, C. M. B. (1981). *Trilingualism in Language Planning for Education in Sub-Saharan Africa*. University of Maiduguri. Nigeria.
- Briggs, C. L. (1986). *Learning how to ask: A sociolinguistic appraisal of the role of the interview in social science research*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Briguglio, C., & Watson, S. (2014). Embedding English language across the curriculum in higher education: A continuum of development support. *Australian Journal of Language & Literacy*, 37(1), 67-75.
- Brinkmann, S. (2014). Unstructured and Semi-Structured. In P. Leavy. (Ed.). *The Oxford Handbook of Qualitative Research*. (pp 277-299). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Brinkmann, S., & Kvale, S. (2008). Ethics in qualitative psychological research. In C. Willig & W. Stainton-Rogers. (Eds.). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research in psychology*, 24(2), 263-279.
- Brinkmann, S., & Kvale, S. (2009). *Interviews: learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- Brown, H. D. (1991). TESOL at twenty-five: What are the issues? *TESOL Quarterly*, 25,245–260.
- Bruce, I. (2011) *Theory and Concepts of English for Academic Purposes*. Hampshire: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Brustein, W. I. (2007). The global campus: Challenges and opportunities for higher education in North America. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11 (3-4), 382-391.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social Research Methods*. (3rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A. (2012). *Social research methods*. (4th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Byram, M. (2006). *Language teaching for intercultural citizenship: the European situation*. Paper presented at the NZALT conference, University of Auckland.
- Byram, M. (2012). Language awareness and (critical) cultural awareness– relationships, comparisons and contrasts. *Language Awareness*, 21(1-2), 5-13.

- Byram, M., & Hu, A. (Eds.). (2013). *Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning* (2nd ed.). London & New York: Routledge.
- Byram, M., Gribkova, B., & Starkey, H. (2002). *Developing the intercultural dimension in language teaching. A practical introduction for teachers*. Strasbourg, France: Council of Europe Publishing, Language Policy Division.
- Byram, M., Nichols, A., Stevens, D. (2001). *Developing Intercultural Competence in Practice*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Calhoun et al. (1997). *Sociology*. (7th ed.). New York: McGraw.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (1999). Interrogating the native speaker fallacy: Non-linguistic roots, non-pedagogical results. G. Braine. (Ed.). *Non-native educators in English language teaching*. (pp. 77-92). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (2000). Understanding L2 writing as codeswitching. Paper Presented in the *Thirty Fourth Annual Convention of TESOL*, 14-18. Vancouver.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (2002). *A geopolitics of academic writing*. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (Ed.). (2005). *Reclaiming the local in language policy and practice*. Mahwah NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (Ed.). (2015). *Reclaiming the local in language policy and practice*. New York: Routledge.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (1999). *Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (2005). Dilemmas in planning English/vernacular relations in post-colonial communities. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 9 (3), 418-447.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (2006). The place of World Englishes in composition: Pluralization continued. *College Composition and Communication*, 586-619.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (2007). Lingua franca English, multilingual communities, and language acquisition. *The Modern Language Journal*, 91(s1), 923-939.
- Canagarajah, A. S., & Wurr, A.J. (2011). Multilingual Communication and Language Acquisition: New Research Directions. *Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal*, 11(1), 1-15.

- Canbay, O., Beceren, S. (2012). Conceptions of teaching held by the instructors in English language teaching departments. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry*, 3(3): 71-81.
- Carlino, P. (2010). Reading and writing in the social sciences in Argentine universities. In C. Bazerman et al. (Eds.). *Traditions of writing research*. (pp. 283-296). New York: Routledge.
- Carrell, P. L., & Carson, J. G. (1997). Extensive and intensive reading in an EAP setting. *English for Specific Purposes*, 16(1), 47-60.
- Celani, M. A. A. (2008). When myth and reality meet: Reflections on ESP in Brazil. *English for Specific Purposes*, 27(4), 412-423.
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2014). Focus on multilingualism as an approach in educational contexts. In *Heteroglossia as Practice and Pedagogy*. (pp. 239-254). Springer Netherlands.
- Chang, C. W. (2014). A qualitative inquiry into the dilemmas and challenges perceived by teachers in ESP instruction. *LSP Journal-Language for special purposes, professional communication, knowledge management and cognition*, 5(1), 97-111.
- Chang, J. (2006). Globalization and English in Chinese higher education. *World Englishes*, 25(3-4), 513-525.
- Charles, M. (2007). Language Matters in Global Communication Article Based on ORA Lecture, October 2006. *Journal of Business communication*, 44(3), 260-282.
- Charles, M. (2012). English for Academic Purposes. In B. Paltridge, S. Starfield. (Eds). *The Handbook of English for Specific Purposes*. (pp. 137-154), Malden: John Wiley & Sons.
- Cheng, A. (2006). Understanding learners and learning in ESP genre-based writing instruction. *English for Specific Purposes*, 25(1), 76-89.
- Cho, J. & Trent, A. (2006). Validity in qualitative research revisited. *Qualitative Research*, 6 (3), 319-340.
- Choi, I. (2008). The impact of EFL, testing on EFL, education in Korea. *Language Testing*, 25, 39-62.
- Chomsky, N. (1959). A note on phrase structure grammars. *Information and Control*, 2(4), 393-395.
- Chrzanowska, J. (2002). *Interviewing Groups and Individuals in Qualitative Market Research* London: Sage publication Ltd.

- Ciprianová, E., & Vanco, M. (2010). English in the age of globalization: Changing ELT models, restructuring relationships. *The Journal of Linguistic and Intercultural Education*, 3, 123-135.
- Clinton, W. J. (1999). 1997 State of the Union address. In J. W. Noll. (Ed.). *Taking sides: Clashing views on controversial educational issues*. (10th ed.). (pp. 144–147). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Coenen, M., Stamm, T. A., Stucki, G., & Cieza, A. (2012). Individual interviews and focus groups in patients with rheumatoid arthritis: a comparison of two qualitative methods. *Quality of life research*, 21(2), 359-370.
- Coffey, B. (1984). ESP: English for specific purposes. *Language Teaching*, 22 (2), 23–86.
- Coffin, C., Curry, M. J., Goodman, S., Hewings, A., Lillis, T., & Swann, J. (2005). *Teaching academic writing: A toolkit for higher education*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Cohen, H. J. (2012). Rwanda: Fifty Years of Ethnic Conflict on Steroids. *The Journal of the National Committee on American Policy*, 34(2), 86-92.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (1994). *Research methods in education* (4th ed). London & New York: Routledge.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Methods in Education* (6th ed.). London & New York: Routledge.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research Methods in Education* (7th ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2000). *Research Methods in Education* (5th ed). London and New York: Routledge.
- Coleman, J. A. (2006). English-medium teaching in European higher education. *Language teaching*, 39(01), 1-14.
- Collier, V. P. (1995). Acquiring a Second Language for School. *Directions in language and education*, 1(4), 1-14.
- Collin, R. (2012). Genre in Discourse, Discourse in Genre: A New Approach to the Study of Literate Practice. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 44(1), 76–96.
- Cook, V. (2013). *Second language learning and language teaching*. (4th ed.). New York: Routledge.

- Cousin, G. (2008). *Researching Learning in Higher Education: An introduction to the Contemporary methods and Approaches*. New York: Routledge.
- Cox, K., Imrie, B.W., & Miller, A. (2013). *Student assessment in higher education: A handbook for assessing performance*. New York: Routledge.
- Cox, M. I. P., & Assis-Peterson, A. A. (1999). Critical pedagogy in ELT: Images of Brazilian teachers of English. *Tesol Quarterly*, 33(3), 433-452.
- Crandall, J. (2014). Landscape Literacy: The challenges of reading Cree-English dual language picture books as a decolonizing strategy, *e- in Education*, 19(3), 123-136.
- Cree, V. E. (Ed.). (2011). *Social work: a reader*. New York: Routledge.
- Creswel, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches (2nd Ed.)*. London: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. London: Sage.
- Crisafulli, P., & Redmond, A. (2012). *Rwanda, Inc.: how a devastated nation became an economic model for the developing world*. New York: Macmillan.
- Cronin, A. (2008). Focus groups interviews. In N. Gilbert. (Ed.). *Researching social life*. (pp. 226-284). Los Angeles: Sage
- Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research*, 49, 222-251.
- Cummins, J. (1984). Wanted: A theoretical framework for relating language proficiency to academic achievement among bilingual students. *Language Proficiency and Academic Achievement*, 10, 2-19.
- Cummins, J. (1998). Immersion education for the millennium: What we have learned from 30 years of research on second language immersion. In M. R. Childs & R. M. Bostwick. (Eds). *Learning through two languages: Research and practice. Gakuen International Symposium on Immersion and Bilingual Education*. (pp. 34-37). Japan: KatohGakuen.
- Cummins, J. (2005). Teaching for cross-language transfer in dual language education: Possibilities and pitfalls. *TESOL Symposium on dual language education: Teaching and learning two languages in the EFL setting*, 1-18.
- Cummins, J. (2014). Beyond language: Academic communication and student success. *Linguistics and Education*, 26, 145-154.

- Cummins, J., & Swain, M. (2014). *Bilingualism in education: Aspects of theory, research and practice*. London & New York: Routledge.
- D'Acierno, M. R. (1990). *Three Types of Bilingualism*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (24th, Dublin, Ireland, March 27-30, 1990).
- Dasli, M. (2011). Reviving the 'moments': from cultural awareness and cross-cultural mediation to critical intercultural language pedagogy. *Pedagogy, Culture & Society*, 19(1), 21-39.
- de Chazal, E. (2013). *Oxford Handbooks for Language Teachers: English for Academic Purposes*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Deane, P., Odendahl, N., Quinlan, T., Fowles, M., Welsh, C., & Bivens-Tatum, J. (2008). Cognitive models of writing: Writing proficiency as a complex integrated skill. *CBAL literature review writing*.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2009). *Qualitative research*. Yogyakarta: PustakaPelajar.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2011). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research*. (4th ed.). Los Angeles: Sage.
- Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (2003). *The Landscape of Qualitative Research: Theories and Issues*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (2003). *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials*. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Desai, Z.K. (2012). *A case for mother tongue education?* Unpublished dissertation. University of the Western Cape, Cape Town, South Africa.
- Dias, P., Freedman, A., Medway, P., & Par, A. (2013). *Worlds apart: Acting and writing in academic and workplace contexts*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence and Erlbaum Associates.
- DiCerbo, P. A., Anstrom, K. A., Baker, L. L., & Rivera, C. (2014). A Review of the Literature on Teaching Academic English to English Language Learners. *Review of Educational Research*, 20(10), 1-37.
- DiCicco-Bloom, B., & Crabtree, B. F. (2006). The qualitative research interview. *Medical education*, 40(4), 314-321.
- Dimitriadou, C., & Efstathiou, M. (2008). Teaching approaches in mixed classrooms. The integration of immigrant and foreign students in school (junior high school). In D. K.

- Mavroskoufis. (Ed.). *Intercultural Education and Instruction*. (pp. 67-85). Greece: Ministry of National Education and Religion.
- Dowling, P. & Brown, A. (2010). *Doing Research/Reading Research: Re-interrogating education*. (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M. J. (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Eslami, Z. R. (2010). Teachers' Voice vs Students' Voice: A Needs Analysis Approach of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in Iran. *English Language Teaching*, 3(1), 3-11.
- Evans, S., & Green, C. (2007). Why EAP is necessary: A survey of Hong Kong tertiary students. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6(1), 3-17.
- Ezzy, D. (2013). *Qualitative analysis*. New York: Routledge.
- Fairclough et al. (2011). Critical discourse analysis. In Van Dijk (Ed.). *Discourse Studies: A Multidisciplinary Introduction* (2nd ed.). (pp. 357-378). California: Sage Publications.
- Fatehi, M., & Akbari, O. (2015). An Experimental Analysis of Errors in Light of Language Learning and Language Use and the Role of Executing Involvement to Increase Motivation in the English Language Classroom. *International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences*, 5, 82-88.
- Feerick, S. (2002). Bologna process update. In O. Gassner, (Ed.). *Strategies of Change in teacher Education. European views*. (pp. 29-44). Feldkirch: PA Feldkirch
- Feng, A., & Byram, M. (2002). Authenticity in college English textbooks-An intercultural perspective. *RELC Journal*, 33(2), 58-84.
- Ferris, D. R., & Hedgecock, I. S (2013). *Teaching L2 Composition: Purpose, process, and practice*. (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Fillion, B. (1979). Language across the curriculum: Examining the place of language in our schools. *McGill Journal of Education/Revue des sciences de l' éducation de McGill*, 14(001), 47-60.
- Fletcher, A. P. (2014). *Rural education students' conceptions of language and of learning* (Doctoral dissertation). Faculty of Education, The Rand Afrikaans University.
- Flick, U. (2009). *Introduction to Qualitative Research* (4th ed.). Los Angeles: Sage.
- Flick, U. (2014). *An introduction to qualitative research* (5th ed.). California: Sage.
- Flick, U. (2014). *An introduction to qualitative research*. London: Sage

- Flowerdew, J. (2011). Action, content, and identity in applied genre analysis for ESP. *Language Teaching*, 44(4), 516-528.
- Flowerdew, J. (2005). An integration of corpus-based and genre-based approaches to text analysis in EAP/ESP: countering criticisms against corpus-based methodologies. *English for Specific Purposes*, 24(3), 321-332.
- Flowerdew, J. (2013). Some thoughts on English for research publication purposes (ERPP) and related issues. *Language Teaching*, 48(02), 250-262.
- Flowerdew, J., & Peacock, M. (Eds) (2001). *Research Perspectives on English for Academic Purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Flyvbjerg, B. (2006). Five Misunderstandings about Case-study Research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 12(2), 219-245.
- Fortanet-Gómez, I., & Räisänen, C. (Eds). (2008). *ESP in European higher education: Integrating language and content*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Fox, J., & Curtis, A. (2010). IELTS International English Language Testing System. In L. Cheng & A. Curtis. (Eds). *English Language Assessment and the Chinese Learner*. (pp.112-120). New York: Routledge.
- Freedman, A. (1994). Anyone for tennis? In A. Freedman & P. Medway. (Eds.). *Genre and the new rhetoric*. (pp. 43-66). London: Taylor & Francis.
- Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. New York: Herder and Herder.
- Freire, P. (1974). *Education for critical consciousness*. London: Sheed & Ward Ltd.
- Freire, P. (2000). *The Oppressed*. New York: Continuum.
- Freire, P. (2011). Pedagogy of the oppressed. In V. E. Cree. (Ed.). *Social Work: A Reader*. (pp. 114-1290). New York: Routledge.
- Freire, P., & Macedo, D. (1987). *Literacy: Reading the word and the world*. New York: Routledge.
- Fry, H., Ketteridge, S., & Marshall, S. (Eds). (2009). *A handbook for teaching and learning in higher education: Enhancing academic practice*. (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Gardner, R. L. (1985). *Social Pedagogy and Second Language Learning: The Role of Attitudes and Motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.

- Gass, S. M. (2011). *Input interaction and the second language learner*. New York: Routledge.
- Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2013). *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition*. London & new york: Routledge.
- Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (Eds.). (2012). *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Gass, S., & Polio, C. (2014). Methodological influences of “Interlanguage”. In Z. Han & E. Tarone. (Eds). *Interlanguage: Forty years later*. (pp. 147-170). Philadelphia: John Benjamins Company Publishers.
- Gass, S. M. (2013). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. New York: Routledge.
- Gatwa, T. (2005). *The Churches and Ethnic ideology in the Rwanda Crisis 1900-1994*. Waynesboro: Regnum Books International in association with Paternoster.
- Gee, J. P. (2008). *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourses*. New York: Routledge.
- Gee, J. P. (2015). *Social linguistics and literacies: ideology in Discourses*. (5th ed). London & New York: Routledge.
- Genzuk, M. (1988). Bilingual schooling: A historical perspective. *Bilingual Methodology Study Guide*. Los Angeles, CA: Los Angeles Unified School District.
- Gibbons, P. (2009). *English Learners, Academic Literacy, and Thinking*. Portsmouth: Heinemann.
- Gillett, A. (1996). What is EAP. *IATEFL ESP SIG Newsletter*, 6, 17-23.
- Goh, C. (2008). Metacognitive instruction for second language listening development theory, practice and research implications. *RELC Journal*, 39(2), 188-213.
- Goh, C. (2010). Listening as a process of self-appraisal and self-regulation. In N. Harwood. (Ed.). *English Language teaching Materials: Theory and practice*. (pp. 179-206). Cambridge: Cambridge Univesity Press.
- Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research. *The Qualitative Report*, 8(4), 597-607.
- Goodman, K. S. (2014). Revaluing readers and reading. In K.S. Goodman & Y.M. Goodman. (Eds). *Making Sense of Learners Making Sense of Written Language: The Selected Works of Kenneth S. Goodman and Yetta M. Goodman*. (pp.189-196). New York: Routledge.

- Gran, L. K. (2007). *Language of instruction in Tanzanian higher education: a particular focus on the University of Dar es Salam*. Master Thesis, University of Oslo.
- Gregersen, T., & Horwitz, E. K. (2002). Language Learning and Perfectionism: Anxious and Non-Anxious Language Learners' Reactions to Their Own Oral Performance. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86(4), 562-570.
- Grenfell, M. (2002). *Modern languages across the curriculum*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Griffee, D.T. (2005). Research Tips: Interview Data Collection. *Journal of Developmental Education*, 28(3), 36-37.
- Griffin, D. (2014). Effective Teaching and Learning Part 1: John Hattie, Graham Nuthall and Jonathan Osborne. In *Education Reform: The Unwinding of Intelligence and Creativity* (pp. 97-114). Springer International Publishing.
- Grosjean, F. (1982). *Life with two languages: An introduction to bilingualism*. Harvard: Harvard University Press.
- Gumperz, J. J. (2001). Contextualization and ideology in intercultural communication. In A.D. Luzio, S. Günthner, & F. Orletti. (Eds). *Culture in Communication: Analysis of Intercultural situations*. (pp. 35-54). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Co.
- Gumperz, J. J., & Cook-Gumperz, J. (2007). Discourse, cultural diversity and communication: A linguistic anthropological perspective. In H. Kotthoff & H. Spencer-Oatey. (Eds). *Handbook of intercultural communication*. (pp.13-29). New York: Mouton Gruyter.
- Hall, C.M., & Page, S.J. (2014). *The Geography of Tourism and Recreation: Environment, place and space*. (4th ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Hall, J. K. (2013). *Teaching and researching: Language and culture* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Hamers, J.F., & Blanc, M. (2000). *Bilinguality and bilingualism*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hammersley, M., & Traianou, A. (2012). Ethics and educational research, British Educational Research Association on-line resource. Available on-line at <http://www.bera.ac.uk/resources/ethics-and-educational-research>. Last accessed on 22nd November, 2015.
- Harland, T. (2003). Vygotsky's zone of proximal development and problem-based learning: Linking a theoretical concept with practice through action research. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 8(2), 263-272.

- Hartse, J. H., & Kubota, R. (2014). Pluralizing English? Variation in high-stakes academic texts and challenges of copyediting. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 24, 71-82. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2014.04.001>.
- Harwood, N. (2010). *English Language Teaching Materials: Theory and practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Hayes, D. (2014). The value of learning English in Thailand and its impact on Thai: perspectives from university students. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, (ahead-of-print), 1-19.
- Hayman, R. (2005). The Contribution of Post-Basic Education and Training (PBET) to Poverty Reduction in Rwanda: balancing short-term goals and long-term visions in the face of capacity constraints. *Post-Basic Education and Training Working Paper Series No 3*.
- Hayman, R. (2007). Are the MDGs enough? Donor perspectives and recipient visions of education and poverty reduction in Rwanda. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 27(4), 371-382.
- Higgins, C. 2009. *English as a Local language: Post-colonial Identities and Multilingual Practices*. New York: Multilingual Matters.
- Hilker, L.M. (2011). The role of education in driving conflict and building peace: The case of Rwanda. *Prospects*, 41(1), 267-282. Doi: 10.1007/s11125-011-9193-7.
- Hilker, L.M. (2012). Rwanda's 'Hutsi': intersections of ethnicity and violence in the lives of youth of 'mixed' heritage. *Identities*, 19(2), 229-247. http://foundation-partnership.org/ulf/resources/tetty_staffretention.pdf
- Hinkel, E. (2013). *Teaching academic ESL writing: Practical techniques in vocabulary and grammar*. New York: Routledge.
- Hoang-Kim, A., Schemitsch, E., Sale, J. E. M., Beaton, D., Warmington, K., Kulkarni, A. V., & Reeves, S. (2014). Understanding osteoporosis and fractures: an introduction to the use of qualitative research. *Archives of orthopaedic and trauma surgery*, 134(2), 207-217.
- Holló, D. (2014). Cultural dimensions and foreign language teaching. In J. Horváth & P. Medgyes. (Eds). *Studies in Honour of Marianne Nikolov*. Pécs: Lingua Franca Csoport. (pp.133-148).
- Hornberger, N.H. (2008). *Encyclopedia of Language and Education*. (2nd ed.), Discourse and Education. Springer Science + Business Media, LIC.

- Hsieh, C. E. (2004). Strengths and Weaknesses of Qualitative Case Study Research. *University of Leicester Publishing*. <http://survey.sinica.edu.tw/serial/fulltext/15/p87-116.pdf>
- Hu, G., & Lei, J. (2013). English-medium instruction in Chinese higher education: a case study. *Higher Education*, 1-17.
- Hu, G., & Lei, J. (2014). English-medium instruction in Chinese higher education: a case study. *Higher Education*, 67 (5), 551-567.
- Huang, J. (2005). Teacher autonomy in language learning: A review of the research. In K. R. Katyal, H. C. Lam, & X. J. Ding. (Eds). *Research Studies Education*.(pp. 203–218). Faculty of Education, the University of Hong Kong.
- Huggins, A. & Randell, S. K. (2007). Gender Equality in Education in Rwanda: What is happening to our Girls? In *South African Association of Women Graduates Conference*, Cape Town, South Africa. <http://www.ifuw.org/rwanda/media/art-education>. (Accessed July 16, 2012).
- Hughes, R. (2008). Internalization of Higher Education and Language Policy: Questions of Quality and Equity. *Higher Education Management and Policy*, 20(1), 111-146.
- Hussein, A. (2009). The use of triangulation in social sciences research: Can qualitative and quantitative methods be combined. *Journal of Comparative Social Work*, 1(8), 1-12.
- Hyland, K. (2002). Specificity revisited: how far should we go now? *English for Specific Purposes*, 21(4), 385-395.
- Hyland, K. (2003). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of second language writing*, 12(1), 17-29.
- Hyland, K. (2004). Disciplinary interactions: Metadiscourse in L2 postgraduate writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 13(2), 133-151.
- Hyland, K. (2005). Stance and engagement: a model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse studies*, 7(2), 173-192.
- Hyland, K. (2006). *English for Academic Purposes: An advanced resource book*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Hyland, K. (2007). Genre pedagogy: Language, literacy and L2 writing instruction. *Journal of second language writing*, 16(3), 148-164.
- Hyland, K. (2009). *Academic discourse: English in a global context*. New York: Continuum International Publishing Group.

- Hyland, K. (2011). Academic discourse. In K. Hyland & B. Paltridge. (Eds). *The continuum companion to discourse analysis*. (pp.171-184). New York: Continuum International Publishers Group.
- Hyland, K. (2013). Faculty feedback: perceptions and practices in L2 disciplinary writing. *Journal of Second language Writing*, 22(3), 240-253.
- Hyland, K. (2013). Writing in the university: Education, knowledge and reputation. *Language Teaching*, 46(01), 53-70.
- Hyland, K., & Hamp-Lyons, L. (2002). EAP: Issues and directions. *Journal of English for academic purposes*, 1(1), 1-12.
- Hyon, S. (1996). Genre in three traditions: Implications for ESL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(4), 693-722.
- Ibuka, E. (2011). *The Role of Civil War on Higher Education in Rwanda: A Case Study of the National University of Rwanda*. Master's Dissertation. Florida International University, USA.
- Jackson, S.L. (2012). *Research methods and Statistics: A Critical thinking approach* (4th ed.) USA: Linda Shreiber & Gesterner.
- Jehangir, R.R. (2009). Cultivating voice: First-generation students seek full academic citizenship in multicultural learning communities. *Innovative Higher Education*, 34(1), 33-49.
- Jenkins, J. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching World Englishes and English as a lingua franca. *Tesol Quarterly*, 40(1), 157-181.
- Jiang, X. (2014). Chinese Biology Teaching Assistants' Perception of their English Proficiency: An Exploratory Case Study. *The Qualitative Report*, 19(42), 1-24.
- Johns, A. M. (Ed.). (2001). *Genre in the classroom: Multiple perspectives*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Jordan, R. R. (1997). *English for academic purposes: A guide and resource book for teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jorgensen, J. N., Hansen, E., Holmen, A., & Gimbel, J. (1988). *Bilingualism in Society and School*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Kachru, B. B. (2006). The English Language in the outer circle. In K. Bolton, B.B. Kachru (eds). *World Englishes: Critical Concepts in Linguistics*.(pp. 241-255). London: Routledge.

- Kagwesage, A. M. (2001). *Towards English for Academic Purposes in the Rwandan Context: The Case of the First Year of the Management Faculty*, Unpublished Dissertation, University of the Western Cape, South Africa.
- Kagwesage, A. M. (2012). Coping with English as an instructional language in higher Education in Rwanda. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 2(2), pp. 1-12.
- Kahraman, S. (2015). An evaluation of an English language teaching education program in terms of teacher autonomy. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching/ISSN: 2148-225X*, 2(2), 53-66.
- Kennedy, S. J., & Anbazhagan, K. (2015). Enhancing the Self Esteem of the Students for Effective and Easy Learning of English as a Second Language. *The Journal for English language and Literacy studies*, 5(1), 1-8.
- Kern, R. (2000). *Literacy and language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Khan, F. (2014). Teachers' perceptions of the significance of local culture in foreign language learning. *Journal of English Language and Literature*, 3(3), 65-70.
- Kharat, D. E. (2012). A study of classroom interaction techniques to develop speaking, writing, reading & listening skills for business Communication. *Indian Streams Research Journal*, 2(3), 1-6.
- Killen, R. (2007). *Teaching Strategies for Outcomes-Based Education*. (2nd ed.). Cape Town: Juta & Co Ltd
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2009). Students' and lecturers' perceptions of the effectiveness of foreign language instruction in an English-medium university in Turkey. *Teaching in higher education*, 14(1), 81-93.
- Kirkland, D.E. (2010). English (es) in urban contexts: Politics, pluralism, and possibilities. *English education*, 42(3), 293-306.
- Kırmızı, F. S. (2010). Relationship between reading comprehension strategy use and daily free reading time. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2(2), 4752-4756.
- Klimova, B. F. (2014). Approaches to the Teaching of Writing Skills. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 112, 147-151.
- Klimova, B. F. (2014). Constraints and Difficulties in the Process of Writing Acquisition. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 122, 433-437.

- Kramersch, C. (2014). Teaching foreign languages in an era of globalization: Introduction. *The Modern Language Journal*, 98(1), 296-311. DOI: 10.1111/J.1540-4781.2014-12957.x0026-7902/14
- Krueger, R. A., & Casey, M. A. (2000), Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research. (3rd ed.). London: Sage
- Kubota, R., & Chiang, L. (2012). 25 Gender and Race in ESP Research. In B. Paltridge and I. Starfield. (Eds.). *The Handbook of English for Specific Purposes*, Vol. 123, pp. 481- 499.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994). The postmethod condition: (E)merging strategies for second/foreign language teaching. *TESOL quarterly*, 28(1), 27-48.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (1999). Critical classroom discourse analysis. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(3), 453-484.
- Kumashiro, K. K. (2015). *Against common sense: Teaching and learning toward social justice*. (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Kuteeva, M. (2013). English in academic and professional contexts: Editorial. *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 13(1), 1-6.
- Kuteeva, M., & Airey, J. (2014). Disciplinary differences in the use of English in higher education: reflections on recent language policy developments. *Higher Education*, 67(5), 533-549.
- Kvale, S. (2007). *Doing interviews*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Kvale, S. (2008). *Doing interviews*. London: Sage.
- Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). Interviews: *Learning the Craft of Qualitative Research Interviewing*. (2nd ed.). California & London: Sage.
- Kwan, S. C., Chow, H. M. D., & Wong, S. Y. S. (2015). If You Comes* to Guangzhou: Pedagogical Implications of Typical Errors Committed by Students with Mainland Chinese Background as Revealed on an e-learning Platform. In T. L. Wong, S. K. Cheung, J. Lam, & K. K. Ng. (Eds). *Technology in Education. Transforming Educational Practices with Technology*. (pp. 163-174). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- Kyeyune, R. (2010). Challenges of using English as a medium of instruction in multilingual contexts: A view from Ugandan classrooms. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 16(2), 173-184.

- Larsen-Freeman, D., & Long, M. H. (2014). *An introduction to second language acquisition research*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Laviolette, G. (2012). English Language Acquisition and Mastery: Rwanda's urgent economic need. *Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin*, 79(1), 43-49.
- Lawrence, J., & Tar, U, (2013). The use of Grounded Theory Techniques as a Practical Tool for Qualitative Data Collection and Analysis. *Electronic Journal of Business Research methods*, 11(1), 29-40.
- Lea, M. R., & Street, B. V. (2006). The academic literacies model: Theory and applications. *Theory into practice*, 45(4), 368-377.
- Lee, K., & Brett, C. A. (2014). *Critical Discourse Analysis: Reconceptualising Online Distance Learning through a Foucauldian lens*. Proceedings of the 9th International Conference on Networked learning, 186-194. ISBN 978-1-86220-304-4. Available at <http://www.lancaster.ac.uk/fss/organisations/netlc/past/nlc2014/abstracts/pdf/lee.pdf>
- Lee, K., & Wesche, M. (2000). Korean students' adaptation to post-secondary studies in Canadian: A case study. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 56(4), 637-689.
- Leong F.T.L. & Chou E.L. (1996). *Counseling international students: Counseling across cultures*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Li, D. (1998). It's always more difficult than you plan and imagine: Teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea. *Tesol Quarterly*, 32(4), 677-703.
- Lichtman, M. (2012). *Qualitative Research in Education: A User's Guide: A User's Guide*. Sage.
- Liddicoat, A. J. & Bryant, P. (2000). Language Planning and language Ecology: A Current Issue in Language Planning. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 1(3), 303-305.
- Lin, A. (2006). Beyond Linguistic purism in language education policy and practice: Exploring pedagogies in a Hong Kong science classroom. *Language and Education*, 20(4), 287-305.
- Lin, A. (2013). Toward paradigmatic change in TESOL methodologies: building plurilingual pedagogies from the ground up. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47(3), 521-545.
- Lincoln, Y. S, & Guba, E. A. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage. (3rd ed.). London: Sage.

- Lipset, S.M., Trow, M., & Coleman, J. (1956). *Union democracy: the inside politics of the international typographical union*. New York: Free Press.
- Littleton, K., & Mercer, N. (2013). *Interthinking: Putting talk to work*. New York: Routledge.
- Liyanage, I., & Birch, G. (2001). English for general academic purposes: Catering to discipline-specific needs. *Queensland Journal of Educational Research*, 17(1), 46-67.
- Lo, Y. Y., & Lo, E. S. C. (2014). A Meta-Analysis of the Effectiveness of English-Medium Education in Hong Kong. *Review of Educational Research*, 84(1), 47-73.
- Long, B. T., & Boatman, A. (2013). The role of remedial and developmental courses in access and persistence. *The state of college access and completion*, 77-95.
- Long, M. H., & Doughty, C. J. (Eds). (2011). *The handbook of language teaching*. Oxford: John Wiley & Sons.
- Lynne, T.D.R. (2004). *Teaching English learners: strategies and method*. Boston: Pearson.
- Mackey, W.F. (1957). The description of bilingualism. *Journal of the Canadian Linguistic Association*, p.51. Ottawa: Canadian Linguistic Association.
- Mammino, L. (2010). The essential role of language mastering in science and technology education. *International Journal of Education and Information Technologies*, 4(3), 139-148.
- Mammino, L. (2013). Importance of language mastery and mother-tongue instruction in chemistry learning. In Z. Desai, M. Qorro, & B. Brock-Utne. (Eds). *The Role of Language in Teaching and Learning Science and Mathematics*. (pp. 33-56). Somerset West: African Minds.
- Manakul, W. (2007). Role of English in Internationalization of Higher Education: The Case of the Graduate School of Engineering, Hokkaido University. *高等教育ジャーナル: 高等教育と生涯学習= Journal of Higher Education and Lifelong Learning*, 15, 155-162.
- Martin, S., & Pandya, K.V. Culture as an issue in knowledge sharing: A means of competitive advantage. *Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*, 1(2), 205-212.
- Materu, P.N. (2007). *Higher education quality assurance in Sub-Saharan Africa: status, challenges, opportunities and promising practices* (No. 124). World Bank-free PDF.
- Matsuda, A. (2003). Incorporating World Englishes in teaching English as an international language. *Tesol Quarterly*, 37(4), 719-729.

- Matsuda, A., & Friedrich, P. (2011). English as an international language: A curriculum blueprint. *World Englishes*, 30(3), 332-344.
- Matsuda, P.K. (2001). Voice in Japanese written discourse: Implications for second language writing. *Journal of Second language writing*, 10(1), 35-53.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2012). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. London: Sage.
- May, T. (2001). *Social Research Method: Issues, Methods and Process*. (3rd ed.). Buckingham: Open University Press.
- May, T. (2003). *Qualitative research in Action*. London & New Delhi: Sage.
- McDonough, J., Shaw, C, & Masuhara, H. (2013). *Materials and Methods in ELT*. (3rd ed.). Oxford: John Wiley & Sons.
- Meierkord, C. (2012). *Interactions across Englishes: Linguistic choices in local and international contact situations*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Merriam, S. B. (1988). *Qualitative Research & Case Study applications in education*. (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mertens, D. M. (2013). Mixed Methods. In A.A. Trainer & E. Graue (Eds.). *Reviewing Qualitative Research in the Social Sciences*. (pp. 139-149). New York: Routledge.
- Michie, S., Johnston, M., Abraham, C., Lawton, R., Parker, D., & Walker, A. (2005). Making psychological theory useful for implementing evidence based practice: a consensus approach. *Quality and safety in health care*, 14(1), 26-33.
- Miller, C. R. (1984). Genre as social action. *Quarterly journal of speech*, 70(2), 151-167.
- Miller, L. (2014). English for Science and Technology. In V. Bhatia & S. Bremner. (Eds). *The Routledge Handbook of Language and Professional Communication*. New York: Routledge.
- Min, H. T. (2014). Participating in International Academic Publishing: A Taiwan Perspective. *TESOL Quarterly*, 48(1), 188-200.
- Ministry of Education. (2008). Education Sector Strategic Plan 2008-2012. http://www.mineduc.gov.rw/IMG/pdf/ESSP_2008-2012_August_2008_final_-_final.pdf
- Ministry of Education (MINEDUC) (2003). *Education sector policy*. Kigali:Ministry of Education.http://www.mineduc.gov.rw/IMG/pdf/EDUCATION_POLICY.Pdf
- Ministry of Education. (2010). *Education Sector Strategic Plan 2010-2015*http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Rwanda/Rwanda_ESSP20102015.pdf

- Ministry of Education. (2011). *Early Childhood Development Strategic Plan 2011/2012-2015/2016*. www.mineduc.gov.rw/spp.php.article
- Ministry of Public Service and Labour (MIFOTRA). (2013). *Skills Area and Numbers of Priority Skills Required Across Rwanda: Five Year Program for Priority Skills Development to Deliver EDPRS II (2013-2018)*. <http://www.mineduc.gov.rw/IMG/pdf>.
- Mishra, S. K., & Pathak, N. K. (2014). English Language Education in India A Journey from Imperialism to Decolonization. *Language in India*, 14(3), 266-274.
- Mitchell, R., Myles, F., & Marsden, E. (2013). *Second language theories*. (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Mokiwa, H. O., & Msila, V. (2013). Teachers' Conceptions of Teaching Physical Science in the Medium of English: A Case Study. *Int J EduSci*, 5(1),55-62.
- Montgomery, S. L. (2013). *Does science need a global language?: English and the future of research*. London: The University of Chicago Press.
- Morra, A. M., & Romano, M. E. (2008). University Students' Reactions to Guided Peer Feedback of EAP Compositions. *Journal of College Literacy & Learning*, 35, 19-30.
- Morse, A. L., & McEvoy, C. D. (2014). Qualitative Research in Sport Management: Case study of a methodological approach. *The Qualitative Report, How to Article*, 19(17), 1-13.
- Muhire, K. C. (2012). *Developing Academic Literacies in Times of Change: Scaffolding Literacies Acquisition with the Curriculum and ICT in Rwandan Tertiary Education*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Linköping University, Sweden.
- Mukama, E. (2008). Students' interaction with web-based literature: towards dissolution of language boundaries. *International Journal of Knowledge and Learning*, 4(5), 478-495.
- Mukama, E. (2014). Bringing Technology to Students' Proximity: A Sociocultural Account of Technology-Based Learning Projects. *International Journal for Research in Vocational Education and Training (IJRVET)*, 1(2), 125-142.
- Munter, M. (1993) Cross-Cultural Communication for Managers. *Business Horizons*, 1(1), 69-77.
- Mustafa, Z. (1995). The effect of genre awareness on linguistic transfer. *English for Specific Purposes*, 14(3), 247-256.
- National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) (2011). *Statistical information on higher learning institutions*. Kigali: National Council for Higher Education.

- National University of Rwanda (NUR). (2008). *Draft policy on language teaching for the national university of Rwanda*. Butare: National University of Rwanda.
- Nicholas, H., Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2001). Recasts as feedback to language learners. *Language learning*, 51(4), 719-758.
- Nisbet, J., & Watt, J. (1984). Case Study. In K. Bell, *et al.* (Eds). *Conducting Small-Scale Investigations in Educational Management*. London: Harper & Row in association with the Open University.
- Niyomugabo, C. (2012). Kinyafanglais as a newly created “language” in Rwanda: Will it hamper the promotion of the language of instruction at Kigali Institute of Education?. *Rwandan Journal of Education*, 1(1), 20-29.
- Nomlomo, V. S. (2007). *Science teaching and learning through the medium of English and IsiXhosa: A Comparative study in two primary schools in the Western Cape*, Unpublished dissertation, University of the Western Cape).
- Noor, K. B. (2008). Case study: a strategic research methodology. *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, 5(11), 1602-1604.
- Nsanzabaganwa, M. (2012). *Uncertainty and Private Sector Response to Economic Development Policy in Post-genocide Rwanda*. Doctoral Dissertation, Stellenbosch University, South Africa.
- Ntam, E.N. (2012). Effective testing: An essential requirement for English programmes. In B. Gray & M. Krzanowski. (Eds). *Time for change: developing English language teaching at tertiary level in Sudan* (pp.39-42). Garnet Education.
- Nunan, D. (1988). *Syllabus Design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Collaborative language learning and teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Research Methods in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (2003). The Impact of English as a Global Language on Educational Policies and Practices in the Asia-Pacific Region. *TESOL quarterly*, 37(4), 589-613.
- Nunan, D. (2013). Listening to and learning from our learners. J. Arnold & T. Murphy. (Eds). *Meaningful Action: Earl Stevick's Influence on Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University press.

- Nunan, D., & Lamb, C. (1996). *The self-directed teacher: Managing the learning process*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nur, H. S. M. (2012). Time for change: Developing English language teaching at tertiary level in Sudan. In B. Gray & M. Krzanowski. (Eds). *Time for change: developing English language teaching at tertiary level in Sudan*. Garnet Education.
- Nwabudike, C. E., & Anaso, G. (2013). The Effects of Extensive Reading on Some ESL Learners' Vocabulary Development: A Case Study of Nigerian-Turkish International Colleges, Kano. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Intervention*, 2(4), 34-42.
- O'Sullivan, M. (2004). The reconceptualisation of learner-centred approaches: a Namibian case study. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 24(6), 585-602.
- OECD (2012), *Better Skills, Better Jobs, Better Lives: A Strategic Approach to Skills Policies*, OECD Publishing. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264177338-en>
- Offorma, G. C. (2009). Curriculum Across Languages. *An Inaugural Lecture of the University of Nigeria, delivered on June, 5, 2009*.
- Ohata, K., & Fukao, A. (2014). L2 learners' conceptions of academic reading and themselves as academic readers. *System*, 42, 81-92.
- Olivier, J.A.K. (2011). *Accommodating and Promoting Multilingualism through blended learning*. Doctoral Thesis, The Vaal Triangle Campus of the North-West University, Department of Basic Education, SA.
- Paltridge, B. (2001). *Genre and the language learning classroom*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Paltridge, B. (2004). Academic writing. *Language teaching*, 37(02), 87-105.
- Paltridge, B. (2007). Approaches to Genre in ELT. In J. Cummins & C. Davison. (Eds). *International handbook of English language teaching*. (pp. 931-943). New York: Springer.
- Paltridge, B. (2014). Genre and second-language academic writing. *Language Teaching*, 47(03), 303-318.
- Panahi, P., Birjandi, P., & Azabdaftari, B. (2013). Toward a sociocultural approach to feedback provision in L2 writing classrooms: the alignment of dynamic assessment and teacher error feedback. *Language Testing in Asia*, 3(1), 1-10.

- Pangilinan, J.S.S. et al. (2014). Early Versus Late Bilingual Interhemispheric Interactions. *Undergraduate Research Journal*, 45.
- Pasha, M.A.U.R., Pasha, S. D. (2012). A Generic Curriculum Model for Computing Degree Programs. *Global Journal of Computer Science and Technology*, 12(11), 16-24.
- Patton, M. Q. (2001). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Paxton, I.J.M. (2009). 'It is easy to learn when you using your home language but with English you need to start learning language before you get to the concept': Bilingual concept development in an English medium university in South Africa. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 30(4), 345-359.
- Pearson, P. (2013). Policy without a plan: English as a medium of instruction in Rwanda. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, (ahead-of-print), pp.1-18.
- Pennycook, A. (1997). Vulgar pragmatism, critical pragmatism, and EAP. *English for Specific Purposes*, 16(4), 253-269.
- Pennycook, A. (2012). *Language and mobility: Unexpected places*. New York: Multilingual Matters.
- Pervin, L.A. (1984). *Personality*. New York: Wiley.
- Petrova, I. (2008). *Needs analysis as a starting point for designing a syllabus for English for specific purposes courses*, Unpublished dissertation, University of Tarku, Department of English Language and Literature.
- Petty, N.J., Thomson, O.P., & Stew, G. (2012). Ready for a paradigm shift? Part 2: Introducing qualitative research methodologies and methods. *Manual Therapy*, 17(5), 378-384.
- Phillips, T. (2012). What English do University students really need? In B. Gray & M. Krzanowski (eds). *Time for change: developing English language teaching at tertiary level in Sudan*. Garnet Education.
- Phillipson, R. (1996). Linguistic imperialism: African perspectives. *ELT Journal*, 50(2), 160-167.
- Phillipson, R. (2009). English: from British empire to corporate empire. *Department of International Language Studies and Computational Linguistics Copenhagen Business School, Denmark, Copenhagen*.
- Phillipson, R. (2009). *Linguistic imperialism continued*. New York: Routledge.

- Phillipson, R., & Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2013). Linguistic imperialism and endangered languages. In K. Bathia & W.C. Ritchie. (Eds). *The Handbook of Bilingualism and Multilingualism*. (2nd ed.). (pp. 495-516.). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Phillipson, R., & Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2013). The Routledge Handbook of Multilingualism Marilyn Martin-Jones, Adrian Blackledge, and Angela Creese. (Eds.). New York: Routledge, 2012. Pp. xxi+ 562. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47(3), 657-659.
- Phillipson, S., & Phillipson, S. N. (2014). The role of culture in constructing educational achievement. In S. Phillipson, S.N Phillipson & K.Y.L. Ku. (Eds). *Constructing Educational Achievement: A Sociocultural Perspective*. (pp. 257- 268). London & New York: Routledge.
- Pinon, R., & Haydon, J. (2010). *The benefits of the English language for individuals and societies: Qualitative indicators from Cameroon, Nigeria, Rwanda, Bangladesh, and Pakistan*. London: The British Council & Euromonitor International.
- Plonski, P., Teferra, A., & Brady, R. (2013). Why Are More African Countries Adopting English as an Official Language? Presented at African Studies Association Annual Conference. <http://scholar.google.co.za/scholar?q=Plonski%2C+P.%2C+Teferra%2C+A.%2C+%26+Brady%2C+R.+%282013%29>. TY of the
- Polit, D. F., & Hungler, B. P. (1999). *Nursing Research, Principles and Methods*. Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott Company.
- Prado, R. A. (2013). *Community college professors' readiness to teach generation 1.5: Understanding faculty members' need to improve student learning*, unpublished doctoral dissertation, California State University, Sacramento.
- Pratte, R. (1979). *Pluralism in Education: Conflict, Clarity, and Commitment*. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas.
- Pretorius, E.J. (2002). Reading ability and academic performance in South Africa: Are we fiddling while Rome is burning? *Language Matters: Studies in the Languages of Africa*, 33(1), 169-196.
- Prideaux, D. (2003). Curriculum design. *Bmj*. 326(7383), 268-270.
- Punch, K.F. (2009). *Introduction to Research Methods in Education*. London: Sage.
- Qi, S. (2009). Case study in contemporary educational research: conceptualization and critique. *Cross-Cultural Communication ISSN 1712-8358*, 5(4), 21-31.

- Qorro, M. (2006). Does language of instruction affect quality of education? *Dar es Salaam: Haki*.
[www.http://hakielimu.org/files/publications/document101does_lang_instruc_fct_qual_edu_en.pdf](http://hakielimu.org/files/publications/document101does_lang_instruc_fct_qual_edu_en.pdf)
- Rajasekar, S., Philominathan, P., & Chinnathambi, V. (2006). Research methodology. *arXiv preprint physics/0601009*.
- Randell, S., & Fish, J. (2008). *Promoting the Retention of Women Faculty and Students in Higher Education: The Rwandan Case*. Paper presented at the Women's Worlds 2008 Conference 10th International Interdisciplinary Congress on Women, Madrid, July 2008.
<http://www.rmhealey.org.au/sw/aclw/images/docs/Retention%20of%20Women%20in%20Higher%20Education%20in%20Rwanda.pdf>
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C., & Schmidt, R.W. (2013). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*. (4th ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Riggenbach, H. (1991). Toward an understanding of fluency: A microanalysis of nonnative speaker conversations. *Discourse processes, 14*(4), 423-441.
- Rioux, M. H., & Pinto, P. C. (2010). A time for the universal right to education: Back to basics. *British Journal of Sociology of Education, 31*(5), 621-642.
- Ritchie, J. & Spencer, L. (2002). Qualitative data analysis for applied policy research. In M. Huberman & H. Miles. (Eds). *The Qualitative Researcher's Companion*. (pp. 305-329). London: Sage Publications.
- Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nicholls, C. M., & Ormston, R. (Eds.). (2013). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. London: Sage.
- Rowley, J. (2002). Using Case Studies in Research. *Management Research News, 25*(1), 16-27.
- Rusanganwa, J. (2013). Multimedia as a means to enhance teaching technical vocabulary to physics undergraduates in Rwanda. *English for Academic Purposes, 32*(1), 36-44.
- Saba'Ayon, N. (2012). *Lebanese English as a foreign language teachers' conceptions of teaching and their practice in Lebanese public high schools*, unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Sussex.
- Samuelson, B.L., & Freedman, S.W. (2010). Language policy, multilingual education, and power in Rwanda. *Language Policy, 9*(3), 191-215.

- Savas, B. (2009). An application of extensive reading to English for academic purposes programs at tertiary level for functional academic literacy: a Turkish case-study. *Asp la revue du GERAS*, (55), 65-84.
- Saxena, M., & Omoniyi, T. (Eds.). (2010). *Contending with globalization in world Englishes*. New York: Multilingual matters.
- Scarcella, R. (2003). *Academic English: A conceptual framework*. The University of California Linguistic Minority Research Institute Technical Report 2003 -1. Retrieved May 27, 2003 from http://lmri.ucsb.edu/resdiss/2/pdf_files/scarcella_finalreport.pdf
- Schleppegrell, M. 2004. *The Language of Schooling: a functional linguistic perspective*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Schneider, M. (2000). Others open doors. *How other nations attract international students: implications for US exchange*. Institute of International Education. <http://www.opendoorsweb.org>.
- Schoenbrun, D. (2008). Geography of Meaning, Topography of Struggle in A Kinyarwanda Dictionary. *African Studies Review*, 51(1), 119-125.
- Schweisfurth, M. (2013). Global and cross-national influences on education in post-genocide Rwanda. In D. Phillips (ed.), *Comparative Inquiry and Educational Policy Making*. (pp.147- 160). Routledge.
- Seale, C. (1999). Quality in qualitative research. *Qualitative inquiry*, 5(4), 465-478.
- Sethi et al. (2012). The East African Community (EAC): It's Time for Business to Take Notice. Grail Research. www.grailresearch.com
- Sewell, A. (2009). World Englishes, English as a lingua franca, and the case of Hong Kong English. *English Today*, 25(01), 37-43.
- Shaaban, K. A. (2013). Disparity between ideals and reality in curriculum construction: The case of the Lebanese English language curriculum. *Creative Education*, 4(12), 28-34.
- Shah, M.I.A., Muhamad, A.J., & Ismail, S.M. (2012). Design, formulation and implementation of an English Language Curriculum from Islamic perspective. *Journal of Islam in Asia*, 9 (2), 180-199.
- Shor, I. (2012). *Empowering education: Critical teaching for social change*. Chicago & London: University of Chicago Press.

- Shuck, B., Reio Jr, T. G., & Rocco, T. S. (2011). Employee engagement: An examination of antecedent and outcome variables. *Human Resource Development International*, 14(4), 427-445.
- Shyyan, V., Dunn, W., & Cammarata, L. (2013). Developing Intercultural Understanding in Teacher Education within the Context of Language and Literacy across the Curriculum. In V. Shyyan, W. Dunn, & L. Cammarata. (Eds). *Language Teachers and Teaching: Global Perspectives, Local Initiatives*, 98. (pp. 271-287). New York: Routledge.
- Sierocka, H. (2014). *Curriculum Development for Legal English Programs*. Newcastle upon Tyre: Cambridge Scholar Publishers.
- Silverman, D. (2005). *Doing Qualitative Research*. (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- Silverman, D. (2006). *Interpreting qualitative data: Methods for analysing talk, text and interaction*. (3rd ed.). London: Sage.
- Silverman, D. (2010). *Doing Qualitative Research*. (3rd ed.). London: Sage.
- Silverman, D. (2010). *Qualitative research: Issues of Theory, Method and Practice*. New York: Sage.
- Silverman, D. (2013). *Doing Qualitative Research: A practical Handbook* (4th ed.). London: Sage.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1989). Multilingualism and the education of minority children. *Estudios Fronterizos*, 8(18-19), 36-67.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1995). Multilingualism and the education of minority children. In O. Garcia & C. Baker. (Eds). *Policy and practice in bilingual education: Extending the foundations*. (pp. 40-62). Clevedon, Multilingual Matters LTD.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2000). *Linguistic Genocide in Education--or Worldwide Diversity and Human Rights?*. New York: Routledge.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2013). *Linguistic Genocide in Education--or Worldwide Diversity and Human Rights?*. New: York: Routledge.
- Spinthourakis, J., Karatzia-Stavlioti, E., & Roussakis, Y. (2009). Pre-service teacher intercultural sensitivity assessment as a basis for addressing multiculturalism. *Intercultural Education*, 20(3), 268-276.
- Spolsky, B., & Hult, F. M. (Eds.). (2010). *The handbook of educational linguistics*. Oxford: John Wiley & Sons.

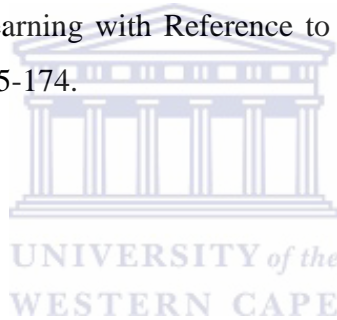
- Stake, R. E. (2013). *Multiple case study analysis*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Stake, R.E. (1995). *The art of case research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stake, R.E. (2005). Qualitative case studies. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (eds). *Handbook of qualitative research*. (2nd ed.). (pp. 435-453). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Staples, S., Kang, O., & Wittner, E. (2014). Considering interlocutors in university discourse communities: Impacting US undergraduates' perceptions of ITAs through a structured contact program. *English for Specific Purposes*, 35, 54-65.
- Steele, V. (2004). *Product and process writing: a comparison*. Retrieved on 5th September 2010 from <http://www.englishonline.org.cn/en/teachers/workshops/teaching-writing/teaching-tips/product-process>
- Stenhouse, L. (1985). Action research and the teacher's responsibility for the educational process. In J. Rudduck & D. Hopkins. (Eds). *Research as a basis for teaching*. London: Heinemann.
- Stoller, F. L. (2008). Content-Based Instruction. In N. Van Deusen-Scholl & N. H. Hornberger (eds.). *Encyclopedia of language and education* (pp. 1163-1174). Springer US.
- Straker, J. O. (2014). *A Case Study of International Student Participation in an Undergraduate Module in Management in a UK Business School using the Lens of Activity Theory*. Unpublished doctoral Thesis, Education, University of Exeter, UK.
- Stromquist, N. P., & Monkman, K. (eds). (2014). *Globalization and education: Integration and contestation across cultures*. Plymouth: Rowman & Littlefield Education.
- Stuckey, H. L. (2013). Three types of interviews: Qualitative research methods in social health. *Journal of Social Health and Diabetes*, 1(2), 56.
- Sturman, A. (1994). Case Study Methods. In J. P. Keeve. (Ed.). *Educational research methodology: An international handbook*. (pp. 49-53). Oxford: Pergamon.
- Sultana, S. (2014). English as a Medium of Instruction in Bangladesh's Higher Education: Empowering or Disadvantaging Students? *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, 16(1), 11-52.
- Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. (2014). Additive Bilingualism and French Immersion Education: The Roles of Language Proficiency and Literacies. In A. G. Reynolds (ed.). *Bilingualism*,

- multiculturalism, and second language learning: The McGill conference in honour of Wallace E. Lambert.* (pp. 203- 216). New York: Psychology Press.
- Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Swales, J. (2014). Genre and discourse community. In J. Angermuller, D. Maingueneau, & R. Wodak (eds). *The Discourse Studies Reader: Main currents in theory and analysis*. (pp.305-316). New York: John Benjamins Publishers.
- Swan, M., & Walter, C. (1992). *The New Cambridge English Course 3 Teacher's Book*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tan, M. (2011). Mathematics and science teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the teaching of language in content learning. *Language Teaching Research*, 15(3), 325-342.
- Taylor, D.M. (1991). The Psychology of Racial and Cultural Diversity: Issues of Assimilation and Multilingualism. In A.G. Reynolds (Ed.). *Bilingualism, multiculturalism, and second language learning: The McGill conference in honour of Wallace E. Lambert*. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Taylor, D.M. (2014). The Psychology of Racial and Cultural Diversity: Issues of Assimilation and Multilingualism. In A.G. Reynolds (ed.). *Bilingualism, multiculturalism, and second language learning: The McGill conference in honour of Wallace E. Lambert*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Teferra, D. & Altbach, P.G. (2004). African higher education: challenges for the 21st century. *Higher Education*, 47(1), 21-50.
- Tellis, W. (1997). Application of a case study methodology. *The Qualitative Report*, 3(3), 1-17.
- Tellis, W. (1997). Results of a case study on information technology at a university. *The Qualitative Report*, 3(4), 76.
- Thompson, D.S. (2011). *No More a Stranger: The Development of Academic Literacy in Adult English Language Learners in Community College*. Doctoral Dissertation, College of Behavioural Sciences and Education, The Pennsylvania State University.
- Thomson, S. (2013). *Whispering Truth to Power: Everyday Resistance to Reconciliation in Postgenocide Rwanda*. Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press.
- Thussu, D.T. (2007). *News as Entertainment: The Rise of Global Infotainment*. California: Thousand Oaks.

- Trahar, S., & Hyland, F. (2011). Experiences and perceptions of internationalisation in higher education in the UK. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 30(5), 623-633.
- Tribble, C. (2010). A genre-based approach to developing materials for writing. In N. Harwood. (Ed.). *English Language Teaching Materials: Theory and practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Turner, J. (2004). Language as Academic Purpose. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 3, 95-109.
- Tyson, L. (1999). *Critical Theory Today: a User-Friendly Guide*. Garland Reference Library of the Humanities. Vol. 2070. New York: Routledge.
- Ulph, F., Cullinan, T., Qureshi, N., & Kai, J. (2014). Informing Children of Their Newborn Screening Carrier Result for Sickle Cell or Cystic Fibrosis: Qualitative Study of Parents' Intentions, Views and Support Needs. *Journal of genetic counseling*, 23(3), 409-420.
- United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA). (2013). Tracking Progress on Macroeconomic and Social Developments in the Eastern Africa Region 2012-13: Towards High Quality Growth and Structural Transformation in the East Africa Region. http://www.uneca.org/sites/default/files/publications/tracking_progress_report_portrait.pdf
- Van der Walt, C., & Dornbrack, J. (2011). Academic biliteracy in South African higher education: strategies and practices of successful students. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 24(1), 89-104.
- Van Dyk, T., van de Poel, K., & van der Slik, F. (2013). Reading ability and academic acculturation: the case of South African students attending higher education. *Stellenbosch Papers in Linguistic Plus*, 42, 353-369.
- Van Lier, L. (2013). *Interaction in language curriculum: Awareness, Autonomy and Authenticity*. New York: Routledge.
- Van Roekel, N. P. D. (2010). Global Competence Is a 21st Century Imperative. *NEA Policy and Practice Department*. Washington, D.C.
- Veronika, M. (2006). *Sociocultural and psychological features of adapting among Asian foreign students in Archangelsk, Russia and Umea, Sweden study protocol*. (Unpublished Master Thesis, Department of Public Health and Clinical Medicine, Umea University, Sweden).

- Vollmer, H. J. (2010). Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL): A special case of Language across the Curriculum (LAC). In C.M. Bongartz & J. Rymarczyk. (Eds). *Languages across the curriculum: einmultiperspektivischerZugang*. (pp.18-27). Frankfurt: Peter Lang GmbH.
- Vollmer, H. J. (2006). *Language Across the Curriculum*. Ljubljana (pp. 27-39).
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind In Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Wass, R. T. (2012). *Developing Critical Thinkers in Higher Education: A Vygotskian Perspective* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Otago).
- Wass, R., Harland, T., & Mercer, A. (2011). Scaffolding critical thinking in the zone of proximal development. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 30(3), 317-328.
- Weiner, B. (1992). *Human Motivation: Metaphors, Theories, and Research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Wellins, R. S., Bernthal, P., & Phelps, M. (2005). Employee engagement: The key to realizing competitive advantage. *Development Dimensions International*, 1-30.
- Wells, G. (1999). *Dialogic inquiry: Towards a sociocultural practice and theory of education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wellington, J. (2015). *Educational research: Contemporary issues and practical approaches*. (2nd ed.) London: Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Wheeler, D. K. (1967). *Curriculum Process*. London: University of London Press.
- Wingate, U. (2012). Using Academic Literacies and genre-based models for academic writing instruction: A literacy journey. *Journal for English for Academic Purposes*, 11, 26-37.
- Wingate, U., Andon, N., & Cogo, A. (2011). Embedding academic writing instruction into subject teaching: A case study. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 12(1), 69-81.
- Wood, D., Bruner, J. S., & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem solving*. *Journal of child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 17(2), 89-100.
- Wu, G. C., & Hung, D. C. (2011). Exploring a teacher's beliefs in an EAP course: A qualitative perspective. *Taiwan International ESP Journal*, 3(1), 31-34.
- Wu, L. F. (2014). Technical College Students' Perceptions of English for Specific Purposes Vocabulary Learning and Teaching. *International Journal of English Language Education*, 2(1), 176-186.

- Yahya, K. K., Isa, S. N., & Johari, J. (2012). Employees' Perception on Engagement and its Relationship to HRM Practices, pp. 333-348.
- Yang, S.C., & Chen, J.J. (2014). Fostering foreign language learning through technology-enhanced intercultural projects. *Language Learning and Technology*, 18(1),57-75.
- Yin, R. K. (1984). *Case study research*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R. K. (1993). *Applications of case study research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publishing.
- Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods*. London: Sage.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods*. (4th ed.). London: Sage.
- Yin, R. K. (2013). *Case study research: Design and methods*. (5th ed.). Los Angeles: Sage.
- Yürekli, A. (2012). An Analysis of Curriculum Renewal in EAP Context. *International Journal of Instruction*, 5(1), 49-68.
- Zhang, D., Fan, Y., & Du, W. (2013). Sociocultural Theory Applied to Second Language Learning: Collaborative Learning with Reference to the Chinese Context. *International Education Studies*, 6(9), 165-174.



APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Ethical Clearance from the University of the Western Cape



UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

OFFICE OF THE DEAN DEPARTMENT OF RESEARCH DEVELOPMENT

01 September 2014

To Whom It May Concern

I hereby certify that the Senate Research Committee of the University of the Western Cape approved the methodology and ethics of the following research project by: Mrs SP Ndimurugero (Education)

Research Project: Learning English for academic purposes in higher education in Rwanda: A case study of a school of finance and banking in Rwanda.

Registration no: 14/1/4

Any amendments, extension or other modifications to the protocol must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for approval.

The Committee must be informed of any serious adverse event and/or termination of the study.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Patricia Josias'.

*Ms Patricia Josias
Research Ethics Committee Officer
University of the Western Cape*

Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
Tel: +27 21 959-2948/9
Fax: +27 21 959 3170
Website: www.uwc.ac.za

A place of quality,
a place to grow, from hope
to action through knowledge

Appendix 2: Authorisation for Conducting Research at a College of Business and Economics

Re: Request to Conduct Research within CBE

Inbox

Chika Ezeanya

Chika Ezeanya <cezeanya@sfb.ac.rw>10/3/14

to me, principal.cbe, murty

Dear Ndimurugero,

Refer to your request to conduct research on “Learning English for Academic Purposes in Higher Education in Rwanda: A Case of the College of Business and Economics in Rwanda.”

Do please note that office of research and postgraduate education is in receipt of your application and has approved it, subject to your filling and returning the attached ethics clearance form. The head of the Department of English and Business Communication can sign off for you as your supervisor, and you may return the form to the office of research and postgraduate education on the 5th floor of the UR Headquarters.

We wish you the very best as you commence your research, and we ask that you do consider sharing the result of your findings with CBE.

Sincerely,

Chika Ezeanya

Chika Ezeanya Ph.D.

Director of Research and Postgraduate Studies

College of Business and Economics

University of Rwanda

www.ur.ac.rw

+250 784729666

Appendix 3: Interview guides

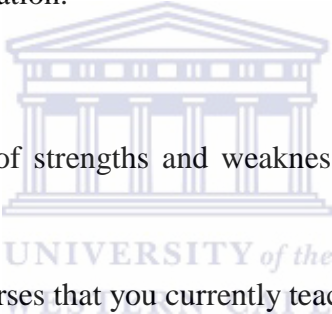
A. Interview guide for language teachers (individual interviews)

Title of the research project

Learning English for academic purposes in higher education in Rwanda: A case study of the College of Business and Economics in Rwanda

I am currently pursuing my doctoral studies at the University of the Western Cape in South Africa. Therefore, I would like to conduct a study through individual and focus group interviews on the above topic in order to write my PhD thesis. I wish to ask a number of questions hoping that your insights will be helpful and that they will contribute to the improvement of the learning and teaching of English in the College of Business and Economics and to the achievement of the government- aspired goals for education.

Interview guide

- 
1. What are your views in terms of strengths and weaknesses on the current English courses taught in your school?
 - a. What are the strengths of the courses that you currently teach at your college?
 - b. What are the weaknesses of the English courses that are currently taught at your college?
 2. To what extent do the current English courses meet your students' academic linguistic needs in relation to other subjects and future lives?
 - a. Which criteria do you rely on to design courses for the students?
 - b. Do you normally cooperate with non-English teachers when designing and implementing the English curricula?
 - c. Which activities, particularly academic discourses/genres (oral presentations, seminars, reading texts, writing, etc.) do you consider necessary to address the demands of the academic world?

d. Which activities could help the students integrate in the world without difficulty after they graduate?

3. a. Which strategies do you use to help your students acquire the English communication skills necessary for responding to the academic linguistic demands?

b. Which strategies do you use to equip students with linguistic skills they need to cope with the world in general? Which of them are more successful and why?

c. Which factors hamper the implementation of the English curricula?

4. What suggestions or recommendations would you make for the implementation of English curricula at the College of Business and Economics to prepare students for their academic and professional requirements?

B. Interview guide for language teachers (focus group interviews)

Title of the research project

Learning English for academic purposes in higher education in Rwanda: A case study of the College of Business and Economics in Rwanda

I am currently pursuing my doctoral studies at the University of the Western Cape in South Africa. Therefore, I would like to conduct a study through individual and focus group interviews on the above topic in order to write my PhD thesis. I wish to ask a number of questions hoping that your insights will be helpful and that they will contribute to the improvement of the learning and teaching of English in the College of Business and Economics and to the achievement of the government- aspired goals for education.

Interview guide

1. What are your views in terms of strengths and weaknesses on the current English courses taught at your college?

2. Which strategies do you use to reinforce these strengths and to remove the weaknesses?

3. Do you normally analyse your students' needs and design your syllabuses accordingly (that is, before you undertake any teaching and learning activities)?

4. a. If yes, to what extent do the current English courses meet your students' academic linguistic needs in relation to other subjects and prepare them for their integration in the world (at work place, in their families, and in the English speaking world in general)?

b. If no, what could be the impediments (obstacles) to the implementation of the current courses and how do you envisage overcoming them?

5. What suggestions or recommendations would you make for the teaching of English for Academic Purposes at the College of Business and Economics so that it prepares students for their academic and professional requirements?

C. Interview guide for content subject teachers

Title of the research project

Learning English for academic purposes in higher education in Rwanda: A case study of the College of Business and Economics in Rwanda

I am currently pursuing my doctoral studies at the University of the Western Cape in South Africa. Therefore, I would like to conduct a study through individual and focus group interviews on the above topic in order to write my PhD thesis. I wish to ask a number of questions hoping that your insights will be helpful and that they will contribute to the improvement of the learning and teaching of English in the College of Business and Economics and to the achievement of the government- aspired goals for education.

Interview guide

1. How do the students in your college cope with the content of your subject?

2. What English language communication skills do your students have?

a. Can they listen to your lecture with understanding? Explain.

b. Can they participate in pair/group/class discussions using English?

- c. Are they able to identify main ideas from a text?
 - d. Can they easily identify details supporting the main ideas?
 - e. Can they write their assignments and exams coherently in English?
3. Which learning difficulties related to languages do your students encounter?
 4. How do you help your students to overcome the language difficulties they encounter?
 5. Which suggestions can you make to improve your students' command of English?

D. Interview guide for students (for individual interviews)

Title of the research project

Learning English for academic purposes in higher education in Rwanda: A case study of the College of Business and Economics in Rwanda

I am currently pursuing my doctoral studies at the University of the Western Cape in South Africa. Therefore, I would like to conduct a study through individual and focus group interviews on the above topic to be able to write my PhD thesis. I wish to ask a number of questions hoping that your insights will be helpful and that they will contribute to the improvement of the learning and teaching of English at the College of Business and Economics and to the achievement of the government- aspired goals for education.

Interview guide

1. What do you think the strengths and weaknesses of the current English courses taught in your college are?
 - a. What are the strengths of the English courses currently taught to you?
 - b. What are the weaknesses of these courses?
2. To what extent do the current English courses meet your academic linguistic needs in relation to other subjects?
 - a. How do these courses help you understand other academic subjects?

- b. If yes, how do they help you? If no, why not?
- c. Do your teachers and peers help you understand and interpret the content of your courses?
- d. Which activities (oral presentations, summarizing texts, writing paragraphs and essays) do you consider necessary for your linguistic needs?
- 4. Which strategies do teachers use to help you acquire the English communication skills necessary for understanding other academic subjects?
- 5. Which language of instruction do think would make it possible to understand the academic subjects better? Explain.

E. Interview guide for students (for focus group interviews)

Title of the research project

Learning English for academic purposes in higher education in Rwanda: A case study of the College of Business and Economics in Rwanda

I am currently pursuing my doctoral studies at the University of the Western Cape in South Africa. Therefore, I would like to conduct a study through individual and focus group interviews on the above topic to be able to write my PhD thesis. I wish to ask a number of questions hoping that your insights will be helpful and that they will contribute to the improvement of the learning and teaching of English at the College of Business and Economics and to the achievement of the government- aspired goals for education.

Interview guide

- 1. What do you think are the strengths and weaknesses of the current English courses taught in your school?
 - a. What can help reinforce the strengths of the current English courses offered at your college?
 - b. What can help remove their weaknesses?
- 2. How do the current English courses help you in understanding of other academic subjects?

3. Which language skills do your teachers promote the most?
3. What language support do you get from your teachers?
4. How do your teachers promote your problem-solving skills?
5. Which language of instruction do think would make it possible to understand the academic subjects better? Explain.



Appendix4: Teaching and learning materials

A. Essays that inspired this study

SCHOOL OF FINANCE AND BANKING

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATION AND LANGUAGES

Academic Year: 2011

Name: MUKO go tete Berliole

Date: 10/01/2011

Reg. No:

Francophone: Anglophone:

Language Placement Test

I. English:

In one paragraph describe a party you have attended recently saying what it was (e.g. New Year's eve), where it was, the people who were there and other details such as food, drinks, decoration and entertainment. (Use the space below)

I waal gone fe te sista graduation
finished I in Unversite SFB graduation
book.

Very good leading Sista graduation book
Very good and expriquetion
course continue / studies America
After continue fe te Sella Motal decoration
very good. after speech sista fe te and finished
in unversite. after getting food et drinks.
fe te continue after give speech parents
After getting at home.

II. French: Sur une page décrivez une fête à laquelle vous avez récemment assisté.
Donnez-en tous les détails.

J'ai
J'ai vu

Il y avait été allé une fête de Sister de
de forme le livre le 5/8/2010 sur moi on a me
Sister il avait de forme le livre très bien
pour lire sujet et et pique très bien
Sister après explication ministries de la
Education donne bourse continue!
Etudies Amerco.

mmuel Salle moto ^{après le 5/8} de forme conti
decoration très bien comment par fête selle
Selle pour nous donne le pain de la
fête et etudies, ^{après le 5/8} Sister comm
UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE
et on a après le chose fête continue
donne polone des parents après dans
moderne et traditionnel comment la Swation
se fini.

B. Instruction to use English as the sole medium of instruction

Le Vendredi 6 septembre 2013 9h39, VRAC <vrac@sfb.ac.rw> a écrit :

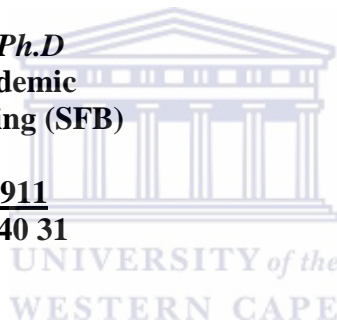
Dear all,

I have been getting information from some of level one student that there are some lecturers who pass instructions in Kinyarwanda language. While I am not suggesting whether this is information is entirely true, I would like to reiterate our commitment to the national policy of using English as the only medium of instructions in all levels of education. It is therefore unfortunate and regrettable if there is anybody who still explains his/her materials in a language other than English and it should stop with immediate effect. HoDs, Dean and I shall monitor very closely where these practices might be happening.

Sincerely,

Papias

Papias MUSAFIRI MALIMBA, *Ph.D*
Ag. Rector and Vice Rector Academic
The School of Finance and Banking (SFB)
P.O Box 1514, Kigali, Rwanda
Telephone/Fax +25(0) 252 502 911
Telephone/Mob +25(0) 078 830 40 31
Website: www.sfb.ac.rw



Allstaff mailing list
Allstaff@sfb.ac.rw
http://mail.sfb.ac.rw/mailman/listinfo/allstaff_sfb.ac.rw

C. The English Module Description form (EMDF)

BUC 122 ENGLISH MODULE DESCRIPTION FORM

1. **Module Code:** BUC 122/English

2. **Module Title:** English Communication Skills II

3. **Level:** 2 Semester: 2

Number of Hours: 100 Hours

4. **First year of presentation:** 2014-2015

Credits: 10 Credits

5. **Pre-requisite or Co-requisite:** As Language learning items build on one another in some progressive way, for one to perform well on this module, he or she should have taken English Communication Skills I (BUC 111).

1. Allocation of Study and Teaching hours

Total Student	Student Hours	Student Hours
Contact Hours	30	70
Seminars		50
Practical Classes/Laboratory		10
Reading Assignments	20	
Assignments Preparation and Writing	-	5
Examination – Revision and Attendance	10	5

1.1. Brief Description of Aims and Content

This is the second language module that the students are supposed to take at CBE and thus, it picks up where the module of English Communication Skills I (BUC111/Eng) ended. Therefore, it reinforces and enables the students to improve further the four language skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing) along with the integrated skills (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation).

1.2. Learning Outcomes

The module will enable the learners to:

- ❖ Practice the language used to talk about topics of general interest and practice both receptive and productive skills (discussion, debate, oral presentation, etc.);
- ❖ Practice and use English at an Intermediate level
- ❖ Understand people with different accents speaking in natural conditions;
- ❖ Use common and useful words in the English language as well as words of their own choice;
- ❖ Learn vocabulary in context focusing on academic vocabulary items;
- ❖ Speak with a more intelligible pronunciation;
- ❖ Do things such as complaining, describing, suggesting, and asking for permission in English, etc.
- ❖ Use stereotyped situational language expressions used in everyday life situations;

- ❖ Read and understand various materials written in English;
- ❖ Produce academically acceptable sentences, paragraphs, short essays, social letters and advertisements, etc.

2. Indicative Content

3. The four language skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing), grammatical structures and vocabulary as contained in The New Cambridge English Course, Book II

Grammar: Tenses (Reinforce the grammatical structures covered in BUC111/Eng and introduce the Past Perfect, present Perfect progressive, simple past vs. present perfect, simple past vs. past progressive, talking about the future using different structures (such as will, be going to and the present progressive, simple present), conditionals (real present and Future), Passive Voice vs. Active Voice

Vocabulary: Vocabulary used in everyday life as well as Academic vocabulary

Speaking: role plays, group discussions, pair work, short presentations, and debates

Pronunciation: Using minimal pairs students are going to become aware of the changes of meaning that are caused by altering certain pronunciation features. They will also get aware of the problems of relationship between sound and spelling in English.

Reading: Reading comprehension skills such as skimming and scanning and previewing are going to be practiced while reading college level reading passages. Extensive reading will be practiced by assigning students readings from academic textbooks in social sciences.

Writing: While learners are to revise the sentence types, the main focus is paragraph (descriptive, narrative, expository, etc.) making sure the students understand the paragraph structure and the different types of paragraph.

4. Learning and Teaching Strategies

The module delivery method is basically PPP (Present Practice Produce) according to which the lecturer presents a structure or some other language skill such as letter writing and students are given practice so that they may become more conversant with the target structures/skills. The next step is that of production whereby students use the target language more independently to transit its use in their everyday life.

5. Assessment Strategy

Assessment is taking different formats in order to increase the chances for formative and summative assessment of the students. Tests are to have multiple choice, factual and essay questions. Assessment tools are to take into account all the four language skills, i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking as much as possible. Thus, assessment tools to be used include assignments, quizzes, Tests and Exams with the following weighting:
 Assignments (quizzes, Oral presentations, and homework assignments): 20%

CAT1 : 20%
CAT2: 20%
Final Exam: 40%

Recommendation: CAT 30% and Assignment: 30% in order to give more weight to reading assignments and Oral Presentation.

6. Assessment Pattern

Whereas assignments are given at the discretion of the teacher, CATs and Exams are to be given following a time-table determined at the level of the college. All the campuses are to be tentatively at the same content coverage as follows:

CAT 1: after 40% of the content has been covered

CAT2: after 40% of the content has been covered

Final Exam: after 100% of the content has been covered

7. Strategy for feedback and Student Support During the Module

Consultation with individual students will be offered by the lecturers to students who need individual attention. Besides, the lecturers are to give feedback and comment in class especially for issues pertaining to the needs of the whole class.

8. Indicative Resources

Main Textbook

- ❖ Michael Swan and Catherine Walter (1992). *The New Cambridge English Course II*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

References:

- Zante, J. & et. Al. (2000). *Grammar Links: A Theme-Based Course for Reference and Practice*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Thomson, A.J. & A.V. Martinet, (2004) *A practical English Grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Paterson, P.W. (1996). *Changing Times Changing Tenses*. United States Information Agency:
- Maclin, A. (1994). *Reference Guide to English*. United States Information Agency.
- Folse, K.S. et al (1999). *Great Paragraphs*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Internet Resources:

<http://langue.hyper.chubu.ac.jp/jalt/pub/tlt>

<http://literacynet.org/cnnsf>

<http://www.linguist.org>

<http://sunsite.berkeley.edu/libweb>

<http://www.rong-chang.com>

BUC 213 ENGLISH MODULE DESCRIPTION FORM

6.1 Brief description of Aims and Content

As the 3rd language module for CBE students in the BBA program at CBE this module is to help students improve their communication skills further bridging from general English modules of communication skills and the English for specific purposes modules of Business Communication Skills II. Thus, the module is to focus on language skills that are more or less advanced including Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing as well as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation with more emphasis on the skills that students will need in order to communicate effectively in a business environment.

6.2 Learning Outcomes

Knowledge and Understanding

The module will enable the students to:

- ❖ Revise grammatical structures learned in English Business Communication I and II and learn more advanced structures
- ❖ Read and Understand texts on general and academic topics;
- ❖ Understand people with different accents;
- ❖ Learn vocabulary in contexts with a focus on academic vocabulary;
- ❖ Speak comprehensibly (in terms of pronunciation);
- ❖ Understand the different levels of formality in the use of English;

Cognitive Skills/Intellectual Skills/Application of knowledge

The module will enable the students to:

- ❖ Use terms related to everyday life and academic life in reading and writing;
- ❖ Produce academically acceptable sentences, paragraphs, essays, social letters, and advertisements, etc.
- ❖ Learn to Use Google Drive (whenever access to the internet lab can allow) for interaction on student produced written work for peer review going

7. Indicative Content

Grammar Review: tenses (Simple Present vs. Present Progressive, Simple Past vs. Past Progressive, Simple Present Perfect vs. Simple Past, Present Perfect Progressive, Future, Future Progressive, Past Perfect, Conditional, etc

Vocabulary: Advanced academic vocabulary

Listening: listening to recorded material, the lecturer, news,(radio ,television

Speaking: group discussion, Oral presentations

Pronunciation: using minimal pair students are going to become of the changes of meaning that goes with altering certain pronunciation

Reading: reading passages, short stories, newspapers, magazines, articles from the internet, journals, text books etc.

Writing: Sentences (simple, compound, compound complex, complex)
Paragraphs, essays (narrative, comparative, and argumentative)

BUC 224 MODULE DESCRIPTION FORM

6.1. Brief Description of Aims and Content

As the last language module in the BBA program at CBE, this module is to impart students with the skills they need to communicate in their professional life. Thus, the module focuses on basic theoretical of communication in general, continues with the business correspondence, a job search unit and oral communication in business. It reinforces what the students have covered in BUC213 and puts more emphasis on business vocabulary.

6.2. Learning Outcomes

Knowledge and Understanding

The Course will enable the students to:

- ❖ Understand basic business communication concepts including the communication channel, what makes communication effective and communication barriers;
- ❖ Revise and reinforce the basic writing skills from the sentence to the discourse level;
- ❖ Read on topics related to their field of study;
- ❖ Improve their business related vocabulary;
- ❖ Learn how to conduct meetings
- ❖ Learn how to apply for a job

Cognitive/Intellectual Skills/Application of Knowledge

The Course will enable the students to:

- ❖ Use terms related to their field of study;
- ❖ Give an oral presentation;
- ❖ Write business correspondence following the standards that are required for this type of discourse;
- ❖ Apply the principles of communication in oral and written communication.

7. Indicative Content

Introduction to essential communication skills

- Communication process
- Channels of communication
- Communication contexts
- Types of verbal and non-verbal communication
- Communication effectiveness and efficiency

Effective Business Writing

- Social letters
- Business Letters and Memos
- CVs
- Report structure and Report Types

Effective Oral Communication

- Interviews
- Meetings
- Oral Presentation

Technology and Communication


- Telephone, Fax
- Email
- Internet
- Other modern IT

Ethics in Communication



D. Other Teaching and Learning Materials

Contents	
Map of Book 3	
Block A	
A1	Something in common
A2	<i>Focus on systems:</i> present and past tenses; hearing unstressed syllables; word-families
A3	Would you like to have ...?
A4	<i>Skills focus:</i> Who should be paid most?
A5	Language: what matters most
A6	<i>Focus on systems:</i> words for games and leisure; infinitive and <i>-ing</i> ; /əʊ/
A7	Could you do me a favour?
A8	<i>Skills focus:</i> I told you a bit of a lie
	Summary A
	Revision and fluency practice A
	Test A
Block B	
B1	Emergency
B2	<i>Focus on systems:</i> /θ/ and /ð/; tenses of <i>there is</i> ; building sentences; words for motoring and everyday objects
B3	How honest are you?
B4	<i>Skills focus:</i> No trousers
B5	Small talk (1)
B6	<i>Focus on systems:</i> question tags; prepositions in questions; /ə/; unstressed syllables; words for common actions
B7	Small talk (2)
B8	<i>Skills focus:</i> What's a hamburger?
	Summary B
	Revision and fluency practice B
	Test B
Block C	
C1	I wander round the kitchen
C2	<i>Focus on systems:</i> words for electrical appliances; two-word verbs; <i>should(n't)</i> and <i>must(n't)</i> ; consonant groups; unstressed syllables
C3	How to do it
C4	<i>Skills focus:</i> Quick thinkers
C5	It doesn't work
C6	<i>Focus on systems:</i> passives; situational language; contrastive stress; weak forms
C7	Love and other problems
C8	<i>Skills focus:</i> Government
	Summary C
	Revision and fluency practice C
	Test C

Block D	D1	Danger – little old ladies!	72
	D2	<i>Focus on systems:</i> past modals; words for buildings; pronunciation of <i>a</i> ; word stress	74
	D3	Families	76
	D4	<i>Skills focus:</i> Having an amazing time	78
	D5	Places	80
	D6	<i>Focus on systems:</i> Present Perfect Simple and Progressive; (<i>don't</i>) <i>have to</i> and <i>mustn't</i> ; words for games-playing; <i>/ɜː/</i> and <i>/eə/</i>	82
	D7	Where does it hurt?	84
	D8	<i>Skills focus:</i> ... drove off without stopping;	86
		Summary D	88
		Revision and fluency practice D	90
		Test D	92
			
Block E	E1	Another good day	94
	E2	<i>Focus on systems:</i> reported speech with <i>would</i> and <i>had</i> ; punctuation; contractions; words for everyday objects	96
	E3	A dream	98
	E4	<i>Skills focus:</i> Nice woman, 42	100
	E5	This is great	102
	E6	<i>Focus on systems:</i> adverb position; words for clothes and parts of the body; pronunciation of vowel letters	104
	E7	Every hour	106
	E8	<i>Skills focus:</i> 'A shock'	108
		Summary E	110
		Revision and fluency practice E	112
		Test E	114
		Grammar revision section	116
		Additional material	130
		Vocabulary index	135
		Acknowledgements	143
		Phonetic symbols; Irregular verbs	144

A word, a phrase, a clause, and a sentence

A word

A word is a set of meaningful letters, a single unit of language which has meaning and can be spoken or written. A word represents an idea, but, alone, it is usually not enough to express a thought. Here are some examples of words: chair, paper, girl, people, write, an, the, with, etc. so a word can be a noun, a verb, an adjective, a preposition, an adverb, an interjection, an article, a pronoun etc. the article 'a' and the personal pronoun 'I' are considered to be words as they are meaningful when standing alone. Words are nothing but parts of speech.

Nouns

a. A noun is a word that names a person, a place, a thing, or an idea. E.g. aunt, playground, moon, democracy.

- Concrete and abstract nouns

A concrete noun names an object that occupies space or can be recognized by any of the senses. For example, salt, whisper, thunder, sand....

An abstract noun names an idea, a quality, or a characteristic. For example, confusion, grief, friendship...

- Singular and plural nouns

a singular noun names one person, thing, place, or idea while a plural noun names more than one.

Most singular nouns take the -S- of the plural to form their plural. For example:

A dog - dogs

A chair - chairs

A book- books etc.

B6 Focus on systems

A choice of exercises: question tags; position of prepositions in questions; /ə/ in unstressed syllables; verbs for everyday actions involving objects and materials.

GRAMMAR: POSITION OF PREPOSITIONS IN QUESTIONS

1 Can you complete these questions?

What are you looking?
What are John and Lucy talking

Now read the following answers and write the questions.

1. They're talking about politics.
2. I went with Henry.
3. I'm looking for Alice.
4. I bought it for you.
5. I'm thinking about holidays.
6. I'm listening to Radio 2.
7. I'm looking at your ear-rings.
8. The letter was from Andy.
9. She's in love with me.
10. She comes from Iceland.

GRAMMAR: QUESTION TAGS

2 Study the examples and then complete the sentences.

Your father is a doctor, **isn't he?**
The film was pretty boring, **wasn't it?**
We were right, **weren't we?**
The Lewises have gone on holiday, **haven't they?**
Ann will be pleased to see us, **won't she?**
Peter would like to be a doctor, **wouldn't he?**
Rita can speak seven languages, **can't she?**
There are tigers in Siberia, **aren't there?**

I'm late, **aren't I?** (...amn't I?)

You drink coffee, **don't you?**
She arrived late, **didn't she?**

1. It's cold,
2. Anne was ill last week,
3. You've met Sally,
4. Your children were all at the same school,
5. You'll be home before midnight,
6. Maurice looks very like his father,
7. It would be nice to go and see Chris,
8. Your father came from Canada,
9. These cars use a lot of petrol,
10. You're working next weekend,
11. There's somebody at the door,
12. I'm cooking supper tonight,

3 Study the examples and then complete the sentences.

She isn't happy, is she?
You haven't seen my brother anywhere, have you?
The film wasn't much good, was it?
You can't swim, can you?
Your mother wouldn't like to come, would she?
Cats don't eat cornflakes, do they?
The postman didn't come this morning, did he?
There isn't any milk in the fridge, is there?

1. It isn't raining,
2. You weren't there this morning,
3. Kate can't speak Spanish,
4. The meat doesn't look very nice,
5. You wouldn't like to help me,
6. Penny hasn't phoned,
7. You won't get married before you leave school,
8. They didn't tell you to work at the weekend,
9. John wasn't happy in his last job,
10. There weren't any messages for me,
11. You don't mind if I open the window,
12. This isn't your coat,

4 Asking for agreement. Listen and say the question tags. Example:

'It's a nice day, ...' '...isn't it?'

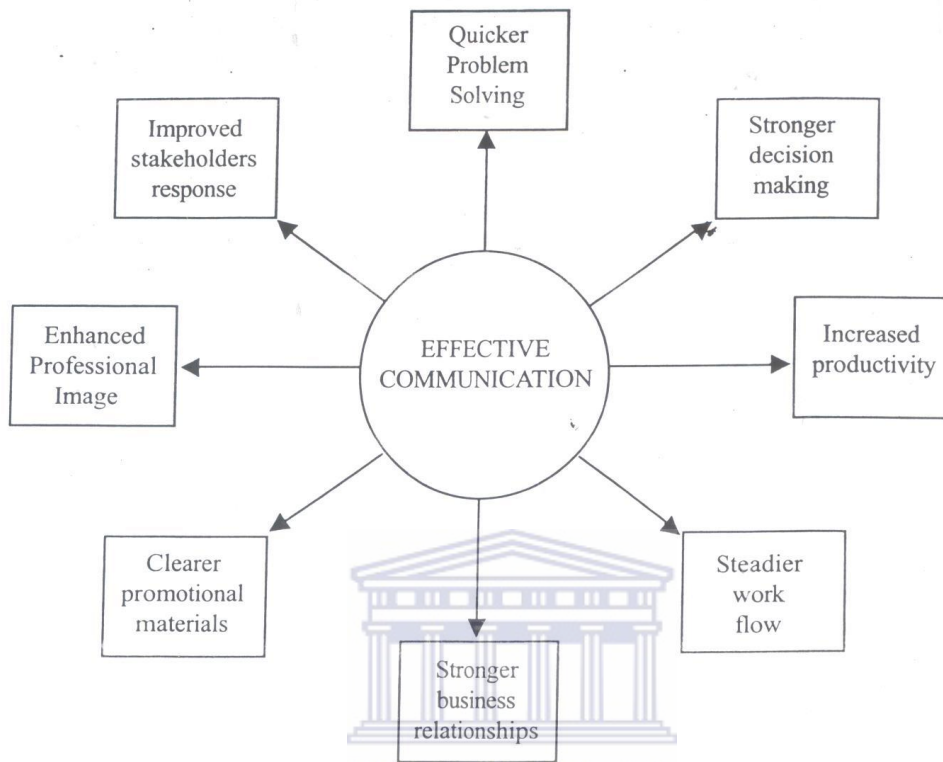
PRONUNCIATION: /ə/ IN UNSTRESSED SYLLABLES

5 The vowel /ə/ comes one or more times in each of the following words (the number of times is shown in brackets). Decide which vowels are pronounced /ə/. Listen to the recording and check your answers; then practise the words.

barman (1) autumn (1) breakfast (1)
compare (1) continue (1) concert (1)
Britain (1) England (1) foreign (1)
London (1) tomato (1) usually (1)
photograph (1) excellent (2) America (2)
accountant (2) agreement (2) dangerous (2)
policeman (2) photographer (3)

6 Listen to the recording and decide how many words there are in each sentence. (Contractions like *don't* count as two words.)

The Benefits of Effective Communication



The survival of a business depends to a great extent on the customers and in every part of the business organisation, communication provides the vital link between the company and its customers.

“To the customer, you are the company,” whether you own the company or working for it in any capacity. Your attitude, when dealing with customers, clients and the public reflect on the company you represent. When you deal with international business people, your attitude will reflect your country and your culture.

Today’s businesses increasingly reach across international borders to market their products, partner with other businesses and employ workers and executives (which forms part of globalisation process).

Communication is also used to promote a product, service, or the company, relay information within the business or deal with legal and similar issues.

An advertisement is also an important aspect of business communication.

Business communication encompasses a variety of topics, including marketing, branding, customer relations, consumer behaviour, advertising, public relations, corporate communication,

Kintira Campus in Nyagatare

18 - 02 - 2015

Copy given to me by
the lecturer.

1 If you want to do business in an English-speaking country, you should learn English, of course. But that is just the first step. You also need to understand the culture. However, there are large cultural differences among English-speaking countries. The differences between the United Kingdom (UK) and countries with shorter histories are especially large. Australia and the United States, for example, are much younger than the UK. Their business cultures are also different. Here is some information that can help you if you do business in the UK.

2 First of all, remember that the UK includes four countries: England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. Each country is proud of its history. Do not make the mistake of calling everyone "English." Instead, use the correct term, "British."

3 Second, when you plan a business trip to the UK, choose your team carefully. The British have more respect for age and experience than people in most other English-speaking countries. Always include older, more experienced people on your team. Do not put a young team member in charge, even if he or she is the most senior member of the group.

4 Third, dress formally. In a dark suit. Do not wear stripes. In the UK, stripes on clothing such as ties can mean that the wearer is a member of a special group. It is best to wear clothing of just one color, such as black, grey, or dark blue. Do not wear bright colors such as pink or yellow.

5 Fourth, keep small talk safe and neutral. For example, talk about the weather or your trip. Most British people are reserved; so do not ask personal questions. And do not expect your British colleagues to show their feelings on their faces or in their voices. Speak more softly than you might in the United States.

6 Fifth, don't try to sell yourself. Sell your business. Your British colleagues are more interested in your business than in you. They do not expect or want gifts or friendship from business colleagues. They do not usually want to know about your family or how you spend your free time. Do not spend a lot of time on small talk. Talk about business.

7 Finally, be patient. Business decisions often take time in the United Kingdom. Older companies find change especially difficult. Do not try to get your British colleagues to make a fast decision. Most of the time, a fast decision will be negative.

8 In conclusion, remember that the UK has a long history and many traditions. In business, the cultural rules are not the same as they are in younger countries such as Australia and the United States.

NAME: UWANKWERA
Marie Rose
Reg No 20136183/
215032675

13
15

In-class assignment

Choose the best synonym for the underlined word

1. They worked from dawn to dusk with such zeal that they were exhausted.

(A) boredom (B) dejection (C) debility (D) Zeal

2. Before they sold their house, they spent two months embellishing it.

(A) trying (B) embellishing (C) sifting (D) planting

3. Working in the park stimulates his interest in zoology.

(A) archeology (B) horticulture (C) zoology (D) Biology

4. The participants in the program were high school students.

(A) donations (B) endeavors (C) gardens (D) participants

II. Choose the best synonym for the underline word.

1. A funeral is a melancholy event.

(A) meaningful (B) medical (C) expensive (D) sorrowful

2. The family deputized a close friend to make the funeral arrangement.

(A) disputed (B) deprived (C) delegated (D) dispatched

NAME: UWANKWERE

Maria Rose

Reg No. PSF20136183/

20150675

5/15

I. put the following sentences in the passive voice

- ① John's house has been being cleaned by Peter ✓
- ② This house was built by people two years ago ✓
- ③ An exam was done by students ~~last~~ two ✓
- ④ A letter has been being written by Jane ✓
- ⑤ Gospel music is ~~not~~ liked by many people ✓

II. Add question tags to the following

1. Don't make noise, Do you? ✓
- ②. There are a lot of people in the market, Aren't they? ✓
- ③. I am interested in his speech, Aren't I? ✓
- ④ Let's have a break, Shall we? ✓
- ⑤ Nobody came to school yesterday, Didn't they? ✓

III. complete the following sentence

- 1- He liked dancing but I didn't ✓
2. He didn't pass. Neither did nor I (I) ✓
3. My sister is good at maths. so as well as ~~her father~~ ✓
4. ~~He failed the exam and her brother~~ (her brother) ✓
4. She failed the exam and her brother ~~didn't~~ ✓



UNIVERSITY OF
RWANDA

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS COMMUNICATION AND LANGUAGES

COURSE NAME: BUSINESS COMMUNICATION I

Name of student: UWANKWERA MAHE ROSE Date: November 26th, 2014

Registration number: PSF20136183/215032675 Time: 1h30

Lecturer: Paul

TOTAL: 170 MARKS

34
70

INSTRUCTIONS

1. This paper has Three (3) main sections. Attempt them all.
2. Write all your answers on this script.
3. Don't forget to write CLEARLY your Lecturer, Names and Reg. Number

UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

SECTION I. READING COMPREHENSION

Read the following passage. Then answer the questions set on it.

Most people can remember a phone number for up to thirty seconds. When this short amount of time elapses, however, the numbers are erased from the memory. How did the information get there in the first place? Information that makes its way to the short term memory (STM) does so via the sensory storage area. The brain has a filter which only allows stimuli that is of immediate interest to pass on to the STM, also known as the working memory.

There is much debate about the capacity and duration of the short term memory. The most accepted theory comes from George A. Miller, a cognitive psychologist who suggested that humans can remember approximately seven chunks of information. A chunk is defined as a meaningful unit of information, such as a word or name rather than just a letter or number. Modern theorists suggest that one can increase the capacity of the short term memory by chunking, or classifying similar information together. By organizing information, one can optimize the STM, and improve the chances of a memory being passed on to long term storage.

When making a conscious effort to memorize something, such as information for an exam, many people engage in "rote rehearsal". By repeating something over and over again, one is able to keep a memory alive. Unfortunately, this type of memory maintenance only succeeds if there are no interruptions. As soon as a person stops rehearsing the information, it has the tendency to disappear. When a pen and paper are not handy, people often attempt to remember a phone number by repeating it aloud. If the doorbell rings or the dog barks to come in before a person has the opportunity to make a phone call, he will likely forget the number instantly.* Therefore, rote rehearsal is not an efficient way to pass information from the short term to long term memory.* A better way is to practice "elaborate rehearsal". *This involves assigning semantic meaning to a piece of information so that it can be filed along with other pre-existing long term memories.*

Encoding information semantically also makes it more retrievable. Retrieving information can be done by recognition or recall. Humans can easily recall memories that are stored in the long term memory and used often; however, if a memory seems to be forgotten, it may eventually be retrieved by prompting. The more cues a person is given (such as pictures), the more likely a memory can be retrieved. This is why multiple choice tests are often used for subjects that require a lot of memorization.

SECTION I: Reading Comprehension /12 marks (Q1 – 4=2 marks each, Q5= 4 marks)

1. According to the passage, how do memories get transferred to the STM?

- A) They revert from the long term memory.
- B) They are filtered from the sensory storage area.
- C) They get chunked when they enter the brain.
- D) They enter via the nervous system.

2. The word **elapses** in paragraph 1 is closest in meaning to:

- A) passes
- B) adds up
- C) appears
- D) continues

3. All of the following are mentioned as places in which memories are stored EXCEPT the:

- A) STM
- B) long term memory
- C) sensory storage area
- D) maintenance area

4. Why does the author mention a dog's bark?

- A) To give an example of a type of memory

- B) To provide a type of interruption
- C) To prove that dogs have better memories than humans
- D) To compare another sound that is loud like a doorbell

5. Briefly, explain how theorists believe a person can remember more information in a short time?

A person can remember more information in a short time by repeating something over and over again in the way of keeping a memory alive.

SECTION II. GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY

A. Grammar

1. Put the following words into the text:

Changed, hated listened, played started, stopped, studied, watched /10 marks

When Angela was young, she hated school. She studied school three times between the ages of 11 and 16. She never listened except before exams, and she stopped studying altogether when she was fourteen. At home, she watched to rock music and played science fiction and cartoons on TV. In the evenings and at weekends, she played the guitar, or changed snooker with friends. When she was sixteen, she started a rock group. She was in four different groups in the next four years. Now Angela is a rock star, and she earns £ 1,000,000 a year. She says, 'I love my work, but I'm sorry I stopped studying at school.'

II. Choose the right tense for each verb. /4 marks

Last night I (have seen/saw) saw an interesting program on Television. It (has been/was) has been about a new way of teaching science subjects to school children. For three years now a school in London (was teaching/is teaching/has been teaching/has taught) is teaching

B. Vocabulary and language in use.

1. Fill in with the words from the list below: /7 marks

Credit risk afford Mortgage co-sign Savings Default credit
evaluation

Mortgages

Most people don't have enough savings to purchase a house so they take out a house loan, which is called a mortgage. Before you get a mortgage, the bank will do a thorough evaluation to make sure you can afford the loan. If the bank feels you are a credit risk they may ask you to find somebody else to co-sign your mortgage. This person will be responsible to pay your mortgage if you default.

II. Match the words with their opposites: /1 mark each Answers:

- | | | |
|---------------|--------------|-------------|
| 1. spend ✓ | (a) deposit | 1. <u>c</u> |
| 2. variable ✓ | (b) lend | 2. <u>e</u> |
| 3. withdraw ✓ | (c) save | 3. <u>b</u> |
| 4. borrow ✓ | (d) sell | 4. <u>a</u> |
| 5. default ✓ | (e) fixed | 5. <u>f</u> |
| 6. purchase ✓ | (f) pay back | 6. <u>d</u> |

SECTION III. Essay Writing /15 marks

Choose one topic and make a short essay on it.

1. The socio economic impact of Saccos in Rwanda
2. The role of financial institution on Rwanda economy

1
Sciences in this way to some of its students, and these students (did/ have done/are doing) ~~are~~
doing significantly better in examinations than the students in ordinary classes.

III. Use the infinitive or -ing form for the verbs in brackets. /8 marks

- 6
1. I would like *to travel* all over the world. (travel)
 2. I think Mary has a good chance *of winning* the election on Monday. (of/win)
 3. *Eating* fatty foods, *to drink* Alcohol and *Smoking* are all bad for your heart. (eat/drink/smoke)
 4. My cousin doesn't really need (work) *to work*, but he enjoys (be) *to be*.... around people and (do) *doing* something useful.

IV. Fill in the correct preposition from the list below: /8 marks

at - below - for - from - in front of - in - next to - towards - with - up - under

- 3
1. Yesterday he was still in Hong Kong but today he should have left *in* Tokyo.
 2. It was terribly cold. It must have been 25 degrees *below* zero.
 3. Although she is 28 she still lives *with* her parents.
 4. I'll never climb *under* that mountain again.
 5. The lion came *for* me so I quickly got into the car.
 6. If you owe money, you are *below* debt.
 7. If you have a savings account, you are keeping your money *out* the bank.
 8. If you take money out of your bank account, you are withdrawing funds *from* your account.

The role of financial institution on Rwanda economy

The role of financial institutions on Rwanda economy there are so many role about financial institution on Rwanda economy it develops our country in many ways below

In Rwanda has financial institution, it gives employment to our citizen and increase welfare of population in Rwanda it construct infrastructure and may facilitate their clients to get a loan and some financial institution it give overdraft to their clients and they accept to deposit money from deposits in case of security

financial institution is very crucial a important in Rwanda economy because it is facilitate people to get money such as loan, overdraft and increase the welfare of the citizen and developping economic of the country

8/15

SECTION C: WRITING / 15 MARKS

Write a ONE-PAGE composition on one of the following topics:

1. Where do you see Rwanda in 20 years from now?
2. Compare Rwanda of 2015 and Rwanda of 1995
3. If you were to convince a foreigner to come and invest in Rwanda, what would you say? Use reasons and examples to show the advantages of investing in Rwanda.

09
15

TOPICS: Where do you see Rwanda in 20 years from now

Rwanda in 20 years from now there are very good ~~is~~ just important in Rwanda vision some time can satisfied people middle in the country there are a good commodity and peace.

Firstly Rwanda in 20 years from now an importante people because increasing manufacturing, political stability, increasing relationship between people, decreasing bad condition, making decision for life on people someone can be fast really, increasing life skills. It can help technology skills using internet. Americalation of Eastern Africa

Normally Rwanda in 20 years from now are increased beginning power of money for country.

? ?

UNIVERSITY OF RWANDA

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS

SECOND SEMESTER 2014-2015

LEVEL II BAS & BBA

REG. N^o:

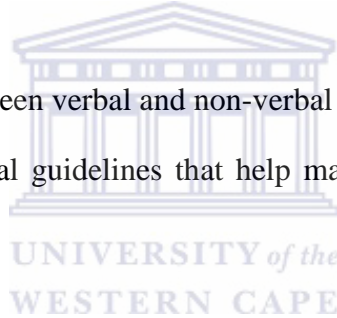
DEPARTMENT:

LECTURER:

DURATION: 1H30

BUSINESS COMMUNICATION CAT OF MAY 12, 2015 (25 MARKS)

1. What do you understand by 'business communication?' (2 marks)
2. Mention and explain 5 key elements in the communication process. (7.5 marks)
3. Name and explain 3 types of language/semantic barriers. (3 marks)
4. List and explain five factors involved in the choice of the channel of communication. (7.5 marks)
5. What is the difference between verbal and non-verbal communication? (2 marks)
6. Explain three of the general guidelines that help maintain effective communication. (3 marks)



PROGRAM:

**MODULE CODE AND TITLE: BUC224/ENG: BUSINESS COMMUNICATION
NUMBER OF CREDITS: 10**

FINAL EXAMINATION

Level: 2 Semester: 2 ACADEMIC YEAR: 2014-2015 Date: 30/05/2015

Time allowed: 2 Hours:

REG. NBR:

Maximum marks: 50

GROUP/LECTURER:

INSTRUCTIONS:

- **This paper is made of 3 Sections A, B and C**
- **Write your answers in the provided space within the question paper**

Section A: Job Application and CV Writing/20 Marks

I. Imagine you graduated from the University of Rwanda and got a Master's degree in Business Administration. Taking into consideration the following information:

- An advertisement seen in the New Times N^o 2312 of April 25, 2015
- Subject of the advertisement: A KCB Manager/Dar-es-Salam Branch
- Qualification: - A Master's degree in BBA
- A two-year experience in management
- Write to: The General Manager of KCB
P.O. Box 100 Nairobi

A. Write a job application letter in the space below. /10 Marks

B. Write a CV to be appended to this job application letter./10 Marks

Section B: Oral Communication /20 Marks

Using the space below, attempt any two questions of your choice (each question is worth 10 marks)

1. Suppose you are selected for a job and you are scheduled for an interview, describe how you prepare and sit for an interview. (10 Marks)
2. As a student of Business Management, explain by giving relevant examples, what you have gained from the study of Business Communication. (10 Marks)
3. Discuss the barriers that may hinder communication to effectively reach the intended receiver. (10 Marks)
4. In business, certain messages are best conveyed face-to-face rather than through the written form. What are the benefits of written communication in a business organization? (10 Marks)
5. Discuss advantages and disadvantages of oral communication in a business environment. (10 Marks)
6. Giving relevant examples, discuss the reasons for carrying out interviews in any given Enterprise or Institution. (10 Marks)
7. If you were appointed a chairperson of a meeting, explain the role you would play to ensure the success of that meeting. (10 Marks)

Answer for Section B Question No.....

.....
.....
.....



Answer for Section B Question No.....


.....
.....
.....

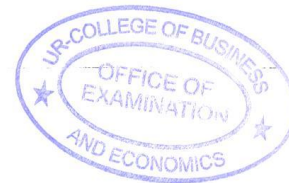
Section C: Punctuation and Capitalization /10 Marks

Correct the Punctuation and Capitalization Errors in the paragraph below (there are twenty of them)

on february 1 you decide to host a may 1st meeting on hurricane preparedness it will be open to all local, State, and voluntary organization representatives who work in emergency management you consult government phone books to obtain the fax numbers of all related agencies and send the information out mid-february you want as many attendees as possible so you send the information in the form of a flyer and hope that it will be shared among all office personnel you also post the flyer on government Web sites and on City Hall bulletin boards on the day of the assembly you are surprised to find a very small turnout how could you have used technology to increase the impact of the meeting announcement and the number of attendees

Answer sheet

Names:	Ukwizomvirengi J. Baptiste
Reg. Number:	G5F 2013 6453/215030517
Year of study:	Level II DAY
Course code:	Ins 211
Course title:	Insurance
Date:	28th/11/2014
Signature:	



30
/
60

Om1) * Sum Insured = 175 000 000 000
 - Premium = 0.275%
 - Loss = 45.000 000
 - Salvage 4000 000

Insurer	%	Sum Insured	Premium	Loss	Salvage
Donarwa	25	43,750,000,000	52,562,500	11,250,000	3,500,000
Boora	15	26,250,000,000	30,937,500	6,750,000	2,100,000
Parar	10	17,500,000,000	2,062,500	4,500,000	1,400,000
Phoenix	10	17,500,000,000	2,062,500	4,500,000	1,400,000
Logear	10	17,500,000,000	2,062,500	4,500,000	1,400,000
Radiant	10	17,500,000,000	2,062,500	4,500,000	1,400,000
UAP	10	17,500,000,000	2,062,500	4,500,000	1,400,000
Britann	10	17,500,000,000	2,062,500	4,500,000	1,400,000
		175 000 000 000	45 000 000	45 000 000	14 000 000

2) The main characteristics are

- The Insured must stand in the relationship of the subject matter of insurance.
- There must be property, right, interest, or limb and potential liability must be able for being insured.
- Such property, right, interest must be subject matter of insurance.
- The Insured and the Subject matter of insurance must be recognised at the law.

am "Shifted"

Insurer	%	Sum Insured	Premium	Loss	Salvage
Sonanda	25	18 750 000 000	5 256 250	11 250 000	35 000 000
Soras	15	11 250 000 000	3 093 750	6 750 000	21 000 000
Soras	10	7 500 000 000	2 062 500	4 500 000	14 000 000
Phonex	10	7 500 000 000	2 062 500	4 500 000	14 000 000
Cogear	10	7 500 000 000	2 062 500	4 500 000	14 000 000
Radiant	10	7 500 000 000	2 062 500	4 500 000	14 000 000
UAP	10	7 500 000 000	2 062 500	4 500 000	14 000 000
Britann	10	7 500 000 000	2 062 500	4 500 000	14 000 000
		175 000 000 000	45 000 000	14 000 000	14 000 000

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

SECTION B

Any the Insurable Interest is created by 3 element.

It can be created through ~~Common~~ law
For this statement it can be created through the ownership of the property.

* Created by Contract: This statement the Insurable Interest can be created through a provisionally contract where a man who is not liable can be liable for the temporary period.

EX: In case an engineer who is constructing a house of some, He can take a contract until to finish his house.

• Created by the Statute: For example in case of land tenant and land lord where land tenant can insure his assets - the land itself.

Also the rule which increase the value of women where they were under insured by the several years.

Qm2

those factors are the following

- Average = where $\frac{\text{Sum Insured}}{\text{Market Value}} \times \text{Loss}$
- Deductible: refers to the Amount that the insured wishes to be deducted as a premium
- EXCESS: the Amount that the Insurance Company can not pay
- Franchise: the Amount which any Insurance Company can pay, but if it is excess, they pay all your losses.
- Factor limit Any one item: For these statement they are some items that can limit any one to go to
- Sum insured: ex! Ask to be indemnified
→ refers to the Amount that Insured has ensure in the Insurance Company to be indemnified in case of losses.

Qm3 Insurable Interest: constitutes the legal right to insuring arising out of the financial relationship recognised by the law between the Insured and ?

The essential elements are:

- 1) The Insured must stand in the Relationship of the subject matter of Insurance
- 2) The Insured and Subject matter of Insurance must be recognized by the law
- 3) Such property, right, interest, must be Subject matter of Insurance
- 4) The property like right, interest and potential liability must be able for being insured.



UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE