IMPLEMENTING THE NEW AND LOCALISED ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM IN RURAL SCHOOL CONTEXTS IN SWAZILAND: THE CASE OF THE LUBOMBO REGION

By

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STATEMENT OF ORIGINALITY

The work contained in this thesis was completed by the author at the University of KwaZulu-Natal between January 2012 and January 2016. It is original work except where due reference is made. The work will not, and has not been submitted for any award in any university for any diploma or any degree except the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Signature……………………………………………………..

Date……………………………………………………..

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my son Kono, and my daughter Ntu. Thank you so much for the encouragement as well as the support. I have gone through it, so can you!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

IGCSE: International General Certificate of Secondary Education

SGCSE: Swaziland General Certificate of Secondary Education

REO: Regional Education Office

HIV: Human Immuno Virus

AIDS: Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome

FPE: Free Primary Education

SPC: Swaziland Primary Certificate

JC: Junior Certificate

ECOS: Examination Council of Swaziland

GCE-O- Level: General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level

CIE: Cambridge International Examinations

IBE: International Bureau of Education

ESL: English as a Second Language

ENL: English as a Native Language

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

PTI: Principal Teacher Interaction

ABSTRACT

The study explored the implementation of the new and localised Swaziland General Certificate of Secondary Education (SGCSE) English language curriculum in rural school contexts at senior secondary school level in the Lubombo region of Swaziland. It was based on the premise that for many years until 2006, the curriculum that was in use in Swaziland was the GCE O- level. In 2006, the curriculum was replaced with the International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE), which was later localised to the Swaziland General Certificate of Secondary Education (SGCSE). Studies conducted on the former curriculum revealed that rural school English language teachers were still experiencing challenges implementing the former curriculum although the curriculum had been in place for a long time. Moreover, this curriculum was not as demanding as the new and localised curriculum in terms of materials and infrastructure. The former curriculum viewed the teacher as the only custodian of information whereas the new and localised curriculum views both teachers and learners as equal partners in knowledge production. This study utilised the mixed method approach. Twenty three (23) English Language teachers that had been randomly selected from twenty three rural senior secondary schools in the Lubombo region of Swaziland participated in the study. The study utilized open-ended questionnaires, one on one interviews and classroom observations for the collection of data. Data were analysed thematically using content analysis. The study found that most of the suggested teaching methods were not applicable in the rural school context as a result teachers were confined to only those teaching methods that were applicable. It also found that most of the teaching materials and infrastructure required for this curriculum was not available in rural schools, hence teachers improvised. In addition, rural senior secondary school learners were not represented in the setting of external examinations and this resulted in them performing badly in these examinations. The non-representation of rural senior secondary school learners was against the stipulations of a localised curriculum because this curriculum is supposed to cater for the needs of the learners in their specific environment. The study therefore suggested a model to be used in the examinations which will ensure that both rural and urban school learners are represented in the setting of external examinations.

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CHAPTER 1
ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

This chapter introduces the study which explored the implementation of the new and localised Swaziland General Certificate of Secondary Education (SGCSE) English language curriculum in the rural school context of the Lubombo region of Swaziland. The chapter gives the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, limitations of the study, delimitations of the study, definition of key terms as used in the study, an indication of the contents of the next chapters and the summary and conclusion of the chapter.

1.1 Background to the study

Swaziland is a land-locked country in Southern Africa and is almost entirely surrounded by South Africa. It shares boarders with South Africa to the North, South, and West, with Mozambique to the East. The country was under British colonial rule from 1906 to1967. While still a British colony, the then government of South Africa made numerous approaches to Britain to allow South Africa to take over Swaziland but Britain refused. Swaziland therefore remained a British colony until she got independent in 1968 (Domson-Lindsay, 2014). After getting independent, the Swaziland government has had the privilege of making sole decisions regarding the country as well as issues that touch education. Even in coming up with the Swaziland General Certificate of Secondary Education (SGCSE) English Language curriculum, the government never consulted other countries.

The country's location and its land-locked position have made it to largely rely on South Africa for a number of things. These include imports, exports, and institutions of higher learning (Domson-Lindsay, 2014). In addition, Swaziland depends on South Africa for jobs, more especially in the mines and this has been the trend since the discovery of diamonds and gold towards the end of the 19th century. The trend has continued to the present as Ntiwane (2015) reports that there are currently 3, 867 Swazis that are working in mines in South Africa. Most of these miners are from the rural areas in Swaziland, and do not have much education that can give them good jobs back home. While these Swazis together with their families benefit from the income that they get from the mines, the absence of the heads of the families from homes for long periods has had serious implications on the households themselves and also on the education of the children. It has led to the development of single-

headed households and an increase in the dropout rate of learners owing to lack of discipline on the children, the desire of the male children to join their fathers in the mines, and the desire of the girls to get themselves boyfriends and later on husbands who work in the mines who can support them (Khumalo, 2013). My view is that learners with this mentality may not take their school work seriously as they have other desires other than being educated. This in turn could have an impact in not just the implementation of a particular curriculum, but the education of these learners as a whole.

As already mentioned, Swaziland depends on South Africa for higher education. A substantial number of Swazi students study at South African universities. This is because of the limited capacity and programmes that are offered by universities in Swaziland. While generally, the number of programmes that are offered by Swazi universities is limited, South African universities offer varied programmes from which students can choose. Swaziland's economy is also largely dependent on South Africa. Domson-Lindsay (2014) states that Swaziland's currency is equivalent to the South African currency. This is because Swaziland is a member of the South African Customs Union and therefore its economic and monetary policies are formed in Pretoria, the administrative and capital city of the Republic of South Africa. The relations between Swaziland and South Africa are an indication that Swaziland is indeed highly dependent on South Africa despite that the two countries are separated by a border. The borders are ambivalent because there are certain areas where people from both countries are allowed to pass through without a passport. The boarders are also arbitrary as this can be seen from the ease in moving in and out of the citizens of these two countries. This situation requires Swaziland to maintain friendly relations, display a compliant act, and exhibit a co-operative and a non-confrontational policy towards South Africa, lest the country loses everything and plunge into economic chaos (Domson-Lindsay, 2014). The Swazi curriculum is also aligned to that of South Africa because of the factors mentioned. It is for the above reason that this study focuses on the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum to determine whether its introduction is still compliant to the South African education system.

1.1.1 The Lubombo Region

Swaziland has 4 (four) administrative regions. These are Hhohho, Manzini, Shiselweni, and the Lubombo regions. Learners in the Lubombo region always come last in all external examinations. In addition, the whole region is mostly rural (Stewart, 2012). Each region has an education office which is headed by a Regional Education Officer (R.E.O). The education

offices function as independent centres and are responsible for attending to all issues affecting schools in that region. Another responsibility of the education offices is to disseminate information from the Ministry of Education to the schools. The Lubombo region has a small town which consists of shops, banks, and a small library. There are also a number of shopping complexes that are scattered all over the region. The region has fifty four (54) senior secondary schools. Forty (40) of these are rural and the remainder are urban and semi-urban (The Regional Education Officer, Lubombo).

The Lubombo is the most poverty stricken region because it is the hottest as well as the driest part of the country. The region also has the highest number of unemployed people (Stewart, 2012; Pond, Michels, & Bonifacio, 2015). Poverty and underdevelopment in rural areas date back to colonial times. The region also has a very high prevalence of HIV/AIDS which has resulted in a number of households that are child-headed because their parents died from HIV/AIDS related illnesses (Swaziland Ministry of Health, 2014; Hill, 2014). Among other causes of the high prevalence of the epidemic is the long absence of the men who work in South African mines and other places away from home (International Organisation for Immigration, 2015).

 Gianelli and Mangiavicchi (2010) observe that the effects that the migration of fathers have on the children are serious, as such children have problems of school attendance, academic performance, behavioural, and emotional problems. Fathers are traditionally the active disciplinarians in homes and usually ensure that children are on their best behaviour at home and in all school related issues. Their absence is therefore associated with children's behavioural problems which negatively affect their education. It is in the light of the above that this study explored the implementation of the Swaziland General Certificate of Secondary Education (SGCSE) English Language curriculum in the rural schools.

As already indicated earlier, there is a very high prevalence of the HIV/AIDS pandemic in the Lubombo region, which has led to the deaths of most parents in the rural areas. The majority of those still alive are sick because they are infected with HIV/AIDS and they are in most cases looked after by their children and relatives (Swaziland Ministry of Health, 2014; Hill, 2014). Despite different forms of development that have been undertaken in the region, the region still lacks basic amenities such as clean water supplies, electricity, proper roads and easy access to schools, hospitals and towns. The roads are generally bad and this has

contributed to the scarcity of transport that is experienced in the region (Swaziland Ministry of Health, 2014; Hill, 2014).

Figure 1 is the map of Swaziland showing the country's four regions. As it can be seen Swaziland is surrounded by South Africa to the north, south, and west, with Mozambique surrounding it to the east, thus the country is land-locked and therefore depends on the neighbouring countries, specifically South Africa for higher learning. The Lubombo region is also shown in the map and this is where the study was conducted.

Figure 1: Map of Swaziland showing the country's four regions

1.2 Formal education in Swaziland

Formal education is not indigenous to the Swazi society. It was introduced in the country by the British in 1902. Booth (1999) and Khumalo (2013) state that the reason why formal education was introduced by the British to Swaziland was that the British who had colonised the country wanted to provide their children with formal education. The British set up government maintained schools where   education was both free and compulsory for all children of British nationality. This kind of education was modelled on the segregationist system that was developed in the Transvaal province in South Africa. Swazi children did not have access to this education as it was meant for British children only. Swazi children only got access to formal education in 1917, and this was provided by missionaries. These missionaries were the Methodist and the Lutheran who were later followed by the church of the Nazarene and the Roman Catholic Church (Nsibande, 2007). The British administration ratified the Native Education Proclamation in 1940, giving the European Director of Education authority and control over all African schools (Booth, 1999). All schools in Swaziland were therefore controlled by this director.

Booth (1999) and Dlamini (2010) also note that the education that was offered to Swazi children was left to the discretion of the missionaries and the government which was then headed by the British. Swazis did not have a say in the education that was given to them or their children. The agreement between the missionaries and the government was that the education of Swazi children and British children should not be the same. British children and Swazi children therefore did not go to the same schools. Segregation, discrimination, and inequality between Swazis and the British did not only end with race but it also extended to education. Whilst children of British nationality went to government owned schools, Swazi children went to missionary owned schools. The British view on the kind of education to be offered to the Swazis was that it should enable the educated Swazi to 'occupy a special place in the society' (Watts, 1924, p.2 in Khumalo, 2013). This kind of education is best expressed in a memorandum by the most notable pioneer in mission education in Swaziland, the late Reverend Bishop, Christopher C. Watts, to the British Resident Commissioner of Swaziland in 1924, he said:

> A native probably requires education up to standard 4 …He must be able to write a letter, add up money, and be able to understand weights and measures. He must have his intelligence and ambitions stimulated by some general knowledge such as given in

this standard and should then receive Agriculture and manual training (Watts 1924, p.2 in Khumalo, 2013).

This therefore was the kind of education that was deemed suitable for Swazis; the one that enabled them to get paid a meagre salary, and did not go beyond their ability to write a letter, to add money, and to understand weights and measures. The British also felt that only primary education, and nothing beyond, was appropriate for Swazis as they could only go to school up to Standard 4. This is what the colonizers regarded as befitting and useful education for Swazis (Dlamini, 2010; Khumalo, 2013). Beneficial education to Swazis in the view of British colonial administration meant emphasising agriculture and manual training because it was believed that learners could use their agricultural skills to do farming in case of lack of formal employment.

The education that was offered by the missionaries to the Swazis was also neither free nor compulsory. Swazi parents had to pay for their children's education while British children enjoyed free education. This went on until 2010 when the Swazi government started implementing Free Primary Education (Khumalo, 2013). Before the introduction of Free Primary Education, only those Swazis who were willing, and could afford it, sent their children to school (Booth 1999). The curriculum in both government and missionary owned schools however, was Euro-centric. A Euro-centric curriculum is one that places emphasis on European and Western concerns, culture, and values, at the expense of other cultures. It is also education that is centred in Europe and other Western countries instead of the country where it is implemented (Chukwuolo, 2009). Such was the education that was given to Swazi learners. After some time, the curriculum shifted to reading, writing and arithmetic and for a long time the focus of the curriculum was on the 3Rs which are reading, writing, and arithmetic. The situation changed when Swaziland attained her independence in 1968. After independence more practical subjects started being included in the curriculum (Booth, 1999). These subjects were to cater for the learners that were not academically inclined but could earn a living through these practical subjects.

Since its introduction, the education system of Swaziland was like that of Britain, structurally. It focused more on academic subjects. Even after independence it continued to be theoretical despite the introduction of a few practical subjects. The curriculum was designed the British style and the examination standards and rules used were those of Britain.

The school leaving certificate examination was set and marked in Britain and it followed the British style. The accreditation of the school leaving certificate examinations was also done in Britain (Khumalo, 2013). This, according to Booth (1999) seemed to put those Swazi children who were successful, at an advantage, as they could fit internationally. However, it did not provide them with their needs as Swazis or Africans, as it was too British, except for those who wanted to venture into farming.

The Western formal education system that had come with the colonial rule was racially segregating since it separated learners according to race. Swazi and European learners did not go to the same schools. This went on until 1963 when Waterford Kamhlaba (an independent school) was established in opposition to the sub-standard education that was given to Swazi children. This school offered the curriculum that was offered to learners of British nationality to children of all nations despite their race or colour (Dlamini, 2010; Khumalo, 2013). After the establishment of Waterford Kamhlaba the country has experienced the emergence of a number of private schools whose curriculum is different from that used in government schools but is similar if not exactly the same as that of South Africa. Learners in private schools sit for Matric and while those in government schools sit for the SGCSE examination. The curriculum used in these private schools is evidence of the inequality of the education that still exists in Swaziland.

It is important to note that the Western curriculum which had a formal structure and required learners to sit for an examination was not congruent with the traditional African education and values. It required Swazi children to go through the process of acculturation and learning to live between two cultures and in my opinion the learners had to do this without having been afforded the opportunity to adapt. Its introduction also made Swazi learners grapple with a curriculum that was in conflict with their own traditional education and this happened for a very long time, between 1902 and 2006. This curriculum was eventually localised in 2009(The Ministry of Education, 2005). Just when the Swazi children were in the process of adapting, the IGCSE was introduced in Swaziland and it was later localised to SGCSE.

As already mentioned from independence up to 1989 Swaziland wanted to localise the curriculum (The Ministry of Education, 2008), this desire eventually became realized in 2006 when the curriculum was changed and then localised in 2009 (The Ministry of Education, 2005). The introduction and localisation of the curriculum meant that the Swazi children had to go back and do a curriculum of traditional education that they had been forced to give up.

This required more difficult adaptations which disrupted the academic progress of learners. Teachers also had to go through the same mind set adjustment. The Ministry of Education and Training Sector Policy (2011), Khumalo (2013), and Marope (2010), state that Swaziland follows a 7-3-2 format of education. The primary school education offers a seven-year program which starts from Grade one to Grade seven. After Grade seven, learners proceed to secondary school level which is divided into three years for junior secondary school and two years for senior secondary school. The first external examination that learners sit for is the Swaziland Primary School Certificate examination (SPC). They write it at the end of their primary education. The second is the Junior Secondary Certificate (JC) examination which they write at the end of their junior secondary education. Both examinations are administered by the Examination Council of Swaziland (ECOS). Before the introduction of SGCSE, at the end of senior secondary school, learners sat for the General Certificate of Education Ordinary level (GCE-O-Level) examination. However, that has changed as learners now sit for the Swaziland General Certificate of Secondary Education (SGCSE) examination, a localised version of the International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE).

There are some learners, however, who still sit for the IGCSE examination. These are learners who are enrolled in private schools for their senior secondary education. All learners in government schools sit for the SGCSE examination while learners in private schools either sit for IGCSE or Matric. After attaining the school leaving certificate, learners either qualify to do bachelor degrees which are offered by the three universities in Swaziland, or they qualify for entry into colleges and other tertiary institutions. The duration for the bachelor degrees is four years while the college qualifications normally take three years (The Ministry of Education and Training Sector Policy, 2011; Khumalo, 2013).

1.3 Education policies in Swaziland

The history of the education policy in Swaziland commenced shortly after independence in 1968, precisely, between 1969 and 1973. Khumalo (2013) asserts that the government's aim during this period was to make education free as well as basic for all Swazi children. Another aim was to train teachers for them to provide quality education to the learners. Government's decision towards this aim arose from the realisation that a substantial number of children were not in school due to financial reasons. The quality of education that was offered in the schools was poor resulting from the fact that teaching was mostly done by unqualified teachers. Khumalo (2013) further notes that most Mathematics and Science teachers were expatriates as most Swazis had not been trained on how to handle these subjects. The

curriculum then was also highly academic as Agriculture was the only practical subject that was offered. Other practical subjects such as carpentry, woodwork, home economics, and metal works were not available (Khumalo, 2013). The new and localised Swaziland General Certificate of Secondary Education (SGCSE) is offered in circumstances that are different because a range of practical subjects are now available and the minimum requirement for teaching at high school level is a degree.

Between 1973 and 1978, government decided to restructure the whole education system and this resulted in the formation of the National Education Commission in 1972 whose purpose was to monitor the restructuring process. The process resulted in the establishment of an Education Advisory Board whose mandate was to advise government on all education related issues. The commission also introduced a new education act, the Education Act of 1973. However, nothing was done by the commission with regards to the introduction of Free Primary Education (FPE). Between 1979 and 1983, government made the move to increase access to education by building more schools and "expanding teacher training programmes" (Khumalo, 2013, p. 22) and curriculum development. This saw the establishment of Ngwane Teachers' Training College and the construction of a number of schools both primary and secondary.

In 2005 Swaziland adopted a new constitution which compelled government to implement Free Primary Education. The government was however unable to implement it. Civic society organisations started putting pressure on government with no success until the Swaziland National Ex-Miners Association challenged government in court and won the case (Khumalo, 2013). The government therefore had to adhere to the court's ruling and implement the Free Primary Education. The implementation of Free Primary Education started in 2010 and has continued since then (Khumalo, 2013). The constitution period brought a number of changes in the education policy. One of the changes was the country's desire to have a localised curriculum, one that would be relevant to the needs of the Swazi learners. The new and localised SGCSE curriculum is a result of the changes that came with the constitution period. Currently, all operations of the education system of the country are based on the Swaziland Education and Training Sector Policy (2011), which is the first policy that specifically addresses issues that relate to the country's education system in its entirety. This is because after independence the Ministry of Education did not have a stipulated education policy but was using individual documents and sub-sector policies. One example of such a policy is the Draft Education Policy (1999) which however did not develop into a fully-fledged policy

document (Swaziland Education and Training Sector Policy, 2011). The purpose of the education policy is to provide a framework upon which all operations that relate to education are based, and ensure that the policy aligns itself with global, regional, and national policy initiatives (The Swaziland Education Sector Policy, 2011). In relation to the country's curriculum, this means designing a curriculum that will enable the graduates to integrate into the local, global, and international world.

1.4 Introduction of the new and localised SGCSE curriculum

For many years until 2006, the curriculum that was used for all subjects at Senior Secondary School level in Swaziland was the General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level (GCE-O-Level). In 2006, however, IGCSE, the International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE), later localised into the Swaziland General Certificate of Secondary Education (SGCSE) replaced it. The reasons for the introduction of IGCSE are varied. The Ministry of Education (2005) says the IGCSE curriculum resulted from an evaluation that was done by the Ministry of Education on the former GCE -O-Level curriculum. During this evaluation it was discovered that the curriculum was no longer relevant for the modern world. It was therefore decided that it should be changed.

The Ministry of Education (2008) says the IGCSE curriculum was suggested to Swaziland by the University of Cambridge International Examinations (CIE) after having decided to phase out the GCE - O-Level examinations which had become expensive as other countries of the world had stopped using it. Pereira (2012), on the other hand, reveals that IGCSE resulted from inconsistencies between the cultural and structural mechanisms of the country which were in conflict as they viewed reality from different viewpoints. However, it would seem affordability was the main reason for the introduction of IGCSE. The CIE trained local teachers on how to teach, set, as well as mark the examination (The Ministry of Education, 2008). Before the localisation of the curriculum to SGCSE, CIE representatives came to the country to train teachers on the implementation of the curriculum and also on how to set and conduct the examinations, specifically the oral examinations since they were a new aspect of the examination because in the former curriculum they were not done (The Ministry of Education, 2008). The IGCSE curriculum was therefore introduced to Swazi schools in 2006, and in 2009 it was localised to SGCSE (The Examination Council of Swaziland, (ECOS) Newsletter 2010).

The introduction of the IGCSE curriculum and its localisation to SGCSE was met with a lot of opposition from a number of people in Swaziland (Gamedze, 2010). Members of parliament, parents, learners, teachers, were calling for its removal from the education system of Swaziland as they felt that it was lower in standard when compared to the former GCE- O-Level curriculum. This was because they argued that learners with this qualification are not directly accepted by some South African universities, yet such was not the case with the former GCE-O-Level where learners were accepted unconditionally. Special attention was given to South African universities because South Africa is near Swaziland so most Swazi learners go to South Africa for their tertiary education. South African universities require learners with this qualification to do bridging courses before they can be admitted because of the perception that the SGCSE certificate is lower than the South African National Senior Certificate (Mazibuko, 2013). People therefore felt that the new and localised curriculum would disadvantage learners as they could only be admitted into the local universities. This was a challenge in that the universities in Swaziland do not have the capacity to admit all learners because they are small. Also, the nature of the programs that are offered in the local universities is limited so learners have to go to other universities outside Swaziland for those programs that are not offered (Mazibuko, 2013).

Although the Ministry of Education has tried to convince people that SGCSE is just what Swazi learners need for their education, Gamedze (2010) and Pereira (2012) observe that the curriculum is not favoured by many people. Gamedze (2010) says that all relevant stakeholders in education, that is parents, teachers, politicians, felt that the shift from GCE-O-Level to SGCSE really disadvantaged learners; hence, they view the move as a lowering of education standards. Replacing the GCE-O-Level with SGCSE was viewed by parents and teachers as 'a mistake of all times' by the Ministry of Education (Gamedze, 2010, p. 148). With the GCE- O-Level curriculum, learners could be admitted into any university unconditionally, yet with this one there are some conditions. Giving her own description of IGCSE, Pereira (2012, p. i) describes it as 'weakly classified and framed in terms of pedagogic practices'. Pereira (2012) reveals that IGCSE was not appropriate for Swazi learners because it required the use of teaching methods which according to her study were not appropriate for the Swazi context. Such teaching methods are those that view teachers as not the only custodians of information, but learners as responsible for finding information for themselves.

Another complaint about the SGCSE curriculum came out from the *Times of Swaziland* by Sigangeni (2012). He said his application had been turned down by the University of KwaZulu-Natal where he wanted to pursue a Bachelor of Science in Biomedical Science. He was told that if he had done GCE- O-Level he would have got the place. This was despite that Sigangeni (2012) had distinctions in all the subjects that he wrote for the SGCSE School leaving certificate examination. This incident provides an example of how limiting the new and localised curriculum is in terms of Swazi learners being offered places at South African universities. The new and localised curriculum deprives its graduates from entry into universities in South Africa. The current curriculum is therefore confined within Swaziland.

1.5 The IGCSE/SGCSE curriculum

The IGCSE/SGCSE curriculum is in many aspects different from the GCE-O-Level curriculum. The Ministry of Education (2005) highlights that the IGCSE/SGCSE curriculum does not view the teacher as the only custodian of information, as learners are required to find information for themselves. The new and localised curriculum views the teacher as someone who does not have monopoly over knowledge, but views learners as important people who should be involved in knowledge construction. Among some of the methods proposed for use in this curriculum are discussions, which can be done in pairs, small groups, or as a whole class, with the teacher facilitating the discussions, problem solving, question and answer, field work, research/project work, group work, role-play/drama, and the use of resource persons. Other techniques that can be used in this curriculum are interviews and impromptu speeches. Emphasis in this curriculum is on the use of teaching materials such as CD ROMS, charts, maps, the internet, teacher made teaching aids as well as learner made teaching aids. Language laboratories, systems for recording, systems for playing CDs for listening, television, well-stocked libraries with appropriate books, books that have CDs for listening and listening exercises; are a requirement for the SGCSE English language curriculum (The Ministry of Education, 2005).

The new and localised English language curriculum requires learners to extensively use English for all the activities that they do. The purpose of doing this is to ensure practice in the language so as to attain competency and fluency. This can be done through discussions which can be done in groups, pairs and the whole class. It is believed that once learners are competent in the language they will be ready for the external examinations (The Ministry of Education, 2005). As already alluded to above, there are specific teaching methods that have been suggested for use with this curriculum, and one of them is group discussions. The belief

is that these discussions will give learners the opportunity to use the language as both the discussions and the presentations will be in English.

In the new and localised English Language curriculum, learners are assessed orally yet this was not the case with the GCE-O-Level curriculum (The Ministry of Education, 2005). This means learners have to be both proficient and fluent in English so as to do well in the oral examinations. In order to do this, they need to practise speaking in English. They also need to have information on different topics so that whatever topic they may be required to talk about during the orals, they may do so without a problem (The Ministry of Education, 2005). Learners also need to have access to not just computers but the internet, so that they find information on different topics for themselves. It also means that learners need to have access to libraries as this is where they can get information. This would also mean that libraries must be available in all schools. The libraries will not only be used for information purposes, but will also be used by learners to read so as to improve their English for better expression so that they are prepared for the oral English examination (The Ministry of Education, 2005).

1.6 Curriculum Localisation

Curriculum localisation is defined by Taylor (2004) as freedom that is accorded to schools or local education authorities to adjust the curriculum in such a way that it suits the local conditions/environment in which it is offered. This is done so that there can be a connection between the school and the community. Such a connection ensures that what is learnt at school is both relevant and meaningful to the needs and the lives of the learners as learners are able to integrate school, home, and the community (Taylor, 2004). The integration of all these three is a guarantee that learners will benefit from the curriculum.

The International Bureau of Education (IBE) (2002) and Thesia (2012) suggest that in order to ensure that learners fully benefit from a curriculum that is offered, it is very important that the curriculum be localised. Localising the curriculum includes among other things, the use of local materials, the local designing of the curriculum, local setting of examinations, local assessment, local marking and local grading of examination scripts. Abraham (2003) and Bennion (2001) are also in agreement with this assertion as they point out that curriculum localisation includes among other things, making modifications on the curriculum to suit local conditions. They further say that this is important in the sense that it makes the curriculum both meaningful and relevant to the learners, and this contributes to good quality education.

Dasen and Akkari (2008) affirm that it is very important that local cultures be in control of the curriculum and also that the education system of a country be developed within the culture of that country, have traces of the culture, as well as provide knowledge and skills necessary for the development of that culture as this makes the curriculum meaningful and effective. Thesia (2012) is also of the same view that localising a country's curriculum makes the curriculum more effective. He goes on to say that a country's curriculum can only be said to be effective if it is related to the society in which it is implemented. Being related to the society means having traces of the society such as the beliefs, values, and culture of the society. In this regard, it is important to always ensure that whenever reform in education is considered it is aligned with cultural transformations (Zajda, 2015).

Localising the curriculum is also a way of ensuring the provision of quality education through relevance in local, cultural and socio-economic contexts of the learners. In addition, curriculum localisation ensures flexibility as the resources and materials used are those that are known locally (IBE, 2002; Thesia, 2012; Zajda, 2015). Examples that are used are local ones; hence, everything that is learnt becomes both relevant and meaningful to the learners. However, the IBE (2002) is quick to point out that the implementation of a localised curriculum does not normally come easy as there are always challenges that are encountered. Some of these challenges are lack of material resources, fear of what might happen in the future, and teachers' resistance to offer the localised curriculum, which stems from the knowledge that the localisation of the curriculum will come with new roles that the teachers would have to assume.

In addition, teachers sometimes fear that they will have to take on additional responsibilities, perform tasks that they have been performing in the past in a different way, and change their roles from being experts to learners, as what they would be doing would be new. Dasen & Akkari (2008) conclude that all these challenges make the localisation of the curriculum difficult. Furthermore, they envisage challenges in achieving localisation in practice more especially when the local is entrenched in a small developing nation reliant on support from other nations. All this, they say, can be stressful, frustrating, and difficult (IBE 2002). The IBE (2002) also posits that it is imperative, that when a curriculum is introduced and localised, educators understand the demands that the new changes will have on both themselves and the learners, so that they can prepare themselves for them. It is also important that the people implementing the curriculum be notified of the intended changes as well as be invited to make an input so that they can develop ownership of the curriculum. Often times if

this is not done they will reject it (Gamedze 2010). Despite the challenges, Bennion (2001) confirms that the localisation of any educational program ensures education that is meaningful as well as relevant to the learners' contexts.

To ensure a smooth running of the localisation process, the IBE (2002) suggests that it is important that after a curriculum has been localised, a follow up is made for purposes of identifying the problematic areas so that necessary support can be given to the teachers to ensure the fulfilment of the expectations of policy makers and the public. This is what the researcher intended to do in the study. The belief was that the exploration of the implementation of the new and localised SGCSE English Language curriculum would reveal some problematic areas, and this would enable teachers to get the support that they needed if possible.

The Examination Council of Swaziland (ECOS) newsletter (2010) describes the localisation of IGCSE to SGCSE as the development of syllabi, the setting of examination papers, and the marking of examinations locally. This also includes the recording of the listening passages for English examinations being done in Swaziland by locals instead of the people from the United Kingdom. For other subjects such as Biology, it means using plants that are locally available instead of exotic ones. It also means using local examples in either books or illustrations. Despite all these being done locally however, the syllabi, question papers and marking are approved by the Cambridge International Examinations (CIE). The certificates of the candidates are also co-signed by the Examination Council of Swaziland (ECOS) and the Cambridge International Examinations (CIE).

The process of localising the IGCSE curriculum to SGCSE is in line with the localisation of curricula described by the IBE (2002). This is because the SGCSE curriculum is designed locally, local materials are used, the setting of examinations is done locally, assessment, marking, and grading of examination scripts is done locally, according to The Examination Council of Swaziland (ECOS) newsletter (2010). However, one thing that Swaziland failed to do, according to the findings by Gamedze (2010) was that she did not consult with the relevant stakeholders so that they could make an input in the issue of the shift from the GCE-O-Level curriculum to the IGCSE/SGCSE curriculum, hence the resistance. According to Gamedze (2010), teachers were not consulted before the decision to change the GCE-O-Level curriculum to the new IGCSE curriculum. This is worrying since teachers have to implement the curriculum. In as much as we could say that when it comes to the organisation

of content for the new and localised curriculum where the content used is relevant to the learners' related contexts, the curriculum localisation process was carried out well, on the part of the stakeholders however, there was lack of consultation (Gamedze, 2010). The foregoing has revealed how important curriculum localisation is to the learners. However, as much as it is important that a curriculum be localised, it is also equally important that the localised curriculum does not disadvantage learners by confining them into their own country. This is because there has been a call towards internationalization and globalisation of curricula in African institutions of learning (wa-Thiong'o, 2004).

Swaziland's imperative to localize the curriculum after independence from the periphery and the imperative to decolonize from the colonial centre/metropolis is actually an impetus towards traditionalisation, and or, retraditionalisation of the African society in general and Swaziland in particular. It is a discursive kind of thinking where the society has to do a comparison between benefits offered by indigenisation and Eurocentricism. The introduction of the new and localised SGCSE curriculum at senior secondary school level has been marred by very poor performance in external examinations. According to Mazibuko (2013), since the introduction of IGCSE and its localisation to SGCSE, the pass rate of candidates at senior secondary school level has not increased significantly more especially in rural schools. This is another issue that prompted the researcher to undertake the study. It was vital that the cause/s of students' poor performance be determined, more especially in the rural schools.

1.7 Curriculum transformation, localisation, and internationalisation

Lovat & Smith (2006) argue that transformations generally present challenges to individuals. They present challenges in people's beliefs, perceptions, traditional ways of working, and long held established practices. People are generally afraid to venture into new things for fear of the unknown. This is because for some people it is very difficult to move from "the old to the new" (Lovat & Smith, 2006, p.194). Change, in Lovat & Smith's view, is mostly characterized by conflict. The absence of a conflict after a change has been made is always an indication that the change is not significant (Lovat & Smith, 2006). Lovat & Smith (2006) further say that in order to be sure that the change is significant the conflict has to be there. In view of this therefore, it should not come as a surprise that some form of conflict arose when the new and localised English language curriculum was introduced and implemented. This therefore requires that we embrace the conflict that comes with the changes and think about it as something that is a part of change. Dealing with the conflict this way will be a way of ensuring that the conflict and the fear are successfully dealt with, and also that the change is

indeed significant (Lovat & Smith, 2006). With regards to the introduction and localisation of the curriculum to SGCSE the relevant stakeholders in education may not be accepting the curriculum not because there is anything wrong with the curriculum but because people generally do not like change and also that where the change is significant there is bound to be a conflict.

Chiung-fang (2003) on the other hand, argues that transformations in the curriculum cannot be avoided because the modern era attaches considerable importance to localisation, globalisation and internationalisation, all of which require transformations (Chiung-fang, 2003; Lam 2010; Cheng, 2014). Globalisation is an on-going practice that connects people, neighbourhoods, cities, regions and countries and brings them closer than they have ever been before, resulting in people's lives being entangled in all parts of the world (Fien, 2010; Zajda, 2015). This interconnectedness amongst humans is also referred to as the global village where the barriers of national and international boundaries become less relevant and sometimes arbitrary as the world becomes almost one. The process is driven economically by worldwide financial movements and trade, technologically by information technology and mass media entertainment, and very significantly, also by human means such as cultural exchanges, migration, education and international tourism so that instead of living in isolation people of the world are linked (Fien, 2010). Internationalisation on the other hand, is an on-going practice which occurs in an international context where certain countries, and not the whole world, are connected and brought closer together by everything that they do, education included (Bedenlier & Zawacki-Richter, 2015). Both internationalisation and globalisation are important as they ensure that people do not live in isolation but are connected to other people either globally or internationally. In relation to education, consideration of internationalisation and globalisation in a curriculum will ensure that the products are balanced as they will be productive wherever they go, be it internationally or globally.

So, although emphasis is put on localisation, no country is insulated from internationalisation and globalisation, hence the need for a balance between all of them. Countries as well as their education systems have to strive to attain this balance. In a bid to satisfy both the local and international demands, which are some of the two ways in which countries respond to the demands of globalisation (Lam, 2010; Zajda, 2015), most countries find themselves caught between the pressures of local, global, and international demands. This results in a conflict of balancing localisation, globalisation, and internationalisation. In order to ensure that such a

conflict is minimized, Rajabi & Farokhi (2014) suggest that careful thought and considerations should be made before any curriculum reform to ensure the alignment of all three. They further say that the localisation of a curriculum should not prevent the locals from effectively functioning internationally so that the individuals can also be merged into the global economy. This is also a view that is supported by Lam (2010) who further makes the observation that internationalisation and globalisation are related as internationalisation is a way in which a country responds to the demands of globalisation, in other words, "globalisation is the cause while internationalisation is the effect in response" (Lam, 2010, p. 5). Cheng (2014) believes that the conflict between localisation, internationalisation, and globalisation can be done away with easily because it is possible for a localised curriculum to produce individuals that will be effective internationally and globally. However, he also warns that if careful considerations are not done when a curriculum is localised, chances of producing individuals that will only be productive in their own countries and not internationally and globally, are high.

An example of a country that experienced the conflict between localisation and internationalisation is Taiwan. According to Chiung-fang (2003), an attempt to promote the simultaneous learning of local and international languages which was done for purposes of strengthening local consciousness and responding to international trends, resulted in problems, one of which was that the learners were not sure of the relevant importance of the different languages; hence they found themselves caught up in a very complex educational environment. This was because they had to conform to both local and international demands in terms of the languages that they were taught. This was an indication that when learners are educated according to the demands of localisation and internationalisation they often encounter some challenges. The Taiwanese learners who were made to learn local and international languages simultaneously, did not understand why they had to do this as they felt that they would never use the international languages. As a result, some rejected the language classes. The rejection of the language classes is problematic because both localisation and internationalisation are important as the main goal of any education system is to produce individuals who will not only be functional in their societies but other societies as well. However, according to Chiung-fang (2003), although the intentions of localisation are good, they are sometimes lacking in terms of depth. This is because when localisation comes into contact with powerful cultures, it does not stand a chance, nor does it have space in which to develop, and this often results in a conflict (Chiung-fang, 2003).

The foregoing indicates the importance of offering education that will satisfy both local and international demands. It has also indicated how a conflict can arise when an attempt to balance the two is made. In the light of this, the challenges of balancing a localised and international curriculum should always be expected when a curriculum is localised. Furthermore, localising the curriculum has benefits; however, as much as localisation is beneficial to learners, localising a curriculum should not confine the learners to the local environment as learners may need to go out to the international environment at some stage. As Chiung-fang (2003) observes, it should also be noted that powerful cultures sometimes do not consider localisation, which is what the problem could be with the SGCSE curriculum and some of the universities outside Swaziland.

1.8 A rural area and a rural school in the context of Swaziland and other countries

The World Health Organisation (2014) views a rural area in the context of Swaziland as an area that is about 50km or more away from town. It is an area where people are still stuck in the old way of doing things including the way of life. It is an area where traditional huts are mostly used, education is less considered, but the most important thing is that girls grow up being taught how to cook and take good care of children in readiness for getting married, and boys grow up looking after cattle and then search for work in the mines or farms. It is a place in which people live on Swazi national land and are under the administration of a chief. Most people in rural areas live on farming and they are not educated, as those who are educated migrate to towns and cities in search of jobs.

The World Health Organisation (2014) further states that rural areas make up the largest population in Swaziland. They make up 78.9% of the country's population; this means a substantial number of learners are enrolled in rural public schools in Swaziland. Swaziland is not the only country that is experiencing this as the same thing has been reported about America. In America eleven million children which translate to a quarter of all American children are enrolled in rural public schools and all the schools have been found to have unique challenges, (Ashton & Duncan, 2012; Smarick, 2014). The World Health Organisation (2014) also reports that in rural societies in Swaziland, everything is slow moving; this is experienced in progress and development. This is because among other things, people who live in rural areas are conservative and resistant to any form of change. They need a thorough convincing before they can accept any changes.

Rural people value friendship, kinship, and neighbourliness. Most live on farming, and due to the drought that Swaziland has been experiencing in the past years, poverty is rife among them. Poverty also results from the low agricultural productivity of the land which can be attributed to, among other things, lack of manure, difficult road access, lack of markets to sell produce, limited water supply, and of course the drought. It is for this reason that relief agencies have set up permanent distribution facilities in rural areas for purposes of providing the residents with food rations such as mealy-meal, beans, and cooking oil. Even these, however, sometimes take too long to come and the people starve (The World Health Organisation, 2014).

Rural areas often lack passable roads, clean water, proper lighting systems, and decent houses. People living in rural areas also experience disparity in terms of services and resources such as transport, hospitals, banks, government offices, and shopping outlets. If rural people need to use any of these facilities they have to travel very long distances, yet their socio-economic status does not allow them to travel. They also do not have access to television, radios, videos, computers, and the internet. Most of them cannot afford to buy these. Most of them are also computer illiterate (The World Health Organisation, 2014).

The definition of a rural area and a rural school in the context of Swaziland is no different from definitions of rural areas and rural schools in other countries. Guenther & Weible (1993); Ashton & Duncan (2012); Robinson, Bursuck, & Sinclair (2013), define rural schools as schools that are in high need in terms of materials, infrastructure, resources, and personnel. They also say that rural schools are geographically isolated. What this means is that rural schools are remote and are lacking in terms of proper buildings, that is, proper classrooms, teachers' houses, laboratories, and other forms of buildings that are necessary in a school.

In the absence of gadgets such as radios, televisions, computers and educated people who can speak English in the environment, the teaching/learning of English is very difficult in rural schools in Swaziland, as learners only get to hear English at school. Even there, my experience as a school teacher is that most rural teachers do not use English as a teaching medium, or when they talk to the learners, but use the mother tongue. While this is consonant with The Ministry of Education and Training Sector Policy (2011), for the first four grades at primary school level, it however deprives the learners the opportunity to hear English being spoken around them. It is for this reason therefore, that sometimes it does not seem appropriate to say English is taught as a second language in rural schools because the second

language is defined as a language that is spoken in the environment in which a person lives. So, if the language is not spoken in the environment, yet it is learnt, the language qualifies as a foreign language.

In terms of personnel, rural schools in Swaziland and also in other countries do not have enough teachers. The teacher-pupil ratio in Swaziland is 1:50. Supporting this assertion, Wang (2014) and Robinson, Bursuck, & Sinclaire, (2013) state that rural schools face challenges in attracting and retaining teachers and this is due to their undesirable geographic location, scarcity of transport to the schools as the roads are bad, lack of good houses for teachers, lack of electricity, lack of running water systems, and the lack of proper toilets as teachers use pit latrines.

This means that rural school teachers struggle to get to their schools, or when going to town because of lack of transport. Their movement from one place to the next is limited as transport is scarce. They do not enjoy living in the school houses but they just endure their stay. They do not have even the small privileges that are enjoyed by most people such as entertaining themselves through watching television, playing and listening to good music, enjoying a hot relaxing bath after a long day's work, and many other small privileges which are regarded as a part of the life of urban life. This also means rural school teachers are prone to water and airborne diseases and even dangers such as being bitten by snakes while trying to access a pit latrine toilet during the night. People who live this kind of life normally have so much to worry about and this could affect their work performance. For an individual to work effectively, the individual has to be content as well as live in a safe environment.

In Guenther & Weible (1993)'s view, the challenges that rural school teachers face prevent them from executing their duties to the fullest and this deprives learners of getting the best that their teachers could offer in terms of effective teaching. Duncan & Tompkins (2008) are of the view that being deprived of the best that their teachers can offer is not the only challenge that is faced by rural school learners as they are also unable to succeed in their school work because of poverty. They say such learners are compelled by their socio-economic status to attend rural schools because they cannot afford education in urban schools since the fees there are normally high.

Another challenge that they face is the absence of educated people in the environment which leads to social isolation and lack of role models. Even the few learners, who become successful academically, rarely go back to their home areas to improve the situation there, but

they opt for schools in the urban areas. The same thing is also experienced by teachers who get posted to rural schools; they go there out of desperation because they need the jobs. In most cases, the teachers who agree to go to rural schools are those that have just graduated and cannot refuse the offer of a job for fear that they might lose it as the authorities might think they are being choosy. So, they accept the jobs in the rural schools but continue to be on the lookout for better opportunities in urban areas. In addition, professional development opportunities, materials, curriculum, and services are in most cases not available in rural schools (Hardre, 2012; Wood, Finch & Mirecki, 2013).

The discussion above has revealed the challenges faced by both teachers and leaners in rural schools. It has also made it clear that the challenges faced in rural schools are not generalizable to urban schools. Advice gathered from Wang (2014) and Monk (2007) is that teachers should not be discouraged by all these challenges that they face, but, they should understand that entering into the teaching profession requires not just talent but dedication, perseverance, and a great desire to make a difference in the lives of the rural school people and learners. Teachers should also understand that teaching is not an easy thing to do but requires that teachers be passionate about it, as well as understand that all children, irrespective of gender, race, religion, or location have a right to education. Teachers should further understand that they can only find satisfaction and gratification after providing education to such people who are disadvantaged and do not have easy access to education (Wang, 2014; Monk, 2007).

1.9 Official languages in Swaziland

English and SiSwati are both official languages in the country (Kamwangamalu & Moyo 2003). However, although these languages are co-official languages, they are not equal. English has a higher status than SiSwati. As the case is with other countries where English was inherited due to colonialism, English in Swaziland has become part of the country's chief institutions and plays a very important role (Kamwangamalu & Moyo 2003). Being the country's official language means English, like SiSwati, is used in all the country's official documents. Like SiSwati, English is the language of administration, the language of the law, the language of the national press, the language of commerce, and political unity (Kamwangamalu & Moyo 2003). When it comes to the use of English in the education system of Swaziland, English is the medium of instruction in schools from grade five upwards. However, private schools and some public schools in Swaziland use English from pre-school level. This is despite the fact that the Ministry of Education and Training Sector

Policy (2011) gives the directive that SiSwati should be used as the medium of instruction for the first 4 grade levels at primary school (Kamwangamalu & Moyo 2003) and The Swaziland Education and Training Sector policy, 2011). The policy further states that since English and SiSwati are both official languages in the country, learners are therefore free to use any of the languages at school, and should not be punished for using SiSwati, which is something that most schools have been doing to promote English. Also, curriculum materials for all subjects are written in English with the exception of SiSwati and French materials.

The use of English is even more complex in colleges and the University of Swaziland, where even SiSwati is taught in English. At both the University of Swaziland and colleges, students who are learning SiSwati as a course do it in English. English is a compulsory subject. In the new and localised curriculum English is a core subject. All learners are expected to study it despite their abilities, yet they have the liberty to choose other subjects (The Ministry of Education, 2005). English is also a passing/failing subject. The learners' progression from one grade level to the next is determined by their performance in English. This could be the reason why teachers still stick to the use of English as the medium of instruction for all grade levels despite the pronouncement by The Swaziland Education and Training Sector Policy (2011). English is also a requirement for entry into all institutions of higher learning in Swaziland. In order to be admitted into any institution of higher learning, learners are expected to, among other things, get credit passes in English. A credit pass in English is also a requirement for consideration for the award of a scholarship (Simelane, 2006).

Consequently, the use of English in the education system of Swaziland has resulted in a situation that can be described as unbalanced bilingualism, which Kamwangamalu (1996, p.295) designates as an unbalanced diglossic state where instead of the two languages being equally used, English has usurped an elevated status in education, is generally associated with prestige and elitism, while SiSwati is simply the language of the uneducated and less prestigious people. English enjoys a much elevated status because learners cannot progress to the next grade level if they fail it but if they fail SiSwati, they can. The use of English in Swaziland is similar to that of other countries that are classified in the Outer circle, according to Kachru (1985). It is the most dominant language in the Swazi government and in education and has many uses than the indigenous language. When the issue of the classification and use of English is given further scrutiny, more especially in rural schools, in Swaziland, my view is that the use of English is that of the expanding circle. This is because English is used mostly in schools and seldom, in the learners' environment. This is because the rural

environment has very few English speaking people, as most people who live in it are not educated. So, this leaves the learners with just their teachers, who are among some of the few people who speak to them in English. Figure 1.1 illustrates Kachru's concentric circles and Swaziland is seated in the outer circle. In my view however, while Swaziland generally sits on the outer circle, the rural area of Swaziland sits in the expanding circle and both are indicated by the arrows.

Kachru's Three Circles of English
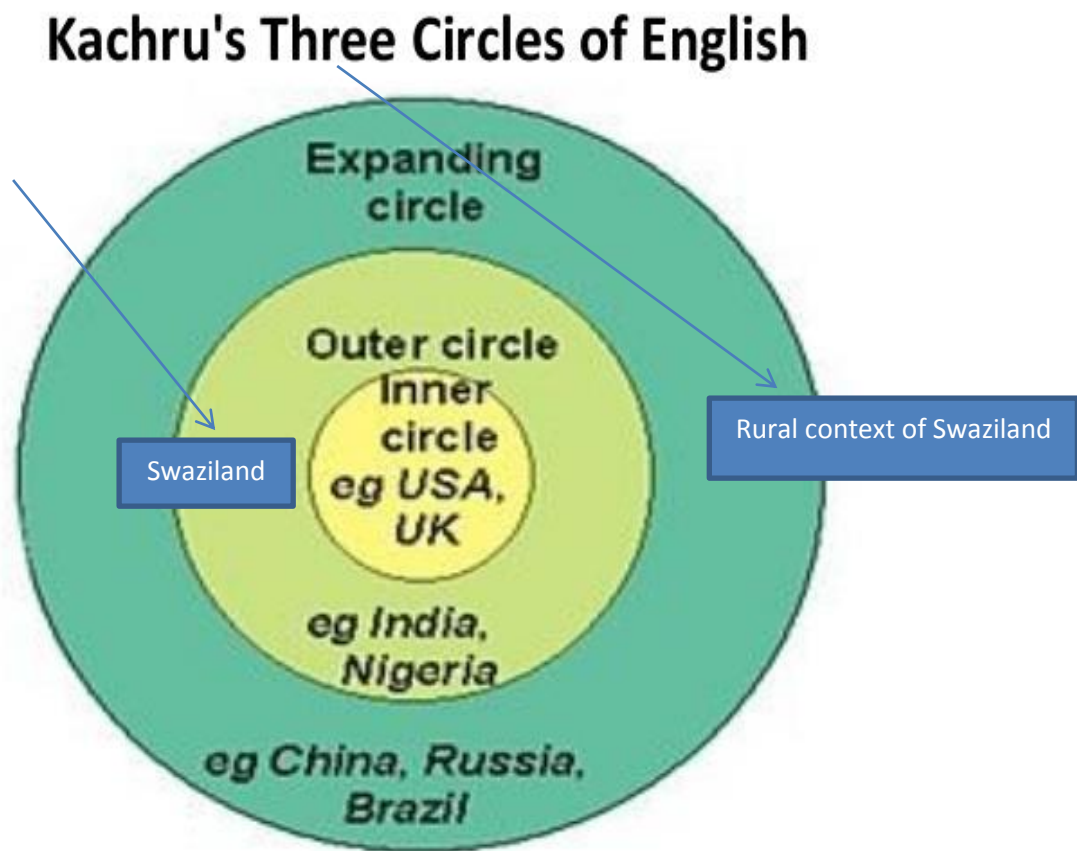
Figure 1.1 **Circles of English: Adapted from: Crystal 1995, p. 107**

A majority of English language teachers in Swaziland speak English as a second language. Most teachers of English were also taught by people who use English as a second language. Marope (2010) reports that school inspectors' reports in Swaziland indicate that a majority of secondary school teachers have weak skills and competencies with regards to proficiency in English and learner-centred pedagogy. What this means specifically for the English language

curriculum is that it is taught mostly by teachers whose level of proficiency is low in English. The inspectors' report is in line with Stern's (1989) view that while people may generally be very proficient in their native languages, they may not, however, have the same degree of proficiency in their second languages. What this means therefore, is that learners of English who are taught by these Swazi teachers whose level of proficiency is low in English are disadvantaged.

1.10 Statement of the problem

The problem with the new and localised English language curriculum is that its examination does not cater fully for learners from rural school settings. The examination is structured in such a way that it demands that learners answer questions on topics that are foreign to the rural context. The examination also specifically demands recording systems and audio devices (The Ministry of Education, 2005). Most of the ICT tools that are demanded by the curriculum and the examination use electricity yet electricity is not available in some rural schools. This results in the learners performing poorly in the external examinations (Mazibuko, 2013). Another deficit with the new and localised English language curriculum lies with the teaching materials, gadgets, and infrastructure that are required by the curriculum which are also not available in the rural school context. Such materials include lots of books, reading material, computers, and access to the internet, libraries, language laboratories, recording systems, and audio devices (The Ministry of Education, 2005). In the absence of these materials, rural school learners perform badly in external examinations as they are not adequately prepared for the examinations due to the absence of the required materials and gadgets. Some of the materials and content are such that they cannot be modified for use in the rural school.

For example, an audio device is required for the listening exercise in the examination and it cannot be substituted for anything else. The same goes for a recording device, it has to be available so that learners can use it for oral examinations. In the absence of these materials as well as the inability to modify the content and the topics, it is difficult to say the curriculum has been localised if one considers the definition of curriculum localisation given by Taylor (2004). Curriculum localisation as Taylor (2004) puts it, requires that the curriculum be adjusted to suit the local conditions in which it is offered. In the light of what the examination does, that is failing to accommodate rural school learners by not enabling modifications in the curriculum; the examination is failing to cater for rural school learners. This therefore means that the curriculum is also failing to enhance the quality of education delivery, to address the

local and international needs of the learners (Taylor, 2004). The current study sought to find out what senior secondary school teachers did when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in the rural schools in the absence of the required materials and infrastructure.

1.11 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore the teaching methods and strategies that are used by rural senior secondary school teachers when implementing the new and localised SGCSE English Language curriculum in rural senior secondary schools in Swaziland. It was also to find how teachers ensure an effective implementation of the curriculum in an environment that can be described as disadvantaged in terms of teaching/learning resources, which will in turn ensure that learners are ready for the external examination. The study also sought to identify challenges that teachers faced in implementing the SGCSE English language curriculum and the strategies that they engaged to minimize them.

1.12 Focus of the study

The focus of the study was on senior secondary school teachers in rural areas in the Lubombo region of Swaziland. At the senior secondary school level, learners are being prepared for their school leaving certificate examination, upon whose completion they would have to enrol into institutions of higher learning. To pursue their studies they often need to apply for scholarships. All these require that the learners get among other things, a credit pass in English. Focus also was on the rural school context because the rural school context is often lacking in teaching materials, libraries, computers, and access to the internet, yet these are required by the new and localised curriculum. Basically, the successful implementation of a school curriculum is affected by the context of the school (Labane, 2009). This therefore renders the rural context significant in education because most of its physical resources are different from other contexts such as the urban and semi-urban contexts. In addition, rurality and rural education have been found to be marginalized bodies of knowledge since not much research has been done on them (Nkambule, et al. 2011). Again, the focus was on the implementation of the new SGCSE English curriculum because teaching generally comes with different ideologies and values that may have serious implications on the lives of both the teachers and the learners (Safaradan & Urgate, 2008).

1.13 Research Objectives

The objectives of the study were to;

(1) Identify the methods that are used by senior secondary school teachers when implementing the new and localised (SGCSE) English language curriculum in rural school contexts in the Lubombo region in Swaziland.

(2) Establish what is perceived to be the best practices on the implementation of the new and localised (SGCSE) English Language curriculum in rural senior secondary schools in the Lubombo region in Swaziland.

(3) Identify challenges of implementing the new and localised (SGCSE) senior secondary school English Language curriculum in rural school contexts in the Lubombo region in Swaziland.

(4) Identify strategies that the teachers use to alleviate the challenges of implementing the new and localised English Language curriculum in rural school contexts in the Lubombo region in Swaziland.

1.14 Research Questions

The study intended answering the following research questions:

(1) What methods do teachers use when implementing the new and localised (SGCSE) English Language curriculum in rural senior secondary schools in the Lubombo region in Swaziland?

(2) What do teachers perceive as the best practices on the implementation of the new and localised (SGCSE) English Language curriculum in rural senior secondary schools in the Lubombo region in Swaziland?

(3) What challenges do teachers encounter in implementing the new and localised (SGCSE) English Language curriculum in rural school contexts in the Lubombo region in Swaziland?

(4) What strategies do teachers use to alleviate the challenges of implementing the new and localised English Language curriculum in rural school contexts in the Lubombo region in Swaziland?

1.15 Significance of the study

Studies have found that rural education has been found to be marginalized bodies of knowledge in South Africa, (Nkambule, et al. 2011). Swaziland is no exception because not much has been done in terms of research with regards to rural education. Like the case is with South African universities where there is evidence that validates that the rural context is an area that is under researched and undeveloped (Balfour et al, 2012), the same thing can be

said about Swaziland. Such a state of affairs is detrimental to rural education because the generative and transformative nature of rurality does not only inform the effectiveness of intervention programs, but it also delimits them (Balfour et al, 2008). This therefore marks rurality in curriculum implementation as very significant. Since this study is on the implementation of the curriculum in a rural area it is therefore significant as it will add onto knowledge about rural education which is a field that has not been intensively researched in South Africa (Nkambule, et al. 2011).

There is also a great demand for knowledge about the new and localised English language curriculum as the curriculum has just come into existence and not much has been written on it. In addition, the localised curriculum is the first of its kind in Swaziland as the former curriculum had been inherited from the colonizers and it positioned the teacher at the centre as the only custodian of information whereas this one is of the view that learners can also find information on their own. There is therefore need for the identification of appropriate and effective teaching methods and approaches that are suitable for use in the rural school context.

The study uncovered the inapplicability of the suggested teaching methods, unavailability of the materials and infrastructure, as well as the biased nature of the external examination, which are all critical in the localised English language curriculum. Prospective researchers in this field, students and lecturers in the area of curriculum and teaching English were provided with insight into what really happens when the new and localised English language curriculum is implemented in a context that can be termed as disadvantageous. The findings from the study further provided very rich and comprehensive knowledge on the methods, strategies, practices, and techniques for curriculum implementation that are relevant, appropriate and applicable to rural schools which can be used to aid the implementation of the localised English language curriculum in other schools. The challenges faced by teachers and the strategies they put in place to minimize them, may be used as a form of professional support and development for other teachers in similar contexts. This study was the first of its kind in Swaziland. No study has ever been done on the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum since the localisation of the curriculum in 2009, yet the English language curriculum is the most important as it determines the learners' progression from one grade level to the next. As much as there have been studies on the new and localised curriculum there has been a gap since no study has been done on the implementation of the localised English language curriculum at senior secondary school

level. The current study therefore, intended closing this gap by specifically exploring the implementation of the new and localised SGCSE English language curriculum in rural senior secondary schools.

1.16 Limitations of the study

The choice of the research design was a limiting factor to the study. Despite the fact that the study adopted a mixed method approach, it was however mostly qualitative and therefore used a small sample (twenty three teachers) out of a total of one hundred and eight teachers (108) of English language that were picked from twenty three(23) schools in the Lubombo region. Another limiting factor was that the study was done in one region (Lubombo) out of a total of four regions that constitute Swaziland. Focussing on only one region prevents the findings of the study from being generalized to the other regions. The knowledge produced could also not be generalized to other teachers and other settings in other regions due to the small sample that was used. The findings were therefore unique to the relatively few teachers and the region that was used in the research. The small sample that was used in the research limited the extent to which the findings of the study could be generalized and could be represented statistically using other means other than percentages.

The study was also limited by the number of observations in the classroom. Two observations were conducted for each class belonging to the teachers that took part in the study. This was despite that many observations could have helped in substantiating the data obtained from the interviews, and questionnaires. It was evident that both the teachers and the learners were not at ease during the observations. An increase in the number of observations could have helped ease the tension on the teachers so that the flow of the lesson could be natural.

1.17 Delimitations of the study

The study was delimited to the implementation of the SGCSE English language curriculum on the rural Swazi context. This was because this was the curriculum being studied. It was further delimited to rural senior secondary schools in the Lubombo region. This was because the region consists of a large number of rural schools and in most cases came last in the performance of learners in the SGCSE English language examination (Mazibuko, 2013). The focus of the study further delimited it, as it was on rural schools. This was because the SGCSE English language curriculum demands the use of specific teaching materials and resources which are not available in these schools. The study was also delimited to teachers and learners of English as well as the way in which the participants were selected. The

schools were selected using the simple random sampling technique while the participants were selected using purposive sampling. The simple random sampling technique was used for the selection of the schools that participated, while the purposive sampling was used for the selection of the teachers that took part in the study. The study was also delimited to interviews, observations and questionnaires as instruments for data collection. Lastly, it was delimited to thematic content analysis as a method for data analysis. The content that was analysed was the information that was gathered from the participants (teachers) through use of different instruments of collecting data.

1.18 Organisation of the thesis

The thesis consists of seven chapters and is organized as follows:

Chapter 1 Introduction and background to the study

The first chapter orients the reader to the study. This is done by giving the background to the study where a number of sub-topics are discussed enabling the reader to understand the context from which the study and the research problem were based. The chapter also outlines the research objectives, research questions, purpose of the study, the statement of the problem, definition of key terms as used in the study, the conceptual framework underpinning the study, and the summary of the chapter.

Chapter 2 Theoretical framework underpinning the study

Chapter two discusses the theoretical framework underpinning the study. The study is framed within Cornbleth's theory of curriculum in and out of context. The theory is discussed in the chapter as well as its relevance to the study. Other theories that were used in the study are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 3 Review of related literature

This chapter is the review of literature related to the study. The chapter discusses the review of literature related to the importance of implementers in the implementation of curricula, problems of implementing new curricula and important issues that need to be considered when a new curriculum has been introduced to ensure its successful implementation. It also discusses literature related to how teachers influence the implementation of a new curriculum, and some factors that contribute to the development of teachers' negative attitudes on new curricula. The chapter further discusses literature related to obstacles that are detrimental in the implementation of a new and localised curriculum.

Chapter 4 Research design and methodology

This chapter discusses the methodology used to put together the study. The study adopted the mixed method approach, where the interpretative paradigm was utilized. This is because the study is largely descriptive in nature and sought to find out how teachers implemented the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts. However, numbers and percentages are also used to refer to the numbers of teachers who participated in the study as well as those that responded either similarly or differently to the research questions during data analysis and presentation. The study population and the instruments used, as well as the sample, and sampling technique used are also highlighted in the chapter.

Chapter 5 Data presentation and analysis

The chapter presents the data that were collected relating to how senior secondary school teachers of English language implemented the curriculum in their rural contexts. The chapter further analyses and interprets the data that were collected.

Chapter 6 Discussion of findings

The chapter provides a discussion of the findings with reference to the related literature reviewed and the data that were collected.

Chapter 7 Summary, limitations, conclusion, and recommendations

The chapter provides a summary for the whole research process that was undertaken, as well as the findings and limitations of the study. Recommendations for policy and practice are also highlighted.

1.19 Summary and conclusion of the chapter

The chapter provided an introduction and the background to the study. It gave the background of formal education in Swaziland, explained the implementation and localisation of a curriculum and what this means to the teaching methods, materials and assessment procedures that are to be used. The chapter also highlighted the importance of English in Swaziland in general, and also to the education system of Swaziland, as well as revealed the complexity of the teaching of English in rural contexts in Swaziland. The purpose and focus of the study, the objectives of the study, the statement of the problem, the limitations and delimitations of the study, the definition of key terms as used in the study, the critical questions guiding the study were also given, the conceptual orientation of the study was discussed, and the organisation of the thesis was presented.

CHAPTER 2
THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK UNDERPINNING THE STUDY

2.0 Introduction

This chapter deliberates on the theoretical and conceptual framework underpinning the study. It commences with the definition of a theoretical framework and its importance. The study is framed within Cornbleth's theory of curriculum in and out of context. It also considers Kachru's classification of the use of English into three concentric circles, Vygotsky's theory of Second Langauge Acquisition, and the concept of Interpretivism-Constructivism. These theories are discussed in the chapter as well as their relevance to the study. The definition of key terms that have been used in the study is also done in this chapter.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework is defined by Labaree (2003) as a theory that describes the concepts, definitions, and existing knowledge that informs a study. In this study, the perspective of Cornbleth's theory of curriculum in and out of context was used. The theory gave insight on the way in which teachers were implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in terms of the two contexts; curriculum in context and curriculum out of context. The theory further highlighted what could be causing the disappointments or failure being experienced with the new and localised SGCSE English language curriculum as well as what the alternative approach should be to ensure that the curriculum is effectively and successfully implemented.

2.1.1 Cornbleth's theory of curriculum in and out of context

The theory of curriculum in and out of context was proposed by Cornbleth (1988). The basis for the theory is that the 'disappointments and failures of curriculum theory in practice mostly come from treating the curriculum out of context' (decontextualizing the curriculum, Cornbleth, 1988, p.85). Elaborating on decontextualizing the curriculum, the theorist contends that this refers to the use of a technocratic conception of the curriculum, which from her point of view is the conception that is mostly prevailing in the curriculum sector. In the technocratic view, the design or the construction of the curriculum is treated separately from policy making and implementation. In this view, the curriculum planners, designers, and implementers have different responsibilities. Cornbleth (1988) refers to this isolation of the

responsibilities as the de-contextualization of the curriculum both conceptually and operationally.

Focus in this kind of conception is on the revision of the curriculum document and the training of teachers since the purpose is normally to change the curriculum. Changing the curriculum means designing and implementing a new document which comes complete with clearly outlined procedures that have to be followed when the curriculum is developed. One thing, however, that the procedures do not outline is the steps that should be followed when the curriculum is implemented, and this according to Cornbleth (1988) often results in discrepancies. The discrepancies, in Cornbleth's view, are an indication that during the implementation stage, teachers adopt the new curriculum to old beliefs and practices. This therefore means that focusing on just the document when changing the curriculum is a futile effort as there are a number of other things that should not be ignored. Such things include school organisation, classroom interaction, underlying values, and teachers' interests and beliefs and the context in which the curriculum is implemented.

Cornbleth (1988) further asserts that, in this view, the curriculum is conceived as a 'tangible product' (p. 86) which when changed, results in the construction of a document or a package that is totally different from the one that was in use before. She refers to this kind of approach to curriculum as 'rational' (p. 86), since it is precise in terms of the steps that have to be followed to ensure that the curriculum is successfully implemented. On another note, however, Cornbleth (1990) posits that it has been proven that curriculum products that have been created using the technocratic view normally show discrepancies between what was intended and the actual use.

Cornbleth (1988) also argues that following closely the procedural steps in curriculum development which form the discrete components of the curriculum ensures effective implementation of the curriculum. Giving some of the examples of the discrete components of the curriculum, the theorist contends that they are the specification of objectives to be achieved by learners, selection and arrangement of subject matter to be taught, activities, materials, and assessment procedures to be used. All these procedures, she says, are determined by curriculum specialists or teacher committees under the guidance of specialists. It is only after going through all due curriculum planning processes that the curriculum is then given to the teachers to implement.

Cornbleth (1988) and Fullan (1993) reveal that in curriculum construction the curriculum designers are not involved when the decisions about whether a curriculum needs to be changed or not. The same applies to teachers, they are not involved when decisions on whether the curriculum should be changed or not are made. They are also not involved when the curriculum is designed or developed, but what happens is that policy makers decide on the curriculum to be used and curriculum specialists design the curriculum which they then give to the teachers to implement. Teachers do not have a say on matters that relate to the curriculum that they are going to implement (Cornbleth, 1988, Fullan, 1993). The curriculum is imposed on them.

Another thing that the technocratic conception of the curriculum does, in Cornbleth's (1988) view, is that it 'ignores' the question of value in the curriculum and this makes it very difficult to critically analyse the curriculum in terms of appropriateness, and also to do a thorough examination of other alternatives to the curriculum that can be used as well as their implications, (Cornbleth, 1988, p.87). Curriculum developers and designers are not responsible for curriculum policy and implementation. Policy makers decide what the curriculum should be while implementers implement the curriculum. So, whether the curriculum is feasible, desirable, or not, is not for the curriculum designers. Cornbleth (1988, p. 88) concludes by pointing out that the fact that everything about a curriculum is pre-determined; problems and solutions are thought of beforehand, limits 'sensitivity and responsiveness to context as does the presumed nature of curriculum change'. She maintains that when the curriculum is thought of as something that is neutral, something that can be implemented in different contexts, the result could be discrepancies between curriculum documents and curriculum practice, as well as disappointments which could come about as a result of changes that are made on the curriculum.

Cornbleth (1988) is of the view that the best way of looking at curriculum is through what is actually happening in the classroom. The curriculum in this perspective is viewed as an on-going social process that is marked by the exchange of ideas between students, teachers, knowledge and milieu. She singles out the context where the curriculum is practiced as the most important entity in education. The theory of curriculum in and out of context views the curriculum as shaped by the context; hence the context is a significant factor that influences how the curriculum will or should be. Cornbleth (1990) critiques the Rationalists or Instrumentalist models of curriculum which assume that a curriculum needs to be driven by objectives in order to lead to behaviour change. She holds the view that the curriculum has to

be treated as a contextualized social process which should put emphasis on the cultural, social, and historical dimensions of curricula and not the objectives.

Cornbleth (1988) asserts that in a curriculum, the most vital aspects are the learner's experiences and not the outcomes or products of the curriculum. The theory of curriculum in and out of context views certain factors and elements that constitute a school as features that should be adequately considered if the curriculum is to be a success. Among factors to be considered when planning and implementing a curriculum are social relationships of the school, the relationship between the teacher and the students, the way in which classes are organized, and many other units that characterize a school. She refers to all of these as the Hidden Curriculum. The theorist further enunciates that even though she is aware that there is a hidden curriculum, such a curriculum ceases to be hidden if it is treated as an on-going social process. She proposes a curriculum model that is process-oriented rather than one that is product oriented. Cornbleth (1988) arrives at this decision after having three different encounters where she was disappointed by the outcomes of curriculum development, research and implementation. She therefore proposes an alternative model which cogitates three themes on curriculum and curriculum change:

- Curriculum practice cannot be understood well or be changed in a significant way without seriously considering the setting or the context for which it is designed.
- Curriculum is contextually shaped and the relevant context is both structural and socio-cultural.
- Curriculum is viewed as what actually happens in practice: it involves interactions between students, teachers, knowledge, and milieu.

The curriculum in this perspective is considered as an interaction between teachers, students, knowledge, and the environment, and not as a physical process. This can be interpreted to mean that the settings/contexts/conditions of classroom teaching and learning have a bearing on what is taught, how it is taught and to whom it is taught; in short curriculum in use. What teachers do is that they are guided by their ability to think critically, an understanding of what their role is as teachers, expectations of other people from them, and a plan for action which forms the basis of the essential principles and features of what they have to teach and, to encourage conversations between themselves and the students that they teach. These, together with the uniqueness of each classroom setting require that any educational proposal, be tested and verified by each teacher in his/her classroom. If we take the curriculum to be any

educational proposal or innovation, this means there is need to test and verify the curriculum in the different settings where it is implemented, and in particular, the rural school setting.

In Cornbleth's (1988) view, the realisation that curriculum out of context decontextualizes the curriculum calls for an alternative treatment of the curriculum; curriculum in context. The theorist further points out that curriculum in context means treating the curriculum as an on-going social activity that is shaped by a variety of contextual influences both within and outside the classroom through a joint venture between the teachers and the learners. The most important thing in this view of the curriculum according to Cornbleth (1988) is that the curriculum should be relevant to the context in which it is taught. In addition, focus should be on the actual practice of the curriculum and not just the theory (plan). The curriculum should focus on the knowledge and learning opportunities that are made available to learners. Focus also should be on the values that are reflected by the knowledge and also how the values can be sustained.

Contextualizing the curriculum also encompasses the subject matter, the social organisation for which the curriculum has been constructed for, and how these two can be put together. In Cornbleth's (1988) point of view, teachers and learners have to play specific roles that will result in the success of the curriculum. Instead of teachers taking a superior role in the implementation of the curriculum, for example, learners should also be accorded equal opportunities to pursue their ideas, raise questions, offer personal observations, and also to facilitate their own learning through research from both the library and the internet. The context in which the curriculum is implemented shapes the curriculum, as a result Cornbleth (1988) feels that 'changing the curriculum involves changing its context, (p. 91). What this means is that there is no way in which one of these can happen without the other. If the curriculum changes, the context also needs to change. Relating this to the new and localised English Language curriculum, one would say it was a good thing that the curriculum was localised after it had been changed so that it could be in line with the context of Swaziland.

Cornbleth (1988) further claims that it is very important that the context in which the curriculum is implemented be understood because it can either positively influence the curriculum or negatively influence the curriculum. She gives an example of a context that is worth understanding and she says this is the 'nominal context' (p. 91), which she says refers to everything that the environment has, which might influence the curriculum. Examples of these are the social, political, economic, and demographic conditions which become

constraints, demands, and priorities. The theorist regards variability and fluidity as another feature of the relevant curriculum context. She is of the view that this varies over time and includes interests and the local situation within the national environment. She further perceives that education systems seem to depend on their environment and because of that they are sensitive to environmental influences. What this means is that as much as the changing of the curriculum and the context should go together, the context however, needs further scrutiny as it may contribute to either the success or the failure of the curriculum.

2.1.2 Relevance of Cornbleth's theory to the study

Cornbleth's theory makes us appreciate the two ways in which the curriculum can be treated. These are curriculum in context and curriculum out of context, (contextualization and de-contextualization of the curriculum). Treating the curriculum out of context (de-contextualizing the curriculum), in my view is synonymous to giving power and authority to people from other contexts to instruct the curriculum. This is what the situation was in Swaziland before the introduction and the localisation of the SGCSE curriculum. The British had the privilege, authority, and power to design the curriculum for Swaziland. Swaziland did not have a say on what the curriculum should be but she had to use the curriculum as instructed by the British. This was despite the fact that Britain and Swaziland are two different contexts. What works in Britain might not work in Swaziland. What is relevant for Britain might not be relevant for Swaziland. As a result, this might have resulted in a tension, possibly the production of an individual that is a misfit in his/her own country, one who will not be productive in his/her own environment. The tension according to the theory is what may lead to the disappointments and failures that are observed with curricula, which Cornbleth (1988) says can be minimized by treating the curriculum in context (contextualizing) the curriculum.

Contextualizing the curriculum, according to Cornbleth's theory means considering the social context in which the curriculum is going to be implemented. It also means treating the curriculum as a social process and making it relevant to the context in which it is implemented. In my view this is synonymous to curriculum localisation where the curriculum is designed locally, by locals, and learners write an examination that has been set locally, which is also marked locally. This ensures that the curriculum is relevant and meaningful in the context in which it is implemented to ensure success. Cornbleth's theory emphasizes the need to ensure that the people who have been entrusted with the responsibility of designing or instructing the curriculum be those who both know and understand the context in which the

curriculum will be implemented so that it could be successful. The theory also explains the need to localize the curriculum as that is the only way in which it would register success as it would be implemented in line with the context. While this is done, however, a tension could also be experienced if the products of the localised curriculum would only be considered to be productive when they are in their own country and not productive in the outside world. So, as much as we may want to localise (contextualise) the curriculum to ensure relevance and success, we also have to ensure that the products of localisation are productive, and not misfits in the international world.

The idea of treating the curriculum in context is in many ways similar to the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum which was the focus of this study. This is because in curriculum localisation everything pertaining to the curriculum is done locally by locals. The curriculum is designed locally; the examination is also set and marked locally. Another thing that qualifies the curriculum as local is that both the teacher and the learners take an active role during implementation. Instead of the teacher being the only one taking an active role in the teaching process, both the teacher and the learner join hands. Instead of teachers being the only custodians of information, learners are also expected to find information for themselves through research from the library and the internet. Again the materials that are suggested for use in the localised curriculum are those that can be found in the learners' local environment. It would therefore, seem appropriate to say that the treatment of curriculum in context is very much similar to the localisation of the curriculum.

Cornbleth (1988) also refers to curriculum in context as a social process conception of the curriculum. The social process conception of the curriculum, unlike the technocratic conception, does not separate curriculum policy making, construction, and implementation. It proposes an interaction between policy, planning, implementation, and the socio-cultural context. Curriculum in context goes together with practice. The fact that curriculum is viewed as a contextualized social process means that curriculum change is a function of contextual change (Cornbleth, 1988). This also means that it may not be possible to change the curriculum without involving other people who may have a direct or indirect influence, or interest in the curriculum. Such people may include policy makers, curriculum designers, educationists, employment sectors, teachers, and the learners themselves.

 In the light of this, it is clear that it will be impossible to attempt to change the curriculum by simply substituting the curriculum with another, which is what Swaziland did when she

replaced the GCE-O-Level curriculum with the new and localised SGCSE curriculum. Swaziland simply substituted the former GCE-O-Level curriculum with the SGCSE curriculum without consulting all relevant stakeholders (Gamedze, 2010), and also without considering questions that would enable us to see whether the change was compatible or at odds with cultural traditions and ideologies, and also how past experiences with change were likely to influence the change. Despite the fact that localising the curriculum has now put it in the category of being in context, the curriculum could still experience failures and disappointments, (Cornbleth, 1988).

The teachers' decisions while implementing the curriculum actually influence how the students act and how they perform the instructional tasks. Teachers should therefore create enhanced instructional environments that give students opportunities to think and reason. The tasks given to students should have multiple solution strategies that demand explanation and justification and that can be represented in various ways. Students should therefore be provided with opportunities, encouragement, and assistance to engage in thinking, reasoning, and sense making in the classroom. Consistent engagement in these practices could lead to a deeper understanding of concepts, as well as the ability to demonstrate complex problem solving, reasoning, and communication skills on assessment of learning outcomes. This could enhance classroom discussions, which could build students' capacity for critical thinking and reasoning (Stern, 1989).

Cornbleth's theory assisted in answering the research questions. The responses that the teachers gave indicated that as much as the curriculum has been localised, hence the belief is that it is being treated in context, the rural context was however, not considered when the new and localised curriculum was introduced. The new and localised English language curriculum was thought of as something neutral; one which is applicable to different contexts and this explains the discrepancies and failure of the curriculum (Cornbleth, 1988). The absence of most of the materials and infrastructure that is required by the curriculum results in this. Since teachers still had to talk about matters as well as make reference to concepts and materials that are out of the learners' understanding in the rural context means the curriculum is still treated out of context. Cornbleth's (1988) argument that the curriculum is shaped by the context in which it is implemented was confirmed to be true. The responses that the teachers gave on what they considered to be best practices when implementing the curriculum explained the varied 'best practices of the teachers".

The theory also spoke to the research problem to a great extent. If teachers were not consulted when the curriculum was introduced and they were simply given the directive to implement it, and the same thing was done with the examination, rural schools were not represented in the setting of the examinations, the curriculum was being treated out of context and therefore had little chance of success as teachers felt that it was imposed on them and also that the examination was biased as it favours urban school learners. The use of Cornbleth's theory as a theoretical framework also clarified most of the issues that emerged from the studies that were reviewed in the literature review. Cornbleth (1988) made the observation that discrepancies in curriculum implementation were an indication that during the implementation stage teachers adopted the new curriculum to old beliefs and practices and this came out from the literature review (Handal & Herrington, 2003; Babic, 2012; Pecore, 2013).

2.1.3 Kachru's classification of English into three concentric circles

This study also considered Kachru's classification of English into three concentric circles. The classification of the use of English into concentric circles helped in making us understand and appreciate the use of English in all contexts in Swaziland. Kachru (1985) classifies the use of English into three concentric circles. He posits that there is the inner circle, the outer circle and the expanding circle. The inner circle according to Kachru (1985) refers to the traditional base of English. These are people who use English as a native language; they are indigenous users of the language, and supposedly proficient users of the language, as they have, according to Stern (1989), a high level of proficiency in the language. These include countries such as the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, Ireland, and Anglophone Canada, just to mention a few. These countries use English as a Native Language (ENL). The outer circle, according to Kachru (1985), consists of countries where English is not the indigenous language of the people, but it is a very important language as it is used as an official language, is used by the country's institutions, and is of importance in the history of those countries.

Most of these countries were once colonies of Britain. Some of these countries are India, Nigeria, the Philippines, Swaziland, and many others. For them, English is said to be used as a Second Language (ESL). In terms of their level of proficiency, Stern (1989) says that they may not have the same level of proficiency as the native speakers of the English language. Kachru's theory also talks about the expanding circle where this refers to countries where English is used despite that it does not play a historical or important role in the government

system of the country. English in such countries is said to be used as a foreign language (EFL). Examples of these countries are China, Japan, Egypt, Russia, and many others. According to Stern (1989), their level of proficiency in the English language is very low.

Using Kachru's classification, the former GCE/OLEVEL English language curriculum was designed in Great Britain; the inner circle, and the traditional base of English. What this means is that native users of the English language designed the curriculum for second language users (outer circle) of the language or in my view foreign users (expanding circle) of the language, in the case of the rural Swazi context. Similarly, the examinations were set in the inner circle and also marked there. Replacing the GCE-O-Level with the IGCSE/SGCSE curriculum, meant a shift from the inner circle being the designers of the curriculum and the people responsible for setting the examinations, and the designing process being handled by the outer circle for use in the outer or expanding circle. The assumption that can be drawn from this is that as native speakers of the English language, Britain seemed to have been better placed to design the curriculum as they knew basically everything about the language as it is their own. However, they lacked knowledge about the Swazi context. The curriculum and examinations could have been of good quality in their view but in consideration of relevance and needs of Swazis it was not. The shift to the handling of the curriculum by the outer circle brings the assumption that as people who are not mother-tongue speakers of the language; it would mean the quality of both the curriculum and examinations is compromised, but nevertheless the context would be fully considered. The study at hand therefore, sought to unveil practices of teachers on the implementation of the new and the localised SGCSE English language curriculum, especially on the rural school setting.

Kachru's classification of the use of English and what this is understood to mean in terms of the former and the new curriculum has been illustrated in figure 1.2.

Former Curriculum

GCE-O-LEVEL English curriculum

Designed by

Inner circle

Native speakers of English

Designed for

Outer circle

Non-native speakers of

New curriculum

SGCSE English curriculum

Designed by

Outer circle

Designed for

Non-Native speakers of English

Outer circle
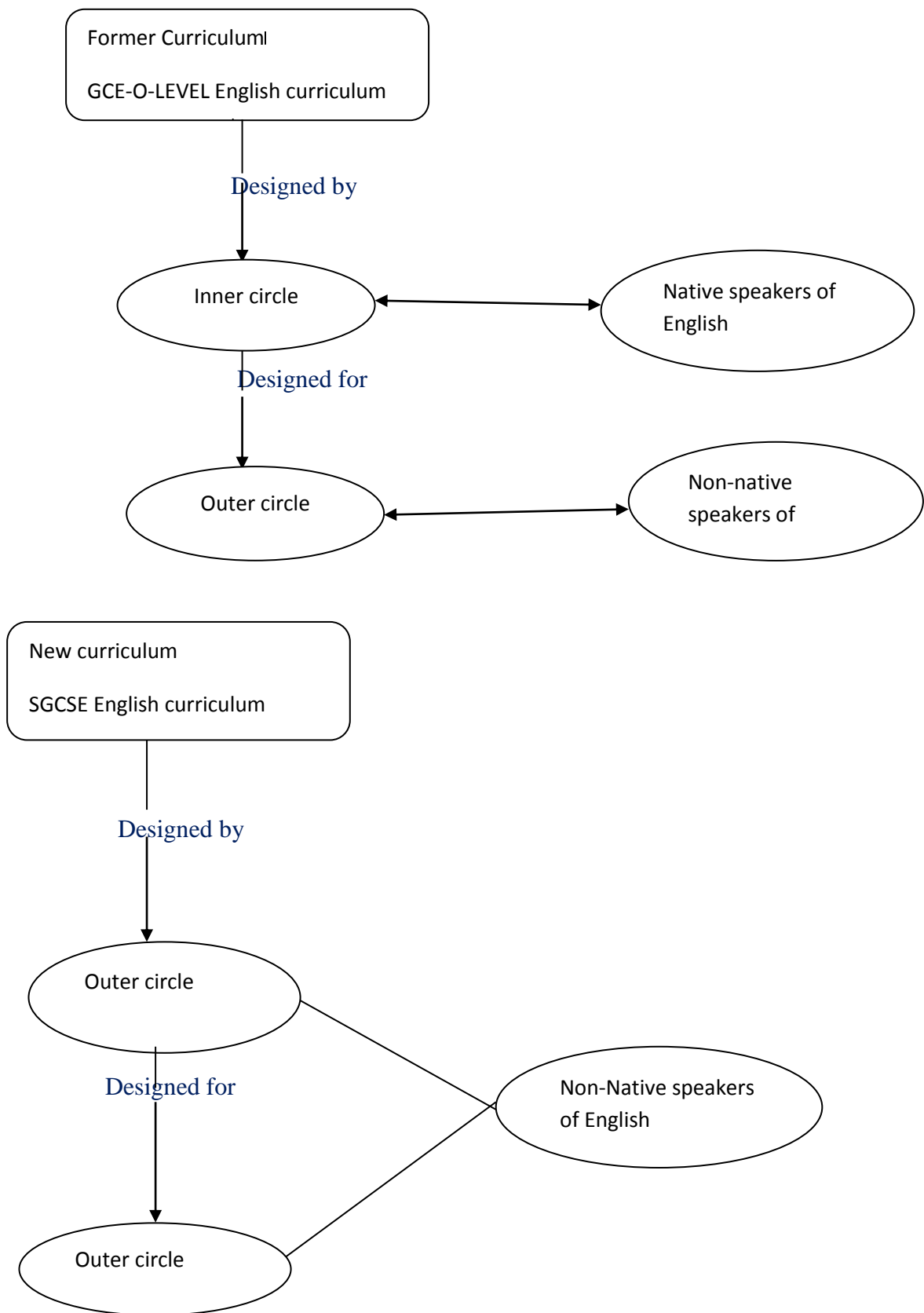
Figure 1.2: English curriculum in Swaziland, Adapted from Kachru (1985)

2.1.4 Criticism of Kachru's Model of the classification of English

Kachru's model of the classification of speakers of English into three concentric circles make us aware and also appreciate the different contexts in which English is used, the different kinds of English that are spoken throughout the world, and it also provides us with a framework for the study of English worldwide (Rajadurai, 2005). Classifying the use of English using the concentric circles is also better than referring to English as a Native Language (ENL), English as a Second Language (ESL), and English as a Foreign Language (EFL). This is because referring to English as a Native Language, as Rajadurai (2005), puts it, for example, gives the impression that English is someone's first language hence; it belongs to that particular person. Those who have it as their second language do not have that kind of ownership, and also do not feel as worthy as those who have it as their first. The model makes us realize that different users of English use it legitimately, hence the diversity in both speech and proficiency.

Despite the strengths that the model has, however, it also has weaknesses. One of them is that there are certain areas or countries that cannot be placed in any of the three circles. These are the areas that Rajadurai refers to as 'grey areas' which are said to be existing between the circles, (Rajadurai, 2005, p.3). What this means is that there are countries that are found not to belong to any of the three circles which however do use English. Another weakness of the model is that it presupposes that since native speakers of the language are in the inner circle, they are more privileged; they belong to an exclusive group, are proficient, they use the language proficiently and can also be the best English teachers, when compared to the other users of English in the outer and expanding circles. It also gives the impression that the speakers of English in the inner circle speak the correct form of the language. This according to Rajadurai has created and promoted 'linguistic imperialism and language hegemony' which has in turn resulted in 'conflicting attitudes' from the different users of the language, (Rajadurai, 2005, p.4). It is for this reason that some people have the feeling that English seems to have divided people into classes where those that are in the inner circle have usurped the elite status while the others have taken the status of peasants, hence the model can be said to be promoting 'global capitalism' (Rajadurai, 2005, p.4)

The model also assumes superiority of the first language speakers in the inner circle over those in the other circles and assumes that the varieties of English that are spoken in the other circles are defective. This could be the reason why some non-native speakers of the language

seem not to value and take pride in their own accents of English but they aspire to speak English in the accent of the native speakers (Rajadurai, 2005).

Another shortcoming for Kachru's model is that emphasis is put on the spread of English as that which resulted from the exploitations and marginalization of countries by others, thus gaining power and superiority over them. The model simply focuses on nations and historic events that do not have a bearing on the current socio-linguistic information. The model unnecessarily, and without reason, gives power to members of the inner circle, yet the truth is, despite that there are differences in proficiency levels among members of the outer and expanding circles, there are some speakers in the other circles who have become proficient users of the language. According to Rajadurai (2005) there are also countries, which, initially belonged to the expanding circle, but have since made a transition to the outer circle. In addition, there are also speakers from the outer circle whose command of English is very minimal and they seldom use English. According to Rajadurai (2005) it is also important to take into consideration the nativisation of English as it enables English to adapt to new contexts and assume localised identities resulting in varieties of English that are totally different from each other as well as from the varieties that they were derived from. This has led to very serious concerns about the communicative value of these new varieties of English outside their local communities. Research indicates that a big number of speakers in the outer circle are only conversant with localised forms of English in their contexts and this places them at a disadvantage if they have to go outside that context (Rajadurai, 2005).

In addition, Rajadurai (2005) claims that another shortcoming of this model is that there is a situation where speakers in both the outer and expanding circles choose to use a particular form of English as their first language or language of preference which could be a language that they may choose to use in their homes. Such speakers according to him deserve to be placed in the inner circle. It is therefore for the reasons given above that it may not seem appropriate to identify native speakers of the English language using their birth right or countries of origin, as the best definition of a native speaker is a person who learns English when young and continues to use it as the dominant language until he/she has attained a certain level of fluency in terms of grammatical well-formedness, speech, rules, functional elaboration and code diversity. This condition according to Rajadurai (2005) makes it possible for native speakers of English to be found all over the world instead of being confined to just the inner circle.

Lastly, the notion that inner circle speakers use a model of English that consists of the correct forms of the language (Standard English) seems wrongly placed. This is because in Britain, for example, 9-12% of the population speaks Standard English while the rest do not. As a result, it is normal for people in the U K not to clearly understand what others are saying as their speech is sometimes incomprehensible (Rajadurai, 2005). From the look of things, it would seem the speakers of English in any of the circles could qualify to design the English language curriculum as long as they have been exposed to English very early in their lives and have continued to use English until they attained a high proficiency in it.

The foregoing has indicated that even though Kachru's classification of English seems understandable it has shortcomings. The situation in Swaziland is that even though English speaking is classified as that of the outer circle, Swaziland consists of speakers who are both very low in proficiency in the language and those that have high levels of proficiency in the language. This is despite that as users of English in the outer circle; speakers of English in Swaziland are expected to be using English as a second language. With the introduction and the localisation of IGCSE to SGCSE English Language curriculum, learners of English could also be confined only to Swaziland as the dialect that they could be using could be such that they cannot use it anywhere else. This study therefore aimed at finding out whether the localisation of the curriculum was confining the learners or transporting Swazis to other circles.

2.1.5 Relevance of Kachru's theory to the study

The use of English in Swaziland is classified in the outer circle when we consider Kachru's classification of English into three concentric circles. English came to Swaziland through imperialism and subordination as Swazis were under the colonial rule of the British. Despite the fact that English is a product of the inner circle, Swazis however use it legitimately in the outer circle and expanding circles respectively. Swazis who live in urban or semi-urban contexts use English in the outer circle whereas those who live in the rural context use English in the expanding circle. This is because English has many uses in the outer circle since it is an official language. A substantial number of educated people also live in the outer circle hence use English quite often, yet in the rural context (expanding circle) it is used more as a foreign language because most people are not educated and therefore, do not use it.

For the design of the GCE-O-Level curriculum, authority and power was vested in the inner circle, hence the inner circle was responsible for instructing not only the English language

curriculum, but the whole curriculum that was used in Swaziland. However, the GCE-O-Level curriculum was found to be less relevant to the lives, needs and the contexts of Swaziland. It did not serve the needs of the Swazis, nor did it address the Swaziland education policy which states that education has to ensure that it produces citizens that will be productive in their own country (Swaziland Education and Training Sector Policy, 2011). Products of the former GCE-O-Level curriculum were more functional internationally as the curriculum they were doing had been internationally constructed. However, the former GCE-O-Level curriculum distorted logic in that it made internationalisation to come first before localisation, yet logic dictates that localisation should come first, and this was a problem. The localisation of the curriculum was a reaction to the curriculum that was used during the colonial period. Swaziland indicated after independence that she now wanted a curriculum that was going to be relevant to the lives, needs, and the context of the Swazis.

The localised curriculum is a curriculum that is now instructed in the outer and expanding circles and therefore relevant to the needs of the Swazis as the people who are responsible for instructing it designed it with the local context in mind. However, as much as we appreciate the independence that has come with the localisation of the curriculum, we are however, cognizant of the fact that there is no country that is insulated from internationalisation. Although it is important that the curriculum addresses the needs and policies of a country; it should also train and produce individuals that are going to be productive in the international world. Looking at what the localised curriculum is doing, we realize that it is confining its products into the country. The curriculum is forming a bridge, a barrier that is preventing its products from crossing over internationally. Localisation has brought a conflict because as much as it is important that a country should be independent in terms of the curriculum, it is also equally important that countries are not myopic and that they produce learners who will be productive both in their local contexts and also in the outside world.

2.1.6 The concept of Interpretivism-Constructivism

In addition to the theoretical framework that underpinned the study, the study also utilised the interpretivism-constructivism psychological framework. The study was mostly qualitative and therefore an interpretative inquiry helped in understanding how the new and localised English language curriculum was implemented in rural school contexts. It was believed that as implementers of the curriculum teachers had the experience and the expertise of implementing the English language curriculum in the rural school context, and were therefore in a better position to give information on how they implemented the curriculum in rural

school contexts. According to Schwandt (2000), a phenomenon is better understood if the person giving information about it is someone who has experience and expertise of doing it.

The interpretivist-constructivist perspective views the world as that which is made up, explained, and interpreted by people through interacting with one another and also through interacting with their social systems (Tuli, 2010; Maxwell, 2006; Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The belief that is held strongly in this framework according to Tuli, (2010) is that all forms of inquiry are interpretive in nature and they are conducted for purposes of understanding a particular phenomenon. These two theories according to Schwandt (2000) have in common the goal of understanding the world using the experiences or points of view of those who live in it. The theories are not exactly the same, but they do have similar features.

Schwandt (2000) defines interpretivism as an epistemological orientation where it is assumed that reality is constructed by the person who knows it. In this research, the reality was the implementation of the new and localised SGCSE English Language curriculum as well as how it was implemented in rural school contexts in the Lubombo region of Swaziland. This knowledge was constructed by the people who implemented the curriculum and were directly affected by it. These were, the teachers. The teachers gave their views on what they considered to be the best methods and practices on the implementation of the new and localised SGCSE English Language curriculum in rural school contexts. Constructivism on the other hand, is defined by Schwandt, (2000), as a theory that is best suitable for investigations that are exploratory in nature where the research questions are based on issues and concerns of the society whose solutions and interpretations will come from a joint understanding of the issues arrived at by an understanding between the researcher and the participants in a particular context. Since the purpose of this study was to explore the implementation of the new and localised SGCSE English Language curriculum in rural senior secondary schools, and information was gathered from the teachers, the researcher therefore, felt the theories were appropriate for the study.

In addition, Crotty (1998) purports that constructivist researchers are qualitative researchers because they use open-ended questions which enable the participants to freely express their views. They also personally go to the participants' contexts to personally collect data. Tuli (2010) similarly points out that the success of qualitative research methodology is on the researcher and the participants spending time together, because this leads to deeper insight

and understanding into what is being studied. It also results in the provision of very rich and quality data (Tuli, 2010). Furthermore, the participants talk freely about the phenomenon that is being studied.

Since the study adopted the mixed method approach, the qualitative approach took care of this aspect. What happened in the study was that the participants freely responded to open-ended questions which the researcher asked them in person in their own contexts during data production. In support of this, Neuman (2005) suggests the use of interviews, observations, and focus group discussions for the collection of data. This was in line with what the researcher did in this study as interviews, questionnaires, and observations were used when collecting data. So, the decision to undertake the research using a constructivist and interpretivist psychological framework was deemed appropriate for the study.

2.1.7 Vygotsky's theory of Second Language Acquisition

Vygotsky formulated a theory for Second Language Acquisition which is referred to as the Interactionist theory. The theory is based on the Constructivist learning theory which is a theory that contends that children acquire knowledge through social experiences where older or more experienced members of the community teach the younger members of the community skills, values, and knowledge that they require so that they can become productive members of the community (Ariza and Hancock, 2003). Vygotsky's theory holds a similar view as it postulates that language is a social concept whose development is made possible by social interactions. The theory emphasises the role of a two-way communication between individuals as they learn a language.

Social interactions are believed to play a vital role in second language acquisition because of the belief that second language learners gain proficiency as they interact with proficient speakers of the language. Some examples of proficient speakers of the language are teachers, peers, and native speakers of the language (Ariza and Hancock, 2003). Second language acquisition according to the interactionist theory is further enhanced by the proficient speakers' use of support structures such as modelling, repetition, and linguistic simplification for purposes of backing up the learners' acquisition of the second language. The use of these support structures also enables the learners to function within their zones of proximal development (Ariza and Hancock, 2003). For Vygotsky (1962) the zone of proximal development is important as it emphasises on teachers ensuring that they consider the

learners' prospective power before making an attempt to help them develop their understanding of the language.

According to Vygotsky (1962) the acquisition of the second language occurs as a result of give and take where teachers, native speakers, and parents usher the learners through a process of guided discovery addressing the learners' abilities which results in their internalisation of the language skills. Vygotsky (1962) further says that as learners develop in their second language they gain the ability to reflect better on their own thinking and behaviour. Vygotsky's theory emphasises the importance of the environment in which the child is learning the language as well as the social nature of language learning, and the importance of social interactions among the people who are learning the language.

In this study Vygotsky's theory of language learning enabled the researcher to evaluate the environment, teaching methods, approaches, techniques and activities used by teachers to see if they provided learners with conversational interactions and the opportunity to engage in meaningful activities as they learnt English as a second language.

2.1.8 Classification of English according to the three types of English

Another thing that was considered in the study was the classification of English according to the three types of English. According to Nordquist (2012) countries can basically be divided into whether they use English as a Native Language (ENL), English as a Second Language (ESL), and English as a Foreign Language (EFL). English as a Native Language refers to the variety of English that is spoken by people who have English as their first language or mother tongue. These, according to Nordquist & Lewis (2012), are people who have acquired and used English from childhood. They are the people who have absorbed English and have the ability to use it without any problems. The notion ENL as Nordquist further explains, corresponds with the inner circle by Kachru (1985), and it refers to countries where English is the primary language used by people who have naturally acquired it. English as a Second Language (ESL) on the other hand, is a term that is used for the study of English language by people who are non-native speakers of English, and this is done in an environment that is English speaking (Nordquist & Lewis, 2012). Nordquist & Lewis (2012) further point out that examples of such environments are countries where English is the mother tongue but could be having people who are non-native speakers of English, who could be learning English.

Another example could be a country where English is not the mother tongue but has established a very important role. Swaziland is one example of such a country. This is because English in Swaziland is an official language, and there are so many important roles that come with this position. Nordquist (2012) further says that English as a Second Language corresponds to the outer/extended circle that is described by Kachru (1985). Kachru declares that countries that use English as a second language are those countries that represent the early spread of English to non-native contexts where English plays an important role in a multingual/bilingual society.

Lastly, there is English as a Foreign Language (EFL) which Nordquist (2012) uses to refer to the study of the English Language by people who are non-native speakers of English, in an environment where English is not a language that is used for communication. What this means is that EFL is learnt in an environment where the language used in the community and the school is not English. This according to Nordquist (2012) presents challenges to teachers in the sense that they have to try and provide English models for their students.

The discussion on the three different types of English makes us realize that it is possible to mistakenly say that English is taught as a second language, generally in a country, yet that could only be applicable to certain parts of the country and not all. In the absence of English speaking people in the environment in rural schools in Swaziland, one could say that English there is taught as a foreign language. However, this seems to be a problem in that the way in which the new and localised curriculum has been designed is for an environment where English is taught as a second language and not as a foreign language, hence there seems to be a mismatch on the suggested strategies and teaching methods as they may not be appropriate for the teaching of English as a foreign language. With the revival of the language in education policy which stipulates that learners are free to speak in SiSwati (The Ministry of Education Training Sector Policy, 2011), and should not be punished for doing so, the situation on the teaching of English may be more challenging because what teachers were trying to do when they insisted on learners speaking in English was trying to provide them with an English speaking environment which could qualify them as second language learners of English.

2.1.9 Definition of key terms
The following terms were used in this study as defined below:

New and localised curriculum: The Swaziland General Certificate of Secondary Education curriculum (SGCSE), which is the localised version of the IGCSE curriculum. The curriculum started being implemented in 2009 (The Ministry of Education, 2005).

Former curriculum: The General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level curriculum (GCE O- Level). The curriculum that was used in Swaziland from independence until 2006, later replaced with the IGCSE curriculum.

Rural school: a school that is situated in a very remote area and is in high need in terms of materials, infrastructure and personnel (The World Health Organisation, 2014).

Second language: a language that a person learns after acquiring the mother tongue.

Senior secondary school level: The level of education from Form 4 to Form 5.

English language curriculum: English language as a compulsory subject that is done by all learners in schools in Swaziland, a subject that determines the learners' progression from one grade level to the next.

Curriculum localisation: Freedom of schools or local education authorities to adapt a curriculum to suit local conditions as well as relating the content of the curriculum and the process of teaching/learning to the local environment, (Taylor, 2004, p. 2 and 3).

2.2.0 Summary and conclusion of the chapter

The chapter discussed the theoretical and conceptual frameworks that were used in the study. The study is framed within Cornbleth's theory of curriculum in and out of context. Kachru's theory of the classification of the use of English into three concentric circles, Vygotsky's theory of second language acquisition, and the concept of Interpretivism-Constructivism were also used. The chapter also established the relevance of the theories to the study. The definition of key terms that were used in the study was done.

CHAPTER 3
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

3.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews available literature related to the implementation of the English language curriculum in rural school contexts. The chapter provides a review of literature from different sources and further relates the literature reviewed to the study.

3.1 Importance of Implementers in the curriculum implementation stage

Available literature reveals that despite the fact that teachers are always side-lined when there are innovations that are effected to the curriculum; they are, however, the most important people in the curriculum implementation phase. Their importance in the execution of any innovations in the curriculum stems from the fact that they are the last people that see what happens in the classroom. Pacioto & Delany-Barmann (2011) assert that teachers occupy a very important status in the implementation of the curriculum as they are, 'final arbiters' of what happens in the classroom (Pacioto & Delany-Barmann, 2011, p. 221). Stressing the important role played by teachers during the curriculum implementation phase, Brown (2010, p. 298) says teachers are 'language policy actors'. She continues to say they qualify as the main actors of the language policy because they are at the centre of any language policy as they are the ones who decide whether they want to implement the policy the way it was designed or not.

Furthermore, Stenhouse (1985) refers to teachers as 'the main executors of the curriculum implementation process', without whom, the implementation process cannot succeed, (Stenhouse, 1985, p. 104). In addition, Altrichter (2005, p. 5) calls them the 'main actors' of implementation, as they are the only ones that are entrusted with the responsibility of implementing the curriculum. Stenhouse also refers to them as 'agents' of the curriculum implementation process (Stenhouse, 1979, p. 4). Proudford (1999, p. 3) declares that teachers are at 'the focal point of whatever changes that are effected in the curriculum', and because of that they have to be recognized as very important, and even though they seem to be one of the many factors in the implementation process they are very important and play a very important role in the success of the reform (Altrichter, 2005).

What this means is that although teachers may be regarded as powerless and may be thought of as people who have no say in educational policy issues and curriculum innovation issues,

they are, however, very powerful in their classrooms when it comes to making decisions of what should be done and what should not be done. It does not matter what they have been mandated to do, if they do not want to do it there is no way they can be forced to do it. As the last people that get to see what happens in the classroom, it does not matter what the government has said they must do, they do what they want and what they feel is good for their learners. They may seem inferior or junior to the state but they have great power and control over everything that happens in their classrooms, hence they have to be recognized. Recognizing them means, involving them from the very initial stage of curriculum innovation so that they do not resist the curriculum, or have a negative attitude towards the new curriculum. The background in this study revealed that teachers in Swaziland were against the introduction and localisation of the SGCSE curriculum as they felt that it was weak and was going to disadvantage the learners. This study therefore intended finding out how teachers implement a curriculum that they resented.

3.2 Influence of teachers on curriculum implementation

The review of literature also reveals that teachers are the "ones that bring the curriculum documents to limelight and reality" and therefore they influence the curriculum a great deal (Obilo & Sangoleye, 2010, p.1). In a similar vein Rahman (2014) makes the same observation when he says that the influence that teachers have on the curriculum cannot be overemphasized. These scholars argue that curriculum implementation is the individual work of the teacher where the teacher interprets the curriculum document into action and this makes the teacher to be the most important person in the process as the interpretation is his/her own. Also holding the same view is Mkpa & Izuagba (2009) who state that teachers make the final decision regarding the learning experiences to be given to the learners and they do what they feel is right. As proof that teachers translate the curriculum the way they want Obilo & Sangoleye (2010) undertook a study which showed that when teachers encountered some challenges in the classroom they adopted new methods and approaches of teaching and changed the way they have been instructed to teach. They also made certain adaptations and changes on the curriculum to suit the environments in which they were; hence they influenced the curriculum implementation process in a tremendous way (Hardre, 2012; Rahman, 2014; Wood, Finch, & Mirecki, 2013).

In support of the same opinion, Billington, Holscher, Haroldson, Roering, & Dubinsky (2013) embarked on a study that exposed that the introduction of the Inquiry approach in the teaching of science compelled teachers to use current reforms in the teaching of science as

they had to adopt this approach to teaching. However, what was observed was that teachers found the approach difficult to use as it was different from the approach that was used when they themselves were taught. The approach was also different from the approach that they had been using to teach all along. This was because the model of teaching that was used during their time relied heavily on memorization of facts (Billington, et al 2013) and they had been using it for a very long time. Having to change and adopt a new model proved to be very difficult, hence they continued with the use of the traditional approach (Billington et al, 2013).

The continued use of the traditional model of instruction according to this study resulted in a considerable decline in the quality of science lessons. Only 14 % of the science lessons that were taught were of good quality, and these were lessons in which teachers made an attempt to utilize the Inquiry approach to instruction. What this means is that innovative methods of teaching, and curriculum innovations can only yield good results if they are fully adopted and implemented. If teachers do not adopt and use them to the fullest and instead continue to use the traditional models, they may be problematic and not yield the expected results. This could result in the misconception that the curriculum is failing, yet the actual fact will be the failure on the part of the teachers to adopt the methods and implement them in the stipulated way. If the same thing is happening with the new and localised English language curriculum, this could be the reason why the learners are not doing well in external examinations. If teachers are using the old traditional methods of teaching, same as they were found to be doing in the studies by Msibi (2010) and Zondo (2009), which revealed that teachers were still using the old traditional methods for the teaching of the new and localised SGCSE History curriculum, the curriculum is likely to fail.

A closer look at the inquiry approach in this study reveals that the approach had, in many ways, characteristics that are similar to those of the SGCSE English Language curriculum, which is the new and localised curriculum in Swaziland. This is because like the SGCSE, the inquiry approach requires learners to observe, ask questions, examine books, find information from different sources, plan investigations, review what is known in light of evidence, use tools to gather, analyse and interpret data (Billington et al, 2013). What this means is that the inquiry approach like the SGCSE English language curriculum, requires learners to independently gather information. According to this study, however, learners were not afforded the opportunity to do this because teachers were still stuck in the old methods of teaching that were used when they themselves were taught, and this was resulting in a low

pass rate in science. For someone who could be looking at the low pass rate of learners from a distance, it would appear as if the cause for the low pass rate was the new approach when in actual fact it was the teachers' inability to adopt the new approach. Since most of the teachers of English that we have in Swaziland were taught using the traditional methods of teaching and not the innovative ones which have been proposed for the SGCSE English language curriculum, teachers could still be using the old methods and this could be resulting in the low pass rate of learners. It was the purpose of this study therefore to find out if teachers implemented the new and localised English language curriculum in rural schools in Swaziland using the proposed methods.

A study by Hord & Hall (1987) also reveals that the key to the successful improvement of a school or education, does not lie with the introduction of new programs or new curricula but it lies with the participants within a school (Hord & Hall, 1987). What this means is that no matter how good a new program or curriculum maybe, if the interventions made by the people within the school are not good, the program or curriculum will not be successful. The most important participants within a school include among others, teachers. If the classroom teachers, resource teachers, principals and deputy principals, do not take an active role in ensuring that the new curriculum is effectively implemented, chances of that curriculum succeeding are/will be limited (Hord& Hall, 1987).

Pacioto & Delany-Barmann (2011) also point out that teachers play an important role in ensuring that a new curriculum is effectively implemented. The Constitution of the Republic of Kenya (2010) also concurs with this view as it posits that the role of teachers in the implementation of a curriculum program is both important and central. As people who are in the fore-front of the curriculum implementation process, teachers have to be fully prepared for the new curriculum before they can be asked to implement it. This will ensure that curriculum materials are utilized in a way that effective learning will be enhanced in the classroom. Again, the preparations have to be done in accordance with the beliefs, decisions, and commitments of the teachers, which shape the way they implement the curriculum (Pacioto & Delany-Barmann, 2011).

As final "arbiters" (Pacioto & Delany-Barmann, 2011, p. 221) of the curriculum, teachers have the liberty to modify the curriculum and the prescribed materials to suit both the contexts in which they are, their teaching styles, and also their belief systems. Decisions on what to do with the curriculum solely rely on them. They may decide to cover part of the

curriculum or the whole curriculum if they want, but whatever decisions they take influence the implementation of the curriculum. Teachers therefore have to be equipped with skills, knowledge and necessary competencies about that particular curriculum or program before being given the program to implement (Kobia & Ndiga, 2013; Rahman, 2014). This has to be done to ensure that they are well informed of the changes in the curriculum or program as well as books and materials that have been proposed, so that they can effectively implement the curriculum. Kobia & Ndiga (2013) further emphasize the need to continuously provide teachers with varied ways of handling the new curriculum, which they say could be done through in service courses which could be in the form of short courses, seminars, workshops and conferences. Professional development of teachers can influence their knowledge and practice, which can in turn influence the way they implement the curriculum (Garet, Porter, Demone, Birman &Youn, 2001; Suporitz & Turner 2000). It is therefore important that teachers' professional development be effective so that their implementation of the curriculum can also be effective.

Another thing that was also found to influence effective implementation of the new curriculum in the literature review was support and follow up after professional development (Garet, et al, 2001). What this means is that it is not enough that teachers be developed professionally in order for them to effectively implement any curriculum, but another important thing that is required is support and a follow up to the professional development to see if it is making any difference in terms of enhancing effectiveness in curriculum implementation. This can be done for example by conducting research on the implementation of the curriculum to see if the professional development is enhancing the implementation of the curriculum thereby giving teachers support. According to Kobia & Ndiga (2013 p. 137) teachers are the "adopting units and king posts" in the implementation of curriculum changes, therefore, the provision of proper training is required to ensure that they perceive the new curriculum as their own and not something that is imposed on them by other people. Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) similarly say that if teachers felt in any way that a new curriculum was being imposed on them, they would reject it.

Kobia & Ndiga (2013) investigated how teachers influenced the implementation of the Kiswahili curriculum in Igembe district. The findings revealed that teachers' characteristics such as age and gender had no influence in the implementation of the curriculum but the most important thing that they needed to ensure effective implementation of the curriculum was the provision of opportunities to attend in-service courses. As implementers of the new and

localised curriculum, the study at hand sought to find out if English language teachers are provided or were provided with such in-service courses to ensure effective implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum.

3.3 Teachers' fidelity to the curriculum and how it affects the curriculum

The literature review points to teachers' fidelity in the use of curriculum as another factor that affects the curriculum. Bumen, Cakarar, & Yildiz, (2014) are of the view that curriculum fidelity is a very old concept which many studies have made reference to since the 1970s particularly in the U.S.A. It is defined by Mihalic (2002) as a way of determining how well a curriculum is being implemented in comparison with the way in which it was designed. It can also be defined as the extent to which teachers are implementing a curriculum as it was intended by the designers (Pence, Justice, & Wiggins, 2008). It is basically the degree to which teachers implement the curriculum in line with the stipulations made during its design. Giving more light on this concept, Bumen, et. al, (2014) say it is at times referred to as fidelity of implementation and that it occurs during the implementation of a curriculum where teachers find themselves being forced to make changes on the curriculum based on their own preferences, the students that they teach, and the environment in which they are teaching They further say the concept resulted from the realisation that during the implementation phase, there are problems, errors, and challenges that are encountered by the implementers which force them to make these changes. Such changes, according to Bumen et al (2014), are necessary in order to minimize the challenges and to ensure the effective implementation of the curriculum. It is therefore their view that curriculum fidelity is very important and that it has to be maintained. This is because in the absence of expert staff that can adapt the curriculum to the conditions of their regions, schools, or classrooms, teachers opt to do the adaptations themselves, if they experience difficulty abiding by the central curriculum in their contexts (Bumen, et al, 2014).

Research has found curriculum fidelity to be a determining factor of success or failure of the curriculum (Fullan, 2007; Dusenbury, Brannigan, Falco, & Hansen, 2003; Rogers, 2003, and Petruzzelli, 2010). Stressing the importance of studying it Bumen, et al (2014) say it reveals failure to implement a curriculum, helps to explain why innovations succeed and fail, allows researchers to identify what has been changed in a program and how the changes impact on the outcomes, and reveals the feasibility of an implementation (Dusenbury et al, 2003).

In this research curriculum fidelity was viewed as something that could be used to explain the differences in the implementation of the English language curriculum yet the curriculum had been centrally designed for all teachers, students and contexts. It was also used to explain the variations in the best practices and the option to use some methods and not others when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum. This would explain why the same curriculum was implemented differently by the teachers.

3.4 Influence of principals in curriculum implementation

The review of literature further indicates that classroom teachers are not the only ones who influence the implementation of a curriculum. Principals of schools, also have a great influence in the implementation of a curriculum. According to Hord & Hall (1987), what the principals do, combined with their leadership styles, determine whether a new curriculum will be successfully implemented or not. So, whether the implementation of a new curriculum will be successful or not depends on the leadership styles of the principals and the way in which the principals generally do things. The role of the principal in the improvement of school programs and school curricula is also counted among the most important in curriculum implementation by Leithwood & Montgomery (1982), Little, (2000) & Morris et al (1981).

A study known as the Principal Teacher Interaction (PTI) carried out in nine elementary schools in the United States of America revealed that among some of the roles that principals did which ensured effective implementation of the curricula, was to support classroom teachers as they implement the curriculum (Hord & Hall, 1987). Such assistance may come in many forms. It may come in the form of the provision of all the resource materials that are required by the teachers as per the dictates of the curriculum. In the case of the SGCSE English Language curriculum for example, such support could come in the form of the provision of reading materials in the library, CDs with audio exercises, tape recorders and access to the internet so that learners can find information and read to improve their English in preparation for their examinations.

In the light of the above, head teachers are advised to make a "sustained effort" to support teachers in their endeavour to implement new curricula (Hord & Hall, 1987 p. 60) by providing them with all the resource materials that they need. Head teachers should also organize training for teachers (Hord & Hall, 1987). What this means is that no matter how good a curriculum may be, if the people who have been entrusted with the responsibility of

implementing it are not given the kind of support that they require as well as not trained, the curriculum will not be successful. This study therefore, sought to find out from the teachers if they do get such support from the principals of their schools.

3.5 Teachers' instructional beliefs about the curriculum or innovation

Literature review also reveals that teachers' instructional beliefs can either be obstacles or conveyances of change (Handal & Herrington, 2003; Babic, 2012; Pecore, 2013). Handal & Herrington (2003) did a study which revealed that teachers rely more on their own beliefs than the suggested pedagogy more especially when instructing a new curriculum. The study further revealed that in most cases, the beliefs that teachers rely upon are conservative, meaning they are long held. The result on the use of these long held beliefs according to Handal & Herrington (2003) is difficulty in implementing the curriculum as well as complexity and failure for most curriculum reforms.

In consideration of these beliefs, it is important that before teachers are given any curriculum innovation to implement, an exploration and identification of their instructional beliefs be done for purposes of determining their appropriateness in relation to the innovation (Handal & Herrington, 2003; Babic, 2012; Pecore, 2013). These studies also show that the low grade of success in many educational reforms was mostly attributable to teachers' instructional beliefs, hence, these beliefs have to be considered before any innovation is implemented (Fullan, 1993).

In support of this assertion, Cuban (1993) also views that the beliefs and attitudes that teachers have are important because they shape what they decide to do in the classrooms. Handal & Herrington (2003) also observe that the instructional beliefs of teachers act as a measure through which they make instructional decisions in their classrooms. Teachers use these beliefs to make decisions instead of basing the decisions on their own pedagogical knowledge or curriculum guidelines. Teachers' beliefs have been found to be at the centre of any educational endeavour and therefore have a very strong impact on teaching and learning (Handal, Bobis & Grimison, 2001; Lovat & Smith, 2006; Alshibany, 2000). These beliefs, according to Lovat & Smith (2006) influence the way teachers practice and process new information. What this means is that somewhere in between the goals of the curriculum and its implementation is teachers' instructional beliefs (Handal & Herrington, 2003). It is therefore important that there is an alignment between teachers' instructional beliefs and the goals of any innovation to ensure the success of the innovation.

If such an alignment exists and the beliefs of teachers are compatible with the educational innovations, the likelihood is that the new changes will be accepted and adopted in the classroom. If the alignment however, does not exist, if the teachers' beliefs do not match the goals of the innovation, the innovation will be resisted by the teachers thus a low take up or total rejection of the innovation will result. Babic (2012) identified teachers' beliefs on technology in education and E-learning in technology in a blended learning environment.

3.6 The teaching/learning of English in rural schools

Literature reviewed also reveals that studies that have been done on the teaching of English language in rural schools indicate that teaching English as a second language in rural schools is a very difficult thing to do. Thapaliya (2010) carried out a study in Nepal which revealed that the teaching of English as a second language in rural schools was hindered by many factors. The purpose of the study was to investigate factors and problems of teaching English as a second language in rural settings. Some of the problems that were unveiled by the study were that most rural parents were not educated and therefore, could not supervise, guide or help their children with English. Another problem was that teachers taught English using the mother tongue, thus preventing learners from acquiring communication abilities in English. The study however, does not explain why teachers decided to use the mother tongue when teaching English despite being aware that as the only educated people in rural schools they were the only models of the language. The use of the mother tongue when teaching could mean that teachers are 'abdicating their roles as the only models of the language' and they are also putting the learners at a disadvantage as they do not have any other person to model the language they are trying to learn, (Nxumalo, 2007, p. 15).

The study further highlights that urban school learners in Nepal always performed better than their rural school counterparts in English. This was attributable to their having English role models. This was because most parents in urban schools were educated and could therefore help their children with English. The situation in rural schools in Nepal seems to be similar to the situation in rural schools in Swaziland. Most rural school parents are not educated and therefore may not help their children with English. This could also be the cause for learners' poor performance in the language when compared to urban school learners, whose parents are mostly educated. On the issue of teachers teaching English in the mother tongue one could say that they may be driven to do so by the learners' inability to understand what is being said in English as the environment in which they live does not use English. This study therefore

intended finding out how teachers implemented such a complex curriculum in an environment that does not enhance it.

3.7 Challenges encountered when a new curriculum is implemented

The literature reviewed reveals that the history of the implementation of new projects, localised innovations, and curricula programs is always fraught with problems of grave consequences (Rogers, 2003; Fullan, 2007, Reschly & Gresham, 2006). It further reveals that the problems are always there whether it is an individual or an institution that is adopting the innovations; the process is always difficult and complicated (Emrick et al, in Rogers, 2003). No matter how experienced or inexperienced teachers may be, they encounter various problems when implementing the English curriculum, more especially if the English curriculum is new. This is because the new curriculum normally comes with new teaching methods, techniques, and the requirement of new teaching materials. Teachers further find it difficult to adopt and adapt to new situations and therefore require guidance in order to adopt and adapt (Schweisfurth, 2011).

Referring to the problems that are encountered at the implementation stage, Schweisfurth (2011, p. 419), says that the implementation process is always associated with 'stories of failure big and small.' Abraham (2003) and Bennion (2001) also make the same observation that there are always problems that are associated with the implementation of new curricula. What this means is that the problems are always there and they also come in different forms. Some are major while others are minor. The fact that the implementation process is always associated with problems means that the process is delicate and therefore all care and consideration should be taken when it is done to ensure success.

Failure at this stage would mean all the time spent on planning and designing the changes in the curriculum, project, or localised innovations would have been wasted. In support of the notion of problems and failures during the implementation phase, Levin (2010) warns that it would be wrong to take for granted the implementation phase because the mere fact that the changes have been made does not necessarily mean that the changes or the benefits are going to be achieved. Levin (2010) revealed that a number of states, provinces, and countries, learnt after many years of implementing a project/program, or curriculum that 'things have remained the same and the promised benefits have not been achieved,' (Levin, 2010, p. 740).

Bennie & Newstead (1999) also agree that the introduction of a new curriculum always presents a lot of challenges to teachers. They further observe that the challenges come in

different forms as they sometimes relate to content, teaching approaches, and assessment methods. In order to ensure that the challenges are not left until it is too late, it is appropriate that a follow up be done immediately after the implementation phase to avoid a situation where it will be discovered after many years that the implementation process did not go well. Bennie & Newstead (1999) conducted a study in South Africa for purposes of identifying obstacles to the implementation of Curriculum 2005. The study revealed that Curriculum 2005, required teachers to change the way they taught, the content, their assessment strategies, and their underlying belief systems. Like all new curricula, the new and localised SGCSE English language curriculum could be posing a range of challenges to rural school teachers and this study intended to identify these challenges and also to find out what teachers did to overcome them. The study also intended to find out from senior secondary school teachers in rural schools what they had experienced about the implementation of the SGCSE English language curriculum from the time of its introduction.

Another thing that was found to be contributing as a challenge in the implementation of a new curriculum is teachers' attitude towards the curriculum innovation. Due to the fact that they are sometimes side-lined and not involved when the changes are made; teachers feel no obligation to the changes that have been made on the curriculum. Shkedi (2009) observes that teachers are in most cases not obedient to the theoretical curriculum. What they do is that they teach what they feel is right for them and their learners and they do not bother following the teachers' guide. Shkedi (2009) notes that a number of teachers pointed out that they taught the way they wanted and did not follow the teachers' guide. Another teacher in the study was quoted saying, 'the truth is that I don't keep to the curriculum or the teachers' guide. I feel quite free to do what I want. I am not interested in what the curriculum writers expect from me……I never consider what they intended … I teach what seems relevant to me without making any connection to the curriculum and without any sense of obligation to it', (Shkedi, 2009, p. 835). Shkedi (2009) wanted to find out what teachers did with the theoretical part of the curriculum in their classrooms.

3.8 Methods of Teaching English as a Second Language

Available literature on methods of teaching English as a second language reveals that for many decades the pre-dominant method of second language instruction was the Grammar-Translation Method (Richards and Rodgers, 2002). This method required the learners of a language to engage in translation activities where they would do direct translations to the targeted second language. Learners who had been taught using this method it was discovered

could not use the target language proficiently as well as fluently; hence other methods of teaching which would ensure that learners gained fluency as well as proficiency in the target language were sought. The idea was that a method/s that would ensure that learners learnt the target language in a natural way be used because that is how learners learn/acquire a language (Richards and Renandya, 2002). Accordingly the mother-tongue, nor any form of translation from the mother tongue to the target language, should not be done. All that teachers had to do when teaching the second language was to demonstrate, give learners tasks/activities, and do actions that will make learners understand /find meaning from what was being said, as well as learn/acquire the language.

This mode of thought about how a second language was to be taught and developed in the learners, saw the field of second language teaching/learning undergoing many shifts and trends. The teaching of the second language shifted from the use of the Grammar Translation Method to other methods such as the Audio-Lingual Method, Total Physical Response, and Natural Approach, to name a few (Richards and Rodgers, 2002). Due to the belief that there is no single best method of helping learners acquire/learn the second language that is being targeted, different teaching methods have been combined and used together to ensure that all learners are catered for, hence, benefit from whatever instruction they are getting from their teachers. The use of the combined teaching methods also resulted from the understanding that effective teaching is not only about a teaching method, but it is also about the teacher understanding and implementing principles of learning that will ensure the learners' success (Richards and Renandya, 2002).

Examples of methods that have come about as a result of this kind of view towards the teaching/learning of a second language are Communicative Language Teaching methodologies and Task-Based Language Teaching Methodologies, to name some. These methodologies according to Richards and Rogers (2002)) incorporate eclectic ways of teaching that are borrowed from countless methods. The methods are further rooted, not only in one theory of second language acquisition, but on an assortment/range of second language acquisition theories as well as cognitive and educational psychology theories.

3.8.1 Communicative Language Teaching

As already indicated earlier, Communicative Language Teaching refers to the use of a collection of language teaching methods where the language is used for communication. This method is used for purposes of achieving competency in communication where emphasis is

on the use of the language and any other aspect of language is developed within the context of communication and not as a separate entity (Sibanda, 2010). This is understood to mean that in this method focus is on using the language to communicate; other aspects such as grammar and others are developed as the language is used for communication. The use of this method therefore requires teachers to design activities/tasks where learners are going to communicate in the language that is targeted. The teacher, in consideration of these, ceases to be the midpoint and distributor of knowledge, but assumes the role of needs analysis, counsellor, group process manager, participant, resource organiser, resource person, and a learner (Richards and Rogers, 2002). In addition language roles have superiority and importance over language forms (Sibanda, 2010). Focus is on communication in the target language where the grammar to be learnt is not pre-determined since the speech engaged in is spontaneous and unrehearsed.

3.8.2 The Task-Based Approach

This is an approach to the learning of a language where the teacher provides learners with tasks that require learners to use the language as they perform it. Like in Communicative Language Teaching, speech is spontaneous as learners do not think beforehand what they are going to say, but what they say is determined by the task. The task again creates the language and eventually aids the acquisition of the language. Teachers have to make sure that they allow the learners to decide how they are going to execute the task and not impose their own ideas or language on the learners, all that they should do is to provide the task to be done so that the learners are not conscious that they are learning a language but they should think that they are completing a task (Sibanda, 2010).

Both the Task-Based Approach and the Communicative Language Teaching method emphasise spontaneity and the impulsive use of a language through the execution of tasks that learners are given by the teacher. This is done so that learners are not aware that they are learning a language for ease of the acquisition of the language. These eclectic methods of helping learners develop in the target language as well as others are suggested for use so that learners can naturally develop in their targeted second languages.

3.9 Challenges of teaching English as a second language

The teaching/learning of a second language is always fraught with grave problems according to the literature reviewed (Abdullah, 2015; Ahamed, 2013). Both theorists agree that the problems encountered by both the learners and teachers during second language

learning/teaching make the teaching/learning of the second language an onerous task. One of the challenges is that the learners who are taught the second languages encounter is that they come from different cultures and backgrounds and this often presents them with challenges as the second language demands that they know its culture (Abdullah, 2015). Another major challenge that learners face is what Abdullah (2015) refers to as language shock which arises from the learners' attempt to learn a second language in an environment/context where the language is not used. Such a context normally does not provide the learners with the support that they may require as they learn the second language (Ahamed, 2013). The context does not also embrace the change and diversity with regards to culture that normally comes with the language that is being learnt. Learners who have to learn the second language in such a context have the task to learn not just the language but the new culture and at the same time are expected to maintain a sense of identity with regards to their own culture and this is a very difficult thing to do. Obtaining a balance between their own culture and that of the second language is often very difficult. The teaching/learning of English as a second language is no exception as all these problems are experienced. Abdullah (2015) posits that in most countries where English is taught/learnt as a second language the context is normally non-English speaking and this makes it difficult for learners to speak it as it is regarded as a foreign language in the environment. Such an environment does not provide learners with the opportunity to practice the language as no one in the environment speaks it. Another problem that learners encounter with English is that they are required to learn the culture of English and at the same time maintain their own. It becomes difficult for them to maintain a balance between their own culture and that of English.

Adding onto the problems that are encountered when English is taught/learnt as a second language Ahamed (2013) and Abdullah (2015) mention pronunciation and further concur that it is not only a problem to learners but teachers as well. For the teachers the problem is that most of them are non-native speakers of English so as they teach English they wrongly pronounce some of the words and in that way the wrong pronunciation is passed on to the learners. As the teachers wrongly pronounce some of the words some of them are cognisant of the mistake that they are making and this makes them lose confidence and become uncomfortable (Behroozi & Amoozegar 2014). Another thing that makes teachers uncomfortable and not confident when teaching English as a second language is their low proficiency in the language (since most of them are non-native speakers) and their inability to use technology both during teaching and when conducting examinations where the use of

technology is required (Behroozi & Amoozegar 2014). The teachers' lack of confidence and low proficiency in English is passed on to the learners. This is also in direct contrast with Behroozi & Amoozegar (2014) whose view is that as real agents of change teachers should be confident and should also have maximal authority and power over the subject matter that they are teaching because if they do not the learners will not benefit. In addition to teachers' lack of confidence the environment in which learners learn English should be supportive, conducive, and adequate in terms of the provision of meaningful experiences to the learners. However, Behroozi & Amoozegar (2014) observe that the context where English is taught as a second language does not provide learners with the opportunity to use English both inside and outside the classroom. The learners' home environment and community does not provide learners with such an opportunity and this often leads to learners' display of an unwillingness and lack of motivation to learning English. Behroozi & Amoozegar (2014) further grouped the challenges of learning English as a second language into three sources, namely, the teacher, the context, and the approach.

With the teacher as the source of the problems, the researchers identified low proficiency in speaking the language, inadequate pedagogical knowledge, and inability to plan for effective classroom activities. With the context as the source, lack of a conducive environment, unsupportive environment, large numbers of learners in class, limited teaching time, and limited resources, were identified as obstacles. With the approach as the source, lack of emphasis on the communicative role of English with emphasis on the structural approach which makes English language classes boring for both the teachers and the learners, was identified. The study by Behroozi & Amoozegar (2014) concludes that if no means to attend to these obstacles are identified, learners will not benefit from being taught English as a second language.

3.10 Teachers' misconceptions about a new curriculum

Literature also reveals that it is possible for teachers to demonstrate mastery of the theoretical part of a new teaching method, technique or approach and the practice on the other hand demonstrate non-mastery of the approach, technique, or teaching method. What this means therefore, is that conclusions of ones' understanding of something new that has been introduced does not necessarily mean that the person will be able to implement that new thing appropriately. Vavrus (2008) revealed that in a Tanzanian teachers' college even though a particular student teacher boasted of having mastered the discovery method of teaching and further claimed that both his students and colleagues had started using the method and that

they seemed to enjoy it, when the same student teacher was asked to demonstrate through two micro-teaching lessons how he taught using the new method it transpired that the student teacher had difficulty using the method hence, the researcher opted to use the term "dreadful" to describe his performance (Vavrus, 2008, p. 306).

What this means is that teachers can claim to have understood how they should implement a new curriculum but the reality could be that when they get to the practical implementation the said degree of understanding may not be demonstrated. Therefore, the best way to tell whether teachers are doing the right thing is to observe them practically implementing the curriculum. The study also revealed that inequalities in materials in African schools were the cause for lack of attainment of international standards of excellence in teaching. Vavrus (2008) came to this conclusion after two students displayed different methods of teaching. The reason for the use of the two different methods was that the students they had been assigned to were different. Because of the different types of students that they had been assigned to and the different classroom configurations in which they were working, they had to use different methods. The students adopted different methods yet the method they were supposed to use had been given. What this means therefore is that teachers' decision on the method to use may be influenced by the situation they find themselves in. It is therefore, important that a follow up be done after anything new has been introduced, be it a new curriculum, teaching method, approach or technique, so that it can be seen in practice whether the theory is being correctly operationalized or not.

3.11 Relevance of the curriculum to the needs of the people

Available literature also reveals that it is important that curriculum content be of relevance to the local needs of the people as that is an important ingredient for quality education. This could be realized by localising the curricula. In order to ensure that the curriculum is successfully localised there are a number of trends that should be followed according to Part III of the Module, Designing and Implementing Local Curricula (2012). Firstly, it is important that the localised curriculum be developed by teachers and local authorities as this is the best way of ensuring that the realities and perceptions of the community are integrated. Secondly, it is important that even though the core curriculum may be implemented nationally, content should be modified by each region to ensure that it suits each region according to its needs. What this means is that when curricula have been localised, schools should be at liberty to modify the curriculum according to their needs so that it can suit the circumstances and their community. This could mean for example, having the same national

curriculum but making some modifications to suit the local needs of the learners. This ensures flexibility and creativity on the part of those entrusted with the responsibility of localising the curricula. Countries such as Indonesia, Japan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Mongolia, Philippines & the Republic of Korea, to name just a few, classify the learning and teaching content into content prescribed by the state and content that is school or region based to ensure relevance.

The reviewed literature also reveals that curriculum content can only be said to be relevant to the needs of the people if among other things, it influences the lives of the learners and also provides them with skills that will enable them to function in the society. Kapoma and Namusokwe (2011) point out that it is important that the curriculum content provides learners with skills that would enable them to find employment in the society. A curriculum that would be able to do that would be one that is relevant to the society and it also means the curriculum is 'answering the need for employment' (Kapoma & Namusokwe, 2011, p.1). They also state that it is important that the curriculum content constitute of local and regional aspects of what is taught so that learners can relate to and apply them in their contexts. They further emphasize the need for curriculum content to include the cultural norms and values of the society and materials that are relevant to the culture of the society as these enable learners to be successful in 'contextualizing learning and making connections with their culture' (p.1).

The conclusion that can be drawn from Kapoma & Namusokwe's work is that a curriculum that responds to the social needs of the people is important as it ensures relevance. The curriculum can be said to be relevant if it provides learners with employment opportunities. This study therefore intended finding out if the localised SGCSE curriculum was relevant to the needs of the learners in Swaziland. It also intended finding out if teachers in the Lubombo region where this new and localised curriculum was implemented were at liberty to make any modifications to suit their teaching environments.

3.12 Constraints in the implementation of localised curricula

It is important to note that for any action or new decision that is taken there is a possible effect or result that is bound to be experienced (Fullan, 2001). What this could mean in relation to the introduction of a new curriculum is that for any new curriculum that is introduced there is bound to be implications or possible effects. This is because according to Fullan (2001) and Badugela (2012) the introduction of a new curriculum comes with changes in materials, teaching approaches, beliefs, and assessment procedures. Changes in the above

mentioned are bound to result in implications for both the teachers and the learners. As a new curriculum, the localised SGCSE curriculum is no exception. The fact that it has also come with certain changes pre-supposes certain effects. This study, therefore, aimed at unveiling these effects by finding out how teachers implemented it. Research also indicates that when a localised curriculum is implemented there are challenges that are often experienced (Abraham, 2003; Bennion, 2001 and Designing and Implementing Local Curricula Module Part 3, 2012). Firstly, it is very difficult to ensure that the local curriculum is relevant to the needs of the local people. According to part III of the module, in Indonesia for example, after the new and localised curriculum was launched in 1994, it was discovered that the curriculum could not sufficiently cater for the different Indonesian societies as Indonesian people who speak different languages had flocked to the city centre. The localised curriculum failed to find a balance between the needs of the society and the national standards and national priorities.

Secondly, the implementation of the localised curriculum is often problematic because generally the theoretical part of things is always easy when compared to the practical (Nxumalo, 2007, Part III of the Module, Designing and Implementing Local Curricula, 2012). According to the module, 'the situation in practical terms is not always as easy as when it is laid out in official documents' (p. 35). In Malaysia, for example, the implementation of the localised curriculum was found to be problematic, when it was discovered that there were problems that were related to teachers' qualifications, motivation, skills, learners' motivation to learn, interest in school, language instruction, insufficient learning materials, and attitude of teachers and learners. The constraints faced in Malaysia cannot only be confined to Malaysia as they are likely to be experienced in other countries during the implementation of localised curricula. The situation could be the same even with the implementation of the new and localised SGCSE English curriculum in Swaziland. It was the intention of this research therefore, to find out what the situation was pertaining to the implementation of the new and localised SGCSE English curriculum in rural senior secondary schools in the Lubombo region.

In Zimbabwe as observed by Abraham (2003) the localisation of Art examinations encountered several challenges which included among others, the leakage of the examinations questions to the public, question mix ups, and inability by local teachers to score and write examination papers. The situation may be the same in Swaziland because there have been cases of paper leakages in Swaziland after the introduction and localisation

of SGCSE. There have been reports also that some teachers who had been setting and marking the examination have been fired after discoveries of malpractice and inappropriate scoring and marking of the examination papers. Bennion (2001) on the other hand, said that some of the challenges that were encountered when the Institute of Public Administration was localised in Malawi included government's interference by appointing staff members from outside the country.

 However, Bennion (2001) maintains that despite the challenges there were certain benefits that came with localisation of any form. Some of these were that the demands of the country were met and the people that were trained in the localised program helped in ensuring that the country's needs were met. Abraham (2003) concurs and says some benefits that were experienced in the localisation of the Art examination in Zimbabwe included the reduction of examination fees, relevance of examination, and the end of imperialism. The reviewed literature indicates that there were certain challenges experienced when a localised curriculum was implemented, however, this does not mean that there are no benefits, hence the idea of localising a curriculum is of importance for any country's education system.

3.13 Discrepancies between theory and practice

There are always discrepancies experienced between curriculum theory and practice, and in most cases these are caused by teachers' beliefs, prior experiences and practices. Saad (2011) revealed that the way teachers implemented the English language curriculum in secondary schools in Libya showed that teachers' beliefs influenced their practices in a tremendous way. These practices were also found not to be in line with the recommended curriculum theory and innovation. Saad's (2011) study was motivated by an observation made by Carless (2004) who noted that despite the fact that the implementation of changes and pedagogy was a very important area, it did not however 'receive sufficient attention' (p. 640). This meant that there was very little or no research that was normally conducted to see how teachers implemented the changes in the curriculum, yet, this was something very important. Secondly, Saad's (2011) motivation emanated from the finger pointing that was done by Libyan education officials and teachers. The education officials blamed the teachers for failing to correctly implement the new English language curriculum. Teachers on the other hand, blamed the education officials as they said that they faced many obstacles during the implementation of the new curriculum, but there was no one who seemed to care. Saad (2011) says that this prompted her to develop an interest in finding out what actually happens inside the classroom after a new curriculum has been introduced, hence the decision to

undertake the study. Another purpose for the study was to find out how teachers implemented and made sense of the English language curriculum in Libyan secondary schools.

The results from the study revealed that in most cases teachers' practices did not reflect the principles of the curriculum. Even though there were instances where certain aspects of the curriculum were implemented as per the dictates of the theory, most aspects of the curriculum were not. One instance where this was evident was when teachers failed to give learners the opportunity to speak in class so as to enhance fluency and competency in English (Saad 2011). It was observed that the real practice in class was that lessons were generally teacher centred and the dominant language during class interaction was Arabic, yet according to the new curriculum it was supposed to be English. Despite the fact that the new curriculum required that learners read on their own and work out the meanings of words from contexts, do matching activities and after reading activities, use grammar for communicative purposes, teachers did the reading themselves, translated English words into Arabic, and did not give learners the opportunity to speak in the target language. Activities where learners had to do this were omitted or 'talked through, by the teachers' (Saad, 2011, p. 3), without involving the learners.

The new curriculum had as its core component, pair work activities, however, the study revealed that these activities were either omitted or done at classroom level between the teacher and the students. The practices by the teachers indicated a discrepancy or misalignment between theory and practice. In the light of the foregoing, this study wanted to find out if such a misalignment was also happening between the SGCSE English language theory and its implementation in Swaziland.

3.14 Factors influencing teachers' practices
Studies further reveal that teachers' practices were influenced by their beliefs (Saad, 2011). The teachers' beliefs were further categorized into the following:

Beliefs about teaching and reading- The teachers in the study believed that the goal of reading was the development of accurate pronunciation of words, yet, according to the new curriculum reading had to be taught for communicative purposes, as one of the principles that had been embedded in the curriculum was that it was possible to understand what the text was about without understanding every word that had been used in the text (Macfarlane, 2000).

Belief about the use of the first language-Another belief about the English language that the teachers in the study had was that English was just a school subject and therefore, there was no need for learners to use it outside class. This belief contradicted with the philosophy of the curriculum because according to the theory, speaking in English was supposed to be a regular activity (English for Libya, 2000).

Belief about the role of the teachers and students- The teachers in the study also believed that the role of the teacher in class was to do everything for the learners and that the learners had to sit passively and listen to what the teacher would be saying. Teachers regarded themselves as the only sources and custodians of information, whose role was to transmit this information to the learners. According to the new curriculum, both teachers and learners were equal partners in the teaching/learning process as learners also had to find information for themselves while the teacher facilitated the teaching/learning process.

Belief about error correction- The curriculum, according to Saad (2011) was very tolerant to the mistakes made by learners as mistakes were regarded as a normal part of learning the language. Teachers, therefore, did not have to correct the learners all the time so that learners could be encouraged to use the language without fear. The teachers, however, were of the view that students' grammatical and pronunciation mistakes had to be corrected immediately so that learners could stop making them.

The teachers' beliefs discussed indicated how teachers' practices could deviate from what was recommended by the curriculum. What this means, therefore, is that the curriculum may be seen to be failing not because it is actually failing, but because teachers have certain beliefs that are influencing its implementation and these beliefs could be causing the deviations in the practice. The findings from the study further revealed that teachers' beliefs shaped their interpretation and implementation of the curriculum. Their practices displayed strongly held beliefs about the teaching/learning of a language which were contrary to those embedded in the curriculum. The study concluded that teachers' beliefs could influence their practices which in turn can influence the way they implement the curriculum. It was for this reason that Saad (2011) suggested that curriculum planners need to recognize that teachers interpret, filter, modify, and implement the curriculum according to their beliefs, and the context in which the curriculum is being implemented (Saad, 2011).

Due to this realisation, teachers should not be taken for granted. They should not be taken as skilled technicians who will implement the curriculum in accordance with the theory because

they have their own beliefs which influence them to decide how they are going to do their teaching (Tudor, 2001). Handal & Herrington (2003) further warn policy makers and curriculum designers that they should not assume that the curriculum will always be implemented in accordance with the theory as teachers also bring in their own attitudes, feelings, beliefs, and perceptions when implementing the curriculum. According to them all these need to be identified, recognized, addressed, and analysed before any changes are made in the curriculum to ensure that there are no discrepancies. This is because teachers are the ones who make final decisions about what the curriculum is going to be.

Saad's (2011) study is related to the study at hand because the new English language curriculum in Libya was introduced without any considerations of teachers' prior experiences, existing beliefs, and the provision of support that teachers needed in order to accept, understand, and implement the curriculum according to the theory. What was done was that teachers were briefed on the new curriculum and then asked to implement it, and this led to discrepancies between the theory and practice. The same thing was done with the new and localised SGCSE English language curriculum where teachers' views were not solicited before the curriculum was given to them to implement (Gamedze, 2010). Teachers were also not given adequate training before being tasked with the implementation of the curriculum. They were just briefed and then asked to implement it. This, according to Spillane (2002) could cause a misalignment between the intentions of the theory and practice. The misalignment may not be because teachers are unwilling to adopt the new changes but may be because of the influence of their beliefs, or that they do not really know how they should implement the new changes, hence they fall back to their prior beliefs and practices (Spillane, 2002).

Saad (2011) concludes by pointing out that since it seemed teachers' beliefs, and practices will always interfere with the implementation of new changes, may be teacher training programs needed to recognize these beliefs and practices and there after link them with the new changes to avoid the misalignment.

3.15 Best Practices in the teaching of English as a second language
The most gratifying experience for a teacher is the ability to teach successfully in "challenging situations even the most obstinate students" (Smagorinsky, 2009, p. 15). The ability to attain such an experience depends on the identification and use of the best teaching methods and practices in the teaching of that subject. The notion of 'best methods and best

practices' however is controversial because what works as a best method and best practice for one teacher may not always work the same way for another teacher (Smagorinsky, 2009). Clarifying this further, Smagorinsky (2009) narrates his experiences in his teaching profession where he was introduced to two approaches to the teaching of English by two individuals, Hillocks and Artwell. The former claimed his teaching approach as the best yet according to other teachers it was not. Speaking about the approach, Smagorinsky (2009) says it was not widely practiced by the majority of the teachers and could have been the third mostly used approach to the teaching of English as many teachers opted for Artwell's approach and considered it as the best. Smagorinsky considered Hillick's approach to be the best and therefore concluded that 'any teaching approach or practice can be considered the best practice depending on who is using it, where it is used and how the practice is experienced by all involved' (Smagorinsky, 2009, p. 18). He further opines that there is no one best method as everything depends on the teacher's preference, uniqueness of the classrooms, varied situations, and teacher's beliefs about teaching and learning, the materials available for teachers to use and the contexts in which they are teaching. Light and Gnida (2012) also agree with the idea of best practices and best methods being according to individuals. They say that teachers are more likely to engage with learning practices and principles that conform to the situations in which they are as well as those that are applicable in their individual contexts. This therefore means teachers' decisions on best practices and best methods depend upon individuals and also the situations and contexts in which the teaching is being done.

Contrary to Smagorinsky (2009) and Light & Gnida (2012)'s claim that best practices depend on individuals, the Master's in ESL (2013) is of the view that there are actually methods and practices that qualify as best methods and best practices for the teaching of English. Some of these include helping learners to build vocabulary through motivating activities which can be realized by the following:

- Having short targeted discussions about interesting themes
- Sharing images or objects that spark conversations
- Watching short videos on art, music, dance, and other relevant themes
- Using music, rhythm, songs, tongue twisters or mnemonic devices that reinforce the meanings of challenging words.

The Master's in ESL (2013) further advises teachers to consider the integration of all the four language modes when teaching instead of using a separate language arts instruction. The notion of 'best practices' being best to the person who was using them was noted when the teachers gave what they viewed to be best practices for them for the teaching of English in their contexts.

3.16 Summary and conclusion of the chapter

The chapter outlined a number of studies that were reviewed which had been carried out which were similar to the study at hand. The studies showed how important teachers were in the implementation phase and also how their attitudes and beliefs could influence the implementation of any new curriculum. This review of literature made the researcher understand why a majority of the teachers in the current study said they still used methods of teaching that they were using with the former GCE-O-Level curriculum. Their use of the methods was in accordance with the attitude that rural school learners could not find information on their own hence, teachers have to continue using teacher-centred approaches to teaching so that the learners can get the information that is required.

 The literature review further indicated the challenges that were brought about by the introduction and localisation of curricula as well as how misalignments between theory and practice could result when a curriculum was being implemented. This helped in answering one of the research questions which was specifically on the challenges that were faced by teachers when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum. The next chapter outlines the methodology that was used in carrying out the study.

CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines the methods, techniques and procedures that were applied in order to design and put together the research. It presents the research paradigm, approach, design, study area, target population, sampling technique, and sample frame, instruments for data collection, procedure for data collection, data presentation, and data analysis.

4.1 Research paradigm

A paradigm is defined by Patton & Cochran (2002) as a world view, a general perspective, and a way that individuals use to understand the world. It is further defined as a framework that is guided by people's beliefs and feelings about the world pertaining to how the world should be studied and understood (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). As Denzin & Lincoln (2005) observe, people's beliefs and feelings about how the world should be studied and understood can be divided into three categories, namely, ontology, epistemology, and methodology. Ontology is more concerned with what is real. It concerns itself with the nature of the phenomena that is being studied (Borg & Gall, 1989; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). What this means is that ontology has at its concern issues that relate to whether "social reality is external to individuals or it is a product of individual consciousness" (Cohen, et al, 2011, p.5).

Epistemology focuses on the kind of relationship that exists between the person who is searching for information (researcher) and the information that is already in existence or known thereby concerns itself with how the knowledge is as well as the processes that have to be carried out to get the knowledge (Borg & Gall, 1989). Cohen et al (2011) are of the view that a paradigm denotes a set of people's beliefs and therefore refers to these beliefs as assumptions. Elaborating on these assumptions they posit that ontological assumptions have something to do with how the phenomenon that is being studied is. Epistemological assumptions deal with the bases or source of knowledge, forms and nature of knowledge, how knowledge can be found, how it can be passed on to other people, and whether it can be acquired or experienced. Methodological assumptions have to do with how people know the world, and how they can gain knowledge about it, and because of that they constitute a set of

assumptions that relate to the relationship between human beings and their environment (Cohen et al, 2011).

In Cohen's et al (2011) view the three assumptions are related. The theorists purport that "ontological assumptions give rise to epistemological assumptions, which give rise to methodological considerations, which in turn give rise to issues that relate to instrumentation and data collection" (Cohen et al, 2011, p. 6). All these assumptions influence how the research will be carried out as they demand different research methods. The researchers' search for knowledge therefore depends on these assumptions, which in turn give rise to other paradigms. It was on the basis of this knowledge about paradigms that the interpretative research paradigm was chosen and used in this study.

4.1.1 The Interpretative Paradigm

In this study the interpretative research paradigm was used to find out how senior secondary school teachers implemented the English language curriculum in the rural schools of the Lubombo region. The interpretative paradigm was chosen on the basis of the understanding that, among other things, all research is interpretative and guided by what the researcher feels and believes about the world, as well as that social meaning is created and results from interactions between the researcher and the participants according to epistemological perspectives (Hamilton & Corbett-Whittier, 2013). In consideration of this, the researcher interacted with teachers for purposes of finding out how they implemented the English language curriculum in rural schools.

Littlejohn (2000) says the interpretative paradigm is based on the belief that reality is constructed by individual perceptions, hence subjective, and therefore predictions cannot be made. Focus in this paradigm is on the social construction of meaning because of the belief that people have their own purposes, goals, intentions, and free will therefore they have to be studied taking all these issues into consideration. Cohen et al (2011) are also of a similar view that the interpretative paradigm is concerned with the individual, the individual's world, and experiences, hence, in order to get the required information from the individual, "an effort should be made to get inside the person" so that understanding can be gotten from within (Cohen et al, 2011, p. 22). They further say it is through the sharing of experiences and interactions that knowledge can be solicited from those who have it. It is for this reason that interpretative researchers have as their focus, "working directly with individuals' experiences

and understanding in order to build their theories" as well as attach meaning to the data gathered from their sources (Cohen et al, 2011, p. 23).

In this study, the interpretative paradigm was used for its belief on the individuals' ability to construct knowledge based on their experiences and understandings. These were interpreted by the researcher to get an understanding of what teachers did when they implemented the English language curriculum in rural school contexts in Swaziland. Also teachers' purposes, goals, intentions, and free will were considered as teachers gave their experiences on how they implemented the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts. All the responses that teachers gave were accepted as it was believed that the teachers were relating their experiences on the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum in rural schools.

On the same vein, Mason (2002) states that the interpretive paradigm views participants as very important and they are given the status of primary sources and believed to possess very rich data on the phenomenon understudy. In this study, the researcher considered English language teachers as the main sources of information that she wanted; information that related to the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts.

4.1.2 Use of interpretivism in the study

Table 4.1 shows how the interpretivist paradigm was used in the study:

Table 4.1 The use of interpretivism in the study

Aspect	Description
Main research question of the study	What teaching methods do teachers use when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts?
Main purpose of the study	To explore the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts.
Ontology	A number of realities were explored and constructed through teachers' interactions and meaningful actions/activities that teachers gave as those that they considered to be best practices in the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum in the rural school context. Discover how teachers make sense of their social worlds in their own settings by explaining how they implemented the new and localised English language curriculum in their context.
Epistemology	Teacher's explanations were understood through interpreting contexts and through their interactions with the researcher.
Methodology	In this study, data were collected using questionnaires, interviews, and observations.

4.2 Research Approach

The research approach and methodology used in this research had as their guide the research objectives and questions which sought to find out how teachers implemented the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts. The literature reviewed also helped in giving the direction for the research with regards to the approach, methodology, procedure for data collection and data analysis.

The study was conducted using a mixed method research approach. Terrell (2012) defines the mixed method research approach as an approach that results from a combination of the qualitative and quantitative approach. The two approaches according to Cresswell (2009) are mixed and therefore used together in the research and this can be done in any part of the study. Giving their own definition of a mixed method approach Onwuegbuzie & Leech (2007) say it refers to a mixture and integration of qualitative and quantitative approaches in different phases of the research process. They posit that it is "a class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative or qualitative research techniques methods, approaches, concepts, or language into a study", (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007, p.17).

The approach according to Onwuegbuzie & Leech (2007)) originated from the realisation that neither the qualitative nor the quantitative research approach was adequate in providing a comprehensive understanding of the research when it was exclusively used. They argue that both the qualitative and the quantitative approach have limitations therefore they should be used together so that they complement one another in their deficiencies. In addition, Terrell (2012) remarks that Social Scientists believe that in order to ensure that a problem is well understood, it should not be exclusively studied using one research approach, hence the use of the mixed method approach in this study. The mixed method approach also enables the researcher to use varied data collection instruments as well as integrate data during data collection, data presentation, and data analysis, and this results in a holistic understanding of the phenomenon understudy (Terrell, 2012). He further points out that despite the two approaches being used together, they leave the research questions intact and offer the researcher the best opportunity to obtain useful data.

It was on the basis of the reasons discussed that the mixed method approach was chosen for this research. The researcher wanted a research approach that would enable the use of varied methods of collecting data which would yield data that are both narrative and quantitative. The qualitative research approach in the mixed method yielded narrative data as teachers

related and explained how and what they did when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural contexts. It also enabled the researcher to get a deeper understanding of the SGCSE English language curriculum since it is a new phenomenon as not much research has been done on it. According to research, in order for a new phenomenon to be better understood, the qualitative approach is the best to use (Cresswell, 2003, Cresswell, 2009, and Tuli; 2010).

The quantitative approach on the other hand, assisted in quantifying similar or different responses that the teachers gave to the research questions. It also assisted in converting the responses given by the teachers into percentages and this gave a clear understanding about the methods, materials, infrastructure, and content that was taught to learners in rural school contexts.

4.3 The Study Population

Landreneau (2012) defines a population as a group of people with similar characteristics who according to the researcher have the information that the researcher is looking for. Teddlie & Yu (2007) are also of the same view on what constitutes a population. They define a population as "an aggregate or totality of all the objects, subjects or members that conform to a set of specifications" (p.77). Similarly, Cohen et al (2011) understand the population as a whole group of people who possess the characteristics that the researcher requires for the study; characteristics which have been defined by the sampling criteria established by the researcher. This denotes everyone whom the researcher considers as having the information that he/she is looking for.

The target population for this study was all rural senior secondary school teachers of English language in the Lubombo region of Swaziland. However, since it was not possible to include all these people in the study, the researcher selected twenty three (23), thus twenty three senior secondary school teachers of English language out of a total population of one hundred and eight (108) teachers were selected to take part in the study. Information that was gathered from the Regional Education Officer (REO) for the Lubombo region was that there was a total of fifty four (54) senior secondary schools in the region. With two (2) teachers of English language per school at senior secondary school level, this gave a total of one hundred and eight (108) teachers. It was from this population that the sample of the study was drawn.

4.4 Study sample and sampling procedure

A sample is a part or a fraction of the total population according to Cohen et al (2011). It refers to a subgroup of the total population which has been selected to take part in the study (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Selecting a sample therefore, involves selecting a group of people which will be used in the study from the total population. The justification for selecting this subset is based on that it is/ may not be possible to use the total population in the study for a number of reasons. So, a sample or subgroup that will be representative of the whole population should therefore be selected and used in the study (Cohen et al 2011).

In this study, the sample was drawn from a population of 54 (fifty four) senior secondary schools which is the total number of senior secondary schools in the Lubombo region of Swaziland (The Regional Education Officer, Lubombo). Out of the 54 (fifty four) senior secondary schools, 40 (forty) schools are rural while the remainder are semi-urban and urban respectively. It was from these forty (40) rural senior secondary schools that the sample of the study was picked and from these, 23 (twenty three) schools were selected and one (1) teacher per school was chosen as a respondent in the study.

The selection of the schools was done using the simple random sampling technique (Mundia, 2001 and Cresswell, 2009). In this technique, the lottery technique was utilized. Mundia, (2001) elucidates that in order to select at random the intended elements using the lottery technique, the names of all the elements should be written and put in a basket or a bowl and then shuffled. The intended number of elements should then be picked without looking into either the bowl or the basket. Elements that have been selected this way, according to Cresswell (2009), ensure that all the subjects stand an equal chance to be selected and that there is no bias in terms of selection on the part of the researcher. It also guarantees that the sample is representative and can therefore be generalized to the population. Another advantage of the simple random sampling technique according to Teddlie & Yu (2007) is that it is simple to use and it also requires very minimal knowledge from the researcher about the group to be chosen. The latter is both an advantage as well as a disadvantage. This is because the technique does not require vast knowledge about the population and this can lead to anyone being selected. In this study, the researcher was able to counteract this disadvantage. This was done by using the random sampling with purposive sampling. The purposive sampling enabled the researcher to make her own judgements about the kind of participants she wanted.

As already indicated earlier, the names of the schools were used for the selection of the participants. They were put inside a bowl and shuffled. Without looking inside the bowl, twenty three (23) schools were picked for the study. The simple random sampling technique was utilized so that all the forty (40) rural senior secondary schools in the Lubombo region stood a chance of being selected. The selected schools had the same characteristics as the schools that were not selected. The characteristics were that the schools were far from town, there were no proper roads leading to them, and they were situated in remote areas.

The selection of the teachers was done using purposive sampling. Teddlie & Yu (2007) purport that the other term used for this kind of sampling is subjective sampling, and they state that it is a kind of sampling where researchers use their own judgement to select the participants. In addition, the selection is based on the researcher's knowledge about the nature of participants that will be able to give the information that is required. However, in this kind of sampling the participants do not have equal chances of being selected since their selection is based on some criteria (Cresswell, 2009).

In this study, purposive sampling was used to select the teachers that took part. These were teachers who taught English language at senior secondary school level. As Rule and John (2011) argue, it is not always possible to choose everyone to take part in a study but participants are chosen on the basis of their ability to shed some light and to give the required knowledge on the phenomenon being studied. The researcher was therefore of the opinion that since the study focussed on the implementation of the Swaziland General Certificate of Education (SGCSE) English language curriculum in rural schools in the Lubombo region, English language teachers who teach English at this level had the required information.

One (1) teacher from each school that had been selected was chosen to take part in the study. The choice of the teachers who took part in the study was also based on the notion that since two (2) teachers taught English language at senior secondary school, one (1) of them taught Form 4 and the other taught Form 5, Form 4 teachers were selected to take part in the study. The school administrators suggested that Form 4 teachers should be utilized in the study because the Form 4s were not externally examined hence Form 4 teachers did have time to take part in the study unlike the Form 5 teachers because these were responsible for the completing classes that were externally examined. The completing classes (Form 5) needed more time to prepare for their external examination.

4.5 Research Design

The study adopted the case study research design. A case study is defined as an approach to research where the researcher has the opportunity to explore a phenomenon within its natural setting using a variety of data sources (Baxter & Jack, 2008). The purpose of using the varied sources according to the theorists is to "allow for multiple sides of the phenomenon to be revealed and understood,' (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 544). What this means is that through the use of the varied methods of collecting data the case study allows for a holistic understanding of the phenomenon that is being studied and therefore very useful in research. This definition is similar to that given by Denzin & Lincoln (2005) when they reveal that a case study is done for purposes of getting in-depth knowledge about a particular case.

Elaborating on examples of cases where case studies can be used Rule & John (2011) state that it can be done on an individual, a process, a classroom, an institution, or a country, or it can be used to describe the implementation of a program or a policy. It was in consideration of these definitions that the researcher opted for the case study. Since the purpose of the study was to explore the implementation of the SGCSE English language curriculum in the rural school context in the Lubombo region, the phenomenon to be studied was the SGCSE English language curriculum and the case was the Lubombo region, hence the case study was found to be appropriate. The case study was also chosen on the basis of the advantages that it has. Baxter & Jack (2008) state that case studies ensure that the topic in which the researcher has an interest is well explored, that is everything about the phenomenon is revealed. In addition, through the close collaboration between the researcher and the participants, case studies make it possible for the participants to open up to the researcher and relate their experiences, as well as describe their views on the phenomenon understudy, resulting in the researcher getting a better understanding of the phenomenon that is being studied (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

Another advantage provided by Baxter & Jack (2008) on case studies is that they give the researcher the opportunity to explore or describe a phenomenon in context using a variety of data sources. The researcher also gets the opportunity to go to the participants' context to collect data. In this study the researcher went to the schools to collect data on how teachers implemented the new and localised English language curriculum in their contexts. She also used varied methods of collecting data. These were questionnaires, interviews, and observations.

Despite the advantages that case studies have, Meyer (2001) outlines what he considers to be the main disadvantage of a case study. He claims that case studies have the problem of focussing on just one case and not the whole population. As a result, the findings cannot be generalised to other cases. In this study, the researcher went with Denzin & Lincoln's (2005) idea that as much as results from case studies cannot be generalised the results can however, be applied in other similar situations. She therefore used the case study as a design on the belief that the findings will be applied in other similar situations.

4.6 Data collection instruments

Research that has been undertaken using the mixed method approach is identified by the instruments for data collection that are used (Cresswell, 2009). Such studies can make use of varied instruments for collecting data. The study utilized semi-structured interviews, open ended questionnaires, and naturalistic observations for the collection of data from the senior secondary school teachers. These three data collection instruments were chosen for their ability to yield both qualitative and quantitative data (Mundia, 2001). The purpose of the three data collection instruments was to get information on how rural senior secondary school teachers implemented the new and localised SGCSE English language curriculum in rural schools. It was also for purposes of triangulating the data to ensure validity.

 The face to face encounters with the interviewees helped the researcher to probe the responses that were given as well as to see the facial expressions and the gestures used when responding to the questions, and this resulted in the interviewer getting in-depth information on the phenomenon understudy from the interviewees (Ruane, 2005; Tuli, 2010; Neuman 2005). The face to face encounters with the participants further allowed the participants to seek assistance and clarity from the researcher to understand any unclear or ambiguous questions (Mundia, 2001) as well as to enable the participants to use gestures, facial expressions, and non-verbal cues that revealed their feelings and attitudes about the phenomenon understudy.

The open-ended questionnaires consisted of open ended questions to which research participants gave free responses (Mundia, 2001). Observations of what teachers did when they implemented the new and localised English language curriculum were also done. These confirmed or refuted what teachers had said they did when they implemented the SGCSE English language curriculum in their schools. The on the spot checklist was utilized for the

observations (see appendix 8). This was because it is easier to use and it produces qualitative data that are easy to analyse (Mundia, 2001).

Two classroom observations were conducted with each teacher that took part in the study. The length of the observation was important because some behaviours and practices can only occur naturally after a long time (Mundia, 2001). This knowledge was important for this research because the researcher was observing for the methods and practices that were used by teachers when they implemented the new and localised SGCSE English language curriculum in rural senior secondary schools. One observation could not give a true reflection of what teachers did when they implemented this curriculum in their contexts; hence, at least more than one observation had to be made. For this study, two observations were conducted with each teacher when teaching.

4.7 The data collection process

The data collection process was divided into three (3) phases. This was because there were three data collection methods that were used. The first phase of data collection from the teachers was the questionnaire which was given to the twenty three (23) teachers to complete. The second phase was the one-on-one interview which was conducted with the same teachers. Each teacher was interviewed once. The last phase of data collection was the classroom observations. Each teacher was observed teaching English two (2) times.

The names of the schools and the teachers who participated in the study were known to the researcher; however, their real names were not used in the final write up of the thesis. This was done to protect their identities in accordance with ethical considerations. Each school and each participant was given a pseudonym. Letters of the alphabet were used to name the schools and these were from A to W. The first 23 numbers were used to name the teachers so that the names of the teachers started from 1-23. Teachers were therefore referred to as Teacher 1 from school A, Teacher 2 from school B and so on.

4.8 Data collection procedures

The researcher made five (5) visits to the schools from where data were collected. The first visit was done for purposes of seeking permission to conduct the study from the authorities and also to meet the prospective participants face to face, for purposes of acquainting them with the study, and also to ask them to take part in the study. In the first visit, once the study had been explained to the participants and the participants had consented to taking part, the questionnaires were given out and the researcher left them with the participants to complete

at their own pace and time. The researcher also took contact details of all the teachers who had agreed to take part in the study. This was done so that she could call them to find out if the questionnaires had been completed. On the second, visit the researcher came to collect the questionnaires and it was on the same day that she together with the participants also decided on a day that would be suitable or convenient for them to be interviewed and observed. The reason for collecting the completed questionnaires and reading through them first was done so that the researcher could get the teachers' views on how they implemented the new and localised English language curriculum so that whatever issues could have been left out in the questionnaire could be followed up in the interviews.

The third visit was for the interviews with the participants. The last two visits were for the observations. The teachers filled in the questionnaire, were interviewed, and observed two times as they taught. The interviews were tape-recorded and the researcher had asked for permission to do this from the participants beforehand. During the observations, the researcher completed the observation checklist (Appendix 8) and wrote down everything that she observed both in the school and also in the classrooms during the lesson and these formed her field notes. She further described and reflected on every piece of detail observed. The researcher also took photographs of some of the schools that were visited, specifically, the libraries and the language laboratories as well as rooms that teachers used to conduct the oral interviews. This helped in providing photographic evidence which in turn confirmed what the situation was in rural schools. Permission was again requested before the photographs were taken. The data collection process commenced at the beginning of June and ran through to the end of September, 2014.

4.8.1 The Interviews

An interview is defined by Aminuzzaman (2012) as a form of communication between two individuals on a subject that has been agreed upon. According to Aminuzzaman (2012) it is a conversation between two people that has been initiated by the interviewer where the interviewee is asked questions relating to the topic that is being investigated. The interview is used on the understanding that face to face conversations are an everyday activity for human beings, hence a very good way of getting the information that is required (King & Horrocks, 2010). Best & Kahn (1989) also consider the interview to be the best instrument for data collection because it gives the researcher an opportunity to explain the purpose of the study and also to make clarifications when the need arises. Interviews further allow the researcher to develop a good relationship with the participants and this results in the gathering of useful

and rich data. It was on the basis of these advantages that the interview was chosen as an instrument for collecting data in this study.

In this study, the researcher asked the interviewees questions relating to how they implemented the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts. Through the interviews, the researcher was able to get the information that was required on how the teachers implemented the curriculum in their contexts. Keller & Conrad (2010) also agree that interviews allow the researcher to enter the world of his or subjects. The researcher was able to enter the world of the interviewees and discover how the new and localised English language curriculum was implemented in rural schools. A very good rapport was also developed between the researcher and the interviewees. Even those participants that started off being shy, as the interview progressed they opened up and responded confidently to the questions asked. At the end of the research, they had developed friendly relations with the researcher.

The individual interviews were carried out with twenty (23) teachers. Each teacher from each school that had been selected took part in the interviews. All twenty (23) interviews were carried out at the participants' places of work. This was done so that the participants could be free and comfortable. An interview guide which consisted of fifteen (15) questions was used and teachers responded to these questions (see appendix 7). Other questions emerged as the interviews progressed and as the researcher was probing for more information. An audio-recorder was used to record all the responses that were given by the interviewees. Permission had been sought beforehand to record the interviews and all the participants had consented to being recorded. The researcher only took down expressions such as frowns; smiles, sighs, and non-verbal gestures used by the participants as they gave the responses and these formed her field notes. Each expression was aligned to the person who gave it and also the question that he or she was responding to. The researcher felt that the facial expressions were very useful during the analysis of data and the interpretation of the findings. They were aligned to the responses that had been made and then an attempt to interpret them was made.

The medium used for conducting the interviews was mainly English. A majority of the teachers opted to use English throughout the interviews. Some of them however, switched codes when responding to the questions. They would use both SiSwati and English. The researcher noted that most of the teachers who switched codes had a low level of proficiency

in the language. These teachers stammered and eventually resorted to the use of SiSwati when responding to the questions that were asked. This was evidence that some of the teachers who taught English were not proficient in the language as Stern (1989) indicates. Such responses were all translated to English when the researcher was transcribing the responses in preparation for the analysis. Other teachers however used English for the whole duration of the interview. To ensure that no data were lost through loss or theft of the recording device, the researcher transcribed each interview when she came back from the field and also locked the recording device in a safe in her office.

Despite the advantages that interviews have, they do however have disadvantages. One disadvantage that was noted in this research was that interviewers intimidated the interviewees. As Mcneil & Chapman (2006) also observe that the status of the interviewer can intimidate the participants more especially in situations where the status and social class of the interviewer is viewed to be above that of the participants. To ensure that this was minimised in this study, the researcher assured the participants of protection from any harm, whether professional, academic, or status. They were assured that despite that the researcher was a lecturer, she however, was concerned with information regarding the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum for purposes of the research that she was doing.

4.9 Challenges encountered when collecting data

The data collection process was successful but it was not without challenges. The schools from where data were collected were very far from the researcher's place of abode, and most of the roads leading to the schools were in a very bad state. The schools were also not in close proximity of one another and this made it impossible for the researcher to collect data from more than two schools in one day. Going to the schools was very costly as well as tiring because of the state of the roads and the long distances. This, however, did not affect the data in any way except that the data collection process took longer than anticipated.

The first challenge that was encountered by the researcher was that the researcher is known to the teachers as a lecturer from the University of Swaziland who normally comes to schools for purposes of assessing students who are doing teaching practice. Despite the fact that some of the teachers knew the researcher as a colleague before she moved to the university things changed when the researcher visited the schools for purposes of doing the research. Most of the teachers were sceptical about agreeing to take part in the research and the reason given

was that the teachers were not sure if what they were doing when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum was actually the right thing. As a result, they felt that by agreeing to participate in the study they will be exposing themselves. The teachers' intimidation by the status and position held by the researcher is in line with what was said by Mcneil & Chapman (2006) that participants are often intimidated by someone whose status is viewed as above theirs. It was after the teachers were assured by the researcher that their identity would be protected and also that the researcher herself did not know anything about how the curriculum was supposed to be implemented which is why she had come to them to ask for that information, that the teachers finally agreed to take part in the study.

In one school, the teachers refused to take part in the study citing the same reason that they were not sure whether they were implementing the curriculum the correct way. They felt that talking about it would be tantamount to exposing their foolishness. It was only after the intervention of the head of the school where the teachers were authoritatively given the mandate to partake in the study that the teachers agreed to take part. In accordance with the ethical considerations that participants had to willingly take part in the study the researcher decided not to utilize the teachers. This was done due to the understanding that although the teachers had agreed to take part in the study it was evident that they had done so because the head teacher had forced them. The researcher therefore felt it would not be appropriate to use them in the study.

Another challenge was that a lot of time was spent on the interviews as they sometimes took longer than the anticipated thirty minutes. One of the reasons for the overly long interviews was the respondents' inability to give straight answers to the questions that were asked. The researcher therefore had to rephrase the questions a number of times. This confirmed Seliger & Shohamy's (1990) assertion that interviews were effective, but costly and time consuming. Again this did not have any negative effect on the data because through rephrasing the questions and making clarifications, the researcher got the information she wanted. However, as Best & Kahn (1989) declare, the researcher found the interviews to be the best method of collecting data as the respondents were free to ask for clarifications and the researcher was also at liberty to rephrase questions and also to probe the responses given to get more information. During the interviews, the researcher was able to do all these. Another challenge was that some of the respondents seemed not comfortable with being recorded at the start of the interview, but as the interview progressed, they then opened up.

4.10 Classroom Observations

Observation is defined by Marshall & Rossman (2006) and Kawulich (2005) as a systematic description of events, behaviours, and artefacts, in the social setting chosen for a study. In agreement with this definition, Drisscoll (2011) highlights that observation is a method of collecting data where the participants are observed in a natural setting for purposes of observing behaviours and events as they naturally unfold. He further opines that it allows researchers to experience a specific aspect and social life and get a first-hand look at people's behaviour. According to Kawulich (2005), the researcher joins the participants in order to document their behaviour or observe them in a natural context. Observations have the advantage of capturing behaviour that is more natural than behaviour occurring in an artificial setting. Despite the advantage however, the method has the disadvantage of allowing bias where the researchers can use their own bias in their interpretation.

According to McMillan & Schumacher (2010), observations of people's behaviour as well as the surroundings can be done where the researcher may be a part of the group, and interact with participants. In this study, teachers were observed to determine the teaching methods, materials, and how they generally implemented the new and localised English language curriculum in rural schools. The physical environment of the school, the classrooms in which the English language lessons were conducted, the materials that were used for implementing the curriculum, and the infrastructure available for the implementation of the curriculum, and the activities given to the learners, and the methods of teaching that were used, were observed. For the observations, the researcher used an observation checklist (see Appendix 8) which is the first thing that should be done before the observations, and which should state clearly what is going to be observed (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

Challenges that were experienced during the observations were that both the teachers and the learners seemed not at ease in the presence of the researcher. This affected the flow of the events in the classroom as teachers seemed to be more concerned with ensuring that learners were at their best behaviour. The teachers seemed agitated when the learners spoke and sometimes whispered to one another. It seemed as if the participants regarded the researcher as someone who was on a fault finding mission, and they appeared nervous. However, no information was lost because of this. The researcher successfully carried out the observations and took note of everything that transpired in the classroom.

4.11 Pilot testing

The research instruments were tried out in one rural senior secondary school in the Lubombo region, which however, did not take part in the study. The purpose of trying out these research instruments was to ensure validity. The school that was used for piloting the research instruments had characteristics that were similar to the characteristics of the other schools that participated in the study. This ensured usefulness and reliability of the data collection instruments before they were administered to the real participants, (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). The teacher who was used in the pilot study however did not encounter any problems with the second question that was asked in the interview. The question was; 'are you conversant with the requirements of the SGCSE English language curriculum?' For most of the teachers the researcher had to rephrase the question after noticing from their facial expressions that they did not understand the question. However, after rephrasing the question to; "do you know the requirements of the English language curriculum", teachers understood and duly responded.

4.12 Validity and Reliability

To ensure validity of the data during data collection, the researcher rephrased questions in the interviews to see if the same response/s were yielded. She also did more than one observation, (Mundia, 2001). This is what Mundia (2001) refers to as repeated observations. The repeated observations helped ensure better perception and understanding of the phenomenon under study. The persistent observations led to the acquisition of additional information, clarification of inaccurate observations, improved perception of the phenomenon being studied, and in-depth data of high quality (Mundia, 2001). Another thing that the researcher did was to spend a long time in the field. Although the interviews had been scheduled for thirty minutes, the researcher spent over an hour after the end of the interview looking at the surroundings, the library, the rooms that are used for listening and conducting the oral examinations. This is what Cresswell (2009, p. 192) refers to as 'spending prolonged time in the field'. Mundia (2001, p.148), on the other hand, refers to it as 'prolonged engagement'. This was beneficial to the researcher in that it developed in-depth understanding of the phenomenon that was being studied. The collection of data from the participants in their own setting also ensured accuracy of the information gathered, (Cresswell, 2009). To ensure validity of the data collected, the data were triangulated (Guion, Diehl, & McDonald, 2011). Data triangulation according to Guion et al (2011) involves using different sources and methods for collecting data. In this research, data were collected from

teachers of English. Any outcome that came out from the three methods of collecting data that were used was interpreted to be true. The researcher compared all the information gathered from the triangulated data collection instruments. Information that was similar meant the data collected were valid (Mundia, 2001 and Guion et al, 2011).

To ensure accuracy of the data and findings of the research, the researcher also incorporated four validity strategies that are suggested by Cresswell (2009) and Mundia (2001). The first thing that the researcher did was to utilize triangulation. Mundia (2001) describes triangulation as the use of more than one method to study a phenomenon. Among some of the things that can be triangulated are the data, that is, the use of different data sources in the study, theory triangulation, that is, the use of different theories in the study, and methodological triangulation, which is, the use of different methods such as interviews, questionnaires, and observations to study one research problem (Mundia, 2001). In this study, methodological triangulation was done to ensure validity of both the data and the findings. Secondly, the researcher used member checking to check if the findings were accurate (Cresswell, 2009). She took the draft thesis to the participants so that they could check their correctness. The researcher did this through a follow up interview with the participants to avail them the opportunity to give their views on the findings. This was in line with Cresswell (2009) that participants have to be accorded the opportunity to determine the correctness of the findings.

The researcher also made an effort to use a 'rich, thick description' when reporting on the findings, (Cresswell, 2009, p. 191). The description was done in such a way that it took the readers to the place where data were collected, and made the readers feel like they were there when the data were collected. In most instances, the exact words that were used by the respondents were used. This made the results more real as well as very rich in terms of details and information (Cresswell, 2009). Another thing that the researcher did to ensure validity of the findings was to reveal the biases that she had brought to the study. This made the write up to be honest, as well as open, and illustrated how the write up was influenced by the researcher's background, culture, and experiences (Cresswell, 2009). The researcher's biases were that teachers experienced some challenges when implementing the new and localised English Language curriculum in rural schools and there were certain strategies that they used to overcome these challenges. These were based on the researcher's experience of the situation in rural schools. All these helped the researcher to assess the accuracy of her

findings. It was hoped that the strategies used to ensure validity of the study would convince whoever would read the write up that it was indeed accurate.

4.13 Data Analysis procedures

Data analysis is a process where the researcher classifies, arranges, and presents the data gathered for purposes of answering the research questions (Merriem, 2009). It is during this process where the researcher identifies themes under which the data will be interpreted (Merriem, 2009). When doing this, the researcher has to read and re-read the data, describe them, classify them, and interpret them. According to Merriem (2009), it is important that researchers undergo all these four steps because this is the only way in which they can effectively analyse the data. Reading and re-reading the data ensures familiarising oneself and understanding the data so that emerging themes can be identified. In this research, data from the interviews, observations, and questionnaires were read and re-read, and this made the data familiar and understandable resulting in the emergence of themes that were used to explain how the new and localised SGCSE English language curriculum was implemented in rural schools in the Lubombo region. The data were then analysed thematically using content analysis (Mundia, (2001). The decision to analyse data using content analysis was made on the basis of the nature of the data. The data were mostly narrative and according to Powell and Renner (2003); thematic content analysis is the best way of analysing and interpreting this kind of data. The use of content analysis as a procedure for analysing qualitative data is also supported by Mundia (2001) who says that it is the most appropriate method for the analysis of qualitative data, more especially in instances where the researcher has used interviews, observations, transcripts, essays and documentaries. In this research, data were collected using questionnaires, interviews, and observations.

Data from the questionnaires were responses from the open-ended questions as well as written comments, while that from the interviews and observations were in the form of notes and transcripts respectively. The researcher read the data collected as well as the transcripts several times to understand them. This was done because good understanding of data results in good analysis, interpretation and presentation (Powell & Renner, 2003). The next thing that the researcher did was to re-visit the research questions to be reminded of what the analysis had to answer. The researcher then looked at how individuals had responded to each question in both the questionnaires and the interviews, and this helped in the identification of differences and consistencies in the responses. The data for each question were then put together. The researcher then identified emerging themes or patterns from the data and these

were organized into coherent categories 'that summarized and brought meaning to the text as this was the 'crux of data analysis' (Powell & Renner, 2003, p. 2). Some of the questions that the respondents were asked formed the themes and they were used as sub-topics for the discussions.

Describing the data in Merriam's (2009) view involves providing descriptions of the contexts from where the data were collected as well as all the activities that were done during the observations. The descriptions enabled the researcher to get a vivid picture of what happened when the new and localised English language curriculum was implemented in rural schools. After that, patterns were identified and connections within the patterns were used to explain the findings. This, according to Powell & Renner (2003, p. 3) is 'attaching meaning and significance to the analysis'. The researcher then developed an outline that was used for the presentation of the results and also for writing the final report. The findings from the research were reported qualitatively and quantitatively using words, percentages, and numbers. This was appropriate for the mixed method research (Cresswell, 2009). Before and after the descriptions, the data were presented in tables. There were also instances where the respondents' exact words were used during the presentation of data. Finally, the data were interpreted.

4.14 Trustworthiness in the study

Trustworthiness is very important in research as it is used to determine the quality of the research in relation to the extent to which the data are believable and trustworthy. In order to determine the trustworthiness of a study, four aspects have to be considered. These are credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability (Seale, 1998).

Credibility is defined by McMillan & Schumacher (2010) as an aspect of research that relates to the accuracy, reasonableness, and approximation of real life situations. To ensure credibility of the study, the researcher uses varied instruments for the collection of data among other things (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). In this study, credibility was achieved through triangulation of the data collection methods. The study utilised questionnaires, interviews, and observations, where participants responded to the same questions in the questionnaire, while for the interview, the first four questions that they responded to were the same. The observation schedule was the same for all the participants.

Transferability is defined by Gay & Airasian (2003) as having to do with generalising the information to other contexts. The study was a case study and therefore had limited

opportunities of generalising information; however, the information gathered could be applied in other similar contexts (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). What teachers said they did when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural schools could be applied in other rural school contexts.

Dependability refers to the extent to which the data collection instruments and data sources have been carefully chosen so that they can yield the information that is required (Gay & Airasian, 2003). It also has to do with ensuring that similar results may be obtained in the event the study is repeated in the same context using the same methods of collecting data and the same participants (Gay & Airasian, 2003). In this study, the researcher made sure that the data sources were teachers who teach English at senior secondary school level in rural schools and therefore in a good position to give the required information. She also ensured that the data collection instruments corresponded with the research questions.

Conformability has to do with ensuring that the findings represent the views of the participants and their perceptions (Gay & Airasian, 2003). It ensures that the ideas and experiences presented are the participants' and not the researcher's. In order to achieve this, the researcher gave the participants the opportunity to listen to the recorded tape after the interviews. When transcribing she wrote down the exact words that had been used by the participants. In line with Cresswell's (2009) view the draft thesis was taken to the participants so that they could determine the accuracy of the findings. This is what Cresswell (2009) calls member checking and it was done after the draft had been completed.

4.15 Ethical issues

To ensure that standards of professionalism and honesty were upheld during the process of doing the research, the researcher did everything in her power to show and earn the respect and trust of the participants as well as the public. Firstly, the participants were given a consent letter which explained how the research would be carried out. This is in agreement with Cresswell's (2009) assertion that it is ethical that participants sign this consent form. Before signing the consent form, they were assured that whatever they would say in both the interviews and questionnaires would be treated in the strictest confidentiality. Participants were also assured that their privacy would not be invaded as it would be respected. They were further made aware that their taking part in the study was voluntary as they had the right to pull out from the study if, and when they wanted to (Cresswell, 2009).

Secondly, the researcher did a pilot project. This, according to Cresswell (2003), ensures that the questions asked are easily understood. Another thing that the researcher did was to tell the participants what the purpose of the study was so that as they agreed to take part in the study they knew exactly what its purpose was (Cresswell, 2003). The researcher also showed her respect for the participants and the sites from where data were collected by ensuring that she protects them by not using the real names of the schools and the teachers lest their superiors victimize them for some of the things they could have said. The researcher further gave her research proposal to the Institutional Review Board of the University of KwaZulu- Natal for review and was ethically cleared before collecting data (see appendix 10). The consent form was also given to the teachers to sign as an indication that they were consenting to take part in the study. The form made the participants aware of their rights as participants, some of which were that they were not coerced into taking part in the study and also that they had a right to withdraw from the study if, and when they wished. Another thing that the forms made the participants understand was that they had a right to ask questions if there was something that they did not understand. It also stipulated what it was that the participants stood to benefit from the study, how their privacy would be respected and that it was their right to be given a copy of the findings if they so wished. This, also, is in agreement with Cresswell's (2003) assertion that participants have a right to be shown a copy of the findings if they want.

The researcher also asked for permission from the Director of the Ministry of Education to do the study in the schools (see appendix 1). She also asked for permission from the head teachers of the schools from where data were collected, to collect data. She wrote a letter stipulating the time when the data would be collected, how the data would affect the participants, and also pledged to provide them with the outcomes of the research. Since the data were collected from the schools through interviews, questionnaires and observations, the researcher ensured respect for both the participants and sites by not disturbing the flow of activities in the schools. She also chose a time when the participants were not engaged much in their work so as not to disturb them. The participants were involved in all the phases of the research so that they could develop the feeling that they were working collaboratively with the researcher. They were also assured that their identity and that of their schools would be protected by the use of pseudonyms.

The data collected from the teachers will be kept for 5 years, thereafter; it will be destroyed so that that other researchers may not use it for purposes other than the one it was intended for. The researcher also ensured accuracy when interpreting the data by triangulating the

sources of data so as to provide a justification for the themes and categories. The researcher further double-checked the information given by the participants by rephrasing the questions to see if the same responses would be given. Another thing that the researcher did was being transparent about issues that were a result of her own biases. She also made 5 visits to each one of the schools that took part in the study. As much as the anticipated time for the interviews was thirty (30) minutes, more than thirty minutes was spent during the interviews. The researcher did not look at the time as long as the participant was still willing to give information on the phenomenon.

When writing the thesis, the researcher did not use language that discriminated against other people, or language that was insensitive so as not to offend other people. The thesis consisted only of what she found and she did not leave out or make up information to fulfil her needs. Lastly, the researcher will release a draft of the thesis after getting permission from the supervisor to the participants so that they could decide for themselves the extent to which it is credible.

4.16 Summary of the chapter

The chapter presented the methodology that was used to put the research together. It discussed the research paradigm and the research design that was used when carrying out the research. It also presented the target population, the study sample, and sampling technique, instruments for data collection, procedure for data collection, pilot testing, and procedure for data analysis, and ethical issues that were considered in the study.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents and analyse data that were collected for purposes of finding out how teachers implemented the new and localised English language curriculum in rural schools in Swaziland. The analysis of data was a means of responding to the research questions. The data were collected from teachers of English at senior secondary school level in the Lubombo region through questionnaires, interviews, and observations. All the data that had been collected were analysed using thematic content analysis. A total of twenty three (23) senior secondary schools took part in the study; with one English language teacher from each school taking part. This gave a total of twenty three (23) teachers who participated in the study. Six (6) of the teachers were males whilst seventeen (17) were females. All the teachers were interviewed on a one-on-one basis, completed a questionnaire and observed two times each when they taught.

5.1 Data Analysis

The analysis of all the data that had been collected from the English language teachers was done using thematic content analysis (Mundia, 2001; Merriem, 2009; Gay & Airasian, 2003). After reading through all the responses that had been given by the participants, certain themes emerged and these together with the questions that the participants had been asked and responded to, formed themes from which sub-themes were identified upon which the analyses were based. While generally the researcher presented the responses made by the respondents in tables which were later followed by a brief discussion, there were instances where the responses were given in italics which were either followed or preceded by a discussion based on them. The responses in the tables were summaries of the responses given by teachers and those written in italics denoted the exact words that were given by the participants when responding to the questions that they had been asked. The themes and sub-themes dealt with how teachers implemented the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts in Swaziland, and they consisted of the following:

- Teachers' understanding of the new and localised English language curriculum.
- Availability of infrastructure and materials that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum.

- Teaching methods that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum.

- Best practices in the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum.

- Challenges encountered by teachers when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum.

- Challenges with the examination.

- Challenges related to rural school learners.

- Low socio-economic status of the learners.

- Challenges with other teachers who do not want to assist.

- Challenges with parents.

- Strategies used by teachers to minimize the challenges.

The research questions upon which the data analysis was based were the following:

(1) What methods do teachers use when implementing the new and localised (SGCSE) English language curriculum in rural senior secondary schools in the Lubombo region?

(2) What do teachers perceive as the best practices on the implementation of the new and localised (SGCSE) English language curriculum in rural senior secondary schools in the Lubombo region?

(3) What challenges do teachers encounter when they implement the new and localised (SGCSE) English language curriculum in rural schools contexts in the Lubombo region?

(4) What strategies do teachers use to minimize the challenges of implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts in the Lubombo region?

Other questions in the interview guide (see Appendix 7) were utilised for ensuring clarity so that the reader can understand the nature and views of the participants in relation to the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum. Table 5.1 summarises the themes and sub-themes that emerged from the data analysis.

Table 5. 1 Emerging themes and sub-themes from the data analysis

Theme	Sub-theme
5.1.1 Teachers' understanding of the new and localised English language curriculum.	5.1.1.1 Teachers' understanding of a localised curriculum. 5.1.1.2 Teachers' experiences in teaching the former GCE-O-Level curriculum. 5.1.1.3 Differences between the two curricula. 5.1.1.4 The structure of the new and localised English language examination. 5.1.1.5 Teachers' knowledge about the requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum. 51.1.6 Requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum (materials and resources). 5.1.1.7 Infrastructure that is required by the new and localised English language curriculum.
5.1.2 Availability of the requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum.	5.1.2.1 Availability of infrastructure and materials that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum. 5.1.2.2 How teachers implement the curriculum without the required materials and infrastructure.
5.1.3 Teaching methods that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum.	5.1.3.1 Teaching methods that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum. 5.1.3.2 Applicability of the teaching methods in the rural school context. 5.1.3.3 Teaching methods that teachers use in the rural school context. 5.1.3.4 Reasons for choice of teaching methods. 5.1.3.5 How teachers compensate for the teaching methods that they are unable to use.
5.1.4 Best practices in the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum.	5.1.4.1 Best practices for the implementation of reading and writing. 5.1.4.2 Best practices for the implementation of the listening skill. 5.1.4.3 Best practices for the implementation of the speaking skill.

5.1.5 Challenges encountered by teachers when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum.	5.1.5.1 Inadequate teaching materials and infrastructure. 5.1.5.2 Lack of English speaking people in the environment. 5.1.5.3 Lack of exposure to modernity.
5.1.6 Challenges with the examination.	5.1.6.1 The nature of the examination. 5.1.6.2 Learners inability to speak during the examination. 5.1.6.3 Challenges with the listening aspect of the examination. 5.1.6.4 Insufficient time to prepare learners for the oral examination.
5.1.7 Challenges related to rural school learners.	5.1.7.1 Learners' refusal to speak in English. 5.1.7.2 Lack of reading culture among learners. 5.1.7.3 Attitude of learners towards English. 5.1.7.4 Learners' inability to do homework. 5.1.7.5 Reasons that learners give for their inability to do homework. 5.1.7.6 The critical stage of development in which learners are. 5.1.7.7 Learners' refusal to do presentations during morning assembly. 5.1.7.8 Nature of most rural school learners.
5.1.8 Low socio-economic status of the school and learners.	5.1.8.1 Poverty. 5.1.8.2 Lack of funds in the school.
5.1.9 Challenges with other teachers.	5.1.9.1 Other members of staff who do not want to assist with the speaking of English.
5.1.10 Challenges with parents	5.1.10.1 Parents' inability to follow up the work done by their children.
5.1.11 Strategies used by teachers to minimize the	5.1.11.1 Minimizing learners' refusal to speak in English. 5.1.11.2 Minimizing the challenge of inadequate materials and infrastructure.

challenges.	5.1.11.3 Minimizing lack of exposure to modern facilities.
	5.1.11.4 Minimizing learners' attitude towards English.
	5.1.11.5 Minimizing the challenge of insufficient time to prepare learners for examination.
	5.1.11.6 Minimizing the challenge of lack of reading culture among learners.
	5.1.11.7 Minimizing the absence of English speaking people in the environment.
	5.1.11.8 Minimizing the challenge of learners' inability to speak in English.
	5.1.11.9 Minimizing the challenge of how the examination is in terms of being bias.
	5.1.11.10 Minimizing the challenge of unsupportive staff members.

5.2 Teachers' understanding of the new and localised English language curriculum

The first theme sought to determine the teachers' understanding of the localised curriculum. It was important that teachers' understanding of a localised curriculum be determined so that as the discussion about the new and localised English language curriculum progressed, the researcher could understand what the teachers understood to be a curriculum that had been localised.

5.2.1 Teachers' understanding of a localised curriculum

The analysis of data revealed that for most of the teachers, that is, twenty two (22) out of twenty three (23), curriculum localisation meant the local designing of the curriculum, the local setting of the examination by people who are locals, the local marking of the examination, the local grading of the examination, and the use of materials and infrastructure that is found in the learners' local environment. This understanding of curriculum localisation is in line with the definition of curriculum localisation that was given by the IBE (2002) in the literature review. The IBE (2002) is of the view that localising the curriculum encompasses among other things the use of local materials, the local designing of the curriculum, local setting of examinations, local assessment, local marking and grading of examination scripts. There was only one teacher who said that he was not sure what the meaning of curriculum localisation was.

When the twenty two (22) teachers who had responded by explaining what they understood curriculum localisation to mean were asked if this was the only understanding that they had about curriculum localisation, seventeen (17) of them responded in the affirmative while five (5) responded in the negative. The seventeen who responded in the affirmative said they did not know anything about curriculum localisation beyond what they had already said. The five on the other hand said that there was more to curriculum localisation than what they had given. When these five (5) were further interrogated about what else curriculum localisation meant, they said it also meant the freedom or liberty that teachers should have to modify the curriculum so that it suits the environment in which it is being implemented. Upon further interrogation on what the modification of the curriculum involved, the teachers' response was that it entailed among other things using alternative teaching methods, resources, materials, and infrastructure to implement the curriculum in the event that the proposed or suggested methods, resources, or materials, and infrastructure were not available or suitable for the environment where the curriculum was implemented.

On further interrogation on why this was done, the teachers responded by saying it was important to modify the curriculum because it was a way of ensuring that learners see the relevance between the environment, home, and the curriculum that they were given at school. The understanding of these five (5) teachers about what the localisation of a curriculum means in addition to the first response that they made is again in line with Abraham (2003), Bennion (2001), and Taylor's (2004) definitions of curriculum localisation where they assert that curriculum localisation accords teachers the liberty and freedom to adjust the curriculum to suit the local conditions where it is implemented. They further say that the localisation of a curriculum enables the learners to see the connection, relevance, and how what is done at school is related to their community and environment. The five teachers who gave this response are Teacher 6 School F, Teacher 7 School G, Teacher 16 School P, Teacher 18 School R and Teacher 21 School U.

When these five teachers were further asked if this is what they did when they implemented the new and localised English language curriculum, that is, stick to the use of what is available in the learners' environment or modify the content to suit the learners' environment, they unanimously said while it was a good thing and also convenient for them to do so, and while it was possible for them to use certain materials that were found in the learners' environment, and modify content, they could not solely rely on materials found in the learners' environment/content suitable for the environment. This was because the

examination that the learners were being prepared for despite it being localised, focussed on modern materials and content which was not known in the learners' environment. As a result, focussing on what was available locally would disadvantage the learners in the examination. The assertion made by these teachers that the examination for the localised English language curriculum still required learners to have knowledge about matters that are not known in the learners' environment was understood to mean that despite the fact that the curriculum had been localised, it was still being treated out of context (Cornbleth, 1988) since it required learners to have knowledge about issues outside their environment.

The teachers' responses further alluded to the challenges of achieving curriculum localisation in practice more especially in a situation where the localised curriculum is ingrained in a small developing nation that is still reliant on support from other developed nations. Swaziland is a small developing nation that still depends on other better developed nations such as South Africa and other countries as it was stated in the background of the study. As a result, the country has to strive to provide a curriculum that will be accepted by these countries, hence the use of certain resources and content that is not known in the learners' environment. The teachers' responses also indicated that although much emphasis is being put on curriculum localisation than internationalisation and globalisation, (Chiung-fang (2003), Lam (2010), and Cheng (2014), Swaziland appears to be caught between the pressures of local, global, and international demands, and the local is seen to be succumbing to global and international demands as teachers are finding it difficult to strike a balance between the local, the international, and the global.

 In the light of this, we realize and also appreciate the challenges of balancing a localised curriculum with international and global demands, hence, also appreciate that although the English language curriculum has been localised, the powerful cultures (Chiung-fang, 2003), that own modern resources seem not to be considering localisation in the examination because the local culture is universalized with European and Western cultures. In relation to the theoretical orientation to the study where it was stated that the study had adopted the interpretivism-constructivism psychological framework; the responses given by the teachers indicated that a substantial number of them that is 22 out of 23, which translates to 88% could not construct the knowledge about the localised English language curriculum adequately. Very few of them, that is, five (22%) had a comprehensive understanding about a localised curriculum while a substantial number of them (88%) had a very limited understanding of what constituted a localised curriculum.

It was noted in the responses given by all the teachers on their understanding of what constitutes a localised curriculum that the aspect of culture that Dasen & Akkari (2008) talk about as stated in the background, had been left out. Dasen & Akkari (2008)   point out that curriculum localisation includes developing the curriculum or the education system within the culture of the country so that the curriculum may be owned by the culture, as well as provide knowledge and skills that are necessary for the development of the culture. This is something that Thesia (2012) and Yang (2001) also view curriculum localisation to be about. Yang (2001) further talks about the importance of ensuring that whenever the localisation of a curriculum is considered it should be aligned with cultural transformations. This presupposes the inclusion of the country's local history in the curriculum which in the case of the new and localised English language curriculum means the content taught should consist of the history of Swaziland. In consideration of this, the researcher then asked the teachers what the content of the new and localised English language curriculum entailed. The teachers' responses indicated that although there was no specific content that was taught to the learners in the new curriculum since the teaching of language has as its focus on ensuring that learners develop in the four language skills, the passages that learners were given in the examination generally contained local themes for the urban contexts and no themes on the rural context.

The foregoing has revealed teachers' understanding of a localised curriculum which consisted of a comprehensive understanding for some teachers as well as a limited understanding of a localised curriculum for others. Another thing that was made evident by the discussion is the inability of teachers to modify the curriculum for fear that the learners will be disadvantaged as the curriculum requires the knowledge of resources and content that is found outside the learners' environment. Again, the challenge of achieving a localised curriculum in practice which resulted from the country's reliance on other neighbouring countries was also pointed out. This therefore meant that despite the pronouncement that the curriculum has been localised, and therefore relevant to the needs of Swazi learners, teachers still regard it as not localised and therefore implement it as a non-localised curriculum because of the nature of the examination.

5.2.2 Teachers' experiences in teaching the former GCE-O-Level English language curriculum

The next question that the teachers were asked was meant to ascertain the number of teachers who had experience teaching the former GCE-O-Level English language curriculum. This

was important in the study because teachers who had the experience of teaching the former curriculum and also the new and localised English language curriculum were in a position to explain the differences between these two curricula in terms of how they should be implemented. The differences were then to be compared against those given in the background. Teachers who had experience teaching the former curriculum and were able to note the differences between the two curricula were viewed to have some basic understanding of the requirements of the new curriculum in terms of implementation as well as how the curriculum was supposed to be implemented differently from the way the former curriculum was implemented.

The knowledge of the differences about the two curricula placed the teachers in a better position to understand how differently the new curriculum had to be implemented compared to the old. This however did not in any way suggest that teachers who did not have any experience teaching the former curriculum would not know what the differences were as they themselves could have gone through the same curriculum when they were students. However, the difference in experiences was that they would give the differences from the point of view of students whereas teachers would give the differences from the point of view of their teaching experience.

Out of the twenty three teachers (23) who took part in the study, six (6) teachers said they had some experience teaching the former GCE-O-Level curriculum. This number translates to about 27% and is quite small. What this means therefore is that a majority of the teachers who teach English at senior secondary school level in the Lubombo do not have any experience teaching the former curriculum. This was a good thing considering that these teachers could not approach the teaching of the new curriculum with beliefs and practices that they had been using in the former curriculum. It was also appreciated that these teachers would not be in a position to state the differences between these two curricula using the point of view of teachers.

The small number of teachers who said they had experience teaching in the former curriculum was also an indication that very few teachers had teaching experiences of more than ten years. This is because the new curriculum was introduced in 2006 and was localised in 2009 (The Ministry of Education, 2005). This means that most of the teachers who are currently teaching English had not started teaching when the new and localised English language curriculum was introduced in 2006, hence they are not just new in the teaching of

the new and localised English language curriculum but they are new in the teaching profession as well.

Other than the lack of teaching experience, my view is that these teachers were at an advantage because they had not been in contact with the former curriculum. As a result, their implementation of the localised English language curriculum stood better chances as it was not contaminated with the implementation of the former curriculum. Teachers could not, for example, use teaching methods they had used in the former curriculum. Since the teachers knew only of the teaching methods to be used with the new and localised English language curriculum, the researcher's view was that they would stick to the required teaching methods and practices. Teachers who had the experience of teaching the former GCE-O-Level curriculum had the advantage of vast experience in the teaching of English as well as the ability to differentiate between the demands of the former and the new curriculum which could probably make their implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum more effective.

5.2.3 Differences between the two curricula

The ability of individuals to make a distinction between what they have been given is in most cases used to arrive at conclusions with regards to their knowledge about those things. It was on the basis of this that the next activity that the teachers were asked to do was to explain how the two curricula were different. This question was specifically directed to the teachers who had said they had experience teaching the former curriculum. These were teacher 1 school A, 2 school B, 8 school H, 9 school I, 10 school J, and 15 school O. This question was specifically asked to find out if these teachers could make a distinction between the former and the new curricula. In response to this question, Teacher 1 School A remarked:

There isn't much difference between the two; the only difference is that learners have to do more work. They have to be more involved in their own learning. In the old curriculum teachers did most of the work, they did most of the talking. Learners would just sit passively and not do anything. With this one the teacher only initiates the conversation/discussion and learners are expected to take it up.

For this teacher, the two curricula are not very different as they only differ in that learners have to do more work while the teacher initiates what has to be done. What this means is that in the new curriculum, as opposed to the former, the teacher ceases to be the custodian of information as learners also try to find information for themselves. The response given by

this teacher is in line with what is stated by The Ministry of Education (2005) that the new and localised curriculum does not view the teacher as the only custodian of information as learners are also required to find information on their own. This is because the teacher is not viewed as someone who has monopoly over information but both the learner and the teacher are equal partners in knowledge construction. Contrary to the first teacher's response, Teacher 2 School B stated:

In the former curriculum focus was on reading and writing skills, in the new one focus is on all four skills which are reading, writing, speaking and listening. This is the case even with the examination; learners are examined on all the four skills.

For this teacher, the difference between the two curricula is on the focus of the curriculum which is the skills that have to be developed in the learners and not just during teaching but also for purposes of the examination. While focus in the former curriculum was only on the skills of reading and writing, in the new and localised curriculum focus is on all the four skills. This response echoes the reasons for the introduction of the new aspect of English language that was not examined in the former curriculum, which is now examined in the new curriculum. This is the speaking (oral) aspect, (The Ministry of Education, 2005). The difference given by Teacher 8 School H is also in line with the difference given by the previous teacher, he pointed out:

There was no speaking (no orals) in the former curriculum. Recorders were not used. Learning was teacher centred. The current curriculum consists of a number of exercises and comprehension passages that learners have to do. This was not the case with the former curriculum. The work that the learners are doing now is far more than the work they did in the former curriculum.

For Teacher 8, the difference between the two curricula is also on the new skill (oral) in which learners are examined as well as new materials that have to be used with the new curriculum, and also the increase in the learners' work load. In the former curriculum, learners did not do much as they got all the information from their teachers. In this new curriculum, however, learners have to do most of the work. The new curriculum also requires the use of a recorder, which again is something that was not used in the former curriculum. When this teacher was asked what the use of the recorder was, the response was that the recorder was used for the orals. According to this teacher the difference is also on the number

of comprehension passages that learners have to read and the number of exercises in the examination that learners have to do.

According to the data gathered from all the English language teachers, learners now sit for an examination that consists of four papers with each paper consisting of various exercises. Learners also write various compositions. The situation with the former curriculum was that the whole English language examination was based on one reading comprehension. In the new curriculum, each exercise is based on a separate reading comprehension and therefore learners have to read a total of five reading passages as well as do five exercises based on each comprehension passage. The differences given by teacher 8 were all technical in nature as they were on the learners' work load and the number of comprehension passages. Teacher 8 was also able to give the differences in relation to the teaching materials and skills that are developed in each learner. She also knew what learners did in the former curriculum which they no longer do in the new. She further knew the differences in terms of the examinations that learners sit and sat for. Such knowledge demonstrated a great understanding of how differently the new and localised curriculum had to be implemented from the former curriculum.

Responding in a similar way, Teacher 9 School I said the difference between the two curricula is in the oral examinations that have been added. Another thing that is different about the new curriculum is that there is no grammar exercise in the final examination, yet in the former curriculum there was. He said:

The third and the fourth paper has been added which is the listening and oral examinations respectively. The curriculum has done away with the grammar aspect. Grammar is no longer as emphasized as it was in the former curriculum and this is disadvantaging the learners because when they enrol at the university to do languages for example, they will be expected to have a sound knowledge in grammar. Learners are not examined in grammar in this curriculum, yet in the former, they were.

The responses given by the teachers indicated some understanding of the differences between the former GCE-O-Level curriculum and the new and localised English language curriculum, as each one of the teachers was able to pick out at least one difference or two between these two curricula. The difference that seemed to dominate between the two revolved around much work being done by learners in the new and localised curriculum when compared to work that was done in the former curriculum and also the addition of the oral examination in

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the new and localised curriculum. These differences are the same as those that were given by The Ministry of Education (2005) as it also pointed out that in the new and localised curriculum, teachers do not have monopoly over information, and therefore they are not the custodians of information as learners are required to find information for themselves.

Teacher 9's view is that the two curricula are different in that the former curriculum was better than the current one in terms of providing better opportunities to learners who want to pursue languages at the university. This was because in the former curriculum, learners did grammar and this gave those learners who wanted to do languages at the university a head start. In the new and localised curriculum, learners do not overtly do grammar, nor are they examined on grammar, hence those that want to pursue grammar at university level are disadvantaged because grammar is required from them. This teacher's view is similar to the views of stakeholders in the study that was undertaken by Gamedze (2010). According to Gamedze (2010) the shift from GCE-O-Level to SGCSE was viewed as lowering the standard of education and therefore 'a mistake of all times' that the Ministry of Education was making (Gamedze, 2010, p. 148). The teacher further gave the differences between the two curricula in terms of the content taught.

Giving his own view on the differences between the two curricula, Teacher 10 School J made the observation that the difference is in the way the learners were and are expected to answer questions. He remarked:

Emphasis in the old curriculum was on the training of learners on the development of essay writing and the general answering of questions was in full sentences. In this one direct responses to questions are required, there is no need to answer questions in full.

According to this teacher while answering in full sentences was required in the former curriculum, short and precise answers are required in the new curriculum as there is no need to give full sentences when answering the questions. When this teacher was asked if this was the only difference she knew about these curricula, her answer was to the affirmative. The conclusion that was drawn from this response was that this teacher knew very little about the differences between the two curricula.

Providing a similar response in relation to the examination, Teacher 15 School O remarked:

In the new curriculum there are five comprehension passages that learners have to read, in the former there was only one passage. Teaching methods have not changed much except that the use of the lecture has to be minimized.

According to this teacher, the two curricula were different only on the comprehension passages that were given to the learners during the examination. Whereas in the former curriculum all activities were based on one comprehension, in the new and localised curriculum learners are given five different comprehension passages for each of the five exercises that they have to do. In terms of teaching methods, this teacher was of the view that the two curricula demanded the same teaching methods; however the use of the lecture should be minimal.

The differences between the two curricula, the former GCE-O-Level curriculum, and the new and localised SGCSE curriculum, according to the responses that were given by the six teachers; those who had experience in teaching both curricula revealed that the differences were on the focus of each curriculum. While the former was teacher-centred, the new is learner-centred. While the former focussed on reading and writing skills, the new focuses on the skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Another difference is on the new aspect, the oral aspect, and the device it is used with, which is something that was not in the former curriculum. Other differences were in the structure of examinations in the two curricula.

5.2.4 The structure of the new and localised English language examination
The structure of the examination in the new and localised curriculum according to all the teachers that were interviewed is as follows:

Paper 1 is reading and writing, which requires learners to read five passages and then do five exercises.

Exercise 1-learners skim and scan for information from a passage.

Exercise 2- learners read a passage to get details, here learners find answers by reading between the lines as the answers are not overtly given, but are implied.

Exercise 3- learners read a passage and then transfer information as it is and use it to fill in a form. The form has to be filled in such a way that learners become the owners of the form that is being filled in.

Exercise 4- leaners read a comprehension passage and make notes using the information from the given passage.

Exercise 5-learners read a passage and then write a summary.

Paper 2 is composition writing which consists of two exercises, letter writing and an argumentative composition.

Paper 3 is listening- learners listen to a recorded tape or CD then they answer questions.

Paper 4 is the orals/speaking-learners are assessed on their speaking and conversational skills.

Looking at the structure of the examination that learners sit for one realizes the intensity of the work that learners have to do in the new and localised English language curriculum. They have to read about five comprehension passages and also do five exercises during the examination in one paper. In order to do this, they should prepare for each paper and each exercise. Having outlined the number of passages that make up the examination, the researcher wanted to know the contents of the passages. The purpose was to find out if the passages were on local literature or if they contained local themes as per the stipulations of a localised curriculum. In response, teachers explained that there were no instances where the passages contained rural themes. All of them contained urban themes which is the reason why teachers also resorted to giving learners passages with urban themes for practice.

 In addition, learners are compelled to write an argumentative composition, yet in the former curriculum they had to choose between the narrative, descriptive and argumentative compositions. Seeing that the argumentative composition always presented the learners with challenges, all the six teachers said they always discouraged their learners from choosing it in the former GCE-O-Level examination because it required a very good command of the English language. The teachers said they were able to do this because learners then had a choice when it came to compositions. However, in the current examination every learner now has to write the argumentative composition.

5.2.5 Teachers' knowledge about the requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum

It was also vital in the study to find out if teachers knew what the new and localised English language curriculum required. In order to find out the teachers' stance in this, teachers were

asked if they knew what the new and localised English language curriculum required. The exact question that was asked was, "are you conversant with the requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum?" For some teachers, the question had to be rephrased to; "do you know what is required by the new and localised English language curriculum?" This was done after the teachers had said they had a problem understanding the word "conversant" in the initial question. The summary of the teachers' responses were a 'yes', 'no, and 'may be'. Table 5. 2 gives a summary of the responses that teachers gave for this question.

Table 5. 2 Teachers' knowledge of the requirements of the new curriculum

Teacher's responses	No. of teachers	Percentage
Yes	18	78%
No	1	4%
Maybe	4	17%
Total	23	100%

Table 5. 2 reflects that out of twenty three (23) of the teachers that participated in the study, eighteen (78%) of the teachers responded in the affirmative when they were asked if they knew the requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum. Four (17%) of the teachers said they were not sure of the requirements of the curriculum but maybe they knew of some and only one (4%) of them said he did not know what the curriculum required. It was noted from the responses of the teachers that a substantial number of them knew what the curriculum required. It was also noted that other teachers were not sure about the requirements of the curriculum. However, this did not mean that they did not know anything about the curriculum at all; it was just that they were not sure whether what they knew was actually the requirements of the new and localised curriculum.

There was only one teacher who said he did not know anything in terms of requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum. This was the same teacher who had earlier said he did not understand what a localised curriculum meant. When this teacher was asked for how long he had been teaching this curriculum the response was, *two months*. This teacher was new in the teaching profession, he had just started teaching, and this explained why he did not know the requirements of the curriculum. When this teacher was further asked

if he had been trained to teach the curriculum that he was teaching, the response was that he had just graduated from the University of Swaziland with majors in English Language, African Languages, and Education but he had not been specifically trained to teach the SGCSE English language curriculum as very little was said about the curriculum during training. When asked how he was going to teach a curriculum that he did not know anything about, the teacher said he was yet to find out from other teachers and also through in-service training what the requirements of the curriculum were and how he was expected to teach the curriculum. Despite that a large percentage of the teachers (78%) knew the requirements of the curriculum it was however worrying to note that there was a teacher who started teaching a curriculum without knowing what it required and how they were supposed to teach it. It was further worrying to note that the Ministry of Education employed teachers to teach a curriculum that they did not know anything about.

Then next question that teachers were asked required them to give the requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum. This question was directed to the teachers who had responded in the affirmative and also those that had said they were not sure. The researcher noted that although four (4) of the teachers had said they were not sure of the requirements of the curriculum they had at least some basic knowledge of what the curriculum is about.

Teacher 1 from school A was not very clear about the requirements of the curriculum. He confessed that he was not adequately prepared to teach the curriculum during training. He said:

I'm not very clear about the requirements of the curriculum. Not much was said about the curriculum during training, this was due to time constraints. The little bit I know about it is that it is learner centred, focus is on learner activities. I was not adequately prepared to teach in this curriculum I just got to this school and was tasked to teach it, but basically I do know that it is learner centred.

Although this teacher said there was very little that he knew about the curriculum as he was not adequately trained on how to teach it, he however knew that the curriculum was learner centred and focussed on learner activities. When further asked to explain what he meant by the curriculum being learner centred he said that the curriculum required that learners be given activities that required them to find information for themselves. The same thing had to be done with the teaching methods; learners had to be taught using teaching methods where

the teacher would not say much but the methods would require that learners find information for themselves. The response given by this teacher is in agreement with The Ministry of Education (2005) that learner centred teaching methods are supposed to be core in this curriculum.

Teacher 2 from school B is also not so sure about the requirements of the curriculum, however, there is also a bit that she knows, she said:

May be I know some, students have to be exposed to the four language skills. Teaching methods have to be varied. There has to be the use of the Question and Answer, Research, Guided Discovery, Lecture, Discussion, and Demonstration because the curriculum is learner centred.

Like Teacher 1, this teacher's knowledge is on both the content that learners should be taught in this curriculum as well as the methods of teaching. Learners have to be taught the four language skills and learner-centred teaching methods have to be used.

Teacher 21 from School U was also not sure of the requirements of the curriculum but there are certain things that she knows about it, she is not totally blank about the curriculum, she said:

Mhhh, not so well, but I know that for this curriculum there is need for a language laboratory which should have recording systems so that teachers can train learners on the listening skill. In listening learners have to listen to English language being spoken so there has to be a television.

Another requirement is that there has to be not more than ten (10) learners per class so that the teacher can handle them easily in orals; however this is not the case as I currently have fifty five (55).

Internet facilities are another requirement. Learners have to browse through the internet and do research as they are required to find information for themselves. The teacher should not be the one providing information to learners.

Books to help learners prepare for the listening are also required; the books should have CDs inside which learners should listen to. They should also have questions which the learners should read and respond to.

Despite having said she does not know the requirements of the curriculum so well, this teacher however, lists quite a number of the things that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum. Her response indicated that she was actually conversant with the requirements of the curriculum.

Teacher 4 in school D does not know, he simply says, *I am not sure, so much has been said about this curriculum. I have just started so I am yet to find out*.

The responses that were given by the teachers on what the curriculum requires indicated that they at least had some knowledge of what the curriculum required. Even those teachers who had said they were not sure knew at least a few of the requirements of the curriculum. It was only one teacher who said that he did not know what the curriculum required and was also not able to name a single thing that was required by the curriculum.

5.2.6 Requirements of the new and localised English Language curriculum (materials)

The next question that the teachers were asked was to give the requirements of the new and localised English Language curriculum. The question was directed to both the teachers who had said they knew the requirements of the curriculum and also those who had said they were not sure. For those teachers who had said they were not sure, they had already indicated, that there was actually something that they knew about the curriculum. Their facial expressions were saying they knew something only they were not sure whether what they knew as the requirements was accurate. The analysis for this question was done in such a way that the requirements by the curriculum were divided into requirements in terms of materials, infrastructure, content, and requirements in terms of teaching methods.

The reason for wanting to find out about these requirements, specifically the requirements in terms of teaching methods, infrastructure, content, and materials was so that these can be compared with the content, methods, materials, and infrastructure that teachers actually used when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural schools to see if they were compatible. It was believed that this would give some light on the teaching methods, materials, content, and quality of infrastructure required by the curriculum against the teaching methods and materials actually used for purposes of finding out the discrepancies in terms of what is required for implementing the curriculum and what is used when implementing the curriculum. Table 5. 3 summarizes the responses given by the participants.

Table 5.3 Materials that are required by the new curriculum

Category	Teachers' Responses	Number of teachers	Percentage
1	Electronic Gadgets	15	65%
2	Prescribed Textbooks	14	61%
3	Reference books	2	9%
4	Specimen papers	1	4%
5	Past Examination papers	4	17%
6	Practice book	1	4%
7	Book for listening comprehension	3	13%
8	Varied books, magazines, newspaper articles, novels	14	61%
9	Access to the internet	9	39%
10	Photocopier	3	13%
11	Recording system	8	35%

A reflection on the responses given by the teachers revealed that a substantial number of the teachers (61-65%) considered electronic gadgets such as radios, television, CD player, lap tops, prescribed textbooks, varied books, magazines, newspaper articles, and novels, as materials that were required by the new and localised English language curriculum. 35% said the curriculum required a recording system, 39% access to the internet, 17% past examination papers, 13% a photocopier and books for listening passages, 9% reference books, and 4% specimen books, and practice books. It was also noted from the teachers' responses that most of them with the exception of only two teachers knew at least three or four of the materials that were required by the new and localised English language curriculum. The requirements that the teachers gave were in line with those given by The Ministry of Education (2005).

 The teachers' responses on the requirements of the curriculum were encouraging in that their knowledge of the requirements was understood to mean that the teachers knew what the function of each material or gadget was as well as how each material contributed to the effective implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum. It was however, very disturbing to note that there was a teacher who did not know even one material

that was required for use in the new curriculum. The argument presented by this teacher when asked about this was that he had just started teaching as he was two months into the profession and was still to find out from other teachers and through further training and workshops about some of the things that were required by the curriculum. The other teacher, Teacher 7 from School G knew only one requirement, which was access to the internet.

Teacher 4 from School D made an attempt to justify his inability to know even one of the materials that are required by the curriculum by saying that knowing what the curriculum requires and using certain materials when implementing the curriculum are two different things. One may know the required materials but not use them. Again one may not know the materials required by the curriculum but may use certain materials to effectively implement the curriculum. He said the fact that he did not know what was required by the curriculum did not actually mean that he did not use any materials when implementing the curriculum. The fact that he used certain materials did not mean that he knew the materials as those which were required by the curriculum. The response given by this teacher was understood to mean that as much as he used certain materials when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum, he did not however know whether the materials he used were the required ones or not. He just used the materials because he thought they could help him to effectively implement the curriculum. When this teacher was quizzed on whether he used any materials when implementing the curriculum his response was assenting, and he said he did. When further asked to give these materials he requested to be excused as he did not want to answer the question. In line with the ethical considerations that respondents had the right to respond or not to respond to a question (Cresswell, 2009), this teacher was duly excused from answering the question.

One thing that was noted from the list of materials given by the teachers was that there was no mention of materials that are found in the learners' local environment which is what the localised curriculum is supposed to be about. The materials given by the teachers did not also go beyond those that are found in the classroom context. They were all materials whose source of origin is the West and did not have any trace of Swazi context, specifically the rural context where most of such materials are not found due to lack of electricity and poverty since most rural people are poor and cannot therefore afford to buy such. This then was interpreted to mean that despite knowing that the curriculum has been localised, teachers did not see it odd that they did not mention local materials. This view meant that the teachers still decontextualized and treated the new and localised English language curriculum out of

context and not as a social process. To them it still did not put emphasis on the cultural, social, and historical dimension of a country (Cornbleth, 1988) as it still required materials that are not found in the learners' local environment.

That there was nothing local about the materials that were given by the teachers was also understood to mean that the curriculum was still not localised and therefore did not suit the local environment in which it was implemented. Again, the materials had not been modified to suit the local conditions of the learners, hence not relevant and meaningful to the learners' needs and therefore not contributing to good quality education (Abraham 2003; Bennion, 2001). Another understanding gathered from this was that the local culture does not dominate the curriculum and the curriculum is not developed within the culture of the country, hence not related and based on the beliefs and values of the culture since the materials do not have any trace of the environment.

This again confirmed the difficulty of achieving localisation in practice in terms of teaching materials when the local is entrenched in a small developing nation that is reliant on support from other nations (Dasen and Akkari, 2008) and has been in the same position for a long time. It also confirmed the difficulty of adopting and appreciating local materials after using materials from foreign cultures for a long time. This lack of appreciation could be influenced by the nature of the examination which does not have any local themes as well as the knowledge that as much as the curriculum has been localised, the learners' school leaving certificate is still co-signed by Britain (The Ministry of Education, 2005). The teachers' responses therefore confirmed that Swaziland as a small developing nation is still reliant on Britain since all the materials given as requirements of the curriculum are materials of British origin and do not have any trace of Swaziland.

The teaching materials given by the teachers also excluded charts, maps, teacher made materials and learner made materials, all of which had been listed as part of the materials that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum by The Ministry of Education (2005). All the materials that were given by the teachers were of Western origin. This again revealed the narrowness of the teachers' scope and understanding of the teaching materials that are required by the curriculum. Teachers could only make reference to materials from the West and not those that have either been made by the learners or themselves. Teachers did not also make reference to local teaching materials in their responses. Not mentioning such materials indicated their non-use in the new and localised

curriculum and this is in contrast with the definition of the localised curriculum given by Taylor (2004) that the localised curriculum should have traces of the local history and the culture of the society.

The absence of local teaching materials and teacher and learner made teaching materials in the teachers' responses is also an indication that the new and localised English language curriculum is failing to strike a balance between curriculum localisation, internationalisation, and globalisation. Focus is still on internationalisation and globalisation, and this is contrary to Lam's (2010) advice that a localised curriculum should strike a balance between all three. As a result, the products of the localised curriculum could be caught between the pressures of the local, global, and international demands. In consideration of Rajabi and Farokhi's (2014) view that careful thought and considerations have to be made before any curriculum reform, it seems Swaziland did not do this. Swaziland was supposed to have considered its land-locked position which makes it reliant on other countries so that products of the localised curriculum can effectively function locally, internationally and globally. As it is, the products could only function internationally and globally.

5.2.7 Infrastructure that is required by the new and localised English language curriculum

After responding to the question that required the participants to give the materials that were required by the new and localised English language curriculum, the teachers were asked to give requirements in terms of infrastructure for this curriculum. Table 5. 4 summarizes their responses.

Table 5. 4 Infrastructure that is required by the new curriculum

Category	Teachers' Responses	Number of teachers	Percentage
1	Language laboratory	11	43%
2	Library	15	65%
3	Classroom that has electricity/a spacious room with electricity	3	13%
4	School hall	1	4%
5	Sound proof room	1	4%
6	Recording room	1	4%

65% of the teachers who took part in the study knew the infrastructure required by the new and localised English language curriculum to be the library. 43% said that the curriculum required a language laboratory. 13% said the curriculum required a classroom or a spacious room that has electricity, while 4% said the curriculum required a 'sound proof room and a recording room' respectively. The 'classroom with electricity, a spacious room with electricity, a sound proof room, or a recording room' was also understood to refer to a language laboratory. What this suggested was that as much as these teachers did not know the name of the required room, they did however; know that there was need for a room that had electricity for the effective implementation of this curriculum. One of the teachers also said the curriculum required a school hall where learners could gather to listen to presentations made by others in preparation for the oral examination. This requirement was however not mentioned by the other respondents. Teacher 4 School D again did not know. There were also other teachers who knew nothing about the requirement of a language laboratory as they only gave a library as a requirement. These were Teacher 12 School L, Teacher 14 School N, Teacher 20 School T and Teacher 22 School V. Other teachers said they were not sure. These were Teacher 2 from School B, Teacher 13 from school M, and Teacher 19 from School S. The list of infrastructure that was given by the teachers also did not have anything local. There was not even a single structure that was given which was one that was not foreign and therefore found in the rural environment. Again this revealed that the curriculum did not have any trace of the local environment and also that it still relied a lot on infrastructure from foreign nationals (Cornbleth, 1988).

It was worrying to note that some teachers did not know that the curriculum required a language laboratory, yet this is a very important room in this curriculum as all English language materials have to be stored it. The language laboratory is the heart of the new and localised English language curriculum and has a very important role in the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum (The Ministry of Education, 2005). This is because it is used for speaking and listening activities as well as for conducting listening and oral examinations, as well as storing all materials that are used for the implementation of the English language curriculum.

5.3 Availability of the requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum

This theme sought to find out if all the requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum were available in the rural schools. It was vital that this be determined so that what teachers would say they used when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum could be compared against what was required so that the gap could be identified.

5.3.1 Availability of teaching materials and infrastructure required by the curriculum

Having outlined the teaching materials and infrastructure that the new and localised English language curriculum requires, the researcher wanted to know if these required materials and infrastructure were available in the rural schools. The responses given by the teachers to this question have been summarized in table 5.5.

Table 5. 5 Availability of all the required teaching materials and infrastructure

Teachers' Responses	Number of teachers	Percentage
Yes	0	0%
No	23	100%
Total	23	100%

The responses of the teachers indicated that although some of the materials and infrastructure were available; it was however not all of them that were available. Respondents were unanimous on this response. The same thing was said about the infrastructure, it was not all available. In addition, as already indicated by the previous question, the infrastructure and the

materials that are required by the curriculum are those that are not found in the local environment. The absence of these in rural contexts was also noted by Guenther & Weible (1993), Ashton & Duncan (2012), Robinson, Bursuck, & Sinclair (2013) in the background.

In the absence of the required materials and infrastructure that have traces of the rural context where the curriculum is implemented, as well as teachers not indicating how they modify the materials and infrastructure or substitute them with those that are found locally, it is difficult to say the curriculum has been localised if we contemplate the definition of curriculum localisation given by Taylor (2004). Curriculum localisation according to Taylor (2004) requires that the curriculum be adjusted to suit the local conditions in which it is offered. Adjusting the curriculum entails among other things, substituting foreign materials and infrastructure with those that are found and used in the local environment. In the absence of these materials that are required by the SGCSE English language, curriculum localisation seems far-fetched, the curriculum is viewed as decontextualized and it is still being treated as a 'foreign' process as opposed to a social process that is accentuating the cultural and social dimension of the society (Cornbleth, 1988). This also raises the binary challenge of implementing the curriculum without the essential materials and infrastructure albeit their being local.

In a bid to follow up the issue of unavailability of the required teaching materials and infrastructure and non-modification and substituting of such by teachers, the researcher asked teachers to explain how they implemented the curriculum without the use of some of the required materials and infrastructure. To this question, teachers said they improvised and used their own resources. Some of the responses that they gave have been given below: Teacher 1 School A said:

A television set is one of the requirements but since the school does not have one, I bring my own lap top and use it together with the school projector if there is something that I would like to show to the learners. I do not do this often though. The internet and library are other requirements but, then the school does not have access to the internet, it does however have a library even though the books in it cannot be used for teaching English. Most of the books are Mathematics and Science books which the school received as a donation. So what I do if for example I want learners to do some research is I use my phone(google) to get them the information and also ask those learners whose parents have phones to do the same and then we share the information. For listening and orals which require a sound proof language

laboratory, I use the computer laboratory, which is the room in which we are, but then as you
can hear there is a lot of noise coming in since this laboratory is not sound proof. I just use
whatever is available.

In the absence of the required teaching materials and infrastructure, this teacher uses his personal belongings, that is his lap top and his cell phone. In addition, he also improvises by using whatever is available, that is the computer laboratory, as a language laboratory. Despite this room being referred to as a computer laboratory there were however no computers inside, hence the room was just a library. Figure 5.1 shows the computer laboratory in school A.

Figure 5.1: Computer laboratory for School A

When the researcher asked why the room was called a computer laboratory and yet there were no computers inside the response was that the room was actually built with the purpose

that it was going to be a computer laboratory. The school was yet to solicit funds to buy and also install the computers. At the time of the research, the books that were available in the school were stored inside this room. When the computers finally arrived it meant it would double as a library and a computer room.

Responding to the same question, Teacher 2 School B pointed out:

Due to the unavailability of internet facilities and a library which is required for research for the projects, I give learners research that is going to require general information which can be obtained from other teachers just for purposes of sharpening their research skills. Those who have access to cell phones, I encourage them to use the cell phones to google the required information. Sometimes I give them hand-outs containing the relevant information so that their task is to organize the information constructively.

This teacher modifies the content so that it can be found in the local environment. She modifies the research topics in such a way that information can be gathered from the other teachers in the school. This is what curriculum localisation is about, modifying content and adjusting the curriculum to suit the local environment (Taylor, 2004). This teacher also uses local materials (Abraham, 2003 and Bennion, 2001) to implement the curriculum in the absence of the required materials. The cell phones that she asks learners to use in the absence of the internet are local materials as they are used by the locals. According to Cornbleth (1988) she treats the curriculum in context. The teacher however said the school did not have a library, yet the library was there. The only challenge about the library was that it had a few Mathematics, Science, and English textbooks which the learners could not read for enjoyment, but could only use as textbooks. This indicated her limited understanding of a library. When the researcher wanted to confirm what the teacher had said about the library not being there, that is asking if really there was no library in the school, she was shown the room in figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2: Library in school B

When this teacher was asked why she had said there was no library in the school, yet the library was there the response given was that she did not consider the above as a library because it had very few stacks and the books were packed inside boxes, and also that there was only one desk and a few chairs. She further said this was nowhere near the libraries she knew of in town. This response indicated a very narrow understanding of what actually constitutes a library for this teacher. Her view of a library was something elaborate and well-structured, and this was a revelation of how effective colonialism still was in the minds of people. Anything that was not at the same level as that which is found in town was equivalent to nothing at all.

Giving her own response on the availability of materials, Teacher 8 School H, explained:

A library is required for learners to do research and also to read. The library in our school is not good; the books were donated by other countries and they are not suitable for learners at this level. They could maybe suit university students. Computers and access to the internet

is also a requirement, but these are not available, learners are unable to do the research so I do the research for them. I go to town to get information from libraries and also from internet cafes and I come back and give this information to the learners. I also use my cell phone to find information for the learners and I give it to them.

Figure 5. 3: Library for school H

When this teacher was further asked why she does not ask learners to use their own phones to find information, her response was:

Most learners do not have cell phones, even those that do have; their phones do not have access to the internet, they are very cheap models which is why I end up doing the research for them.

This teacher confessed to doing work for the learners instead of asking them to do it themselves. Her reason for doing so was the unavailability of appropriate books in the library, lack of access to the internet and unavailability of phones where learners can do their research. Although the library had books, most of them were very old encyclopaedias as well as Mathematics books which learners could not use for their learning of English. The library also did not have novels which learners could read to improve their English. That this teacher did the research for the learners instead of the learners doing the research for themselves as per the stipulations of the new and localised English language curriculum is similar with what other teachers do. Studies that have been conducted which were reviewed revealed that teachers are the "ones that bring the curriculum documents to limelight and reality" and therefore they influence the curriculum a great deal (Obilo & Sangoleye, 2010, p. 1). As final decision makers (Mkpa & Izuagba 2009; Pacioto & Delany-Barmann, 2011) teachers are the ones who make the final decision regarding the learning experiences to be given to the learners and they do what they feel is right. In addition, teachers translate the curriculum the way they want (Obilo & Sangoleye 2010). Despite knowing the stipulations of the curriculum, teachers make certain adaptations and changes on the curriculum to suit the environments in which they are; hence they influence the curriculum implementation process in a tremendous way (Hardre, 2012; Rahman, 2014; Wood, Finch, & Mirecki, 2013).

Responding to the same question, Teacher 9 School I:

I make utilise whatever is available, for example when its examination time I use a computer laboratory (again this turned out to be just an empty room without anything inside) or an office for the orals and listening. I put a notice outside to ask students to be quiet since there is an examination going on. This however, is not effective, there is need for a sound proof room so that the recording is effectively done and no other sound is recorded except the conversation between the learner and the teacher. The recorder is also another requirement. Since the school does not have one, I use my cell phone to record such examinations. We in these environment/contexts have to do a lot of improvisation because most of the required things are not available.

When this teacher was further asked what she does to ensure that learners do research in the absence of both a library and access to the internet, her response was:

I buy dongles and source the information and give it to the learners, but that robs them of the skill of being able to select information that is relevant to the task they have been given.
I have to try everything to ensure learners have the information they need.

Like the other teachers, this teacher does a lot of improvisation by using whatever room is available for the orals and the listening. She also uses her own resources to ensure that learners get the information they want and also that they get to do their oral examinations. The teacher uses her own money to buy dongles as well as her phone to record the conversations between herself and the learners during examinations in the absence of a recorder. This is in line with curriculum localisation.

Teacher 17 School Q pointed out that:
The absence of these materials denotes an absence of necessary teaching materials required for the teaching of English. Materials should be stored in the laboratory to avoid being lost and damaged which is likely to happen when teachers move them in and out. Information can also be lost if this is done. The lab also helps to maintain order. It also ensures a quiet free from disturbances environment where listening and oral exercises are conducted.
Before assigning learners to go to the library to find information I make sure that I go there first to see if there is a book that contains such information. The reason for doing this is not to get them disappointed as well as frustrated by asking them to go and find information that is not there.

For research work I do assign learners to do research but I end up doing the research for them and giving them the information that they need. The few learners who have cell phones, I show them how to look for information from the net using their phones and they look for it and also share with the others.

This teacher also uses strategies that are used by other teachers to ensure that she effectively teaches the English language curriculum in the absence of the required teaching materials and infrastructure. She does the research for the learners as well as teaches learners who have cell phones how to use their cell phones to find the required information. She also puts emphasis on that as much as certain things can be used to improvise in order to save the situation, the absence of the materials and infrastructure that is required by the curriculum results in a disorder as the required rooms are for a particular purpose.

Teacher 18 School R had this to say with regards to the unavailability of teaching materials:

Equipment for recording that is required is an audio-tape recorder. However, sometimes one has to bring her own as those belonging to the school are always faulty. If my own recorder also has problems, as it normally does, I then record using my phone.

The curriculum is learner-centred, most of the work has to be done by the learners, but in this environment it is difficult to do that. I do the work for the learners and give it to them due to the absence of the resources. I basically have to do the spade work for the learners.

Our learners are unable to do research work because the school does not have access to the internet. I therefore ask learners to go to Siteki library (the nearby library) but due to lack of funds some are unable to, so I end up researching for them and giving them the required information. I sometimes use my phone to do the research and also encourage learners to do the same. But, again, it is only a few of them who have phones, so we share the information.

This teacher like the other teachers sacrifices her own resources for the benefit of the learners. She uses her own recorder as well as cell phone for research purposes. She also laments the fact that instead of the learners learning how to do the research for themselves, she does the work for them. She is aware that learners ought to do the research themselves but then the situation does not allow them to, hence her doing the research for the learners.

Teacher 20 School T also made an effort to implement the curriculum effectively in the absence of the required materials and resources, she explained:

For purposes of research, I ask learners to use their phones, I do know they have cell phones; we catch them with cell phones left and right so I ask them to google things. The others who do not have cell phones usually ask their relatives who have cell phones to find the required information for them. For the recordings and listening we use the Science laboratory. This is an inconvenience to the Science teacher as he always has to be there to ensure order.

This teacher also improvises in the absence of the required materials and infrastructure. She also encourages learners to use their phones or relative's phones to look for the required information. Unlike the other teachers who said most learners do not have cell phones; this teacher believes learners do have phones as they are normally caught with them.

Like the other teachers who do the research for the learners, Teacher 21 School U said:

Since the school does not have a library and access to the internet, I end up doing the research for the learners. I once tried to give learners an assignment where they had to go and find information, they came back empty handed. Doing research for the learners however, is in breach of the stipulations of the curriculum. In the absence of CDs to help learners practice listening, I record myself reading a text then I make learners listen to it then they answer questions. For the orals and listening I use a room which the school built which is to be used as a computer room.

Like teacher 2 School B, this teacher uses her own initiative by doing what is against the stipulations of the new and localised English language curriculum. She does the research for the learners. A majority of the teachers that were interviewed said they improvised, used their own resources and asked those learners who have phones to do research on their phones as well as do the research for the learners. However, all of them were cognizant of the fact that what they were doing was in 'breach of the stipulations' (Teacher, 21. School U) of the new and localised English language curriculum. What this meant was that at times teachers did not act out of ignorance when they did things that seemed to be against the specifications of the curriculum, but they were forced by the situation in which they are to do those things, otherwise they were fully aware of what had to be done.

Of importance to note is that the issue of unavailability of teaching and learning materials is not new with the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum. This is because something similar is mentioned by Guenther & Weible, (1993) cited in the literature review to the effect that rural schools are always in high need in terms of materials and infrastructure. What this means therefore is that rural school teachers have to find other means of making up for the lack of materials as the lack of materials seems to be a common thing with rural schools.

The responses given by most of the teachers indicated that what they did was in the right direction towards the localisation of the curriculum. They used everything that they had at their disposal to implement the curriculum (Taylor, 2004). This was from using their personal belongings, their gadgets, and learners' gadgets, modifying topics, improvising, and making do with what is available, when implementing the curriculum. All this is what curriculum localisation is about. The modification of content, improvisation, and use of what is available in place of what is required by the new and localised English language curriculum is however according to the teachers, depriving learners of gadgets and materials that are found outside

their environment, and therefore making them deficient during the examination and when they have to go internationally.

So, as much as the localised English language curriculum is addressing the local needs of the learners by allowing them to use local materials in the absence of the required ones, the international needs of the learners are not met, hence the learners are being prevented from crossing over to the international world and confined to their own country. This could be the reason why some South African universities require products of the SGCSE curriculum to do bridging courses and are not directly admitted as it was stated in the background.

5.4 Teaching methods that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum

This theme sought to identify the teaching methods that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum and whether the required methods were applicable or not in the rural school context. The theme also sought to identify the actual teaching methods that teachers used when implementing the curriculum as well as their reasons for the choice of the teaching methods.

5.4.1 Requirements by the curriculum in terms of teaching methods

Next, teachers were asked to give the teaching methods that are required for use with the new and localised English language curriculum. Again the responses on the required teaching methods were to be compared against the methods that teachers would say they used to implement this curriculum. This would give a clear picture on the gap between what is required and what is used. Table 5. 6 summarizes the teachers' responses.

Table 5. 6 Methods that are required by the new curriculum

Category	Teachers' Responses	Number of teachers	Percentage
1	Role Play	7	30%
2	Discussion	20	87%
3	Problem Solving	3	13%
4	Lecture	9	39%
5	Question and Answer	8	35%
6	Demonstration	7	30%
7	Presentations	2	9%
8	Debates	1	4%
9	Not sure	1	4%
10	Pair Work	4	17%
11	Research	13	61%
12	Discovery	1	4%
13	Learner-Centred Methods	4	17%
14	Brainstorming	2	9%
15	Resource Persons	2	9%

The most popular teaching method was the discussion method. 87% of the teachers said that the curriculum required the use of either small group discussions or class discussions. Research/project work was given by 61% of the teachers, the lecture, 39%, demonstration, 30%, role play/drama, 30%, and the question and answer, 35%. Other teaching methods that were given were problem solving which was given by 13%, discovery had 4%, and the use of resource persons, 9%. There were also other teaching activities that were listed as teaching methods. These were presentations which were given by 9%, debates 4%, and brainstorming 9%. 17% of the teachers said the curriculum required learner-centred teaching methods. However, when these teachers were further asked what these teaching methods were they were unable to give them. This was understood to mean that as much as these teachers knew that the new and localised English language curriculum required the use of learner-centred teaching methods, they did not know what these teaching methods were. With the lecture

method most teachers pointed out that even though it is not recommended, there was no way to avoid it as teachers sometimes needed to use it to clarify and explain certain concepts.

Justifying the inclusion of the lecture, Teacher 1 from School A said: *the lecture cannot be divorced as it is used with passive learners and for clarifications of difficult concepts.* According to this teacher, the lecture method is effective teaching for passive learners.

Echoing Teacher 1 on the inclusion of the lecture amongst the required teaching methods, Teacher 2 from School B said: *the lecture is also a required method even though its use should be minimized. It should be used only when making clarifications.* In view of what this teacher said, the lecture method should only be used when there is some explanation that the teacher would like to make to the learners.

Making additions on the teaching methods that are required by the curriculum, Teacher 5 from School E said*: the curriculum requires a shift from the notion that learners are empty vessels waiting to be filled; to the recognition that there is so much that they can do on their own with proper guidance. There is also a lot that teachers can gain from the experiences of the learners.* This teacher believes that the curriculum requires teaching methods that will recognize the learners as having the ability to find and also construct knowledge, and for that reason they have to be given the opportunity to do that. However, the lecture method should not be totally done away with.

Teacher 8 from School H felt the same way and said: *the use of the lecture should be minimized as learners have to find information for themselves, nevertheless it should be used when making explanations.*

Teacher 14 from School N has a different view about the lecture; he says: *the use of the lecture is discouraged.* It seemed that teachers had different views about the lecture method. While some felt the lecture method should be used others however felt its use should be minimized, others felt the use of the lecture method should be discouraged.

It was noted in the analysis of the teachers' responses that discussions, which learners had to do either as a whole class or in groups, problem solving, question and answer, field work, research/project work, role play/drama, and the use of resource persons were all outlined as methods of teaching that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum by The Ministry of Education (2005). However, the document had also given interviews and

impromptu speeches as other teaching methods that are required. Both of them were not utilised by the teachers.

After having given the teaching methods that were required for the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum, teachers were asked if all the required teaching methods were applicable for use in rural school contexts. This question was a means of paving the way for the next question which required teachers to give the methods that they used when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural schools and also the reasons for their choice of methods.

5.4.2 Applicability of the required teaching methods in rural school contexts

As already indicated above, teachers were asked if all the required teaching methods were applicable in rural schools. In response to this question, teachers gave varied responses. Their responses are given in table 5. 7.

Table 5. 7 Applicability of all teaching methods in the rural school context

Category	Teachers' Responses	Number of teachers	Percentage
1	Not all of them are applicable	17	74%
2	They all have limitations	2	9%
3	They are all applicable	4	17%

The responses given by the teachers in table 5.7 above indicate that out of 23 (twenty three) teachers only 4 (17%) said the teaching methods required by the curriculum were applicable in the contexts in which they teach. Most of the teachers, that is 74%, said not all the teaching methods were applicable, while some of the methods were applicable; there were others which were not applicable. Giving examples of some of the non-applicable teaching methods one of the teachers said:

For me group discussions are not applicable as learners do the group discussions in SiSwati. When I go around I hear them discussing in SiSwati except for a few individuals who try to conduct the discussions in English. This is a problem in that at the end of the discussions, presentations have to be made, and these have to be done in English. So, when learners do the presentations they struggle and there is always mother tongue interference, which bears testimony to the fact that the discussions were held in SiSwati (Teacher 1 School A).

This teacher is of the view that it is not all the required teaching methods that are applicable for use in rural school contexts. He singles out the discussion method as the most non-applicable and says when learners are asked to discuss issues; the expectation is that the discussion will be in English. When the teacher, however, moves around the groups that are discussing, he hears a lot of SiSwati being used. This is a problem in that after the discussions, presentations have to be made. Since learners use SiSwati in the discussions they encounter problems during the presentations because they are then expected to use English. The findings from the analysis of this response is similar to what was found by Kamwendo (2002) cited in the review of literature. In the study that he undertook, he discovered that when learners of Malawian origin were given a topic to discuss, the discussion was held in Chichewa, the mother tongue used in Malawi. When learners were compelled to use English they kept quiet and did not say anything. According to Kamwendo (2002), learners kept quiet because of lack of proficiency in English. This could be understood to mean it is normal for people who speak the same mother tongue to hold discussions in that language and not a language that they speak as a second or even as a third language.

Like Teacher 1, Teacher 2 is also of the view that as much as some of the teaching methods are applicable, some are not applicable, she said:

Not all are applicable. It is only the Lecture, Question and Answer, and Demonstration that are applicable. Limitations of using the group discussions are that they are conducted in SiSwati, yet the presentations are done in English. Presentations therefore are not often well done. The learners' use of the language is not good and it is difficult at times to follow what they are saying, as their use of the English Language is poor. (Teacher 2, School B).

According to this teacher, the difficulty in understanding what the learners are saying is because of their lack of proficiency in the English language. This was because these learners use the language as their second and ordinarily as Stern (1989) proclaims while people have a high level of proficiency in their first language, they do not have the same level of proficiency with their second languages. In Kachru's classification of English into three different circles these will be people who use English in the outer and the expanding circles hence the low level of proficiency in their use of the language is expected.

Teacher 3 School C also supports the views of the other two teachers in that it is not all the teaching methods that are applicable, she said:

Not all of them, learners are shy to speak in the groups, in the presentations, and also in the debates (Teacher 3, School C).

Teacher 4 thinks that as much as the teaching methods can be said to be applicable, their applicability can in no way be without limitations, he opines:

To a certain extent they are applicable; their applicability however is not without limitations. The use of the discussion is limited by that due to lack of vocabulary learners are unable to express their opinions in English. Some are scared to speak in the language; they just keep quiet if you ask them to conduct the discussions in English. Those who are courageous enough do speak but they stammer, count words and that also makes them uncomfortable as the others sometimes laugh at them (Teacher, 4, School D).

This is the same teacher who earlier on said he did not know anything in relation to what was required by the new and localised English language curriculum. The response he gave to this question indicated that he did use certain teaching methods after all even though he did not know whether they were the required ones or not. Contrary to the views of the other teachers, Teacher 5 School E thinks there is no problem with the teaching methods as they are all applicable, she says:

They are all applicable. Learners are able to use English in the discussions and presentations. When they are asked questions they are encouraged to respond and they do respond. The questions are rephrased and modified to make them simple for the learners to understand. For research, despite that the school is in a rural area, some of the learners do have phones, and I encourage them to use these for research because the school does not have access to the internet. The school does have a library, but then the books are not adequate, I therefore bring any reading material I can get, newspapers, magazines, it wouldn't really matter if there was no prescribed book because the syllabus is what we live, hence we are not confined to a particular book, anything that has print can be used (Teacher 5 School E).

According to this teacher the teaching methods are all applicable, what should be done is to modify them and improvise to suit the conditions in which the learners are. For research purposes learners can use their cell phones, that is, those who have them. Learners who seem scared to respond to questions should be encouraged to respond. In the absence of adequate books, learners can use whatever reading material the teacher can make available to them.

Like the first three teachers, Teacher 8 School H is of the view that it is not all the required teaching methods that are applicable for rural school contexts. She says:

Not all of them are applicable, research is not, problem solving sometimes is not applicable when learners fail to follow the instructions on how the problem can be solved. The question and answer is applicable and is the one that I widely use. The discussions in groups are also applicable because learners enjoy doing the discussions and they do presentations that help them prepare for the oral exam (Teacher 8 School H).

Like Teacher 5, Teacher 10 thinks the required teaching methods are not a problem as they can be used successfully with rural school learners. Referring to the methods he says:

They are all okay; all learners are the same irrespective of the context they are in.
The class and group discussions work well for me. They enable me to understand the level of thinking of the learners and also some of the things that they know. Learners get the opportunity to all take part (Teacher 10 School J).
For this teacher the context in which learners are does not mean anything, learners are just learners.

Teacher 11 thinks differently from Teacher 10 with regards to the applicability of the teaching methods. She puts forth her observation:

Individual attention is difficult to use as we have large numbers of learners. It takes me about three days to go through learners' compositions (Teacher 11 School K).

Teacher 18 supports the notion of the inapplicability of some of the required teaching methods. Only one teaching method (which according to other teachers has to get minimal use from the teachers) passes as the appropriate teaching method to use in rural school contexts for her. This method is the lecture. She has this to say:

I use mainly the lecture. I know I am not supposed to use it but the situation compels me to; it is difficult to ask learners to do the work on their own in this context (Teacher 18 School R).

Like most of the teachers, Teacher 19 is of the view that it is not all the teaching methods that are applicable for rural school contexts. She singles out those which she feels are problematic:

Research work is a problem because the school does not have access to the internet as well as a library, however, I do assign learners to do research work by asking for assistance from family members, relatives, and friends who have cell phones. The school does not have a library and access to the internet, so research work is not applicable (Teacher 19 School S).

Like the other teachers who think that while some teaching methods are applicable, some however, are not, Teacher 21, says:

They are not that applicable at times, our learners are not good in using English so when I give them work to do in the groups or pairs, they do not use English but they use SiSwati throughout. So, I feel the groups do not help them much as they only struggle to use English during the presentations (Teacher 21 School U).

A substantial number of the teachers felt that the rural school context was such that it was choosy with regards to the teaching methods to be used with the learners. It was therefore, not all the required teaching methods that were applicable for use in rural school contexts.

5.4.3 Teaching methods that teachers use to implement the curriculum

Since most of the teachers' responses were that it was not all the teaching methods that were required that were applicable for use in rural school contexts, the teachers were asked to give the teaching methods that they used when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum. The responses made by the teachers have been given in table 5. 8.

Table 5. 8 Methods that teachers use to implement the curriculum

Category	Teachers' Responses	Number of teachers	Percentage
1	Lecture	18	78%
2	Demonstration	18	78%
3	Role Play/Drama	11	48%
4	Discussion	7	30%
5	Problem solving	4	17%
6	Question and Answer	7	30%
7	Guided discovery	1	4%
8	Research/Project work	9	39%
9	Resource persons	5	22%
10	Presentations	1	4%
11	Debates	1	4%

The dominant teaching methods used by most teachers when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural schools were the lecture and demonstration. The lecture was given as the most applicable teaching method despite that some of the teachers had indicated that child-centred methods of teaching were suggested for use with this curriculum, and that the use of the lecture was discouraged in this curriculum. Some teachers even stated that they did use the lecture even though it was discouraged. One of the teachers said she "*usually used the lecture*" (Teacher 14 School N). Of importance to note is that this teacher had earlier said that the use of the lecture is discouraged. What this means is that this teacher did not use the lecture out of ignorance, she knew she was not supposed to use it but she used it all the same. A majority of the teachers were also found to use a lot of the lecture during the classroom observations. As much as some had said they sometimes gave their learners topics to discuss, what was observed was that the lecture was mostly used and learners just sat passively and did not do anything.

The use of the lecture and other approaches that do not emphasise on the communicative role of English when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum also came out from the literature review. Studies that were conducted by Zondo (2009), Msibi (2010),

Behroozi and Amoozegra (2014), and Pereira (2012) revealed that despite the fact that teachers were fully cognizant that they should minimize the use of the lecture when teaching History they however used it. The study by Behroozi and Amoozegra (2014) revealed that any approach to the teaching of English that would fail to emphasise on the communicative role of English and instead focus on the structural role of English would not benefit the learners. According to Cornbleth (1988) when teachers stick to the use of teacher-centred methods of teaching and use a structural approach to the teaching of English they are treating the curriculum out of context. This is because instead of them giving learners the opportunity to get information for themselves, they give the learners information. Since the information is presented abstractly to the learners, the curriculum is treated out of context and therefore decontextualized according to Cornbleth (1988). When teachers were queried on why they used the lecture, they said that this was because of lack of access to the internet and unavailability of libraries in their schools where learners could find the information they required. This indicated that teachers do what they want and what seems to work for them in their classrooms. It does not matter what the policy or the rule is if they are against it they always do things their own way. As Pacioto & Delany-Barmann (2011) and Brown (2010) state, as final arbiters of what happens in their classrooms, teachers do what they feel is right for their learners. They do not normally consider rules and policies and new ways or innovations that have been put in place on how certain things are supposed to be done. They just do what suits them and also what they feel is right.

In addition, a majority of teachers who teach English at senior secondary school level pointed out that they were taught using teacher-centred methods and therefore, they were using the lecture because their teachers also taught them using the lecture. As Billington et al (2013) said teachers prefer methods of teaching that were used on them. This, however, is a problem because according to Billington et al (2013) if curriculum innovations are not fully adopted and implemented as prescribed, the curriculum may not be successful. 48% of the teachers said they used Role Play/Drama, 39% used research/project work, 30% used the discussion and the question and answer respectively, 22% used resource persons, 17% used problem solving, 4% used guided discovery, debates, and presentations respectively. This indicated that most of the teaching methods were represented.

5.4.4 Reasons for teachers' choices of teaching methods

Next, teachers were asked to give reasons for their choice of the teaching methods. The purpose of doing this was to find out why out of the many teaching methods that had been

given as required, teachers opted for the methods that they said they used. The responses given by teachers for this question have been given in table 5.9.

Table 5. 9 Reasons for teachers' choices of teaching methods

Category	Teachers' Responses	Number of teachers	Percentage
1	Choice of method is influenced by learners and the environment	13	57%
2	The lecture is used to provide background on the topic and to give instructions	4	17%
3	The methods used ensure learner involvement in the lesson	3	13%
4	The demonstration is used to expose learners to what they are supposed to do	2	9%
5	Research is used to ensure that learners learn independently	2	9%
6	The methods are used because they are required by the curriculum	9	39%
7	Any teaching method that I feel I want to use, I use	2	9%
8	Learners are used to the lecture so I do not want to bother them with other teaching methods	1	4%
9	Teaching method is influenced by the topic that teachers want to teach	1	4%
9	The teaching method chosen is influenced by the teachers' lack of knowledge on the teaching method to be used	2	9%

The responses given by the teachers indicated a number of factors that influenced their choice of teaching methods. While the choice of some methods by some teachers was influenced by their desire to use a particular teaching method on that particular day, some were influenced by the knowledge of the teaching methods that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum. Some again were influenced by the nature of rural school learners as well as the environment. Some also were influenced by simply the fact that the learners were

used to these particular teaching methods and the teachers therefore felt no need to introduce them to other different teaching methods which they could eventually get used to.

Thirteen (57%) out of twenty three of the teachers that participated in the study said that their choice of teaching methods was influenced by the nature of the learners that they have and also the environment. According to these teachers, they would have loved to use other teaching methods, however, they were compelled to use the ones that are suitable for both the environment in which they are teaching and the nature of the learners they teach. Teachers 1, 4, 6, 7, 8,9,10, 12, 13, 14, 18, 19, and 21, fall under this category. When these teachers were asked to explain what they meant they said that the rural environment was such that it could not be used with certain teaching methods. The same thing was said about rural school learners. Some teachers felt that it was not possible to use some teaching methods with them hence they had to choose only those that were applicable.

Nine (39%) out of twenty three of the teachers who participated said that their choice of teaching methods was influenced by their knowledge of the requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum. Since the curriculum is learner-centred, teachers therefore, wanted their teaching to utilize methods that are in line with learner-centeredness. What this meant was that out of twenty three teachers only nine teachers used teaching methods that are in accordance with the requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum. The rest of the teachers did not. These teachers however had reasons that related to the nature of the learners that they taught, their inability to use those teaching methods, and the topics they taught which they said were a cause for their deviation from the required teaching methods. One (4%) of the teachers chose teaching methods based on the topic that she wanted to teach, while another one chose teaching methods because of lack of knowledge on what she should do. These were Teachers 11 and 17 respectively. Teacher 11 from School K for example remarked:

My choice of teaching methods is influenced by the nature of the topics that I teach.

Teacher 17 from School Q said: *The methods I choose are those that I am able to use as I was not trained on how to teach this curriculum.*

This teacher uses methods that she is comfortable with and not those that are required by the curriculum, and her argument for doing this is that she was not trained on how to teach the curriculum.

5.4.5 How teachers compensate for the teaching methods that are not applicable

Since the responses from the teachers indicated that most of the teaching methods that were suggested for use when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum were not applicable for the context in which the teachers taught, the researcher therefore wanted to know how teachers compensated for the teaching methods that they were unable to use. Table 5. 10 gives the responses of the teachers.

Table 5. 10 Compensating for the teaching methods that teachers are unable to use

Category	Teachers' Responses	Number of teachers	Percentage
1	I do the research for the learners	7	30%
2	I do not compensate for the teaching methods that are not applicable, I do not give the learners any research to do	1	4%
3	I only use the teaching methods that are applicable	10	43%
4	I ask learners to use cell phones, parents', relatives', and friends' cell phones to do the research	5	22%

Most of the teachers were unable to use research/project work as a teaching method. However, since they knew how important it was for their learners to find information on different topics, they either did the research for them (30%) or advised them to use their cell phones; that is, those who have them. For those who do not have cell phones the teachers advised them to use relatives', parents', and friends' phones. 22% of the teachers confirmed that they did that. If learners failed to find the required information because they did not have access to a cell phone the teachers said that they found the information for them. For research, the cell phone was used by most of the teachers. One teacher said she also bought dongles to do research for her learners. She said she bought the dongles for the purpose of helping learners find the required information. There were teachers who however said they did not make any effort to use the teaching methods that are not applicable; they simply utilise those that are applicable. 43% of the teachers said that they only stick to the use of the teaching methods that are applicable hence they do not ask their learners to do research. A few of the teachers said they did not encounter any challenges with using the suggested teaching methods in the contexts in which they teach.

5.5 Best practices in the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum

This theme sought to bring to the fore what teachers considered to be the best practices when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts. The realisation that some of the teaching methods that have been suggested for use when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum are not applicable for rural school contexts as well as the unavailability of the required teaching materials and infrastructure, gives the idea that the new curriculum is not implemented according to the suggestions and stipulations by the designers. Rural school teachers implement the curriculum using whatever is available. This therefore, prompted the researcher to want to find out what teachers viewed to be the best practices when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in their contexts.

5.5.1 Best practices for implementing reading and writing

The analysis of data gathered revealed that teachers engaged in certain practices when implementing the different aspects of the new and localised English language curriculum which they considered to be the best. The teachers' practices were divided into the four aspects of the examination which learners sit for in this curriculum so the teachers' responses related to the practices for helping learners prepare for each one of these. Table 5. 11 gives their responses:

Table 5. 11 Best practices when implementing Reading and Writing

Category	Teachers' Responses	Number of teachers	Percentage
1	Exposing learners to a variety of reading comprehensions and giving them lots of materials to read.	15	65%
2	Showing learners movies and films about different things.	1	4%
3	Drilling learners on past examination questions.	3	13%
4	Telling learners stories about things that the teachers have read about, and showing them pictures of different things.	1	4%
5	Demonstrating to learners how compositions are written as well as reading to them compositions that have been written by other people, and then give learners practice in writing compositions.	1	4%
6	Asking learners to write about anything that they experience.	1	4%
7	Teaching the learners sentence structures, proverbs, idioms, and also examples of some of the words that they could use with some of the compositions that they may be expected to write.	1	4%
8	Giving learners tips on how to handle the summaries, that is telling them to simply pick important points in the passage and join them rather than attempting to summarize the passage.	1	4%

What most teachers found to be the best practice when implementing the reading and writing skills was the provision of a lot of reading material to the learners. The material could be in the form of magazines or newspaper articles or any reading comprehension which learners were made to read and then answer questions based on them. This gave the learners the opportunity to practice reading with understanding as well as demonstrate their understanding of the passages they have read by answering questions in a similar way that they would do

during the examination. 65% of the teachers who took part in the study said this is what they did.

For the writing skill, learners were shown models of the compositions that they had to write, practice writing them as well as given feedback on each piece of work that they submitted. This was done so that learners could spot the mistakes they made in their writing and avoid repeating them in the examination. Other teachers exposed the learners to the things that they wanted them to write about before asking them to write about them. This was done so that learners could have some experience on what they had to write about. 4% of the teachers said this is what they did.

Another thing that some of the teachers said they did was to teach the learners sentence structures, proverbs, idioms, and also examples of some of the words that they could use with some of the compositions that they may be expected to write. Some of these are contrasting words which are mostly used with argumentative compositions. 4% of the teachers said they did that. Some teachers (4%) said they gave learners tips on how to handle the summaries and advised them to simply pick the most important points and find a way of joining them without making an attempt to summarize them because when they try to write the summaries they get them wrong. As much as this did not teach the learners how to read and demonstrate understanding of what they were reading about by summarizing the passage, the teachers felt they had to do it to help the learners pass the examination.

The responses given by the teachers on what they considered to be the best practice for the implementation of the skills of reading and writing confirmed what was found in the literature review. The varied practices by the different teachers indicated that what can be considered as the best practice for one individual cannot be said to be the same for another individual (Smagorinsky, 2009). According to Smagorinsky (2009) the best practice as well as the best teaching method depended on who was using it as well as the environment where it was used and also how the practice was experienced by those that were involved. Light & Gnida (2012) are also of the same view that best practices and best methods depend on individuals, contexts, teachers' preferences, and uniqueness of the classrooms. The fact that teachers consider different practices as the best for the teaching of the same skills is evidence that individuals use what conforms to their situations and also what those individuals find applicable to their contexts (Light & Gnida, 2012).

5.5.2 Best Practices for the implementation of the listening skill

The responses that teachers gave on what they considered to be the best practice when implementing the listening skill have been given in table 5. 12.

Table 5. 12 Best practices when implementing listening

Category	Teachers' Responses	Number of teachers	Percentage
1	Playing CDs that have the teacher and the learners' recordings, asking learners to listen to these, and then answer questions based on what they were listening to.	8	35%
2	Asking learners to listen to songs, weather forecast, and then answer questions.	4	17%
3	Making learners to listen to English channels and programmes from the television and radio, and asking them to talk about these programmes among themselves.	2	9%
4	Providing learners with recorded tapes about anything, and then they answer questions.	5	22%
5	Giving learners past examinations CDs to listen to.	4	17%

The analysis of the teachers' responses on what they considered to be the best practices when implementing listening skills indicated that most of the teachers made the learners to listen to CDs with various recordings and then they answered questions based on what they were listening to, in the CDs. Other teachers capitalized on what learners loved, that is music and songs. The learners were made to listen to the songs and asked to play their favourite songs on the phone, which other learners had to listen to and then answer questions. One of the teachers said what worked best for her for this aspect of the examination was to play the learners a song on a CD player, write the song on the board leaving out certain words and then ask learners to fill in the blank spaces using the lyrics of the song. Since learners generally love songs this strategy worked wonders for teachers as it kept the learners' interest in the lesson. Another strategy that was used by one of the teachers was that of recording herself as well as the learners and then together with the learners they listened to the recordings of themselves. Again for the implementation of the listening skill the best practices for the teachers varied the same as they did for the implementation of the reading and writing skills. In consideration of the literature review, this was also attributable to the

fact that what works for one individual does not always work for the other. What also works for individuals is in accordance with their situations and their environments as well as beliefs (Smagorinsky, 2009, Light & Gnida, 2012, Tudor, 2001).

5.5.3 Best Practices for implementing the speaking skill

To ensure that the speaking skill is effectively implemented teachers revealed certain practices which they said they found to be useful. These practices did not only ensure that the speaking skill was effectively taught but they also ensured that learners were ready for the oral examinations which normally gave learners problems. What teachers said they do as a best practice when implementing the speaking skill has been given in table 5.13.

Table 5.13 Teachers' best practices on the implementation of the speaking skill

Category	Teachers' Responses	Number of teachers	Percentage
1	Giving learners topics to discuss in groups and then taking turns to do the presentations.	9	39%
2	Interviewing learners on given topics without having given them the opportunity to prepare for them. This teaches them to think fast.	6	26%
3	Bringing a recording device to class to record conversations between the learners. The purpose is to acquaint learners with recording and also speaking on the device.	1	4%
4	Giving learners a topic and assigning them to find information on it either from the library or the internet, using a cell phone, and then doing presentations on the given topics during morning assembly.	1	4%
5	Giving learners reading materials and then share with others what they were reading about.	9	39%
6	Giving learners topics for debates and asking them to prepare and then do the debates either in class or in front of the whole school.	1	4%
7	Using topics from past examination papers, learners prepare for the topics then taking turns in doing presentations.	1	4%

The analysis of the teachers' responses on the best practices that they used when implementing the speaking skill revealed that a majority of the teachers gave the learners either topics to discuss in groups or other forms of reading materials to read. For most of them, it did not matter that the discussions were conducted in SiSwati as the learners would get to use English during the presentations. After reading whatever materials they had been given, the teachers asked the learners to present or to share with the class what they had read about. This gave the learners the opportunity to speak in front of other people and it in turn prepared them for the oral examination. One of the teachers, Teacher 13 from School L said that the first thing she did after getting inside the classroom was to greet learners and ask each one of them to relate their experiences for each day to the class. This according to this teacher helped each learner as well as gave each learner the opportunity to speak in front of others thus preparing him/her for the oral examination.

Another teacher, Teacher 15 from School N said that he gave the learners a topic and asked them to research on it and when doing the presentations, he recorded the learners without telling them that they were being recorded. According to him the learners got very excited when the recording was played and they listened to themselves speaking. Teacher 16 from School O made the learners to do the presentations in front of a large audience, that is, the whole school during morning assembly. This was done for purposes of helping the learners gain confidence in speaking in front of people so that they would not have problems during the oral examination. For Teacher 18, School R, the songs were her best practice for the implementation of the speaking skill. After making learners listen to a song, the learners would then talk about the lyrics of the song. This was done in addition to the topics that learners were given to discuss in their groups after which they made presentations.

Teacher 20 from School T used past examination question papers which consisted of certain topics. These were given to the learners to discuss in groups and learners took turns doing the presentations. Teacher 22 from School V demonstrated with one of the learners what actually took place during the orals. This was done to give learners an idea of what to expect during the orals. Learners then took turns conversing with the teacher after the demonstration. Teacher 23 from school W utilized the question and answer method to ask learners about certain topics as well as to probe the responses that were given by the learners so that they could give all the information they had about that topic.

Evidently, teachers gave learners varied activities aimed at giving them the opportunity to speak in front of other people so that they would not have problems during the oral examination. Again the practices were individualised, different and depended on what teachers felt would work best for them considering their situation and context (Smagorinsky, 2009, Light & Gnida, 2012).

5.6 Challenges encountered by teachers when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural schools

All the teachers who participated in the study revealed that they encountered a number of challenges when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts. Some of the challenges were common with most of the teachers and these were grouped and presented in tables. The challenges confirmed what was said by Rogers (2003), Fullan, (2007), Reschly & Gresham, (2006), that the history of the implementation of new projects, localised curricula, curricula programs is always fraught with problems which emanate from the fact that the implementation process is a very complicated one. It is this complex nature of the curriculum implementation process, more especially the implementation of new curricula that causes these various problems (Schweisfurth, 2011, Abraham, 2003, Bennion, 2001, and Levin, 2010).

5.6.1 Inadequate teaching materials/resources/infrastructure

One of the challenges that teachers said they encountered was the lack of teaching materials/resources and infrastructure. Table 5. 14 presents their responses:

Table 5. 14 Inadequate teaching/learning materials, resources and infrastructure

Category	Teachers' Responses	Number of Teachers	Percentage
1	There is no access to the internet.	11	47%
2	There is no electricity/reliable electricity, it goes on and off.	5	22%
3	Insufficient teaching materials for the listening aspect.	2	9%
4	Lack of books with the required information in the library.	16	70%
5	Lack of funds to purchase ink for photocopying reading materials.	4	9%
6	Unavailability of a Language laboratory	4	17%
7	Unavailability of a school hall.	1	4%
8	No access to the radio, television, and an English speaking environment where English can be heard.	2	9%

According to the teachers most of the materials and infrastructure that were required for use with the new and localised English language curriculum were not available in the rural school contexts. Such materials and infrastructure included books, or other reading materials, libraries, access to the internet, radios, televisions, language laboratories, and electricity. This according to the teachers made it difficult to effectively implement the curriculum as these materials and infrastructure were vital for the effective implementation of the curriculum. As already indicated rural schools usually have shortages in terms of materials and infrastructure (Guenther & Weible, 1993, Ashton & Duncan, 2012, Robinson, Bursuck & Sinclair, 2013).

5.6.2 Lack of English speaking people in the environment

Another challenge according to the teachers was that the learners they teach do not have someone to look up to as a role model in terms of speaking English in the environment. This does not only cultivate in them a negative attitude towards English, but it also deprives them the opportunity to hear the language being spoken in the environment. Hearing other people

use the language would help the learners as they would be exposed to correct forms of the language which they could pick up and use when speaking and also when writing. Having people who speak the English language could also give the learners the opportunity to speak to those people; hence get practice in the language in preparation for the orals. As already indicated, the shortage of English speaking people in the environment as well as an environment that supports the learning of English was mentioned by Guenther & Weible (1993), Ashton & Duncan (2012), and Robinson, Bursuck, & Sinclair (2013), Abdullah (2015), and Ahmed (2013) in the background of the study and the literature review respectively. They state that the rural school environment faces the challenge of the absence of English speaking people in the environment and this presents the challenge of lack of role models of the English language. Explaining the situation in his school, one of the teachers said:

Our learners are in a SiSwati speaking environment, there is no English speaking person around them. The learners also grew up being told SiSwati tales, hence no exposure to English (*Teacher* 4, School D).

Similarly, another teacher pointed out:

The environment is such that learners live in two separate worlds where they use two separate languages, English at school and SiSwati at home; there is no extension of what is done at school once they get home. There is no one with whom learners can speak English at home (*Teacher* 6, School F).

5.6.3 Inadequate exposure to modern facilities

The data further revealed that rural school learners were not exposed to most of the topics/modern facilities that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum examination. This, according to the teachers, was a challenge in that when the learners came across some of these topics/modern facilities in the examination they got lost as they were strange to them. Table 5.15 presents the exact words said by the teachers on this regard.

Table 5. 15 Inadequate exposure to modern facilities

School	Teacher	Response
A	1	Lack of exposure to things that are happening or found in urban areas which are sometimes required by the examination. No access to television, and radios where learners can get exposure to certain things.
G	7	Lack of exposure to modern things which the learners are sometimes required to write about. The place is very far away from town, learners do not even know traffic lights, they only see them in pictures, they do not know malls, and do not have any experience shopping in them, they only know of groceries around their place. It is also very difficult for teachers to expose learners to some of these modern things through school trips. Most learners do not afford these trips as the environment is poverty stricken and most learners do not have parents. Such exposure is important because learners in this environment do not even know little things such as an Apple I pad, they think of a fruit, a Tablet to them is a pill so if they could be asked to write/talk about such in the examination it would very difficult for them.
I	9	Lack of exposure to modern things such as T.V. radio, internet, emails, face book, whatsapp, films, things that are found in cities and towns etc.
J	10	The syllabus requires that learners be exposed. They should be exposed in terms of general things in life such as televisions, radios, and knowledge about what is happening in cities and in towns, as well as buildings and things that are found there.
P	16	In terms of exposure our learners are not exposed, when talking about a street fight to them will be a particular street that is reserved for fighting and not a fight that ensues from nowhere. A rush hour to them would be difficult to understand. Robots are not known, as they are not present in their environment, there are no television sets and radios.
T	20	Lack of exposure to modern things, for example films, movies, soapies, current news.

Six of the teachers that took part in the study said that it was challenging for them to effectively implement the new and localised English language curriculum because the curriculum required learners to be exposed to modern facilities. The teachers said that it was important for learners to have exposure to such facilities and activities because during the examination they were asked to write about some of them. Since rural school learners lacked

exposure to such they were normally disadvantaged during the examination as they did not know most of them. That rural school learners were not exposed was mentioned in the background to the study where Guenther and Weible (1993) and Ashton and Duncan (2012) said that these schools are geographically isolated as a result rural people do not know much about things that are found as well as used in urban areas.

5.7 Challenges with the examination

The data gathered from the teachers revealed that there were also challenges that were related to the new and localised English language curriculum examinations. The challenges were specifically on the nature of the examination, learners' inability to speak during the oral examination, challenges with the listening aspect of the examination, and insufficient time to prepare learners for the oral examination.

5.7.1 The nature of the examination given to the learners

It came out from the data analysis that the kind of examination that is given to the learners is such that it does not favour rural school learners. Some of the teachers felt that this being a localised curriculum learners have to be asked about things that they have an experience on, things that are found in the learners' local environment. Lamenting on the bias of the examination some of the teachers had this to say:

The examination given is such that it favours learners in urban schools because they have much exposure to things. Our learners are not exposed; hence they tend not to do well in the examination. It is really very painful that our results are analysed and compared against those of learners in urban schools. For our learners the curriculum is still not relevant as in the examination they are asked about things that they do not have any experience on (*Teacher* 6, School F).

Making a similar observation another teacher said:

The examination is such that it gives urban school learners an advantage over rural school learners. Most of the things that are asked in the exam are things that are found in towns; things such as malls, shopping in malls, movies such as 'The Titanic', and many other such things which our learners know nothing about. An Apple Ipad to our learners is a fruit; a Tablet is a pill because they do not know about such things. The curriculum is still very strange to our learners as they have to talk or write about things they do not know. If the curriculum was localised we would have a situation where learners would be asked to write

about 'A day at the dipping tank' for example, instead of 'A day at the mall, (Teacher 7, School G).

Another teacher observed:

The examination that rural school learners sit for is still the same as the examination that Swazi learners sat for in the former curriculum in terms of the topics that they have to write about. For rural school learners the examination is still not localised. Topics such as 'a street fight' for our learners are very strange. For learners in townships and urban areas where such is rife it is easy. Topics such as 'A rush hour' are very strange, yet it is such topics that normally come out in the examination (Teacher 16, School P).

Another teacher remarked:

The topics given in the examination mostly favour learners in urban schools as our learners are not exposed to such topics. I find it unfair that learners should be given the same topics in the examination. Learners in towns are used to computers for example, but ours are not, so if our learners are asked on anything related to computers they get lost. I sometimes feel that if the examination could be on herding cattle and goats our learners could be at an advantage over those in urban areas as there is so much that ours know about herding goats/cattle. I feel learners should be given a choice in the exam and they should not be compelled to do/write on a particular topic, topics should be according to the learners' experiences after all the people who set the exam are locals and the curriculum being localised should not favour some learners and not others (Teacher 18, School R).

Confirming what the other teachers had said, Teacher 21 School U commented:

One other challenge about this curriculum is that as much as it is said to be localised hence relevant to the learners, there is nothing relevant to rural school learners in the examination. Everything is just strange. Most of the things that they are asked are those found in urban areas, so the curriculum seems localised only to urban area learners and not those in rural schools.

The teachers' responses indicate that despite the fact that the curriculum is said to be localised, the examination is still not localised. This is because The Ministry of Education (2005) posits that curriculum localisation also includes among other things the local setting of the examination. An examination that has been set locally would have a bearing on the

society and would also have some traces of the society or the learners' environment (The Ministry of Education (2005) and the ECOS Newsletter (2010). Since the localised examination still requires learners to have knowledge about things that are not found in the rural learners' environment it means the examination is not set locally by locals but it is set by people who do not have any knowledge about the rural environment. Had the people who set the examination had any knowledge about the rural environment, they would have included topics that are relevant to the rural environment in the examination.

The fact that the examination still requires learners to write about and make reference to issues that are alien in the learners' rural environment is also understood to mean that the English language curriculum still has traces of the inner circle (Kachru, 1985) and therefore could still be designed in the inner circle for use in the outer circle and the expanding circle (Kachru, 1985) instead of the opposite. It would seem the curriculum is still controlled in the inner circle and therefore treated out of the context/decontextualized (Cornbleth, 1988). It would also seem that despite the fact that the country's education system is claiming to be free from the jaws of colonialism by the British, the country's education system is still under the colonial rule of the British. Like the case was with the former GCE-O-Level curriculum which was Euro-Centric (Chukwuolo, 2009) where emphasis was placed on European and Western concerns, culture, and values, the new and localised English language curriculum still requires that learners know about European and Western values and cultures instead of their own.

 When the teachers were further asked if they are involved in the setting of the examinations, three (3) teachers said that when the curriculum was localised, they were identified and attended workshops on how to prepare examination items for the learners. Every year they prepare and submit these examination items but the items have never been used in the examinations. When they enquired from the Examination Council why the items that they had prepared were not used the response they were given was that the items that they prepared and submitted were banked for later use. In the meantime, learners have to sit for the examinations that were made available by the Examination Council whose source of origin was not known. The teachers' view on this was that until such a time came when some of the examination items which they have prepared were used, which had traces of the rural environment rural school learners would continue sitting for an examination that is biased which is disadvantaging them. The conclusion drawn by the three teachers on the nature of the examination was that rural school teachers are not involved in the setting of the

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examination as a result rural school learners are not represented in issues that touch on the examination, hence the examination favours urban school learners. The rest of the other teachers said they did not have an idea of who sets the examination.

5.7.2 Learners' inability to speak during the oral examination

The teachers further pointed out that they often experienced situations where learners failed to say anything during the oral examinations. As some of the teachers related some learners just freeze and do not say anything, others cry and fail to speak while others shake and tremble. According to some teachers some learners were frightened by the sight of the recorder as some were seeing it for the first time. Again, the fact that it was just the teacher and the learner who had to sit and converse made the situation awkward as normally in a classroom situation everyone is there when such is done. Below are some of the things that teachers' said:

Most of the learners experience problems during the oral examination. The sight of the recorder which they normally see for the first time and the fact that it is just them and the teacher and no one else makes them uncomfortable, hence they fail to speak. A lot of time is therefore spent with one learner as I try to make the learners feel comfortable and ensure that they speak (Teacher 3, School C).

Another teacher said:

We experience situations where learners freeze and literally shake during the oral exam, and not being able to converse on the given topic. They just say a word or two (Teacher 6, School F).

Making a similar observation, another teacher lamented:

I experience most challenges during examination time when I administer the oral examinations. Some learners fail to say anything on the topic that they have been given. They tremble, shake and cry and I have to spend a lot of time waiting for them to gain composure. It is so difficult to get them to speak when the rest of the other learners are not there. They become so uncomfortable (Teacher 9, School I).

Giving her own opinion on the same issue Teacher 21 School U said:

The oral examination is the most challenging for me. Some of the learners just cry and fail to speak. Last year I had about three or four learners whom I had to try and examine more than

five times because each time they came into the examination room they started crying. This is so painful because I know that their inability to speak will result in them failing the examination, really the orals put learners in a very awkward situation where it is just them and the teacher and no one else.

5.7. 3 Challenges with the listening aspect of the examination

Teachers also pointed out that most of their learners did not do well in the listening part of the examination. This was because during such examinations, the learners failed to grasp most of the things that were said because most of the readers read in a foreign accent. Since rural school learners are not used to foreign accents since most of their teachers were Swazis, they failed to correctly get what was being said hence they gave wrong responses to the questions that were asked after the listening passage. When the teachers were asked how it came to be that the listening passages were read in a foreign accent yet the curriculum had been localised their response was that the passages are recorded in tapes and they do not have an idea who the readers were. They further said whoever the readers were they were not Swazis or Africans as the accent sounded European. This again is in contrast with what should happen when a curriculum has been localised according to the IBE (2002) as it is of the view that locals should be responsible for everything that relates to the curriculum. The setting of the examination has to be done by locals.

5.7.4 Insufficient time to prepare learners for the oral examination

Another challenge that teachers said they encountered was insufficient time to prepare learners for the oral examination. Table 5. 16 has what the teachers said:

Table 5. 16 Insufficient time to prepare learners for the oral examination

School	Teacher	Response
B	2	Due to the large number of learners that I normally have the time to prepare learners for the oral examination is always insufficient. Learners do their oral examinations having not been adequately prepared.
C	3	The time in which learners have to be prepared for the oral examination is inadequate. This is because they are too many; hence there is not enough time to help them practice before the examination.
F	6	Inadequate time to prepare learners for the oral examinations as they are too many. Preparation is not properly done. The curriculum is very demanding on the part of teachers for this aspect of the exam. Teachers also have to conduct and mark the oral examinations, interviewing all the learners and replaying the recordings and grading the orals is a nightmare.
U	21	The time to prepare learners more especially for the oral examination is not enough as the number of learners is large.
W	23	The curriculum requires that a teacher teaches not more than 10 learners. I teach 57 and this becomes very difficult for me to help learners prepare for the oral examination as this needs a lot of time and more practice.

The curriculum required teachers to teach not more than ten learners, so that each learner can be afforded the opportunity to get practice for the orals. However, since most of them teach more than fifty learners, it becomes very difficult for them to get the required practice for the oral examinations. This therefore resulted in learners doing the orals or sitting for the examinations without having been adequately prepared for it and this puts them at a disadvantage. According to the teachers it was important that learners be adequately prepared for the examination for them to do well. The large numbers of learners in English language classes was also mentioned by Behroozi and Amoozegra (2014) in the review of literature. It was outlined as an obstacle together with limited time and limited resources.

5.8 Challenges related to rural school learners

It also emerged from the analysis of data that some of the challenges that English language teachers faced were related to the learners themselves. The researcher noted that the

challenges that were related to the learners outnumbered all the other challenges that had been given in the other themes. This was an indication that the learners were mostly the ones who inhibited the successful implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum looking at the gravity of their challenges.

5.8.1 Learners' refusal to speak in English
One of the challenges that teachers said they encountered under this theme was the learners' refusal to speak in English. Table 5.17 presents the teachers' responses relating to this challenge.

Table 5. 17 Learners' refusal to speak in English

Category	Teachers' Responses	Number of teachers	Percentage
1	Learners refuse to speak in English because they say when they try to do so other learners laugh at them.	10	43%
2	The learners' context does not motivate them to speak in English as a result they do not want to speak in English.	9	39%
3	Learners lack the culture of speaking in English.	4	17%

As indicated in table 5. 17 learners refused to speak in English for varied reasons. 39% of the teachers said that the environment in which the learners were prohibited them from speaking English. For Teacher 5 School E, learners refuse to speak in English because the rural context does not motivate them to speak in English. In agreement with Teacher 5 School E's assertion is Teacher 6 School F and Teacher 19 School S. According to Teacher 19 School S anyone who speaks in English in the rural context is regarded as a stranger. This is because most people from the rural area do not speak in English. What Teacher 19 School S is saying about the rural environment not having English speaking people is true as it was also stated in the background that rural environments often have a shortage when it comes to English speaking people and this leads to social isolation and lack of role models (Guenther and Weible, 1993). This is because most of the educated people migrate to towns and prefer

working there than in their environments because rural life is difficult (Sahee Foundation, 2008). For Teacher 5 School E and Teacher 6 School F learners refuse to speak in English for fear of being ridiculed by other learners.

5.8.2 Learners lack of the of reading culture

The analysis of the data that were collected also revealed that most rural school learners lacked the culture of reading. This was a challenge to the teachers in that the curriculum required a lot of reading on the part of learners. The fact that learners did not want to read because they just lacked in them the culture of reading made the implementation of the curriculum challenging. The challenges that relate to lack of the culture of reading have been given in table 5.18.

Table 5. 18 Lack of reading culture

School	Teacher	Response
B	2	Our learners lack the culture of reading. They just do not want to read. Because of this they lack the vocabulary to use when writing and speaking.
C	3	Learners do not want to read, you assign them to read something they do not, reading is just not in them.
D	4	Learners lack the culture to read on their own. They never read on their own.
G	7	Our learners generally lack the culture of reading.
H	8	There is no culture of reading and learning in this environment.
W	23	Learners in this environment do not want to read, reading is something that is not in them.

Six out of the twenty three teachers said that another challenge that they faced as rural school teachers was that rural school learners lack the culture of reading. The teachers said that the learners just do not want to read yet the curriculum required them to read extensively. This was a problem in that the examination that the learners sit for requires them to read. Their refusal to read made them encounter problems as they failed to demonstrate the ability to read with understanding by correctly answering questions that they were asked during the

examination. Reading also helped to expose the learners to various things. Since they did not want to read they also did not get the said exposure which is also required by the curriculum.

5.8.3 Attitude of learners towards English

The analysis of data revealed that most rural school learners have a negative attitude towards English. They do not like it which is the reason why most of them refuse to speak it. According to some teachers, any one of the learners who made an attempt to speak in English was laughed at by the other learners as they viewed the speaking of English as a strange thing in the environment. Some of the teachers had this to say:

The attitude of the learners towards learning and specifically towards English and speaking English is negative. They view English and the speaking of English as something for the urban areas. You hear them say to others who are making an attempt to speak English, "sewungumlungu yini ke wena, maye nani niyatsandza kutenta ncono" translated as "are you a white person, you people think you are better than others". Such words discourage the others as they become a laughing stock (Teacher 3, School C).

Making the same observation, Teacher 4 School D, said:

The learners have a very negative attitude towards English. They say English is not their mother tongue so they do not understand why they have to speak it.

Similarly, Teacher 7 School G, said:

Learners have a negative attitude towards school in general and English in particular. They do not seem to realize how important English and school are to them.

Giving a similar view, Teacher 9 School I observed:

The attitude of learners towards English is very negative. They hate it and they hate everyone who tries to encourage them to speak in English. They grumble and murmur disapprovingly during assembly when they are reminded to speak in English.

Similarly, Teacher 15 School O stated:

The attitude of learners towards English is negative, those who try to speak in English are discouraged, and they are ridiculed and mocked by the other learners.

The learners' attitude towards English was also observed by Teacher 19 School S who pointed out:

Learners have a very negative attitude towards English and learners who try to speak in English. You hear them say to others, "khohlwa sisi ungatihluphi, kute lowake wacedza sikolwa ekhaya kini, noma ungasikhuluma lesingisi ngeke sikucedzise sikolwa utawugcina sewusikhuluma etjwaleni njengabodzadzewenu" simply translated as *forget it dear, do not trouble yourself, no one has ever finished school in your family, your speaking in English will not help you to finish school, you will end up speaking it in bars like your sisters.*

Such an attitude according to the six teachers deprived learners the opportunity to practise speaking in English yet it was important that they do so as it helped prepare them for the oral examination which required them to speak in English. The teachers further said that most of the learners who had such negative attitudes towards English encountered problems specifically with the orals where they have to speak in English for a stipulated number of minutes without using the mother tongue.

5.8.4 Learners' inability to do homework

Another thing that came out from the data analysis was that it was difficult for teachers to assign learners to do work at home because most of them did not do it. The teachers further said that learners gave varied reasons for their inability to do school work at home. One of the teachers had this to say:

In most cases learners do not do work that they have been assigned to do at home. They come back with a lot of excuses. Teacher 5 School E.

Teacher 13 School M, also admitted:

I no longer give my learners work to do at home because they come back without having done it and they give so many reasons for their inability to do the work, some of which I sometimes feel are genuine.

Teacher 14 School N also stated:

English requires that learners do school work not just at school but also at home when they work on exercises that will help them practice what they were doing at school, but unfortunately most of our learners do not do this. A number of things make them to be unable to do this.

In line with the observations that had been made by the other teachers, Teacher 17 School Q, stated:

Most of the learners do not do their homework and this is due to various reasons.

Teacher 19 School S also confirmed what had been already said and added:

Learners do not do work that they have been assigned to do at home. They come back with all sorts of excuses. Some of the excuses though are genuine.

Likewise, Teacher 22 School V, confirmed:

When learners have been given work to do at home, they sometimes do it but sometimes they do not. They always have reasons why they did not do it.

The curriculum requires learners to do a lot of work on their own. However, in the rural school context it is difficult for learners to do this because most of the work comes in the form of homework, which learners are unable to do, due to varied reasons some of which are genuine. Gianelli and Mangiavicchi (2010) view the migration of the children's fathers to faraway places to look for work as a problem as it leads to the learners' inability to do work that is assigned to them by their teachers. These scholars are of the view that children who are left in the care of their mothers, since their fathers migrated to other places normally have problems of school attendance, academic performance, behavioural and emotional problems.

5.8.4.1 Reasons learners give for their inability to do their homework

Table 5.19 gives some of the reasons that teachers get from learners who have not done their homework:

Table 5. 19 Learners' reasons for not doing their homework

School	Teacher	Response
E	5	They give all sorts of reasons, "I had to cook and attend to my sick mother, I had to collect firewood and water, there were no candles", and many others.
M	13	They say a lot of things, "I had to do household chores, there were no candles, I came back very late because I had been sent somewhere, etc".
N	14	Most of the learners are heads of their families so they always give this as an excuse, had to do 1, 2, 3, for the kids, one of the kids was not feeling well, had to go to my aunt's place to ask for mealie-meal, had to go and work for mealie- meal, etc.
Q	17	They say so many things, "I had to attend to my sick mother, there were no candles, etc".
S	19	They say they didn't have candles; they had to go and look for lost cattle, and many others.
V	22	They say they didn't have candles, they had to go somewhere, they had to do certain chores, etc.

Six of the teachers who took part in the study said that the learners cited a wide range of reasons why they were unable to do work that they had been assigned to do by their teachers at home. Some of the reasons were that they did not have candles, they had to look after cattle, they had to attend to their sick parents, they had to do certain things for their siblings, and some had to go and work so that they could buy mealie-meal. This according to the teachers made the teaching of English difficult. Some of the teachers were however cognisant of the genuineness of some of the reasons that were given by the learners. They said that they knew that some of the learners were heads of their families as they did not have parents and they were responsible for their siblings. Poverty which relates to learners' inability to buy candles, and do part-time work so that they can buy mealie-meal was mentioned by Duncan and Tompkins (2008) in the background to the study. They said that some rural school children are unable to succeed in their school work because of poverty.

5.8.5 Learners critical development stage

The data analysis also exposed that another challenge was that learners at senior secondary school were at a critical developmental stage where they were very conscious about themselves and therefore they are scared to speak in English for fear of making mistakes. Most of them are teenagers. Only one out of the twenty three teachers that were interviewed came with this observation.

5.8.6 Learners' refusal to do presentations during morning assembly

Most of the teachers who said they had introduced the strategy of making learners make presentations on given topics during morning assembly said they had a challenge doing this. They said the challenge was that learners resented these presentations. The learners did not want to do the presentations for fear of being laughed at by their school mates as the whole school is normally there during such presentations. By refusing to do these presentations, learners disadvantage themselves as the presentations are meant to help them gain confidence to speak and it is believed that this will prepare them for the oral examination.

5.8.7 The nature of most rural school learners

It also emerged from the data analysis that most rural school learners are difficult to handle as they have a mind-set that is not inclined towards education. Most rural school learners do not have long time goals about learning and this affects their performance not just in English but in the other subjects as well. Explaining how some of these learners are, one of the teachers said:

Most of our female learners have as a priority the wish and the hope to get someone who will marry them and support them. There is an army camp nearby so most girls aspire to get married to these soldiers. Most of the local males are truck drivers and we are told they get paid lots of moneys. Most of our girls are in relationships with these. Most of those that are already married to them seem to be well off as their husbands buy them cars and they drive in these cars. So education to our girls is seen as a waste of time. Teacher 7 School G.

Another teacher made the same observation when she said:

Our learners are difficult, I don't know how to explain this, they are a challenge on their own, and they lack the spirit to learn. The cause is that the place is remote, and the only people who seem to be successful are females that are married to miners. So, most of the male learners dream of going to the mines to work while the females' dream is to get married to a miner. Education is just by the way. The few educated people here do not live here but they live in town. Our efforts are futile as we are aware that most of our learners are still with us either because they have not found work as miners or they haven't found a miner to marry them (Teacher 9 School I).

Similarly, Teacher 10 School J pointed out:

The area is at the frontier and there are influences coming from other countries. The school is next to the South African and Mozambique border so there is the influence of black market where illegal things are sold. So learners sometimes skip classes to go and sell things in the neighbouring countries. So focus shifts to business instead of education. Learners do not see the reason for continuing with school when they are able to make a lot of money from sales. Even the community members regard educated people as poor when they compare them to the locals, some of which have succeeded in the illegal business and have been able to buy expensive cars and built expensive homes, and some encourage their children to focus on illegal business.

Agreeing with the other teachers, Teacher 19 School S stated:

Our learners do not take their education seriously. They tell you that like their brothers they are going to be employed as cane cutters or soldiers. The females aspire to be house wives.

From these responses it is evident that rural school teachers have a hard time when implementing the curriculum because most rural school learners have a negative attitude towards learning. While most females prefer getting married and being housewives, males aspire to be miners, cane cutters, soldiers, and illegal business owners. Compounding the situation further is that some parents encourage their children to focus on the illegal business instead of school. That most female learners aspire to be house wives and get married to soldiers or miners, while male learners aspire to be soldiers, miners, or cane cutters, also came out in the background where the Sahee Foundation (2008) defines a rural school. A rural school is defined as an area where emphasis is on that girls should grow up and learn to cook as well as take care of children in readiness for getting married, while boys grow up looking after cattle and then they go and look for work in the mines (Sahee Foundation, 2008; Khumalo, 2013).

Another thing that also came out is the influence that neighbouring countries have on Swaziland. This is in relation to the arbitrariness of the boarders between Swaziland, South Africa, and Mozambique which makes Swaziland depend on these countries for work and the illegal trade that one of the teachers made reference to. Swazis have the liberty to go in and out of these neighbouring countries using illegal crossings. This also came out from the background where Domson-Lindsay (2014) pointed to the country's land-locked position which makes it largely dependent on the surrounding countries. Swazis do not just rely on her neighbouring countries for legal imports but also for illegal trade.

5.9 Low socio-economic status of the school and the learners

It also emerged that the socio-economic status of both the schools and the learners was another challenge which made it difficult for the new and localised English language curriculum to be effectively implemented.

5.9.1 Poverty

Another challenge that emerged was that it was difficult for teachers to effectively implement the new and localised English curriculum because most rural school learners were poor as a result they worried a lot about what they were going to eat than about their books. This was because most of them were heads of families and had to provide for their own needs as well as needs of their siblings. This was echoed by Duncan and Tompkins (2008) in the background to the study. Some learners' education was disadvantaged by their low socio-economic status.

5.9.2 Inadequate funds in the school

Lack of funds in the school was also cited as another challenge that inhibited the effective implementation of the English language curriculum. According to some teachers their schools lacked money to send teachers to workshops to get training on how they can implement this curriculum. This then resulted in teachers missing out on important issues that were discussed which relate to the new curriculum they are teaching. So teachers end up asking from other teachers of other schools who were able to attend those workshops. This does not help them much as what they get from these teachers is second hand information. In addition to lack of funds, teachers also pointed to head teachers' refusal to give them money to attend the workshops. They said some head teachers did not support them in their quest to ensure that the new and localised English language curriculum was successfully and effectively implemented. In other words, the head teachers were negatively influencing the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum, hence contributing to the failure of the curriculum.

What the head teachers did is in agreement with what was discovered in the literature review. This is because the review of literature revealed that the leadership styles of the head teachers and everything that they did in schools determined whether the curriculum would be successfully implemented or not since the improvement of all school programs largely depended on them (Hord & Hall, 1987). In consideration of this, it was the head teachers' duty to ensure that teachers were professionally developed; that their knowledge and practice

was developed so that they can do justice to the curriculum that they are implementing (Kobia & Ndiga, 2013; Rahman, 2014; Garet, et al 2001; Suporitz & Turner, 2000). It was therefore the head teachers' responsibility to release funds to teachers who wanted to attend workshops because that is where they would be professionally developed. Their failure to do that indicated a negative influence in the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum.

5.10 Challenges with other members of staff who do not want to assist with the speaking of English

The effort of English language teachers to engage learners in the speaking of English was at times 'watered down' (Teacher 15, School O) by other members of staff who did not want to assist. The other teachers' argument was that it was not their responsibility to encourage learners to speak in English since they were not teachers of English but they were teachers of other subjects. Other teachers spoke to the learners in SiSwati yet they had to speak to them in English so that they could also respond in English. Below is what some of the teachers had to say about this:

Teacher 12 School L observed:

Leaners do not want to speak in English and teachers of other subjects are not willing to help, so this becomes a burden for English teachers.

Teacher 15 School O also remarked:

Other members of staff also water down our efforts in trying to ensure that learners speak in English all the time. They speak to the learners in SiSwati. When we try to talk to them against it they tell us that English is not their responsibility since they have their own subjects that they teach. English teachers have the responsibility of ensuring that learners both speak and pass English.

5.11 Parents' inability to follow up the work done by their children

According to the teachers most rural school learners have parents who are not educated, hence cannot make a follow up on their school work. Some of the parents are not even concerned about what their children do at school. They sometimes even fail to attend school functions such as open days or even to come and get reports for their children. Teachers said they experienced cases where other children of the same age with the learners they teach

come to get reports at the end of terms or even when the learners have been asked to come with their parents for certain cases which they may have committed at school.

The analysis of data on the challenges that are faced by teachers when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts revealed that these challenges were many. Teachers however, did point out that even though they made an attempt to reduce some of the challenges; some of them were beyond their control. The next section of data analysis discusses what the teachers do to minimize the challenges they face.

5.12 Strategies used by teachers to minimize the challenges

Teachers were also asked to explain what they did to alleviate the challenges they experience. An analysis of what each teacher did to minimize each challenge was done and this led to the emergence of the last theme and subthemes in the data analysis. It was vital that after teachers had identified the challenges that they encountered when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum, they did not just end with the identification but also go on to explain what they did to counteract the challenges.

5.12.1 Minimizing learners' refusal to speak in English

The first challenge that teachers said they encountered was that learners refused to speak in English. Table 5. 20 presents the teachers' responses on what they do to ensure that learners speak in English in order to pass it.

Table 5.20 Ensuring that learners speak in English

School	Teacher	Response
A	1	I tell the learners how important English is to their education and also encourage them to speak it.
B	2	I encourage the learners to speak in English all the time as this is important if they want to pass English.
C	3	I encourage them to try and speak in English. I also try to make them realize how important English is in their education.
D	4	I try to change the way the learners view English. I try to make them realize the importance of English in education and also encourage them by making them aware that it is possible to succeed and pass English even in this context and also that English is the key to one's academic success.
E	5	I motivate learners to speak English by rewarding learners that have been identified by the class as being faithful in the speaking of English. I give them chocolates and other goodies.
F	6	I encourage learners to speak in English all the time at school and each time they are with someone who understands it.
L	12	I tell them how important it is generally in the world and also in the education system of Swaziland.
M	13	I encourage them by telling them that it is possible for everyone to succeed in English, as long as they try.
P	16	I try to make them realize that their being at school is a waste of time if they are not going to pass English so they have to make sure they speak it in order to pass it.
Q	17	I encourage them and also urge them to try speak to in English
R	18	I encourage and sometimes I plead with them because we have tried punishing them but it didn't help.
S	19	I encourage them to try and not mind whoever is going to laugh at them because I know for a fact that if they try they will succeed.
T	20	I outline the importance of English more especially in Swaziland; it is required everywhere and then make them realize that if they do not pass it means they would have wasted all these years in school.
U	21	I encourage them to speak it, much as they tell me that it is as important as SiSwati, I however remind them that SiSwati is not a passing/failing subject.

The responses given by all the teachers who responded to the question indicate that all of them encouraged learners to speak in English. The teachers also said that they tried to make learners realize the importance of English, so they told them how important English is generally in their lives and also in their education. The response by Teacher 21 School U further reveals that learners are of the belief that the two languages, English and SiSwati are equally important, which is why she says she then explains to them that as much as both are important; English still remains the only passing/failing subject. When the researcher further probed this response as she understood it to mean that the learners argued with this teacher when she was encouraging them to speak in English by saying SiSwati was also as important as English, the teacher's response was: *Our learners did not have a problem with the speaking of English in the past, however, things changed after the launching of the Language in Education policy where learners were told that the two languages were equally important and that teachers should not emphasize the speaking of one language over the other. Learners were further told during the launch that they were free to speak in any language and that teachers did not have the right to punish them for speaking in SiSwati.*

This response reveals the confusion that has resulted from the introduction of the Language in Education policy (2011). The policy gives the two official languages of Swaziland that is, SiSwati and English an equal status, and makes learners to believe that these two occupy equal positions in education. This however is not true as English still remains the only passing/failing subject in Swaziland. The policy is therefore misleading learners because their performance will be measured by how well they have done in English.

5.12.2 How teachers minimize the challenge of inadequate materials/resource/ infrastructure

Another challenge that teachers said they encountered was lack of teaching materials/resources/infrastructure. The teachers' responses on how they minimize this challenge are given in Table 5. 21.

Table 5. 21 Minimising inadequate teaching materials/resources/ infrastructure

School	Teacher	Response
A	1	I improvise, I show the learners pictures, scout for magazines and books and bring them to the learners to read so that they can be abreast with some of the things that happen in urban areas, I also use my lap top and projector to show them things.
B	2	A lot of improvisation is required, I basically use whatever is available, for example I collect different kinds of reading materials and give to learners, I do the research for them, that is get them the information that is required and distribute it to them, for the language laboratory I use any classroom that has electricity.
C	3	I try to get things photocopied for them so that they can read and for the laboratory I use any class. I also use my phone, my CD player for listening and speaking.
D	4	I give the learners research that is going to require general information which can be obtained from other teachers. I encourage learners to use their phones for research; I also scout for reading materials and give them to the learners.
E	5	I use any room as a laboratory as long as it has electricity, for other things such as reading materials and these other gadgets I ask/ borrow them from my friends who are teachers in other neighbouring schools.
F	6	I try to bring whatever reading material I can lay my hands on for learners to read, I also encourage them to read everything that they come across, and also visit the library frequently to read. For the orals and listening I use any room that has electricity. I sometimes bring my own gadgets such as recorders and CD players if the ones belonging to the school are faulty.
G	7	I collect whatever reading materials I can and give to learners to read. I also borrow reading stuff or whatever I need from other teachers in other schools, I photocopy things and give to learners to read.
H	8	I encourage learners to use cell phones, I also use my own to do the research for them, I photocopy things for the learners, I collect different kinds of reading materials from everywhere and give them to learners to read.
I	9	We utilise whatever is available, we use the computer lab for orals, I buy dongles and source information and give it to learners, I buy magazines for the school and also ask other teachers for magazines and books that they have finished reading and I put these in the library for learners to read. I use my cell phone to record learners when they are doing the orals and I also use my CD player for the

		listening.
J	10	I give the learners magazines to read. I collect these everywhere I go. I collect whatever materials I think may be useful. I also borrow certain things that I need from my friends in other schools.
N	14	I collect anything that has print and give to my learners, forms, pamphlets giving information on any subject, magazines, pictures, books, everything.
Q	17	I collect old newspapers, magazines, and ask teachers to give us some of their books which they no longer use and I give these to the learners to read. For listening, we record ourselves reading passages and learners answer questions. We record using our phones. We also use our phones for research and recording orals.
T	20	I just use anything that is usable, magazines, books, anything that has print, for research we use cell phones, relatives' or parents', even for recordings in the oral examination.
U	21	I have made it my responsibility to get reading materials for learners, I buy books, magazines, ask for donations from friends, relatives, reading associations such as Fundza, other schools in town, the National library, everywhere. I use my phone to do research for the learners and also the listening and orals. I always ensure that I find a replacement for whatever resource is not available.
V	22	I improvise; I always find a substitute for what we do not have. A classroom with electricity becomes a lab, a phone becomes both a recorder and a player etc.
W	23	I use a secluded class as a lab, a cell phone for research, and then I organize reading material for the learners from where ever I can get it.

The analysis of the teachers' responses reveals that teachers do a lot of improvisation in the absence of appropriate resources, materials and infrastructure. They gather books, magazines and any form of reading material that they can get from different sources. Some also use their own resources such as money to buy the required materials and things that will enable their learners to benefit specifically in their development of the English language. Teachers also said they did a lot of improvisation for the unavailable infrastructure such as the language laboratory. For many of them any room that has electricity is used as a language laboratory.

5.12.3 How teachers minimize lack of exposure in learners

The rural senior secondary school teachers who took part in the study said that the fact that rural school learners lacked exposure when it comes to modern things. They said the new and localised English language curriculum was such that it required the learners to be exposed to a number of modern things. Their learners therefore were disadvantaged when it came to this because they were not exposed to most of these modern things. Table 5. 22 has the teachers' responses in relation to how they minimized this challenge.

Table 5. 22 Minimising lack of exposure in the learners

School	Teacher	Response
A	1	I show the learners movies, films, and anything I think they need to know about on my laptop. I also take them out on field trips and trips to towns or places where I know some of these things which they need to know about will be available. If I can, I bring some of the things to class for learners to see. I also describe some of the things or show the learners pictures of those things.
G	7	I describe some of these things to the learners and also show them pictures, but then it is not possible to show them everything because you never know what is going to come out in the examination, so you may find that what you did not show them comes out, and this makes them fail the examination. I also always ensure that whatever I see and think might help the learners I photocopy it and give it to learners to read.
I	9	I show them everything I think they might need to know about, but then sometimes you find that what you did not show them actually comes out in the examination.
J	10	I organize school trips for them, show them pictures of different things and describe things to them.
P	16	I give them newspapers, magazines, and different forms of reading materials for purposes of exposing them to different things that are happening around them and also generally in other parts of the world.
T	20	I give them current news, tell them what is happening in television, soapies, tell them about films and movies that I have watched, tell them about games that I have watched and everything that is happening in the world and around them, describe things to them, show them pictures of things etc.

The responses given by the teachers indicate that they did a lot of things to ensure that they exposed their learners to what they thought might come out in the examination. Some teachers organized trips for learners, showed learners pictures of these things, organized films for learners to watch, described things to them, and told them about basically everything that they get to hear about.

5.12.4 Insufficient time to prepare learners for the examination

Teachers also indicate that there was insufficient time to prepare for examinations. However, in order to minimize this challenge there were a number of things that they did. Table 5.23 has the responses of the teachers.

Table 5. 23 Minimising insufficient time to prepare learners for the examination

School	Teacher	Response
B	2	This is something that I have to live with. The number of learners that I have is just too large. It is way above the stipulated number that a teacher is supposed to handle in this curriculum. My learners go and sit for the examination without having been adequately prepared for it. This is why the results they get do not surprise me.
C	3	I don't do anything, there is nothing I can do because of the large numbers, I just explain to them what they are expected to do, but as to ensuring that each and every one of them has been given the required attention and assistance in terms of preparation for the examination, I do not do anything.
F	6	I just give them one practice in the orals even though I know it is not going to be enough, I find it difficult to give the learners enough practice because they are many. I know I am not the only one who does this, other teachers may deny this but it is the truth, we give them one practice.
U	21	I normally use the holidays to prepare learners for the examination. During the holidays I help them to practice, which means ever since the curriculum was introduced I do not have any holidays.
W	23	I group the learners and then help them practice after school, during weekends and also during the holidays. I spend all the time in which I am supposed to be free helping the learners to practice. I have really become a slave as I do not have time to rest.

While some teachers did not do anything to minimize the challenge of insufficient time to prepare learners for the examination, some made an effort to minimize the challenge by using their free time to help learners to practice. Such time includes after school, weekends, and holidays. Other teachers, however, said that they just give the learners one practice even though they know it is not going to be enough. They argued that there was nothing they could do because of the large numbers of learners they usually had. The teachers who said they either did not do anything or they just gave the learners one practice said they were fully aware that what they were doing will contribute negatively to the performance of the learners, however, there was nothing they could do to make the situation better.

5.12.5 Lack of the culture of reading in learners

The analysis of data also revealed that the fact that learners lacked the culture of reading was a challenge, but then they did try some means of minimizing that challenge. Table 5. 24 has the teachers' responses.

Table 5. 24 Minimising lack of the culture of reading in learners

School	Teacher	Response
B	2	I encourage learners to read; I take them to the library or bring them materials to read. Together we sit down to read, and as I read if I come across a part that is funny in the reading material, I just laugh aloud, and when they ask what I am laughing at I tell them, then we laugh together. I encourage them to share whatever interesting thing they read about with others.
C	3	I try to bring them interesting materials to read. I also share with them interesting things that I have read about. This makes them realize how fun reading can be and then they start reading.
D	4	I scout for reading material to give to learners to read in my presence, and then in turns I ask them to tell the class what they were reading about. I also ensure that after having read something I share it with my learners.
G	7	I tell them about some of the things that I have read about, and refer them to those reading materials so that they can see for themselves what I was reading about. I also organize interesting material for them to read, gossip magazines and anything I know is going to make them want to read.
H	8	I just encourage them to read as well as give them whatever reading material I find interesting to the learners.
U	23	Whatever I read my learners get to know about it. I tell them stories from novels, books, and magazines I have read, and I also make sure that I avail these so that learners can read them as well.

According to the teachers, the most important thing to do to ensure that learners cultivate a culture of reading, is to share what teachers have read about, demonstrate that they are enjoying what they are reading, expose them to some of the things that they read, get them reading materials and encourage them to read and share what they have read with others. Another thing that they did was to also avail reading material to the learners.

5.12.6 Minimizing the negative attitude of learners towards English

To ensure that learners' negative attitude towards English was minimized teachers did what has been outlined in table 5. 25.

Table 5. 25 Minimising learners' negative attitudes towards English

School	Teacher	Response
C	3	I explain the importance of English to learners. I tell them that English is used to measure a person's education and because of that their inability to speak in English means they are not educated and that their coming to school therefore is a waste of time.
D	4	I try to change the way they view English. I try to make them realize the importance of English in the education system of Swaziland. I also encourage them and make them aware that it is possible to succeed in English and improve one's life despite being in the rural area.
G	7	I try to change the attitude that learners have towards English. I try to make them see its importance and also that one's success academically depends on one's ability to do well in English.
I	9	I motivate them and make them see that it is important for them to pass English in order to succeed academically.
O	15	I talk to them and make them realize that it is possible for them to do well in English despite being in a rural school.
S	19	I tell the learners that there is always the first time to things and that they can change the view that rural school learners do not normally do well in English passing it and that that is only possible if they have a positive attitude towards English.

Most of the teachers said that they tried to change the learners' attitude towards English by making them realize how important English is in their education and also that it is possible to do well in English and therefore succeed in ones' education despite the environment in which one is. Some teachers said they encouraged the learners by telling them that despite being in a rural area they can do well in English.

5. 12.7 Absence of English speaking people in the environment

To minimize the challenge of the absence of English speaking people in the environment teachers said they encouraged their learners to speak in English among themselves and also with their teachers or if it happens that they come across anyone who speaks and knows English, they should use English when talking to that person. The teachers believed that this will give the learners practice in the language since they live in a non-English speaking environment. Teacher 6 School F said that she encouraged the learners to speak in English all

the time when they are at school and each time they were with someone who speaks in English.

5.12.8 Learners' inability to speak in English

To minimize the challenge of learners' inability to speak in English, teachers said they did the following as shown in table 5.26.

Table 5. 26 Minimising learners' inability to speak in English

School	Teacher	Response
C	3	I encourage them to speak in English; I tell them that it does not matter if they make mistakes when trying to speak in English because everyone they see even their teachers who are known to speak good English started with making mistakes in English.
F	6	I encourage them to speak in English. I tell them that it is possible for anyone to do well in English despite being in a rural environment.
J	9	I motivate them and encourage them to speak as that is how English is learnt.
U	21	I encourage them and urge them to try and speak it so that they can get used to it.

In order to minimize the challenge of learners' inability to speak in English the teachers said that they encouraged as well as motivated the learners to speak in English. They said that they told the learners that everyone they know of who is a good English speaker started off by making mistakes when speaking in English but through practice they eventually became very good English speakers.

5. 12.9 The nature of the examination

The analysis of data gathered from teachers revealed that teachers felt that the way the examination is was also a challenge in itself. This is because the examination favours learners in urban schools. In order to minimize this challenge, some of the teachers they did what has been presented on table 5.27:

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Table 5. 27 Minimising the way the examination is in terms of being biased

School	Teacher	Response
F	6	I try to expose learners to different things by telling them stories, showing them pictures, and describing things to them, demonstrating things to them, and giving them current news.
G	7	I describe some of the things to the learners, show them pictures, but then it is not possible to show all of them, you never know what is going to come out from the examination.
P	16	I bring newspapers, magazines, and different forms of reading materials for purposes of exposing learners to different things that might come out in the examination.
R	18	There is nothing I can do but I just wish that those responsible for setting the exam could consider giving topics that will favour rural school learners by giving topics such as herding cattle/goats. I feel learners should be given a choice in the exam and they should not be compelled to write on a particular topic but the topics given should consider their experiences as well as the environments in which they are.
U	21	I don't do anything; I just wish the examination should also consider rural school learners by asking them to write about things in which they have experiences.

While some teachers said that they tried to expose their learners to some of the things which they felt the learners may need for the examination, some said that they just wished that whoever was responsible for setting the examination could consider giving the learners a choice in terms of the topics given so that even rural school learners could get the opportunity to write exams that were about things that they know

5.12.10 Unsupportive staff members

To minimize the challenge of unsupportive staff members, teachers said that they tried to talk to the other teachers who teach other subjects and appeal for support and assistance in ensuring that learners speak in English. They further said that they also asked the administration to intervene and make it a school policy that English is spoken by everyone in the school premises.

5.13 Summary

The analysis of data in relation to what teachers did to minimize the challenges that they encountered when implementing the curriculum revealed that teachers used certain strategies and techniques to ensure that the challenges are minimized. Other challenges however were such that teachers could not do anything about them except to wish that the situation changed for the better.

5.14 Classroom observations

Each teacher that took part in the study was observed two times when teaching. An observation guide which consisted of yes/no questions was used. The researcher also wrote down everything she saw while conducting the observations and these became her field notes. The observations were based mostly on the teaching methods that teachers used when implementing the curriculum as well as the availability of the required materials, gadgets and infrastructure to enhance the implementation of the curriculum.

The observations revealed that teachers used mainly the lecture method when implementing the curriculum. They focused more on giving explanations rather than giving the learners the opportunity to find information for themselves through discussions or research. This corresponded with the data that had been gathered from the questionnaires and interviews. The few teachers who made an attempt to give the learners the opportunity to discuss given topics in the groups gave them very little time and stopped the discussions just after they had started citing the reason that they were hearing a lot of SiSwati in the groups yet the discussions had to be done in English.

Teacher 1 School A gave the learners the topic Water, and asked them to go to their groups to discuss the topic. They had fifteen minutes to talk about this topic. After that they had to choose someone who would represent the group to present. About five minutes into the discussion, the learners were asked to stop and the reason given was that the teacher was hearing a lot of SiSwati being used during the discussions, yet he had made it clear that the discussions should be conducted in English. He said: *I told you to stick to the use of English during the discussions but I can hear a lot of SiSwati being used in the groups, so please stop the discussions and listen to me.* Then he started with a definition of water and went on to talk about the uses of water to animals, human beings and crops and vegetation. As he gave the lecture on water she asked the learners to take down notes. At the end of the lesson the

teacher gave the learners a hand-out on the same topic and asked the learners to read it at home.

Something similar was observed with the other teachers. After giving the learners a topic to discuss they walked about the class for a few minutes and then asked the learners to stop because apparently instead of doing what they had been asked to do they were doing their own things. Teacher 7 School G for example stopped the discussion after three minutes because she heard someone laughing in the group. According to her there was nothing to laugh about in the topic she had given. The topic she had given was 'Polygamy'. One of the learners in the group made an attempt to explain what made them laugh but was stopped by the teacher who said everyone now had to listen to her talk about polygamy while they took notes. This was followed by a lecture on polygamy.

Out of all the twenty three teachers who were observed when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum, it was Teacher 21 School U who allowed the learners to finish the discussion and then do the presentations. After having given the topic, 'A shopping mall', she waited for a few minutes after which she went to each group where she interacted with the group members and was seen laughing with them and nodding in approval as the learners were explaining things to her and responding to some of the questions she was asking them in relation to the topic they were discussing. At the end of the discussion the group representatives took turns doing the presentations. The teacher commended the effort that had been made by the group members and the presenter after each presentation and asked the other learners in the class to clap hands for the group. The teacher then did a summary of the points that had been given during the presentations. This teacher was again the only one who seemed at ease for the duration of the lesson, it was like she was all by herself with the learners and there was no one who was observing the proceedings in her class. For the rest of the other teachers, frustration, nervousness, and agitation was witnessed throughout the lessons.

At the end of each observation, the researcher sat down with the teachers to talk about everything that transpired in the lesson. For most of the teachers, it emerged that they were afraid to let the learners continue with the discussions and the presentations because they knew that they would not be able to do so, like they normally do when they have been given work of this nature. The teachers' worry was in consonant with Kachru's classification of English into three concentric circles and Nordquists' use of English. Kachru (1985) is of the

view that Swazis fall under the category of the outer circle hence have a limited competency in English. Nordquist (2011) is also of the same view that people who use English as a second language are not as competent as those who use it as their native language. This could explain the learners' inhibitions in conducting the discussions in English and doing the presentations. They said that they were afraid that the learners would not be able to present as their English was not good hence the decision to stop them and lecture on the given topic.

The way in which the lessons were handled made the researcher to conclude that learners were not given the opportunity to discuss things and to do presentations in class. It seemed teachers still wanted to dominate in speech in their classes because they did not trust that their learners could come out with good presentations. What these teachers were doing was against the stipulations of the requirements of the new and localised curriculum as they told the learners things instead of giving them the opportunity to find out things for themselves. Despite their saying the curriculum they were implementing was a localised one and therefore had to be treated in context, the curriculum was actually treated out of context (Cornbleth, 1988).

CHAPTER 6
DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the major findings and a discussion of key findings on the study that was undertaken to find out how teachers implemented the new and localised English language curriculum in rural schools in Swaziland. The study was carried out in twenty three rural senior secondary schools in the Lubombo region of Swaziland. One teacher from each school participated in the study and this gave a total of twenty three teachers that participated. The literature reviewed assisted the researcher in getting views from other authors on the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts through comparing existing knowledge and the findings from the study.

The mixed method approach was utilized in the study and data were collected using questionnaires, interviews, and observations. The questionnaires were very useful in the study as the teachers gave information relating to how they implemented the new and localised English language curriculum in rural schools. The face to face interviews also assisted the researcher in getting the required information through the teachers' experiences, feelings, and opinions, on how the curriculum was implemented. The classroom observations gave the researcher the opportunity to be part of the curriculum implementation process. The research findings were discussed according to the themes that emerged during the analysis of data. They were also based on the findings that were generated from the data that were gathered and this was done against the review of literature related to the study and the background. The purpose of doing this was to establish the relationship between existing knowledge and the knowledge gathered from the study.

6.1 Teachers' understanding of the new and localised English language curriculum

One theme that emerged from the study was teachers' understanding of the new and localised English language curriculum and it was revealed that some of the teachers had a comprehensive understanding of the localised curriculum.

6.1.1 Teachers' understanding of a localised curriculum

The study revealed that a substantial number of the teachers took curriculum localisation to mean the local designing of the curriculum, the local setting of the examination by people who are locals, the local marking of the examination, the local grading of the examination, and the use of materials and infrastructure that is found in the learners' local environment.

This understanding of curriculum localisation is in line with the definition of curriculum localisation that was given by the IBE (2002) in the literature review. The IBE (2002) defined a localised curriculum as that which involves the use of local materials, the local designing of the curriculum, local setting of examinations, local assessment, local marking and grading of examination scripts.

A very small number of teachers in the study further understood a localised curriculum to be the freedom and liberty that is given to curriculum implementers to modify the curriculum in whatever way so that it can suit the conditions where it is implemented. This understanding is also in line with Abraham (2003), Bennion (2001) and Taylor's (2004) definition of curriculum localisation where they proclaim that curriculum localisation gives teachers the freedom and independence to alter the curriculum to suit the local conditions where it is implemented. They further say that the localisation of a curriculum enables the learners to integrate what is done at school and what is done at home, their community, and their environment.

The study further found out that all the rural senior secondary school teachers that took part in the study did not know that a localised curriculum should have the aspect of culture that Dasen & Akkari (2008) talk about as stated in the background. None of the teachers attributed to the inclusion of culture and skills that are necessary for the development of culture in a localised curriculum as stated by Thesia (2012) and Yang (2001) where they suggest that whenever the localisation of a curriculum is considered it should be aligned with cultural transformations of the country. Despite this limitation, the teachers' understanding of a localised curriculum generally consisted of a comprehensive understanding of what a localised curriculum entailed. With regards to the aspect of culture in the curriculum however, none of the teachers knew about it.

6.1.2 Teachers' experiences in teaching the former GCE-O-Level English language curriculum

The study established that most of the teachers that took part in the study did not have any experience in the teaching of the former GCE-O-Level curriculum. This was because most of the teachers had not started teaching when the curriculum was changed and later localised to the SGCSE curriculum. This was an advantage because these teachers could not approach the teaching of the new curriculum with beliefs and practices that they had been using in the former curriculum. Although the teachers had teaching experience of less than ten years

considering that they had not started teaching before 2006 when the new curriculum was introduced, the researcher was of the view that they were in a good position to effectively implement the curriculum as they were free from contact with the GCE-O-Level curriculum, hence could not implement the SGCSE English language curriculum in the same way they had implemented the former curriculum. This is because the new curriculum was introduced in 2006 and was localised in 2009 before these teachers started teaching (The Ministry of Education, 2005). Only six out of twenty three teachers indicated that they had experience teaching the former GCE-O-Level curriculum.

6.1.3 Differences between the two curricula

The study showed through the few teachers who had experience teaching the former GCE-O-Level English language curriculum that the major differences between the two curricula were that while in the former curriculum the teacher was viewed as the only custodian of information, in the new curriculum both learners and teachers are important for the production of knowledge. This therefore shifted the work load from the teachers to the learners as they were expected to do more work in the new curriculum than they did in the former, hence the former curriculum was teacher-centred while the new curriculum is learner-centred. Another difference was on the new aspect, the oral aspect, and the devices used in the new and localised curriculum, which is an aspect that was not in the former curriculum. Other differences according to the findings were in the structure of examinations; the number of papers increased from two in the former curriculum to four in the new and localised curriculum, including the removal of the choice of composition where the argumentative composition is now compulsory yet in the former curriculum it was not.

The differences from the findings are the same as those that were given by The Ministry of Education (2005) as it also pointed out that in the new and localised curriculum, teachers do not have monopoly over information, and therefore they are not the only custodians of information as learners are required to find information for themselves. While the former curriculum was teacher-centred, the new curriculum is learner-centred, while the former focussed on reading and writing skills, the new and localised curriculum focuses on the skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening even in the examination (The Ministry of Education, 2005).

6.1.4 Teachers' knowledge about the requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum

It was also established from the findings of the study that a majority of the teachers knew the requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum. The new and localised English language curriculum required electronic gadgets such as radios, television, CD players, lap tops, prescribed textbooks, varied books, magazines, newspaper articles, and novels, as materials that were required by the new and localised English language curriculum, a recording system, access to the internet, past examination papers, photocopier and books for listening passages, reference books, specimen books, and practice books. Most of the requirements that the teachers gave were in line with those given by The Ministry of Education (2005). The curriculum, as the document states, requires CD ROMS, charts, maps, the internet, teacher and learner made teaching aids, systems for recording, systems for playing CDs for listening, a television set, a well-stocked library, books that have CDs for listening and exercises for listening.

The findings further revealed that teachers gave only the requirements exactly as they had been given in The Ministry of Education (2005). One thing that was noted from the list of requirements given by the teachers was that there was no mention of materials that are found in the learners' local environment which is what the localised curriculum is supposed to be about. The materials given by the teachers were from the urban context, none were given from the rural context. The materials did not also go beyond those that are found in the classroom context. Despite knowing that the curriculum has been localised teachers did not see it odd that they did not mention local materials.

6.1.5 Infrastructure that is required by the new and localised English language curriculum

The study further discovered that the new and localised English language curriculum required specific infrastructure for it to be effectively implemented. Such infrastructure included a library, a language laboratory, a classroom and a spacious room that has electricity, a 'sound proof room and a recording room'. The infrastructure that was required by the English language curriculum according to the findings of the study, were similar to the required infrastructure for the new and localised English language curriculum according to The Ministry of Education (2005). The language laboratory is the heart of the new and localised English language curriculum and has a very important role in the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum (The Ministry of Education, 2005). This is

because it is used for speaking and listening activities as well as for conducting listening and oral examinations, as well as storing all materials that are used for the implementation of the English language curriculum. The same sentiments were expressed by the teachers because even those that did not actually refer to the language laboratory as a language laboratory, they however, referred to it as either a 'spacious room' or 'a sound proof room' which they said is a very important room in the English language curriculum as all materials are stored in it and all language activities are conducted in it.

6.2 Availability of the requirements of the new and localised English language curriculum

This theme revealed that not all the required facilities of the new and localised English language curriculum were available in the rural school context.

6.2.1 Availability of materials and infrastructure required for the new and localised English language curriculum

The findings from the study revealed that although some of the required materials and infrastructure were available; it was however not all of them that were available. The absence of the required teaching materials and infrastructure in rural schools was also noted by Guenther & Weible (1993), Ashton & Duncan, (2012), Robinson, Bursuck, & Sinclair (2013) in the background where they pointed out that rural schools often lacked in terms of materials, resources, and infrastructure that was required. As a result, rural school teachers had to use whatever was available in order to implement the curriculum. Alluding to the unavailability of materials and infrastructure in the rural schools, Teacher 1 School A said:

A television set is one of the requirements but since the school does not have one, I bring my own lap top and use it together with the school projector if there is something that I would like to show to the learners. I do not do this often though. The internet and library are other requirements but, then the school does not have access to the internet, it does however have a library even though the books in it cannot be used for teaching English. Most of the books are Mathematics and Science books which the school received as a donation. So what I do if for example I want learners to do some research is I use my phone(google) to get them the information and also ask those learners whose parents have phones to do the same and then we share the information. For listening and orals which require a sound proof language laboratory, I use the computer laboratory, which is the room in which we are, but then as you

can hear there is a lot of noise coming in since this laboratory is not sound proof. I just utilise whatever is available.

This revelation and other revelations that came from other teachers as indicated in the data analysis therefore meant that rural school English language teachers implemented the English language curriculum without all the required teaching materials and infrastructure.

6.2.2 How teachers implement the curriculum in the absence of the required materials

The findings from the study revealed that in the absence of the required teaching materials and infrastructure the teachers improvised and used whatever was available so that they could implement the new and localised English language curriculum. They used everything that they have at their disposal to implement the curriculum. This was from using their personal belongings, their gadgets, and learners' gadgets, modifying topics, improvising, and making do with anything that is available, when implementing the curriculum. This is in accordance with Taylor's, (2004) view that curriculum localisation is all about the modification of everything, from teaching methods, materials, content, infrastructure, everything for purposes of ensuring that the curriculum is effectively implemented.

6.3 Teaching methods that are required by the new and localised English Language curriculum

This theme unveiled the teaching methods that teachers knew as the ones required by the new and localised English language curriculum. These teaching methods were then compared with the teaching methods that the teachers used when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum, and further disclosed the reasons for the teachers' choice of the methods.

6.3.1 Teaching methods that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum

Teachers knew the following, as teaching methods that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum: the discussion method, which can be done in small group discussions or as a whole class, research/project work, the lecture, demonstration, role play/drama, the question and answer, problem solving, discovery, and the use of resource persons. The findings further revealed teaching activities and skills which teachers listed as teaching methods. These were presentations and brainstorming. The findings from the study further revealed that teachers also knew that the new and localised English language curriculum required learner centred methods of teaching.

Of importance to note is that all the teaching methods that the teachers gave were general teaching methods that teachers of all subjects had to use when implementing the SGCSE curriculum. Teaching methods that are specifically meant for the teaching of English as a second language were not mentioned. Such methods include the Grammar Translation Method, Audio-Lingual Method, Total Physical Response, Natural Approach, and other eclectic teaching methods such as the Communicative Language Teaching Method and Task-Based Learning Approach. In the review of literature, Behroozi &Amoozegar (2014) pointed to the teaching approach used as a source of the challenges that are experienced during the teaching/learning of the second language. The theorists further say that if in their teaching of English as second language teachers used a method that did not put emphasis on the communicate role of English but emphasised on the structural approach, the teaching/learning of English will be boring for both the teachers and the learners, hence the learners will not benefit.

It also came out from the study that the teachers' views on the use of the lecture were divided. While some teachers were aware that the use of the lecture method was discouraged in the new and localised English language curriculum, others however, were of the view that the lecture should be used. In support of the use of the lecture method one of the teachers said:

 The lecture cannot be divorced as it is used with passive learners and for clarifications of difficult concepts, Teacher 1 School A.

 Providing a different view on the use of the lecture method another teacher said:

The use of the lecture is discouraged, Teacher 14 School N.

The study also found that the teaching methods which the teachers had given as being required by the new and localised English language curriculum were similar to those given by The Ministry of Education (2005). The discussions which learners had to do either as a whole class or in groups, problem solving, question and answer, field work, research/project work, role play/drama, and the use of resource persons were all outlined as methods of teaching that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum by The Ministry of Education, (2005). However, the document had also given interviews and impromptu speeches as other teaching methods that are required. These two were, however, not given by the teachers, and this was perceived to mean that teachers did not know them.

6.3.2 Applicability of the required teaching methods in rural school contexts

This sub-theme ascertained that it was not all the teaching methods that had been suggested for use with the new and localised English language curriculum that were applicable in rural school contexts. The findings from the study therefore pointed out that the rural school context was selective with regards to the teaching methods that it used with the learners. Teaching methods such as the lecture and demonstration were found to be the maximally used. The lecture was given as the most applicable teaching method despite the fact that some teachers indicated that child-centred methods of teaching were suggested for use with this curriculum, and that the use of the lecture method was discouraged in this curriculum. Some teachers even stated that they did use the lecture even though it was discouraged. One of the teachers said she "*usually used the lecture [method]*" (Teacher 14 School N). Of importance to note is that this teacher had earlier alleged that the use of the lecture is discouraged. What this means is that this teacher did not use the lecture out of ignorance, she knew she was not supposed to use it but she used it all the same.

6.3.3 Teaching methods that teachers use in the rural school context

The dominant teaching methods that were used by most teachers when implementing the new and localised English Language curriculum in rural schools were the lecture and demonstration. The lecture method was given as the most applicable teaching method although some teachers had indicated that child-centred methods of teaching were suggested for use with this curriculum, and that the use of the lecture method was discouraged. The study further discovered that the teachers' use of the lecture method was on purpose as some teachers even stated that they use it even though they knew it was discouraged.

The teachers' use of the lecture when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum also came out from the literature review. Studies by Zondo (2009), Msibi (2010 and Pereira (2012) revealed that although teachers were fully cognisant that they should minimize the use of the lecture method, they however used it. The use of the lecture method while cognisant of the fact that it should not be used is an act that is also confirmed by Pacioto & Delany-Barmann (2011) and Brown (2010) that as final arbiters of what happens in their classrooms teachers do what they feel is right for their learners. They do not normally consider rules and policies and new ways that have been put in place on how certain processes or education innovations are supposed to be done. They just do what suits them and also what they feel is right. Again, none of the specific methods for teaching English as second language mentioned by Behroozi & Ammozegar (2014) were revealed by the

teachers. Which means instead of utilising approaches/methods that specifically enable the learners to use the language for communication teachers simply used general methods of teaching.

6.3.4 Reasons for teachers' choices of teaching methods

The findings revealed that the choices of teaching methods used by the teachers were influenced by a number of factors. Some of the factors were the teachers' desire to use that particular teaching method on that particular day, the knowledge of the teaching methods that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum, the nature of the learners the teacher was teaching, the environment in which the curriculum was implemented, and the teachers' reluctance to introduce learners to other available teaching methods. This finding was arrived at after the teachers had made responses such as:

My choice of teaching methods is influenced by the nature of the topics that I teach, Teacher 11 School K remarked.

Teacher 17 School Q said: *The methods I choose are those that I am able to use as I was not trained on how to teach this curriculum*.

6.3.5 How teachers compensate for the teaching methods that are not applicable in the rural school context

Another theme that emerged from the study was associated with how teachers compensated for the teaching methods that they were unable to use. The findings indicated varied tactics that teachers used in order to make up for the teaching methods that were not applicable in the rural school context. Since most teachers were unable to use research/project work as a teaching method, yet they knew how important it was for the learners to undertake research as that is how they could get information, the teachers either did the research for learners who did not have access to cell phones, or advised them to use the cell phones of their relatives, parents, and friends. While some teachers made an effort to compensate for the teaching methods that they were unable to use, others did not make any effort to do that, they simply made do with the methods that are applicable. The study revealed that it was only a few teachers who did not encounter any challenges with using all the suggested teaching methods in the rural context.

6.4 Best practices in the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum

This theme brought to the fore what teachers considered to be the best practices when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural schools. This stemmed from the realisation that it was not possible to use all the suggested teaching methods when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in the rural schools.

6.4.1 Best practices for implementing reading and writing

The study revealed that what most teachers found to be the best practices when implementing the reading and writing skills was the provision of a lot of reading material. The materials could be in the form of magazines, newspaper articles, reading passages which learners would read and then answer questions based on them. This practice was based on the belief that the abundant reading materials gave the learners practice in reading with understanding which is what was required by the examination. For writing, teachers exposed the learners to varied models of compositions which learners were asked to read, write, and then got feedback on how they could improve them. Some teachers exposed the learners to things that they wanted them to write about before asking them to write about them. This was done so that learners could have some experience on what they had to write about. In addition, the teachers taught the learners sentence structures, proverbs, idioms, and also contrasting words that they could use when writing argumentative compositions. For the writing of the summaries, teachers gave learners tips where they simply have to pick the most important points in a passage and find a way of joining them without making an attempt to summarize them because when they try to write the summaries they get them wrong. Teachers did this so that learners could at least get marks for the points even if they had been inappropriately joined.

The best practices when implementing listening skills for most of the teachers was giving learners CDs with various recordings to listen to and then ask them to answer questions based on what they had listened to. Other teachers capitalized on what learners loved, that is music and songs, learners listened to songs or were asked to play their favourite songs on the cell phone and then answer questions based on the songs. Other teachers played the learners a song on a CD player, wrote the song on the board leaving out certain words and then asked learners to fill in the blank spaces using the lyrics of the song. Other teachers recorded themselves or the learners and then together they listened to the recordings of themselves.

The best practices for the implementation of the speaking skill included the following:

- Giving learners topics to discuss in groups and then students taking turns to do the presentations.
- Interviewing learners on given topics without having given them the opportunity to prepare for them. This teaches them to think fast.
- Bringing a recording device to class to record conversations between the learners. The purpose is to acquaint learners with recording and also speaking on the device.
- Giving learners a topic and assigning them to find information on it either from the library or the internet using a cell phone, and then doing presentations on the given topics during morning assembly.
- Giving learners reading materials to read and then sharing with others what they were reading about.
- Giving learners topics for debates and asking them to prepare and then do the debates either in class or in front of the whole school.
- Using topics from past examination papers, learners prepare for the topics then they take turns in doing presentations.

The varied practices indicated variations in what people consider to be their best practices as observed by Smagorinsky, (2009) in the literature review. According to Smagorinsky (2009), the best practice as well as the best teaching method depends on who is using it as well as the environment where it is used and also how the practice is experienced by those that were involved. Light and Gnida (2012) also concur with this assertion when they say that best practices and best methods depend on individuals, contexts, teachers' preferences, and uniqueness of the classrooms. So it should be expected that teachers' practices should be varied.

6.5 Challenges encountered by teachers when implementing the new and localised English Language curriculum in rural schools

The findings under this theme indicated a number of challenges that rural senior secondary school teachers encountered when implementing the English language curriculum.

6.5.1 Lack of teaching materials

Most of the materials and infrastructure and resources that were required for use with the new and localised English language curriculum were not available in the rural schools. The

required materials and infrastructure encompassed books, or other reading materials, libraries, access to the internet, radios, televisions, language laboratories, recorder, and electricity. This according to the teachers made it difficult for them to successfully implement the curriculum as these materials were vital for the effective implementation of the curriculum. Something similar came out from the review of literature. Studies indicated that the shortage of materials was not out of the ordinary in rural schools. (Guenther & Weible, 1993; Ashton & Duncan, 2012; Robinson, Bursuck & Sinclair, 2013). Teachers therefore have to understand that the shortage of materials will always be experienced in rural schools and have to devise strategies of ensuring that the harm caused by shortages is mitigated.

6.5.2 Lack of English speaking people in the environment

Another challenge that teachers faced was the lack of English speaking people in the environment. This has a detrimental effect on rural school learners as it deprives them of models of the English language and also cultivates a negative attitude towards the English language. Hearing other people speaking in English motivates the learners and makes them want to emulate those people. In addition, exposure of learners to English speaking people gives them the opportunity to hear correct forms of the language being used and they could therefore pick them up and use them when speaking and writing. Having people who speak English language also gives the learners the opportunity to speak to those people; hence get practice in the language and this makes them fluent, competent, and confident when speaking which is a good thing for the oral examinations.

The review of literature also affirmed this finding. Guenther & Weible (1993), Ashton and Duncan (2012), Robinson, Bursuck, & Sinclair (2013), Behroozi &Amoozegar (2014), Abdullah (2015), and Ahamed (2013), in both the background of the study and the literature review pointed to the shortage of English speaking people in the environment as a challenge. These studies state that the rural school environment faces the challenge of the absence of English speaking people and this gives rise to the challenge of lack of role models. For Abdullah (2015) such an environment does not provide learners with the opportunity to practice the language as no one speaks the language in the environment. Such a situation is also in direct contrast with Vygotsky's theory that children acquire knowledge through social experiences where the older members of the community teach the younger ones so that they can become productive members in their communities (Ariza & Hancock, 2003). Explaining

the situation in rural schools one teacher said:

Our learners are in a SiSwati speaking environment, there is no English speaking person around them. The learners also grew up being told SiSwati tales, hence no exposure to English Teacher 4 School D.

Another teacher pointed out:

The environment is such that learners live in two separate worlds where they use two separate languages, English at school and SiSwati at home; there is no extension of what is done at school once they get home. There is no one with whom learners can speak English with at home. Teacher 6 School F. The study therefore presented this as another finding.

6.5.3 Lack of exposure to modern facilities

Rural school learners could not do well in English because they were not exposed to modern amenities. The teachers said that it was important for learners to have exposure to such facilities and activities because during the examination they were asked to write about some of them. Since rural school learners lacked exposure to such they were normally disadvantaged during the examination. The non-exposure to modern amenities in rural school learners was mentioned in the background to the study where Guenther & Weible (1993) and Ashton & Duncan (2012) said that these schools are geographically isolated and as a result rural people do not know much about things that are found as well as used in urban areas. However, the inclusion of modern facilities in the examination belies the definition of a localised curriculum given by the IBE (2002) which says a localised curriculum must be designed locally, with an examination that has also been set locally, by locals who supposedly have a clear understanding relating to what is locally available and what is not. The locals also are in a good position to know the experiences of local learners in relation to things, hence there is no way they can set an examination and include things that they know are strange in the local environment.

6.6 Challenges with the examination

The study established that there were challenges that rural senior secondary school teachers encountered in relation to the examination that the learners sat for.

6.6.1The nature of the examination given to the learners

The examination that is given to the learners does not favour rural school learners but it

favours urban school learners.

Lamenting the bias of the examination, one teacher said:

The examination given is such that it favours learners in urban schools because they have much exposure to things. Our learners are not exposed; hence they tend not to do well in the examination. It is really very painful that the results are analysed and compared against those of learners in urban schools. For our learners the curriculum is still not relevant as in the examination they are asked about things that they do not have any experience on, Teacher 6 School F.

Another teacher observed something similar and pointed out:

The examination is such that it gives urban school learners an advantage over rural school learners. Most of the things that are asked in the examination are things that are found in towns; things such as malls, shopping in malls, movies such as 'The Titanic', and many other such things which our learners know nothing about. Teacher 7 School G.

Another one made a similar assertion and said:

The examination that rural school learners sit for is still the same as the examination that Swazi learners sat for in the former curriculum. For rural school learners the examination is still not localised. Topics such as 'a street fight' for our learners are very strange. For learners in townships and urban areas where such is rife it is easy. Topics such as 'A rush hour' are very strange, yet it is such topics that normally come out in the examination, Teacher 16 School P.

Likewise, another teacher observed:

The topics given in the examination mostly favour learners in urban schools as our learners are not exposed to such topics. I find it unfair that learners should be given the same topics in the examination. Learners in towns are used to computers for example, but ours are not, so if our learners are asked on anything related to computers like what normally happens, they get lost. I sometimes feel that if the examination could be on herding cattle and goats our learners could be at an advantage over those in urban areas as there is so much that ours know about herding goats and cattle. I feel learners should be given a choice in the examination and they should not be compelled to do or write on a particular topic, topics

should be according to the learners' experiences after all the people who set the examination are locals and the curriculum being localised should not favour some learners and not others, Teacher 18 School R.

Confirming what the other teachers had said, Teacher 21 School U commented and said:

One other challenge about this curriculum is that as much as it is said to be localised hence relevant to the learners, there is nothing relevant to rural school learners in the examination. Everything is just strange. Most of the things that they are asked about are those found in urban areas, so the curriculum seems localised only to urban area learners and not those in rural schools.

Despite that the curriculum is said to be localised, the examination is still not localised. This is because The Ministry of Education (2005) postulates that curriculum localisation encompasses among other things the local setting of the examination. An examination that had been set locally should have a bearing on the society and the environment where it is implemented and should also have traces of the society or the learners' environment (The Ministry of Education, 2005; ECOS newsletter, 2010 and Taylor, 2004). Since the localised examination still requires learners to have knowledge about facilities and amenities that are not found in the learners' environment it means the examination is not set locally by locals but it is set by people who do not have any knowledge about the rural environment. If the people who set the examination had any knowledge about the rural environment they would have included topics that are relevant to the rural environment in the examination. In Kachru's view, the new and localised English language curriculum for rural schools is still set in the inner circle, hence it has only traces of the inner circle and according to Cornbleth it is still treated out of context as it does not have any traces of the rural environment (Kachru, 1985; Cornbleth, 1988).

This also means that although the country's education system claims to be free from the jaws of colonialism, it is still under the influence of the colonial rule of the British and is therefore no different from the former GCE-O-Level curriculum which was Euro-Centric and put emphasis on European and Western concerns, culture, and values (Chukwuolo (2009). It also means that people who are foreign to the rural environment are the ones that are given the responsibility of setting the examination instead of the locals being given the opportunity to set the examination.

6.6.2 Learners' inability to speak during the oral examination

The findings revealed that learners failed to speak during the oral examinations. Some learners just froze and could not say anything while others cried and failed to speak and others shook and trembled. The sight of the recorder which some learners were seeing for the first time made the learners behave this way. One teacher said:

Most of the learners experience problems during the oral examination. The sight of the recorder which they normally see for the first time and the fact that it is just them and the teacher and no one else makes them uncomfortable, hence they fail to speak. A lot of time is therefore spent with one learner as I try to make the learners feel comfortable and ensure that they speak, Teacher 3 School C.

Another teacher said:

We experience situations where learners freeze and literally shake during the oral exam, and not being able to converse on the given topic. They just say a word or two, Teacher 6 School F.

Another teacher lamented:

I experience most challenges during examination time when I administer the oral examinations. Some learners fail to say anything on the topic that they have been given. They tremble, shake and cry and I have to spend a lot of time waiting for them to gain composure. It is so difficult to get them to speak when the rest of the other learners are not there. They become so uncomfortable, Teacher 9 School I.

Giving her own opinion on the same issue, Teacher 21 School U said:

The oral examination is the most challenging for me. Some of the learners just cry and fail to speak. Last year I had about three or four learners whom I had to try and examine more than five times because each time they came into the examination room they started crying. This is so painful because I know that their inability to speak will result in them failing the examination, really the orals put learners in a very awkward situation where it is just them and the teacher and no one else.

Such behaviour by learners is an indication of how incompetent they are in the English language. People do not normally cry when they know what they should say in a language

that they are comfortable with. But they do cry if they have challenges with the language in which they are expected to communicate.

6.6.3 Challenges with the listening aspect of the examination

Most rural school learners did not do well in the listening examination because the readers read in a foreign accent. Since rural school learners are not used to foreign accents since most of their teachers are Swazis, they fail to correctly get what is being said hence they give wrong responses to the questions that are asked after the listening passage. The study further revealed that it was not Swazis or Africans that read the passages in the listening examination, hence the foreign accent. This again is in contrast with what should happen when a curriculum has been localised according to the IBE (2002), as it is of the view that locals should be responsible for everything that relates to the curriculum. The setting of the examination has to be done by locals, which means, the reading of the passages also has to be done by locals so that learners are not disadvantaged by an accent that is difficult to be heard.

6.6.4 Insufficient time to prepare learners for the oral examination

The study also found out that most rural school learners did not do well in the examination because teachers did not get enough time to prepare them for the examination. The curriculum stipulates that each teacher should not have more than ten (10) learners in a class; however, rural school teachers do not have classes of less than fifty learners. This makes it difficult for the teachers to prepare them adequately for the examination.

6.7 Challenges related to rural school learners

 This theme revealed that there were also challenges that were specific to rural school learners themselves.

6.7. 1 Learners' negative attitude towards learning

Rural school teachers have a hard time when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum because most learners have a negative attitude towards learning. According to Sahee Foundation (2008) while most female learners aspire to get married and be housewives, male learners aspire to be miners, cane cutters, soldiers, and illegal business owners. Compounding the situation is that some parents encourage their children to focus in the illegal business instead of school. The Sahee Foundation (2008) refers to a similar situation where a rural area is defined as an area where emphasis is on that girls should grow up and learn to cook as well as take care of children in readiness for getting married, while

boys grow up looking after cattle and then go and look for work in the mines (Sahee Foundation, 2008; Khumalo, 2013). The land locked position of Swaziland combined with the arbitrariness of the boarders between Swaziland, South Africa and Mozambique makes Swaziland dependent on these countries for work and trade. Swazis have the liberty to go in and out of these neighbouring countries using illegal crossings. This is something that started off as a result of the need for Swazis to get legal imports from the neighbouring countries, now Swazis also go for illegal dealings and trade in the neighbouring countries (Domson-Lindsay, 2014)

6.7.2 Learners' inability to do homework because of poverty

Most rural school learners did not do homework that they have been given despite the fact that the curriculum requires learners to do a lot of work on their own. However, in the rural school context it is difficult for learners to do this because most of the work comes in the form of homework, which learners are unable to do due to varied reasons some of which include lack of candles. Learners' inability to do work assigned to them by their teachers mostly resulted from an observation that was made by Gianelli & Mangiavicchi (2010), in the literature review. The migration of the children's fathers looking for work also results in some learners not taking their school work seriously as they know that their mothers cannot discipline them in the same way their fathers would. These scholars are of the view that children who are left in the care of their mothers, since their fathers migrated to other places normally have problems of school attendance, academic performance, behavioural and emotional problems.

6.8 Low socio-economic status of the schools and the learners

This theme revealed that rural senior secondary school English language teachers were faced with challenges that were associated with both the school and the learners' socio-economic status.

6.8.1 Poverty

Rural school teachers found it difficult to effectively implement the new and localised English curriculum because most rural school learners are poor and as a result they worry a lot about what they are going to eat than about their books. This was because most of them were heads of families and had to provide for their own needs as well as needs of their siblings. Duncan & Tompkins (2008) in the background also mentioned this. Some learners'

education was disadvantaged by their low socio-economic status.

6.8.2 Inadequate funds in the school

Lack of funds in the schools is another challenge that rural senior secondary school teachers of English language face. The inadequacies of funds in the schools result in teachers missing important workshops which relate to the new and localised curriculum that they are teaching. In addition to lack of funds, teachers also pointed to head teachers' refusal to support them in their quest to ensure that the new and localised English language curriculum was successfully and effectively implemented. The leadership styles of the head teachers and everything that they did in schools were important determinants with regards to whether a curriculum will be successful or not (Hord & Hall, 1987). This is because it is their duty to ensure that teachers were professionally developed; that their knowledge and practice was developed so that they can do justice to the curriculum that they are implementing (Kobia & Ndiga, 2013; Rahman, 2014; Garet, et al 2001; Suporitz & Turner, 2000).

6.9 Challenges related to rural school parents

This theme revealed that another challenge that was experienced by rural school teachers when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum was related to the learners' parents.

6.9.1 Parents' inability to follow up the work done by their children

The findings from the study established that most rural school learners have parents who are not educated, hence cannot make a follow up on their school work. Some are not even concerned about what their children do at school. They sometimes even fail to attend school functions such as open days or even to come and get reports for their children. Teachers said they experienced cases where other children of the same age with the learners they teach come to get reports at the end of terms or even when the learners have been asked to come with their parents for certain cases which they may have committed at school.

6.10 Learners' refusal to do presentations during morning assembly

Some learners did not want to do morning assembly presentations for fear of being laughed at by their school mates as the whole school is normally there. By refusing to do these presentations, learners disadvantage themselves as the presentations are meant to help them gain confidence to speak and it is believed that this will prepare them for the oral examination.

6.11 Members of staff who do not want to assist with the speaking of English

The English language teachers' effort to engage learners in the speaking of English was at times 'watered down' (Teacher 15, School O) by other members of staff who did not want to assist and co-operate when it came to ensuring that learners spoke in English all the time. The argument presented by the teachers of the other subjects was that it was not their responsibility to encourage learners to speak in English since they were not teachers of English. As a result, these teachers spoke to the learners in SiSwati yet they had to speak to them in English so that they could also respond in English. Sharing their sentiments on the issue one teacher said:

Leaners do not want to speak in English and teachers of other subjects are not willing to help, so this becomes a burden for English teachers, Teacher 12 School L.

Likewise, Teacher 15 School O also remarked:

Other members of staff also water down our efforts in trying to ensure that learners speak in English all the time. They speak to the learners in SiSwati. When we try to talk to them against it they tell us that English is not their responsibility since they have their own subjects that they teach. English teachers have the responsibility of ensuring that learners both speak and pass English.

6.12 Strategies used by teachers to minimize the challenges

Findings from the study based on this theme revealed that teachers adopted a number of tactics to ensure that they minimized the challenges that they encountered when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum.

6.12.1 Minimizing learners' refusal to speak in English

Teachers tried to make the learners realize the importance of English, so they told them how important English is generally in their lives and also in their education. They further explain to the learner that as much as both languages are important English still remains the only passing/failing subject in Swaziland, and therefore more effort has to be put on it. Learners tried to put up some resistance when their teachers were encouraging them to speak in English, and that such resistance was based on the introduction of the Language in Education Policy (2011) that prohibits teachers from forcing learners to speak in English as it states that both SiSwati and English have the same status of being official language. Learners are

apparently aware of this policy. Explaining the situation one teacher said:

Our learners did not have a problem with the speaking of English in the past, however, things changed after the launching of the Language in Education policy where learners were told that the two languages were equally important and that teachers should not emphasize the speaking of one language over the other. Learners were further told during the launch that they were free to speak in any language and that teachers did not have the right to punish them for speaking in SiSwati.

The findings further established that the Language in Education Policy (2011) has created what teachers refer to as a conflict or confusion because learners no longer want to speak in English as they argue that the same treatment should be given to SiSwati, the other official language. The policy gives the two official languages of Swaziland that is, SiSwati and English an apparently equal status, and makes learners believe that these two occupy equal positions in education. This, however, is not true as English still remains the only passing/failing subject in Swaziland. The policy is therefore misleading learners because their performance will be measured by how well they have done in English.

6.12.2 How teachers minimize the challenge of inadequate materials/resource/ infrastructure

The study found out that teachers do a lot of improvisation in the absence of inadequate resources, materials and infrastructure. They gather books, magazines and any form of reading material that they can get from different sources. Some also use their own resources such as money to buy the required materials and resources that would enable their learners to benefit specifically in their development of the English language. The findings further revealed that teachers did not only improvise for the materials but for unavailable infrastructure such as the language laboratory. For many of them any room that has electricity is used as a language laboratory.

6.12.3 How teachers minimize lack of exposure in the learners

Teachers did a number of things to ensure that they exposed their learners to what they thought might come out in the examination. They organized trips for learners, showed learners pictures of these things, organized films for learners to watch, describe things to them, and told them about basically everything that they get to hear about.

6.12.4 How teachers minimize the challenge of insufficient time to prepare learners for the examination

Some teachers did not do anything to minimize the challenge of insufficient time to prepare learners for the examination. However, others made an effort to minimize the challenge by dedicating their free time to help learners practice specifically for the oral examinations. Such time includes after school, weekends and holidays. However, there was nothing that the teachers could do concerning the large numbers of learners they usually had.

6.12.5 Learners lack of reading culture

Teachers shared everything that they had read about, demonstrated that they were enjoying what they were reading, exposed learners to some of the things that they read, got the learners reading materials and encouraged them to read and share what they had read with others. By doing this, learners eventually realize that it is important to read and they start to read thus the culture of reading is developed in them.

6.12.6 Minimizing the negative attitude of learners towards English

Most teachers tried to change the learners' attitude towards English by making them realize how important English is in their education and also that it is possible for them to do well in English and therefore succeed in their education. Some teachers said they encouraged learners by telling them that despite being in a rural area they can do well in English

6. 12.7 Absence of English speaking people in the environment

Teachers minimized the challenge of the absence of English speaking people in the environment by encouraging their learners to speak in English among themselves and also with their teachers. They advise learners that if it happens that they come across anyone who speaks and knows English, they should speak in English.

6. 12.8 Biased nature of the examination

Teachers minimized the challenge of the biased nature of the examination by exposing learners to some of the things which they felt the learners may need for the examination. Exposing them included taking them out on trips, showing them pictures of different things and sharing with them everything they saw, heard, and read. The study also found out that some teachers said they did not do anything except to wish that whoever was responsible for setting the examination could consider giving the learners a choice in terms of the topics

given so that even rural school learners could get the opportunity to write examinations that were about topics that they had an experience of.

6.12.9 Unsupportive staff members

In order to minimize the challenge of unsupportive staff members, teachers tried to talk to teachers of other subjects and appeal for support and assistance so that the learners can speak in English. The teachers further said they also appealed to the other teachers to speak to the learners in English as well as encourage the learners to speak to them in English. The findings also revealed that the English language teachers also asked the administration to intervene and make it a school policy that English be spoken by everyone in the school premises.

6.12 Summary of the chapter

The chapter discussed the study findings. The findings were aligned to the themes that emerged during the analysis of data. Literature from the background to the study and the literature review was used and compared with the findings.

CHAPTER SEVEN
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

7.0 Introduction

This chapter provides the study summary. The study explored the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum Swaziland rural schools. The chapter further summarizes major findings of the study and gives recommendations for future studies. Furthermore, the chapter presents an approach or a model that can be used when handling examinations for the new and localised English language curriculum.

7.1 Summary of the study

The major purpose of the study was to explore the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum at senior secondary school level in the Lubombo region of Swaziland. The study investigated how rural senior secondary school English language teachers implemented the new and localised curriculum since the curriculum required materials, infrastructure, and resources that are not available in rural school contexts. In order to explore and get an understanding of how rural school teachers implemented the English language curriculum, the researcher solicited the views and experiences of the teachers through questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations. The data gathered from the teachers helped the researcher in getting an insight of what happens when teachers are implementing the curriculum in rural schools.

The theoretical framework discussed in chapter two assisted the researcher in providing an explanation on the different kinds of treatment that teachers could be giving to curricula that they are implementing. The study was framed within the theory of curriculum in and out of context. The proponent of this theory is Cornbleth and it asserts that the reason why there are so many disappointments and failures experienced when the theoretical part of a curriculum is put into practice is that people decontextualize the curriculum, or treat the curriculum out of context (Cornbleth, 1988). Treating the curriculum out of contexts in Cornbleth's view means focussing on the curriculum document, and ignoring the organisation of the school, classroom interaction, underlying values, teachers' interests and beliefs, and most importantly the context where the curriculum is implemented. Cornbleth also says the alternative, which ensures the success of the curriculum, is treating the curriculum in context. This in his view

means considering the curriculum as an interaction between the teachers, students, knowledge, and the environment. He further opines that this is very important because the setting, context or condition of classroom teaching and learning have a bearing on the failure and the success of the curriculum. In the light of these two treatments of curriculum according to Cornbleth (1988), the study concludes that both the curriculum and the examination that learners sit for in the new and localised English language curriculum is out of context as teachers strive to expose learners to modern facilities, and also that learners are given topics that are outside the realm of the rural context during the examination. The examination is still the same as the examination that was set by people from Britain (the inner circle, Kachru, 1985) which did not have any traces of the rural environment.

The literature review indicated that curriculum implementers are very important as they are language policy actors and the last people that get to see what happens in the classroom, and as such they make their own decisions on whether they want to implement the curriculum the way it was designed or not (Pacioto & Delany-Barmann ,2011; Stenhouse, 1985; Altrichter, 2005; Proudford, 1999; Obilo & Sangoleye, 2010, Rahman, 2014; Mkpa & Izuagba, 2009; Hadre, 2012, Wood, Finch, & Mirecki, 2013; Billington, et, al, 2013; Hord & Hall, 1987; Kobia & Ndiga, 2013). In consideration of their importance, teachers have to be involved in the whole process of designing the curriculum so that they may not reject it.

 The review of literature further revealed that school principals also had a great influence in curriculum implementation (Hord & Hall, 1987; Leithwood & Montgomery; 1982, Little, 1981; Morris, 1981). Therefore, it was important that they support it because if they do not, the curriculum will fail. The review of literature further pointed to teachers' instructional beliefs about the curriculum or innovation as another aspect that can influence a curriculum either positively or negatively (Handal & Herrington, 2003; Barbic, 2012; Pecore, 2013). This is because when the teachers' instructional beliefs are not in line with the goals and objectives of the innovation, the innovation will not be successful.

The review of literature further pointed to the presence of challenges when a new curriculum is implemented (Rogers, 2003; Fullan, 2007; Reschly & Greshan, 2006; Levin, 2010, Bennie & Newstead, 1999). The same thing was observed about constraints that are faced when a localised curriculum is implemented (Fullan, 2003; Badugela, 2012, Abraham, Bennion, 2001). Teachers' beliefs and what they considered to be their best practices are important factors that influenced their implementation of a curriculum (Macfarlane, 2000; Tudor, 2001;

Spillane, 2002, Smagorinsky, 2009; Light & Gnida, 2012). In addition, the practices were individualistic in the sense that what works for one person may not work for another one; hence a practice suits the environment and the person who prefers it. The review of literature assisted the researcher during the analysis of data and the discussion of the findings. The studies that were reviewed were compared against the data that had been gathered as well as the findings of the study.

7.2 Summary of themes that emerged from the study

The first theme revealed that teachers generally had a comprehensive understanding of a localised curriculum and specifically the new and localised English language curriculum. The majority of the teachers understood a localised curriculum as one that has been locally designed, by locals, where learners sit for a locally set examination, which is locally marked by locals, and a locally graded examination, where materials and infrastructure used is that which is found in the learners' local environment. The theme further revealed that teachers understood that in a localised curriculum they have the freedom and liberty to adjust the curriculum in whatever way so that it can suit the conditions where it is implemented, as well as ensure that learners see the connection between what is done at home and what is done at school, and in the community. It was also discovered that all the teachers did not know that a localised curriculum should have the aspect of culture; hence this was a limitation to their understanding of a localised curriculum. Teachers' lack of the cultural aspect in a localised curriculum indicated that the content that they gave to the learners did not consist of the culture of the Swazi people but focus was still on foreign cultures just as it was in the former curriculum.

The second theme established that the new and localised English language curriculum required mostly resources and gadgets that are found in urban areas and not the rural area. These include electronic gadgets such as radios, televisions, CD players, lap tops, prescribed textbooks, varied books, magazines, newspaper articles, and novels. Other resources required by the new and localised English language curriculum include a recording system, access to the internet, past examination papers, photocopier and books for listening passages, reference books, specimen books, and practice books. It was also established that the teachers' knowledge about the gadgets required by the new and localised English language curriculum was limited to the gadgets that are found in the urban areas; hence there was no mention of materials that are found in the learners' local environment, as well as materials and gadgets found in the classroom context. With regard to the infrastructure, a sound proof language

laboratory was required for speaking and listening activities as well as for conducting listening and oral examinations, and storing all materials that are used for the implementation of the English language curriculum.

Another theme that emerged in the study revealed that most of the materials and gadgets that are required for the new and localised English language curriculum are not available in the rural school context, and therefore teachers have to do a lot of improvisation. The same thing was found about the teaching methods that have been suggested for use with the new and localised English language curriculum, not all of them were applicable in the rural school contexts. This was due to among other things the fact that they required the learners to find information on their own from the internet and books yet these were not available in the rural school context. Due to the inapplicability of teaching methods, most teachers opted for the lecture method, did research for the learners and used cell phones to find the required information. The use of the lecture method by the teachers was on purpose as they were fully aware that they should not use it. Other teaching methods that teachers said they used were influenced by the nature of the topics taught, the knowledge of the teaching methods that are required by the new and localised English language curriculum, the nature of the learners, the environment in which the curriculum was implemented, and the teachers' reluctance to introduce learners to other teaching methods that were available.

Another theme that related to the teachers' best practices revealed that the practices varied from giving learners lots of materials to read, exposing the learners to varied models of compositions, asking learners to write the compositions, giving them feedback on how they can improve them, teaching the learners sentence structures, proverbs, idioms, and also contrasting words that they could use when writing argumentative compositions. In addition, teachers gave learners CDs with various recordings and asked them to listen to them, thereafter they answered questions based on them, played learners some music and wrote the lyrics of the song with blank spaces which learners fill in, record the learners and themselves using cell phones, and listen to the recordings of themselves. Sometimes learners were given a topic, asked to find information on the topic and presented what they found in front of either the class or the whole school. However, most learners did not like doing this for fear that they would be laughed at by others when they make mistakes.

Another theme revealed that teachers encountered a number of challenges when they implemented the new and localised English language curriculum in the rural school context.

Some of the challenges included lack of teaching materials, lack of English speaking people in the environment, insufficient time to prepare learners for the examination, learners' negative attitude towards English, learners' refusal to speak in English, learners' inability to do work at home, low socio-economic status of the schools and the learners, parents' inability to follow up work done by learners, learners' refusal to speak during the examinations, and the biased nature of the examination given to the learners. The examination that was given to the learners did not consider their context as it required them to write about things that are found in the urban context; hence it would appear as if the rural school context was not represented in the examination despite the fact that the examination was set by locals who supposedly had knowledge about the rural context. The examination was therefore one-sided as it gave urban school learners an advantage over rural school learners.

The last theme indicated that despite the challenges that teachers encountered when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural schools, they did however take mitigating measures. Some of the tactics that they use to alleviate the challenges include encouraging learners to speak in English and also reminding them that it is possible for them to do well in the subject, as well as that it still remains a passing/failing subject. For the shortage of materials, teachers improvise and sometimes even use their own resources for the benefit of the learners. The same thing was said about the infrastructure, any room with electricity for example was used in place of a laboratory. To compensate for the lack of exposure, learners were provided with the experiences they required through trips, pictures, films, and stories. To make up for insufficient time to prepare learners for the examination, teachers use their own time. They also appealed for support from the school administrators in order to ensure that teachers of other subjects supported them with the learners to speak in English in their lessons.

7.3 Responding to research questions

Research question 1

What methods do teachers use when implementing the new and localised (SGCSE) English Language curriculum in rural senior secondary schools?

The study revealed that teachers used mostly the lecture method. The reasons given for using this method were that the rural environment and the nature of most rural school learners was such that teaching methods that require that learners find information for themselves were not applicable as most of the gadgets from where information can be sought were not available. It

was however revealed that in instances where other gadgets other than the ones suggested where learners could find the required information were not available; teachers used alternative gadgets such as cell phones and any reading material that they could find. The study further revealed that the use of the lecture method was dominant even with teachers who had said they used classroom discussions. It was discovered during the observations that the teachers actually used the lecture method and not discussions.

Research question 2

What do teachers perceive as the best practices on the implementation of the new and localised (SGCSE) English Language curriculum in rural senior secondary schools?

What teachers viewed as the best practices depended on their preferences. Most teachers preferred to give learners a lot of material to read so that they could improve their English skills. Teachers further exposed the learners to different compositions so that they could see how they are written. They were also exposed to varied topics so that in the event they were asked to write about them in the examination they could be able to. For the writing of summaries, the study revealed that teachers asked learners to identify the most important points and join them in whatever way instead of attempting to write a summary. For the implementation of the listening skills, most teachers said giving learners CDs with various recordings to listen to and then ask them to answer questions based on what they would have listened to in the CDs, playing learners' favourite songs on the cell phone and then asking learners to answer questions based on the songs, writing the song on the board leaving out certain words and then asking learners to fill in the blank spaces using the lyrics of the song was what they considered to be the best practice. Other teachers recorded themselves or the learners and then together they listened to the recordings of themselves.

The best practices for the implementation of the speaking skill included giving learners topics to discuss in groups and then taking turns to do the presentations, interviewing learners on given topics without having given them the opportunity to prepare for them, bringing a recording device to class to record conversations between the learners for purposes of acquainting learners with recording and also speaking on the device, giving learners a topic and assigning them to find information on it either from the library or the internet using a cell phone, and then doing presentations on the given topics during morning assembly, giving learners reading materials to read and then sharing with others what they were reading about,

giving learners topics for debates and asking them to prepare and then do the debates either in class or in front of the whole school, using topics from past examination papers, learners prepare for the topics then taking turn turns in doing presentations.

Research question 3

What challenges do teachers encounter when implementing the new and localised (SGCSE) English language curriculum in rural schools contexts?

The study revealed that teachers encountered a number of challenges when implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school settings in Swaziland. The challenges were varied and they were also from varied sources. Some of them were lack of teaching materials, lack of English speaking in the environment, insufficient time to prepare learners for the examination, learners' negative attitude towards English, learners' refusal to speak in English, learners' inability to do work at home, low socio-economic status of the schools and the learners, parents' inability to follow up work done by learners, learners' refusal to speak during the examinations, and the nature of the examination given to the learners.

Research question 4

What strategies do teachers use to bring the challenges of implementing the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts to minimal levels?

Teachers engaged certain tactics to compensate for the various challenges that they encountered. While there was not much that they could do about some of the challenges, with others however, they tried encouraging the learners to speak in English and also reminding them that it is possible for them to do well in the subject, as well as that it still remains a passing/failing subject. For the shortage of materials, teachers improvised, and sometimes even used their own resources for the benefit of the learners. The same thing was said about the infrastructure, any room with electricity for example was used in place of a laboratory. To compensate for the lack of exposure, learners were provided with the experiences they required through trips, pictures, films and stories. To make up for insufficient time to prepare learners for the examination, teachers used their own time. They also appealed for support from the school administrators in order to ensure that teachers of other subjects assisted them with by ensuring that English was spoken in their lessons.

7.4 Limitations of the study

The study was limited by the choice of design used. It used the case study. Case studies generally enable the researcher to do an in-depth exploration of the study as they normally utilise a small sample, however, their findings may not be generalised because of their use of small sample sizes. In this study, focus was only on one region, that is, the Lubombo region of Swaziland against a total of four administrative regions in the country. The study was further limited by that it utilised only one teacher per school thus the total number of teachers that participated in the study was twenty three. Unfortunately, twenty three schools and the twenty three teachers cannot accurately represent all the rural schools and all the teachers in all the four regions in the country.

7.5 Contribution of the study

Although the findings of the study cannot be generalised to the whole population, the study however, made a contribution to knowledge by confirming and clarifying some existing academic positions.

7.5.1 Significance of the study to policy and practice

The Ministry of Education should come out with policies that will consider the interests and experiences of both rural and urban school learners so all learners in the country will have equal opportunities in their studies. The study revealed that there are challenges that teachers cannot easily overcome. For example, rural school teachers are not involved in the setting of the examination. As a result, rural school learners are not represented in issues that relate to the examination. This results in the examination being biased. A policy therefore has to be put in place to ensure that learners from the rural context are not disadvantaged by a biased examination. The policy would ensure that rural school learners are examined on things that they have an experience on, topics that are relevant and learners identify themselves with as they are known in their contexts.

7.5.2 Generation of new knowledge

There are a number of studies that have been carried out on the shift from the GCE-O-Level curriculum to the new and localised SGCSE curriculum. Two of the studies were conducted by Msibi (2010) and Zondo (2009) and both were on the History curriculum. Another study was conducted by Gamedze (2010) and this one was on the views of the stake holders on the introduction of the new and localised curriculum. Pereira (2012) conducted another study which was a critical realist exploration of the implementation of the SGCSE curriculum in

general. All these studies were on curricula that cannot prevent a learner from progressing from one level to the next. For learners who are in their final year of study in school, the English Language curriculum is a curriculum that determines the learners' entry into institutions of higher learning and also whether the learner will be considered for the award of a scholarship or not. The curricula in which the research focussed were on non-passing/failing subjects whereas English is a passing/failing subject. The current study is unique in that it was specifically concerned with a very important curriculum, one that decides whether a learner has a future academically or not.

The new knowledge that was generated in the study is that rural school contexts are not represented in the setting of the SGCSE English Language examination. Rural school teachers are not a part of the process of setting the examinations, as a result rural school learners sit for an examination that is outside their realm of experience. The involvement of rural school teachers in the setting of the examination could result in examinations that are relevant to rural school learners as well as have a trace of the culture of the rural environment which will give rural school learners the opportunity to succeed in the examinations.

The existing studies that were conducted on the SGCSE curriculum focussed on teaching and assessment practices and the roles of learners and teachers in the SGCSE History curriculum. This study took a different stand by revealing the challenges that are faced by rural school teachers when implementing the new and localised SGCSE English language curriculum, where a very critical challenge; the challenge with the bias of the examination was revealed. The examination is very important as it is a critical regulator which decides on the academic progress of the learners. It is the crux of the whole learning process. If learners are not successful in the examination, it means the whole learning process was a futile effort. Figure 7.1 illustrates the current model for a localised curriculum in English.

Figure 7.1 Current model for a localised curriculum in English
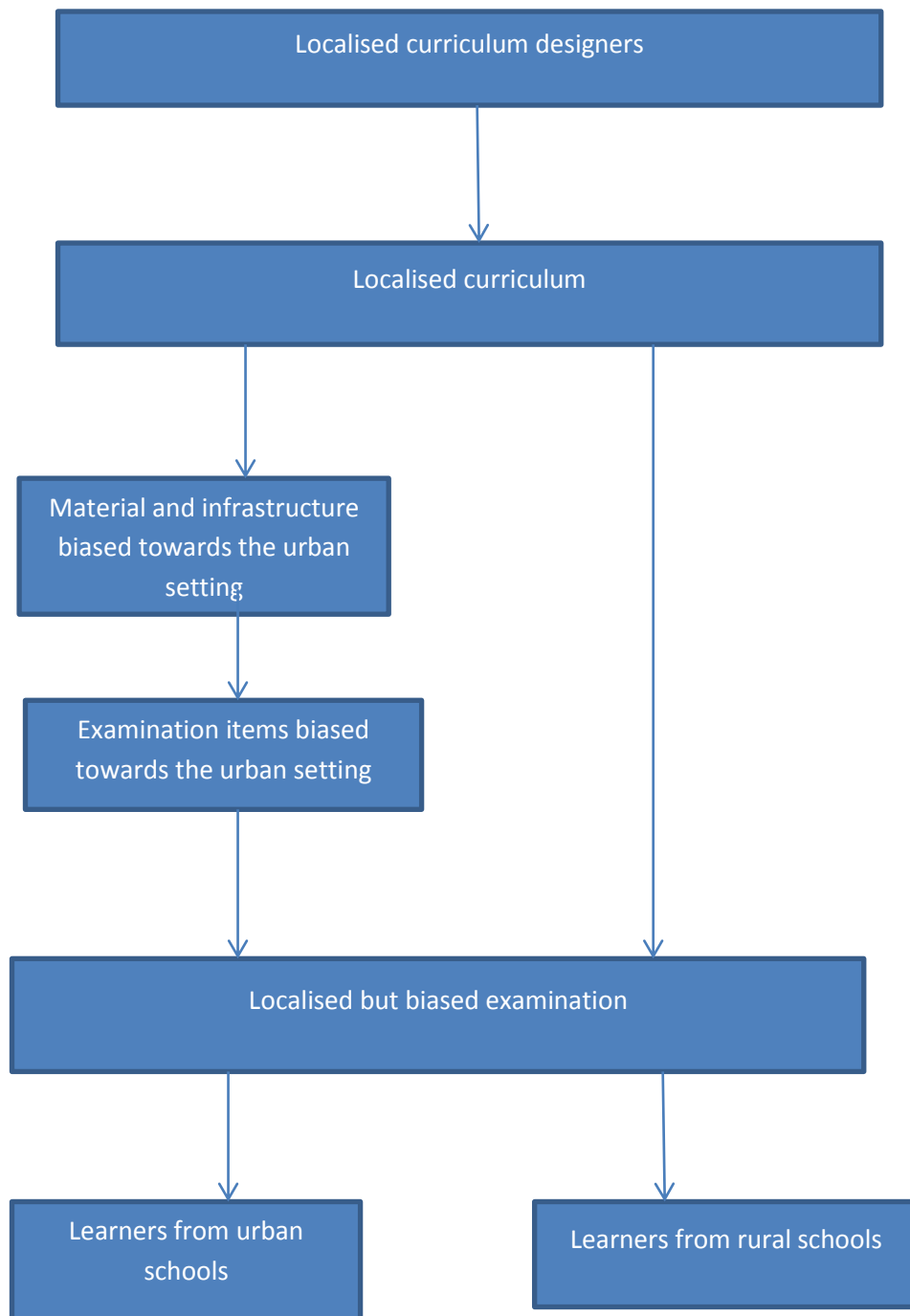
The study revealed that currently, there is no congruence between the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts and the examination that rural school learners sit for. Rural school teachers are not part of the team that prepares examination items for the examination that rural school learners sit for. As a result, the examination is biased as it favours urban school learners. Currently, Swaziland has no stipulated policy regarding the representation of learners from the different contexts when it comes to the setting of external examination. The teachers that took part in the study kept on saying 'they' when referring to the people who set the examination which was an indication that they were not a part of the examination setting process. This study therefore has brought new knowledge by suggesting that both urban and rural school teachers should be represented in the examination so that rural school learners may not be disadvantaged by the examination.

7.6 Recommendations for policy and practice

The recommendations made in the study are in accordance with the research questions, the literature review, and findings of the study. They are presented for purposes of improving the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum, specifically in rural school contexts.

7.6.1 Follow up on the implementation of the curriculum

The Ministry of Education has to make a follow up on the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum more especially in rural schools. This will enable it to identify areas in which rural school teachers need support so that such support may be provided.

7.6.2 Training of English language teachers

The Ministry of Education has to ensure that all English Language teachers have been trained on how to implement the new and localised English Language curriculum before being tasked with the responsibility of implementing this curriculum.

7.6.3 Representation of rural school contexts in the examination

The Examination Council of Swaziland has to provide an examination that will be suitable for both urban and rural school learners so that rural school learners may not be disadvantaged by an examination that favours urban school learners. This can be done by picking teachers from both the rural and urban school contexts so that they can assist in the production of examination items that will be free from any form of bias so that all learners

can benefit.

7.6.4 Internal workshops in schools/zone workshops in neighbouring schools

Teachers should consider holding departmental workshops or zone workshops to share ideas on how they can best implement the new and localised English language curriculum. In these workshops they should also talk about how they can overcome some of the challenges that they are currently facing.

7.6.5 Networks for teachers

The Ministry of Education should create networks for rural school teachers and administrators to share best practices, lessons and solutions to shared problems.

7.6.6 Centres for materials

It is further recommended that the Ministry of Education builds a centre where all the required materials and infrastructure will be stored and made available for use by all surrounding schools. The language laboratory could be built there as well as a library with the required books. Neighbouring schools will then come to the centre for their English lessons and take turns doing so. Basically, the materials will be shared by learners of those schools. This would be cheaper than when each school has to buy its own materials as it had been revealed by the teachers' responses and observations that most of these rural schools do not afford to buy the required materials.

7.7 Recommended operational model for a localised curriculum for English

This study recommends an operational model for a localised curriculum for English. This recommendation is illustrated in the figure 7.2 followed by description of the recommended model.

Figure 7.2 Recommended operational model for a localised curriculum in English

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│        Local curriculum designers        │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘

┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│           Localised curriculum            │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
        ┌──────────────────────────┐
        │  Material and infrastructure │
        │  favouring both urban and rural │
        │          settings          │
        └──────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
        ┌──────────────────────────┐
        │ Examination items favouring both │
        │   urban and rural settings  │
        └──────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│           Localised examination           │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
        │                         │
        ▼                         ▼
┌──────────────────┐      ┌──────────────────┐
│ Learners from urban │      │ Learners from rural schools │
│      schools      │      │                  │
└──────────────────┘      └──────────────────┘
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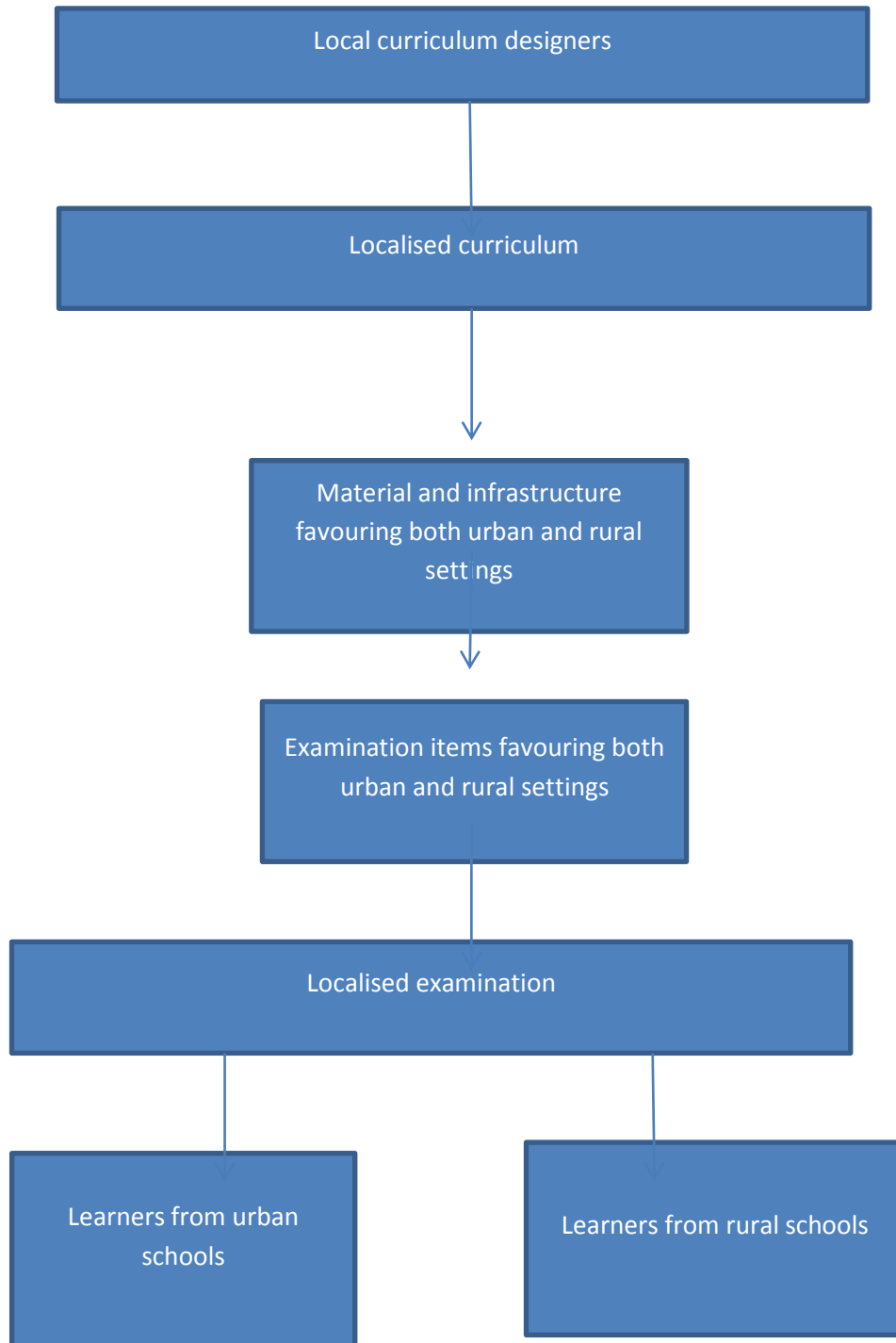
The recommended model is suitable for rural school learners in the Lubombo region of Swaziland because it ensures that after so many modifications and improvisations done when the curriculum is implemented, rural school learners are at a disadvantage. The model encourages the designing of the curriculum by locals. For the setting of the

examination by locals, however, it suggests that rural school teachers should be a part of the process of setting the examinations so that rural school learners can be represented in terms of the examination. The success of the learners depends on the connection between the localised examination and the rural school context.

This study was framed within Cornbleth's (1988) theory of curriculum in and out of context. The theory emphasizes the treatment of curriculum in context (contextualizing the curriculum) as opposed to curriculum out of context (decontextualizing the curriculum). Contextualizing the curriculum means regarding the curriculum as an on-going social activity that is shaped by the context or has contextual influences both within and outside the classroom.

7.7.1 Recommendations for further studies

This section provides recommendations for further studies related to the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts. They are given as follows:

7.7.1.1 Trial of the recommended model

Further studies should be conducted on the recommended model to determine whether it is effective for the implementation of the new and localised English language or not.

7.7.1.2 Perceptions of other stakeholders

It is also recommended that perceptions of other stakeholders be solicited so that an even clearer understanding of the new and localised English language curriculum may be sought. The current study did not include administrators, inspectors, and curriculum designers. Further studies may include these. The study revealed that some teachers were unable to attend workshops on how they could best implement the curriculum because their head teachers did not give them money to attend the workshops. The head teachers may be in a position to address the financial issues, while the inspectors and curriculum designers give their own view on the topic.

7.7.1.3 Using varied research sites

The study focussed on the implementation of the curriculum in one region. Further studies could be done in other regions.

7.8 Conclusion

The study was underpinned by Cornbleth's theory of curriculum in and out of context. The theory fits into the study of the implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts because it assists in explaining whether the curriculum that is implemented is treated both in and out of context. Data collected through the questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations provided valuable information that revealed that the new and localised English language curriculum together with the examination that rural school learners sit for was treated out of context (decontextualized) in rural schools of Lubombo region of Swaziland.

The study therefore concludes that although the English language has been localised; most of its aspects are still not localised as they do not have a bearing on the rural environment. Considering that the curriculum requires materials and infrastructure that is not found in the rural environment, that the examination learners sit for, does not have traces of the rural environment, the curriculum is therefore not localised for the rural environment. The recommendations that were made were meant to influence the Ministry of Education, Examination Council of Swaziland, and everyone who is involved in issues that relate to the curriculum to re-think and consider alternative innovations that would ensure the effective implementation of the new and localised English language curriculum in rural school contexts.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1 INFORMED CONSENT DIRECTOR

University of Swaziland
Department of Primary Education
Kwaluseni Campus,
Swaziland.

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

To the Director of Education- Ministry of Education (MOE).

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Zodwa Gcinaphi Nxumalo. I am an education PhD candidate studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Edgewood campus, South Africa.

I am interested in learning about how teachers implement the new and localized English Language curriculum in rural school contexts in Swaziland. My focus is on thirty (30) senior secondary schools in the Lubombo region. To gather information I would request that teachers complete a questionnaire, be interviewed, and observed in class when they teach.
Please note that:
- Their confidentiality is guaranteed as their inputs will not be attributed to them in person, but reported only as a population member opinion.
- The interview may last for about 30 minutes and may be split if they want. The questionnaire will also take about 30 minutes to be completed. 3 classroom observations will be done per teacher per school and separate days will be required for each.
- Any information given by the participants cannot be used against them, and the collected data will be used for purposes of this research only.
- Data will be stored in secure storage and destroyed after 5 years.
- The participants have a choice to participate, not participate or stop participating in the research. They will not be penalized for taking such an action.
- The research aims at knowing the methods of teaching that teachers use when implementing the new and localized English Language curriculum in their schools and also the challenges that they face when implementing this curriculum.
- The participants' involvement is purely for academic purposes only, and there are no financial benefits involved.
- If the participants are willing to complete the questionnaire, be interviewed, and observed when they teach, they will indicate (by ticking as applicable) whether or not they are willing to allow the interview to be recorded by the following equipment:

	willing	Not willing
Audio equipment		
Photographic equipment		
Video equipment		

My contact details are:

Email: ZNxumalo @ uniswa.sz

Cell: +26876088388 or +26825170432

My supervisor is Professor G.K Kamwendo, Edgewood campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Supervisor's contacts

Phone No. +27 31 2603459
Cell No. +27 710 852438
Email: kamwendo @ ukzn.ac.za

Research Office
HSSREC
Tel: +27 31 260 8350

Fax: +27 31 260 3093

Email: Synymanm @ukzn.ac.za

Thank you for allowing me to do this research.

APPENDIX 2 DECLARATION BY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION

DECLARATION BY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION

I, Dr. Sibongile M. Mtshali-Dlamini (Director-Education) hereby give Zodwa G. Nxumalo permission to conduct the research above with inspectors, curriculum designers and teachers, in Swaziland. The purpose of the research has been explained to me and I understand it. I have also been duly informed that the participants have a right to withdraw from the study anytime they want, and that their identity will be protected in the final report.

Signature:..

Date: ......23/4/2014..
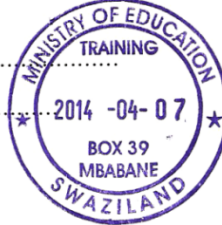
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
TRAINING
2014 -04- 07
BOX 39
MBABANE
SWAZILAND

University of Swaziland

Department of Primary Education

Kwaluseni Campus,

Swaziland.

Dear Participant

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

My name is Zodwa Gcinaphi Nxumalo. I am an education PhD candidate at the

University of KwaZulu-Natal, Edgewood campus, South Africa.

I am interested in learning about how teachers implement the new and localised English

Language curriculum in rural school contexts in Swaziland. My focus is on twenty three (23)

senior secondary schools in the Lubombo region, and your school is one of them. To

gather information I will ask you to complete a questionnaire, and will also request to

 interview you, as well as request to observe you in class when you teach.

Please note that:

- Your confidentiality is guaranteed; your inputs will not be attributed to you in person, only as a population member opinion.

- The interview may last for about 30 minutes.

- Any information given by you cannot be used against you, and the collected data will be used for purposes of this research only.

- Data will be stored in secure storage and destroyed after 5 years.

- You have a choice to participate, not participate or stop participating in the research.

- The research aims at knowing the methods of teaching that you use when implementing the localised English Language curriculum in your school and also

challenges that you face when implementing this curriculum.

- Your involvement is purely for academic purposes only, and there are no financial benefits involved.

If you are willing to complete the questionnaire, be interviewed, and observed when you teach, please indicate (by ticking as applicable) whether or not you are willing to allow the interview to be recorded by the following equipment:

	Willing	Not willing
Audio equipment		
Photographic equipment		
Video equipment		

My contact details are:

Email: znxumalo@uniswa.sz

Cell: +26876088388

Phone No: +26825170432

My supervisor is Professor G.H Kamwendo, Edgewood campus of the University of

KwaZulu-Natal.

Supervisor's contacts

Phone No**:** +27 31 2603459

Cell No. +27 710 852438

Email: kamwendo@ukzn.ac.za

Research Office

HSSREC

Tel: +27 31 260 8350

Fax: + 27 31 260 3093

Email: snymanm@ukzn.ac.za

Thank you for your contribution to this research.

APPENDIX 4 DECLARATION BY PARTICIPANTS

DECLARATION BY PARTICIPANTS

I………………………………………………………………… (full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire. If I am willing to be interviewed, I should indicate (by ticking as applicable) whether or not I am willing to allow the interview to be recorded by the following equipment:

	Willing	**Not willing**
Audio equipment		
Photographic equipment		
Video equipment		

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT   DATE

………………………………………   …………………………………

APPENDIX 5 DECLARATION BY TEACHERS

DECLARATION BY TEACHERS

I…………………………………………………………………… (Full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participate in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire. If I am willing to be interviewed, I should indicate (by ticking as applicable) whether or not I am/

not willing to allow the interview to be recorded by the following equipment:

	Willing	**Not willing**
Audio equipment		
Photographic equipment		
Video equipment		

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT   DATE

……………………………………   …………………………………

APPENDIX 6 RESEARCHER'S DECLARATION

RESEARCHER'S DECLARATION FORM

Implementing the new and localized English Language curriculum in rural school contexts in Swaziland.

Thank you for allowing me to do this research. The assumption that I have made in this study is that the introduction and localization of the SGCSE curriculum resulted from certain factors. The change and the localization of the curriculum, more especially the English language curriculum has affected both teachers and learners in different ways in the different environments where this curriculum is implemented. I assume that the changes and the localization have brought about challenges in the implementation of the English language curriculum, and also on the academic lives of the learners, generally. This, therefore, should have certain implications to both teachers and learners, more especially those that are in the rural areas. In order to ensure that these implications are known for purposes of improving the implementation of this curriculum, they have to be identified through research. If you participate in this study you will be contributing towards the understanding of these issues. The purpose of this study therefore, is to explore the implementation of the new and localized English Language curriculum in rural senior secondary schools in Swaziland. Knowledge on how the curriculum is implemented in rural schools may lead to improved teaching and learning in the schools, as well as decisions on the quality of the curriculum that is given to the learners.

This research has not been meant for purposes of judging or evaluating the way in which teachers are implementing the curriculum, nor has it been meant for purposes of judging the decision to change, or rather localize the curriculum, but it is done for research purposes where information will be gathered to explain how rural senior secondary school teachers implement the new and localized curriculum. Participants will voluntarily take part in the study and they have a right to pull out from the study when and if they feel like. They are also not compelled to respond to questions if they do not feel like. I undertake to keep all the data collected in a secure place where no one can have access to it, and also not to share the data with anyone without getting approval from the participants.

The data collected will be transcribed and used in the final report of the study but the sources from where it was collected will not be divulged as the identity of both the schools and the names of the participants will be protected. I also undertake to release the final written report to all the participants so that if there are any areas in the report that they are not satisfied with, they may be revised or deleted.

Researcher's declaration

I, Zodwa G. Nxumalo, hereby declare to protect the identity of my research participants; to report accurately all the information given; and to keep all information in the strictest confidentiality.

Signature:...*Z.G. Nxumalo*...

Date: ...*22 April 2014*...

APPENDIX 7 INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

Interview Guide for teachers.

Teachers will be asked the following questions:

1. What is your understanding of curriculum localisation?
2. Are you conversant with the requirements of the new and localised SGCSE English Language curriculum?
3. How is the new curriculum different from the former GCE O-Level English Language curriculum?
4. What are the major changes in the new and localised SGCSE English Language curriculum?
5. What teaching methods are required by the new and localised SGCSE English Language curriculum?
6. Are all these methods applicable for use in the rural school context?
7. Which methods are applicable and which ones are not applicable for the rural school context?
8. Why do you say the methods are applicable/not applicable for the rural school context?
9. What do you do to make up for the methods that are not applicable for the rural school context?
10. What teaching materials are required by the SGCSE English Language curriculum?
11. What teaching materials do you use for teaching the SGCSE English Language curriculum?
12. Why do you specifically use these teaching materials?
13. How are learners examined in the SGCSE English Language curriculum?
14. How is this examination different from that of the former GCE-O-Level curriculum?
15. What challenges do you encounter when teaching the new and localised SGCSE English Language curriculum?
16. What do you do to bring the challenges to minimal levels?
17. What happens to the learners that you teach once they finish school?
18. Did that happen in the former curriculum?

APPENDIX 8 OBSERVATION GUIDE

Observation guide

School

Availability of a language laboratory
Yes/No

Availability of a television
Yes/No

Availability of computers and projectors.

Yes/No

Availability of a well-stocked library
Yes/No

Availability of appropriate books with CD player for listening.

Yes/No

Access to the internet, CD ROMS, videos, maps, instruments, tape recorders, researched materials, teacher made materials, and books.

Yes/No

Availability of different forms of authentic materials used for the teaching of English,

for example, newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, recipes, brochures, novels, and many others.

Yes/No

Availability of recording systems and tapes for practice for the oral examination.
Yes/No

Teacher

Has basic knowledge of SGCSE principles.

Yes/No

Integrates teaching methods.

Yes/No

Centres teaching around learners (Learner centred).

Yes/No

Utilizes appropriate methods, approaches, strategies, and techniques, when implementing the curriculum, e.g. Discussion in pairs, groups, whole class

Question and Answer
Yes/No

Role Plays
Yes/No

Interviews
Yes/No

Impromptu Speeches
Yes/No

Debates
Yes/No

Research
Yes/No

Project Work

Yes/No

Gives learners tasks that will require accessing of information from the internet.
Yes/No

Give learners tasks that will require library materials.

Yes/No

Learners

Use computers to access information.

Yes/No

Do research in the library.

Yes/No

Do class presentations to share information and to develop speaking skills.

Yes/No

Classroom

Availability of computers and projectors.

Yes/No

Access to the internet, CD ROMS, videos, maps, instruments, tape recorders, researched materials, teacher made materials, and books.

Yes/No

Availability of different forms of authentic materials used for the teaching

of English, for example,

(1) newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, recipes, brochures, novels, and many others.
    Yes/No
(2) Availability of recording systems and tapes for practice for the oral examination.
    Yes/No

Teacher

Has basic knowledge of SGCSE principles.

Yes/No

Integrates teaching methods.

Yes/No

Centres teaching around learners (Learner centred).

Yes/No

Utilizes appropriate methods, approaches, strategies, and techniques when implementing the curriculum.

Yes/No

Gives learners tasks that will require accessing of information from the internet. Yes/No

Gives learners tasks that will require library materials.

Yes/No

APPENDIX 9 QUESTIONNARE FOR TEACHERS

Questionnaire for teachers

Please answer the following questions and feel free to include any additional information you think may be useful in the study.

(1) Did you teach English in the former GCE O-Level curriculum?-------------YES-------------NO

(2) Which teaching methods did you   use?

_____

_____

_____

(3) Which teaching methods do you use to teach English in the new and localised curriculum?

_____

_____

_____

(4) Is there any reason for your choice of teaching methods?

_____

_____

_____

(5) What would you point out as the major differences in the teaching of English in these two curricula?

_____

_____

_____

(6) Were you trained on how to teach English in this curriculum?------------YES-------------NO

(7) Who trained you?

_____

_____

_____

(8) For how long were you trained?

(9) Do you feel that the training you got was adequate?

_____

_____

_____

(10)   What is your view on the teaching of English in urban and rural schools, do you think the same teaching methods can be used?

_____

_____

_____

(11)   Why?

_____

_____

_____

(12)   What about teaching materials, do you think that those in urban schools can also be applicable to rural schools?

_____

_____

_____

(13)   Why?

_____

_____

_____

(14)   What challenges do you encounter when you teach English in your school?

_____

_____

_____

(15)   What do you do to overcome these challenges?

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX 10 ETHICAL CLEARANCE LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATAL

INYUVESI
YAKWAZULU-NATALI

22 May 2014

Miss Zodwa G Nxumalo   212558280
School of Education
Edgewood Campus

Dear Miss Nxumalo

Protocol reference number: HSS/0152/014D
Project Title: Implementing the new and localized English Language curriculum in rural school contexts in Swaziland

Full Approval – Expedited

This letter serves to notify you that your application   connection with the above has now been granted **Full Approval**

Any alterations to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project; Location of the Study, Research Approach/Methods must be reviewed and approved through an amendment /modification prior to its implementation.   Please quote the above reference number for all queries relating to this study. PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of **3** years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

Best wishes for the successful completion of your research protocol

Yours faithfully

....
Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)
Humanities & Social Science Research Ethics Committee

/pm

cc Supervisor: Professor GH Kamwendo
cc Academic Leader: Professor Pholoho Morojele
cc School Admin: Mr Thoba Mthembu

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
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