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# Preparation of pre-service teachers for English first additional language teaching: A Literature review approach

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***Abstract*—** Pre-service teachers in English First Additional Language (FAL) preparation programmes are designed to skill with knowledge so they become competent teachers. This study underpinned the historical development of English language teaching in South Africa and preparing pre-service teachers for English FAL teaching in schools. It highlighted the role of higher education institutions in preparing pre-service teachers for English language teaching and the importance of teacher education curriculum and pedagogy. It discussed the teaching and learning of the English language and presented some approaches used for English language development in teacher education. It finally recommends extending the practicum period for greater exposure to natural classroom environments and ensuring that the qualification requirements are uniform so that teachers are adequately prepared to teach in different school contexts. Pre-service teachers must be exposed to speaking and presenting so they do not get overwhelmed in crowded classrooms.

***Keywords***: English First Additional Language, Pre-service teachers, Teaching and learning, Teacher education

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## I. INTRODUCTION

SOUTH Africa is a multilingual country with speakers of the eleven official languages and other multiple languages (Hickey, 2019). Hart (2018) stated that businesses, parliaments, and courts of law are dominated by one language: English. Even though South Africa is multilingual, more people use English because it is a medium of communication and instruction. For example, Brenzinger (2017) states that among first-language English speakers, 32.8% are white, 23.9% are black, 22.4% are Indian, and 19.3% are coloured. Although English is used in courts, parliaments, and other domains, language translations are available. IsiZulu is the most widely spoken African language in South Africa. The 2019 South African statistics reveal that IsiZulu is widely spoken by 23% of the population, IsiXhosa by 16%, Afrikaans by 13.5%, English by 10%, Sesotho by 9%, Setswana by 8%, Xitsonga by 4.5%, siSwati and Tshivenda both 2.5% and isiNdebele by 2% (Pascoe et al., 2018).

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) highlights the crucial importance of students' proficiency in at least two languages and being able to communicate with others (Murray, 2012). Most South African schools' language of teaching and learning is English, while others use Afrikaans. Typically, African languages are only taught as subjects and rarely used as the medium of instruction. Murray (2012) states that in all grades, learners should learn one language at the home language level and one or two at the FAL level. English taught at the home language language level is inside the setting of the public, nation, and reality. This method enhances our understanding of ourselves and others through literature and poetry. English FAL centres on communicative competence, including oral work, exploratory writing, language and sentence structure, and other writing conventions (de Jager & Evans, 2013). Learners are also expected to investigate highlights of poetry and short stories from different writings.

There are qualified and unqualified teachers in schools. Simkins (2015) indicated that from 2010 to 2020, skilled, employed teachers in South Africa averaged 86%. In South Africa, teachers are regarded as qualified if they possess a four-year education degree, a three-year or national N6 diploma with an educational qualification of at least one year, and an educational certificate of three years (Blom, 2016). This research explores how pre-service teachers are professionally prepared for English as a first additional language teaching.

Preparing pre-service teachers for English language teaching is complex, considering that not all learners come from an English first language background. Pre-service education cannot prepare teachers for everything they will experience in service. However, they should be able to develop into critical thinkers and teach in different school contexts like township schools, rural schools, and elite urban schools. Pre-service education must not adopt an approach that assumes that the training given to pre-service English FAL teachers applies to the realities of all schools. Pre-service English FAL teachers must be prepared to respond to the many linguistic mismatches in South Africa. Even when prepared to teach, pre-service English FAL teachers face several challenges, including resistance from parents, students, other teachers, and the principal and managers of the school (Simasiku et al., 2015). This resistance becomes an educational demise to English language proficiency, as indicated in the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) report (Strand & Schwippert, 2019), which serves as a tool and benchmark for a particular level of competency in comprehension skills that learners must possess.

The PIRLS aims to supply the best policy-relevant information about how teaching and learning can be improved to ensure that learners are assisted in becoming accomplished and self-reliant readers. Over the years, South Africa consistently ranks as the worst performer of the 50 participating countries in the PIRLS (Johansone, 2016). For example, Steyn (2017) indicated that South Africa consistently underperformed in PIRLS as their grade 4 students are functionally illiterate. A deeper analysis shows South African grade 4 learners are six years behind their

counterparts elsewhere (Howie et al., 2017).

In 2006, PIRLS displayed that South African grade 4 learners fell short of the tested international reading levels. Most South African Grade 4 learners' data was so poor compared to Grade 4 learners from 39 participating countries that the International Association for the evaluation for educational achievement requested that Grade 5 data be used (Janks, 2011).

Van Staden and Bosker (2014) found no difference in overall achievement for South African learners when comparing 2011 to 2006 data.

The previous snapshot paints a bleak picture of learner preparedness in reading literacy, which casts a shadow on the curriculum, teacher preparation, content of teacher preparation programmes, methodologies, and approaches of how teachers are trained to respond to learners from diverse linguistic backgrounds. According to the World Bank (2018), struggling education systems lack the ingredients for school-level learning, including effective teaching, prepared learners, and skilled management and governance. Failure to do this effectively leads to schools failing learners.

**Historical development of English language teaching**

From classical to contemporary times, language teaching has gone through various trends; the need to learn a different language has always been a social quest (Zarrabi & Brown, 2017). From the Middle Ages until the Renaissance, when Europe was under Roman rule, Latin was used and adopted as a common language between speakers of different native languages (lingua franca). Popan (2011) reveals that Latin gradually ceased to exist as a living language and was diminished to a simple instrument of composed culture. The teaching methods design that primarily relied on the learning and study of grammar rules were complicated, and very long lists of words were favoured by the fact that Latin was only a written language and no longer a spoken one (Mattila, 2016). Common among students at that time were classical text translations from Latin into varieties of European languages. McLelland and Smith (2018) posit that modern languages began to be taught and learned in the 18th century because of the developing relations between European countries, linked by social, economic, and diplomatic aspects due to the rapid increase in businesses and; therefore, the need for communication.

Traditional teaching methods were effective at this point (Thornbury, 2017). Latin became the target language for teachers of other languages. They used what is known as the Grammar translation method, focusing on the grammar rules, vocabulary lists, and translations of literary texts that were selected while neglecting the oral part of those languages. Students could not communicate in the target language because the exercises they were given were not real-life daily situations. Alternative methods were developed in the 19th century to encourage oral proficiency in foreign languages. The direct method, encompassing audio-lingual techniques, was introduced (Golda, 2019), assuming that teachers and students would be active during classroom teaching and learning.

Phonemes-morphemes-words-phrases-sentences were believed to be structurally related elements of learning modern languages. Structuralism was applied since languages consist of structurally related elements, as mentioned above (Alshalan, 2019). Behaviourism also contributed to the knowledge of these structures by emphasising the psychological mechanisms needed to support language structures since behaviourists viewed learning as a habit-creation exercise. Thus, it was best to apply memorisation, imitation, and repetition of given models to ensure any language's quick and efficient learning. Structuralism divides phonetics, grammar and vocabulary (linguistic components), understanding, speaking, reading, and writing. This division is still used in modern textbooks (Easthope, 2019). As the demand for learning new languages grew (Richards & Rodgers, 1986), mass media technologies developed while tourism increased. So, a better means of transport resulted in people and countries becoming increasingly interdependent. Smith (2018) alludes to the practice-based tradition using the communicative approach with the advent of new methods and techniques.

Learning language from a communicative approach was advocated in the early 1970s (Crystal, 2018). Then, the Functional-Notional method was supported as a communicative approach to make learning any language easier. Bin-Tahir et al. (2019) assert that this functional-notional method is diverse and influences research from sociolinguistics, philosophy, and linguistics. These fields broadened the scope of the Functional-Notional method, developing new techniques and procedures known as the communicative language teaching approach.

The techniques and approaches used in teaching a second language (also known as the first additional language) differ in the varieties employed. However, they follow aspects of the communicative approach in their methodological pursuit from beginning to end (Alamri, 2018). The desired goal of these approaches is communicative competence since the main principle is communication (Savignon, 2018). It was developed as a reaction against transformational-generative grammar (Chomsky's theory), which does not accommodate aspects such as the context in which language is used. Oppong (2019) highlights that some linguistic reactions developed within pragmatics included the idea that language comprises not just rules and form to date. However, competence refers to the ability to use knowledge within and beyond these parameters, leading to researchers and linguists referring to communicative competence differently from grammatical or linguistic competence (Mitchell et al., 2019). Hamidova and Ganiyeva (2020) posit that listening, speaking, reading, and writing comprise the new conception of competence. Competence consists of four major components, namely the grammatical (word-formation, sentence structure, spelling rules, and pronunciation), sociolinguistic (use of grammatical forms appropriately to convey specific communicative functions in different contexts), discourse (being able to combine ideas to attain coherence in thought and cohesion in form) and strategic (verbal and non-verbal communication strategies are utilised to compensate for communication lost or to promote communication) competence (Muñoz Rodríguez, 2024).

Furthermore, technological developments such as computers have benefited language teaching, which provides multidimensionality to classroom activities. For instance, systems like PLATO used in countries like America allow tutors to access a simple method of marking results and issuing instructions for constructing lessons (Otto, 2017).

De Jong and Mora (2019) assert that fluency versus accuracy is controversial because there is still a lack of communicative competence in second-language teaching today. The role of grammar in the classroom is inconsistent in all communicatively oriented approaches; the natural approach, which is a modern adaptation of the direct method, focuses on the development of fluency (McLaughlan & Lodge, 2019). Although essential components of a curriculum may be communicative, analysis of the language syllabus reveals a shift of importance from one critical component to the other. However, it is crucial to acknowledge that both elements complement each other to develop second-language competence.

Therefore, it is not beneficial to emphasise just one essential component but constantly have an adaptable, communicative approach to language teaching (Gacs et al., 2020).

Thus, the history of English language teaching raises questions about how English language teaching has evolved, whether it has developed, where one would locate their teaching method when looking at the approaches and methods of teaching, and whether the direct method, grammar-translation, audio-lingual or communicative approach is being used. It can be assumed that language teaching has not evolved much as most teaching and learning is still located in the gramma-translation tradition. Here, learners are focused on learning grammatical rules and applying them to the target and native language by translating sentences. Fithriani (2019) asserts that English language teachers deductively teach grammar, where learners are provided with

grammar rules and examples to memorise and are asked to apply these rules to other examples. The teaching and learning of a second language are not yet situated in the communicative approach where learners are taught language so they can apply it in authentic situations. Activities like role-playing and drama help learners practice dialogue, but this is still done where the teacher, in most cases, is the source of information (Suzuki et al., 2019).

**Role of higher education institutions in preparing pre-service teachers for English language teaching**

Higher education provides training to pre-service teachers and is involved in issuing qualifications to them as qualified professionals at the end of their preparation programmes (Morris & Lambe, 2017). Yuan (2017) asserts that teacher education provides vital background information about teaching. This generalisation still needs further investigation to assess its relevance to all school contexts. Questions raised include: Is the background information applicable to all backgrounds? Is the background information provided to English teachers in the United States, such as South African English teachers? Mehring (2018) confirms that the background information provided to pre-service English language teachers differs as they mention countries like Greece, Cyprus, and Poland, which had different pre-service English language teacher programmes. The background information in South African institutions does not apply to all school contexts.

For example, the range within the country includes public, private, rural, and urban townships and former Model C schools (Monroe & Ruan, 2018).

It indicates that pre-service English teachers are disadvantaged in their teacher training because they are prepared based on a generalised programme, not knowing whether they will be employed in rural, urban or township schools (Drost & Levine, 2015). Also, the background information used for pre-service English teacher training does not relate to the reality teachers experience when they get into service. For example, research on preparing students to teach in diverse contexts by Amin and Ramrathan (2009) revealed that students (pre-service teachers in their first year of study) received training that idealised the conception of schools. Even though English language teachers obtain their qualifications in higher education, it does not guarantee that they are trained adequately to face the challenges of teaching.

In contrast, Al-Rabaani (2018) contradicts Yuan's (2017) assertion, highlighting that teacher education does not provide adequate training for English language teachers since higher education only deals with academic, theoretical, conceptual, and methodological aspects. Teacher education is disconnected from the actual practicalities of general education (Parker, 2017). The training given to English language teachers contradicts the realities of the schools where they are expected to work. Universities tend to keep up with the most current trends in a discipline, whereas schools lag as policy developments and implementations take time (Canrinus et al., 2017). McKenna and Parenti (2017) also contend that teachers are trained theoretically but do not adequately receive practical training since there is little supervision during the practical programme. For example, more paperwork could be filled without the pre-service teacher doing the work required. Consequently, the gap between what pre-service English language teachers are trained to do and school realities could negatively impact teacher performance.

Moreover, Zein (2015) claims that one of the mandates of teacher education is to foresee that pre-service English language teachers acquire several skills. These include the capability to teach the English language; methodologies, activities, and techniques of English language teaching; intercultural mindfulness and methods for creating encounters, which include trading and collaborations between various social viewpoints; independent English language learning; understanding of the nature and practice of English language teaching, and the ability to record learner progress.

However, the reality is that there are English language teachers who graduate and go into the field of teaching without adequate training, especially in the use of language, and cannot read for understanding (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015). Reading for comprehension in most teacher preparation programmes appears to be neglected, leading to most teachers ignoring related lessons (Pretorius & Spaull, 2016). Research reveals that learners in most South African schools frequently fail to understand the texts given to them because of their inability to read effectively (Cekiso, 2017). Waddington (2017) states that reading for comprehension among learners is a challenge related to the teachers' inability to teach it since they do not understand the implementation of reading strategies. According to Cofu (2013), there is a great challenge faced by teachers in South Africa in implementing reading strategies for learners to achieve the competency levels required by the CAPS. This is due to inadequate reading comprehension training during their pre-service teacher programmes. Tien (2015) believes that teachers require special skills and extensive knowledge that are not provided in their initial training.

In contrast, Johnson et al. (2016) assert that teacher education aims to promote good practices for preparing English language teachers for real-life scenarios by training pre-service teachers in theory and practice. They encourage a love for what they do in preparation for whatever impediments they face in authentic contexts. Additionally, Johnson and Golombek (2016) proclaim that higher education prepares future teachers for real situations by setting assignments like case studies, analysing imagined situations, and affording them teaching practice opportunities in schools. Through teacher education, teachers are equipped with relevant content knowledge of their subject and encouraged to be lifelong learners to have insight into improving the teaching and learning process (Mei et al., 2018). However, these ways of improving teaching do not guarantee that teachers have gained enough expertise since they do not provide insight into teaching in all types of schools.

Sung et al. (2016) emphasise how the world is moving towards a digital age and highlight the importance of integrating technological devices with English language learning in teacher education. It allows students to learn, share their ideas, and collaborate with others, ultimately developing technological device use and digital skills.

Julius (2018) claims that teacher education assists with exposing pre-service English language teachers to technological devices like projectors and computers. For example, electronic word scrabble improves students' spelling and vocabulary.

However, Can et al. (2019) oppose technology use because of the complex nature of schools and how technological devices are not used in under-resourced schools. For instance, too much exposure to PowerPoint presentations and whiteboards could disadvantage pre-service English language teachers when they must only adapt to a working environment with a chalkboard. In addition, since some have never practised writing on a board, their students have difficulty reading what they write (Tummons et al., 2016).

**Importance of teacher education curriculum and pedagogy**

Students in various teacher education institutions come from different linguistic backgrounds, leading to some inability to communicate in English adequately (Murray-Harvey et al., 2013). Costa and Coleman (2013) believe that most teacher education institutions lack strategies for students to understand English to promote communication and improve comprehension of their courses. Lei and Hu (2014) assert that teacher education has challenges when it comes to deploying strategies to achieve the goal of better communication in English by students. In countries like the United States and Australia, universities base their curriculum and pedagogy on communication in the English language (Rutherford & Rabovsky, 2014). Isaacs (2016) highlights that Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) and Writing Inside the Disciplines (WID) are two complementary strategies used in higher education in the United States. Harper and Vered (2017) further elaborate that WAC is development inside a contemporary structure focusing mainly on classes outside of writing and other English courses. WID is characterised by a programme or activity that helps lecturers

ensure students across disciplines use composing as an instructional apparatus. According to Wingate (2018), these strategies (WAC and WID) are based on the affirmation that corresponding practices differ across disciplines. Thus, students must get accustomed to writing essays to improve their academic writing. It relates to the importance of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) but primarily emphasises reading and writing. Hence, students must know how to read and write to successfully learn a target language (English) and comprehend written text (Bergey et al., 2018).

Peary and Hunley (2015) explained that in WAC and WID, formal writing practice in English is arranged as a fundamental piece of disciplinary curricula rather than uprooting content instruction or being educated as a conventional extra. WAC and WID emphasise the crucial significance of developing one's communication skills since it is a key attribute of intellectual development within a course.

However, Zemliansky and Berry (2017) take a different approach when highlighting the cons of WAC and WID. They argue that the available time to teach content material is reduced by teaching style. Also, students with difficulties composing in their first language have more challenges in their second language. Ultimately, students must be able to compose in their first language before in English. The two strategies (WAC and WID) will not effectively improve all students' communication skills (Hall, 2018). To enhance reading skills in students, higher education institutions need to adopt strategies that comprise the following components: phonics or principles of alphabets, decoding, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension (Swan & Walter, 2017). Kim et al. (2017) state that for one to be adequate in reading for comprehension in the English language, one needs to possess components that provide critical skills to master reading (phonics or principles of alphabets, decoding, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension). In addition, Jefferson et al. (2017) state that these components are vital in ensuring reading for literacy and comprehension. They define phonics as teaching people to read in an alphabetic writing system by correlating sounds with symbols. Deacon et al. (2017) point out that converting symbols into a readable form is decoding, and fluency is when the reading or writing of a language is done efficiently and accurately. The body of words used in a language is vocabulary, and comprehension is understanding what one is reading (Zhou & Yadav, 2017).

In contrast, Harris et al. (2017) argue that students need phonics or principles of alphabet, decoding, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension to be successful readers. They also need reasoning, background knowledge, working memory, and attention.

Schneider and Preckel (2017) emphasised that readers must have prior knowledge about the world to comprehend better what they read by relating it to what they know. This prior knowledge enables students to read between the lines and extract meaning even when not provided. Successful reading cannot occur when students are not paying attention.

When students read, attention allows them to intake information from the text. Working memory enables them to hold the knowledge acquired to gain meaning and insight from what they are reading (Swanson et al., 2017). Thus, reading for understanding is essential, especially for pre-service teachers, and it needs to be embedded in the curriculum of their preparation programmes. Universities have introduced new pedagogies in response to changes in social demand (Hutchings & Quinney, 2015).

Some higher education institutions, like McMaster University in Canada, employ inquiry-based learning as a teaching approach to improve the undergraduate quality of education (Savery, 2015); this approach emphasised interactive and student-directed learning. Mor et al. (2015) add that inquiry-based learning creates greater interest in learning since students can ask questions, gain problem-solving skills, and are encouraged to find answers to their questions. Also, students learn to solve problems with others, their teamwork skills are enhanced, and students gain long-term knowledge retention by being involved in the sharing and conversations during the learning period. On the other hand, Khalaf and Mohammed Zin (2018) argue that inquiry-based learning is a hypothetical learning technique that does not generally stand the trial of genuine application. Their critique reveals that inquiry-based learning leads to more state-sanctioned testing execution as too much time is dedicated to students' inquiries, resulting in important topics being sidelined.

Additionally, Ramnarain and Hlatshwayo (2018) mentioned that because students are required to speak up and participate in inquiry-based learning, there are high risks that those who are not quick thinkers, have challenges in processing issues, or have learning disabilities will be marginalised. Lecturers may not be able to engage students on a meaningful level because inquiry-based learning prevents them from preparing properly (Onyema et al., 2019).

Meanwhile, there is no perfect approach to learning, but inquiry-based learning seems to engage students and maximise their engagement in ways that traditional learning approaches do not. Inquiry-based learning in higher institutions can be more effective when extra attention is given to those with learning challenges, emphasising core topics to ensure that discussions are not diverted elsewhere (Theobald & Ramsbotham, 2019).

Many universities in South Africa believe that valuable skills for society should guide the curriculum and pedagogy since they will improve students' chances of entering the world of work (Thobani, 2010). Wait and Govender (2016) state that various approaches are employed by higher education institutions in South Africa, ensuring that the teaching and learning process focuses more on student-active participation and student involvement in their knowledge formulation process. These approaches include inquiry-based, problem-based, and outcome-based learning (Ramnarain, 2016).

Botha (2016) defined inquiry-based learning as a dynamic discovery that begins by offering conversation starters, issues or situations. It appears differently from conventional training, which mainly depends on the instructor introducing realities and their insight about the subject. Kidman and Casinader (2017) claim that inquiry-based learning encourages students to connect with and increase comprehension of subjects and substance rather than remembering and reviewing rules, thoughts, and recipes. It advances commitment, promotes love for learning, and improves learning.

In contrast, Kienzler and Fontanesi (2017) point out that inquiry-based learning prompts less fortunate state-sanctioned testing execution. At the point when an excess of time is committed to understudy inquiries, there is a chance that significant central themes will be forgotten. Inquiry-based learning could be more effective if the abovementioned shortcomings are addressed.

Another approach is problem-based learning, which Mawonde and Togo (2019) define as a student-focused teaching method. The approach allows students to learn about a subject through the experience of taking care of an open-finished issue (a problem with several correct answers and ways to correct answers) found in trigger material. The procedure considers that understudies can hone their abilities for future practice. Umarella et al. (2019) claim that problem-based learning is a student-centred approach that equips students with lifelong learning skills and encourages deep thinking as students spend more time studying because they find it more enjoyable and satisfying.

However, Abbott et al. (2020) disagreed by highlighting the risks involved with problem-based learning: bringing up issues about what to survey and how; that earlier learning encounters do not prepare understudies well for problem-based learning; the approach creates some uneasiness since learning is disorderly; and that less substantive information might be learned.

In conclusion, problem-based learning is essential to learning as it contributes to student knowledge formulation (Billings, 2020). Thus, for problem-based learning to be successful and effective in the curriculum of higher education institutions, it should be complemented with other approaches that ensure students are not distracted from what they learn. Lastly, the outcomes-based approach hypothesizes each instructive framework around objectives (Mukhopadhyay & Smith, 2010).

Because the outcomes-based approach is student-focused and centres around what students know and can do, every understudy should accomplish the set objectives (Lixun, 2011). Tam (2014) mentions the benefits of an outcome-based approach, stating that it clarifies that students' requirements must be accomplished at the end of the course. Furthermore, it allows for flexibility as lecturers can structure their lessons according to students' needs as stipulated by the objectives. The approach assures the involvement of students as they must learn on their own to gain insight into the material and allows for comparisons across various institutions where the institution determines the credits to award students when they move. However, Laguador and Dotong (2014) mention that outcomes may be interpreted differently for implementation by different lecturers. Some may even outline specific outcomes, leading to a different education where the all-encompassing way to address learning is often lost.

Meanwhile, on students' inability to apply the knowledge learnt. Mahdavi (2014) argued that there will be a loss of understanding when focused on achieving the objective. In most cases, they cannot apply the knowledge gained to real-life situations. The outcome-based approach does not focus much on the learning process. However, it emphasises the product, which may lead to students displaying these outcomes without gaining knowledge in the course (Arkorful & Abaidoo, 2015). If this approach were to have at least liberal outcomes like creativity, responsibility, and critical thinking, then students would not be restricted to displaying knowledge based on unrealistic scenarios. Perhaps learning should not be limited so that students can grasp large amounts of knowledge based on what they will be assessed.

**Teaching and learning of the English language in teacher education**

English language teachers are inadequately prepared to teach English; some cannot make the standards and assumptions for the study classroom clear and straightforward. They enact existing background information to fabricate new information, thus lacking in building learners' comprehension (Ulla et al., 2017). Lorente (2017) states that English language teachers and lecturers use vernacular languages in countries like Myanmar and Saudi Arabia to teach English. Hamad and Lee (2013) posit that higher education institutions that shy away from using English disadvantage students, leading to reliance on their mother tongue and no confidence when communicating in English. Helm and Guarda (2015) affirm that some lecturers feel more comfortable expressing themselves in their vernacular language than in English. They believe the only way to make students understand a particular phenomenon is to translate it into students' home language. Hartanto and Yang (2016) concur that the advantage of code-switching and translation is to enhance academic achievement and improve how students respond to questions, ensuring that the teaching and learning English as a second language is developed. Thus, using vernacular languages does not reflect negligence in English use but is beneficial if teaching and learning the language is still the primary objective (Üstünel, 2016). Students' opportunities to practice the language are reduced when lecturers do not use English. Also, institutions that still apply code-switching cannot apprehend that English use in lessons is essential for improving students' English language skills. Bilgin and Aykac (2016) advise against translation, pointing out that it constantly creates confusion because numerous social and semantic subtitles cannot be directly deciphered.

Moreover, in countries like Indonesia, English as a language of teaching and learning (LOLT) is challenging because of the many languages used as communication mediums (Mappiasse & Sihes, 2014). Gunantar (2017) points out that the factors contributing to the lack of English use or success in teaching it, especially in Indonesia, are cultural backgrounds, beliefs, customs, values, and the country's political standpoint concerning the government. Addar et al. (2017) highlight that one of the contributing factors to the ignorance of English in Indonesia is that the country has more than seven hundred conversational languages used as mediums of communication. Since the country gained its independence, there have been four changes in the curriculum of English language teaching but no remarkable impact on the learning outcomes. Tsuchiya and Pérez Murillo (2015) state that teaching and learning at all European educational levels should be conducted in English, which is called Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

Pulcini and Campagna (2015) expand on CLIL, emphasising that the approach focuses on developing students' capabilities in both the subject and the English language.

However, some lecturers in higher institutions do not want to adapt to teaching in English, as they fear that students who have challenges understanding English may not grasp the depth of the content taught (Al Nakhalah, 2016). The fear of lecturers indicates that their feelings and thoughts influence how they use the English language in teaching. This may lead to the teaching being partly conducted in English. For example, the University of Lleida in Spain is a bilingual community with two official languages, Catalan and Spanish (Larrinaga & Amurrio, 2015). English is not their lingua franca, so having it as a medium of instruction is challenging. Cots et al. (2016) state that the administration of the University of Lleida commonly uses the Catalan language and the courses are taught in either Catalan or Spanish.

The students can utilise either language (in class, for papers, and on tests), paying little heed to the language used by the lecturer (Nguyen et al., 2017). Mancho-Barés and Arnó-Macià (2017) claim that the changes brought by English as a component of internationalisation mean the institutional language arrangement moves from bilingualism to trilingualism with the presentation of English. Here, English medium guidance is viewed as a method for improving students' capability in the language. Therefore, the language used in institutions has shifted towards English, although the use of Catalan and Spanish persists.

English is the LOLT in many South African higher institutions (Boughey & McKenna, 2016). Hurst and Mona (2017) mention that using different languages from English limits the teaching and learning of the language since the exposure and resources are in English. McKay and Bokhorst-Heng (2017) add that as much as English is used as a LOLT in most South African higher institutions, it does not mean that English is the only language of communication. As a result, this disadvantages students as they cannot easily relate what they learn in their vernacular language to English.

Bolton et al. (2017) point out that other institutions use languages like Afrikaans, isiXhosa, and Sesotho as a medium of instruction. Martinez (2017) further argues that using the above languages may negatively impact students' academic performance as universities use them despite the South African language policy for higher education.

Kwon et al. (2017) advocate the importance of vernacular languages from the sociocultural perspective, highlighting that the mother tongue as a teaching medium promotes easier understanding for students and improves their cognitive abilities, leading to faster learning. The language policy specifies that language should not be a barrier to university access (Le Cordeur, 2017). Furthermore, Aydin and Kaya (2017) state that students who do not use English as a lingua franca hardly learn any content, as they do not understand the language used to communicate. Nkuna (2017) states that South African universities have developed their language policy to display diversity and multiculturalism, not to disadvantage students. Also, the language policies in universities may lead to the language used in teaching and learning being different in each institution, which can lead to disadvantages if students move from one institution to another. Some South African higher education institutions tend to use the most dominant language.

For example, Stellenbosch University serves Afrikaans, the University of Zululand serves IsiZulu, and Fort Hare university serves IsiXhosa based on location (Johnson, 2018). Khoza-Shangase and Mophosho (2018) also highlight the importance of language policy revision, arguing that institutions mostly want to include African languages in their policy to redress and eliminate the marginalisation of

languages. Hence, most institutions in South Africa use English in the teaching and learning process, with few using Afrikaans, IsiXhosa, and Sesotho (Rudwick, 2018). Therefore, higher education institutions must ensure that English is taught well in pre-service teacher preparation programmes to promote fluency and literacy in English teachers.

**Approaches used for English language development in teacher education**

The approaches that prepare pre-service teachers for English FAL teaching influence how they teach in the future because institutions largely contribute to their practice. Different higher education institutions employ various approaches in South Africa and globally. Institutions use no universal English language development method (Burgstahler & Cory, 2010). Hasan and Akhand (2010) concur that higher institutions employ various approaches to develop language. For example, the Russian Project Work Method (PWM) allows students to gain knowledge by investigating and responding to an authentic, engaging, and changing question over an extended period (Potsdam, 2017). In the PWM, students must be actively involved and take measures to explore ways to complete a task (Seman et al., 2018). The advantage of this approach includes cultivating teamwork and communication skills.

However, because lecturers act as facilitators and create conditions necessary for students to work together, it may be time-consuming, and other students may hide and let others work alone. An enquiry-oriented approach used in Russia is a Web-quest; students gather all information from the websites (Aydin, 2016). This approach aims at ensuring that students benefit from the knowledge gathered and use it in discussions to improve their English language use. The other is the collaborative approach, which involves students working together when solving problems. It is beneficial when students gain exposure to diverse viewpoints from others from different backgrounds (Wood & Cajkler, 2018). Most approaches employed by Russian higher institutions are collaborative and emphasise teamwork which could be a disadvantage in English language learning, especially when some students are not mostly exposed to English (Leontyeva, 2018). Perhaps the employment of approaches that develop individual skills before group work should be applied so that students independently acquire knowledge and skills before working collaboratively. France, Germany, Italy, Spain, Poland, and Cyprus are some European countries that employ telecollaboration to develop the English language in higher education institutions (Chun, 2015). Telecollaboration is when computers or any digital communication tool are used through social interactions to promote learning (Dooly, 2017). Helm (2015) underscores that European universities use telecollaboration to develop language, which involves drawing in classes of geographically scattered students using web-specialised devices to improve language and intercultural ability. Fuchs et al. (2012) believe that connecting with lecturers and students in telecollaboration offers an opportunity for 'exploratory' practice and 'experiential' demonstration. Telecollaboration experience has likely improved informative multimodal skills, literacy, independence, and the teacher capabilities required for instructing with multimodal advancements (Chun, 2015).

According to O'Dowd (2016), telecollaboration experiences can be grouped into four levels. Firstly, the individual aspect, where people may not have access because of disadvantaged backgrounds and may not afford the technologies involved, highlights the challenges of telecollaboration. Secondly, classroom management and control are compromised because it is a distance learning approach.

For instance, student discipline is not addressed since students are not in the same sphere as management, which can delay progress. Thirdly, socio-institutional affordability may control the development of students based on the institution's economic variables, which can breed inequality. Lastly, it is not conducive to social cohesion.

Regardless of these challenges, this approach could benefit students' language needs, especially when engaging with students from different backgrounds who possibly had the same difficulties when learning English. They could use their experiences to develop language skills.

Meanwhile, South Africa employs inquiry-based learning, a direct approach, a cooperative approach, and a problem-based approach to provide learning ecology strategies for English learning development that cater to linguistically diverse students and embrace diversity in the country (Owusu et al., 2017). Students' vernacular languages should be considered when developing English language use in higher institutions because some are only exposed to English at a university level. So, since proficiency in English requires exposure to the language, students depend on their tongues to be proficient in English. Students' identity and well-being are intrinsically linked to language, so using English and vernacular language could promote better understanding and confidence in students to develop English (Atetwe, 2015). Heugh (2015) advocates for minority and pilgrim tongues in the lecture room, offering evidence that methodologies of dousing and simultaneous bilingualism have some critical semantic and scholarly focuses. For example, applying bilingualism in an English lecture could benefit students by allowing them to express and convey ideas effectively using their vocabulary, making it easier to learn English. Lim and Ansaldo (2015) state that considering minorities for different languages encourages understanding between societies, with positive side projects for network building.

Inquiry-based learning is an approach where students' role in learning is emphasised rather than the lecturer telling them what they should learn or know (Decker-Lange, 2018). Higher institutions use this approach to allow students to develop English language research skills, reinforce curriculum content, and promote a deeper understanding of the content (Acar & Tuncdogan, 2018). However, the aims require much planning from both the lecturers and students, which may be lacking from both parties, resulting in the inquiry-based learning approach failing to develop student English proficiency.

Khalaf and Mohammed Zin (2018) assert that the inquiry-based approach disadvantages the student since too much time is spent on the student inquiries, and many topics could be excluded. However, with time management on each task and proper planning from lecturers and students, all topics could be covered, ensuring students understand the content.

The cooperative approach combines classroom-based education with practical work experience to provide academic support (Ehsan et al., 2019). In English lectures, the cooperative approach can be applied to group discussions where students simultaneously share ideas on a topic and improve vocabulary and communication skills. Meanwhile, Direct instruction is an approach whereby lecturers are responsible for presenting academic information to students (Istikomah, 2019). The direct method ignores speaking as a fundamental skill in English because the lecturer becomes the primary source of information while students are passive. Since students grasp knowledge by listening to what lecturers say, they may make numerous spelling errors, which could hinder their understanding of the content and prevent their development in the English language.

Another approach is problem-based, which uses real-world problems to promote students' learning of concepts and principles, encouraging independent learning and greater understanding (Ulger, 2018). The use of different approaches helps accommodate various students and promotes learning. Thus, there is more development in the English language. Moreover, English language development in higher institutions requires eliminating the re-meditation of language development offerings that often assume students are monolinguals who share the discourse and language of the institution. Moses and Kelly (2017) suggested that higher institutions should link students' language development to the diversity management of the institution's strategy and ensure that the institution's linguistic hybridity is affirmed. Alogali (2018) also stated that linguistic diversity should be embraced to develop the English language. This could be done by ensuring a link between institutional literacies and social change to promote creative opportunities to conceive curriculum design.

## II. CONCLUSION

This study aimed to determine how pre-service teachers were prepared to become English FAL teachers to impart knowledge that may develop teacher training education. A systematic literature review was conducted, and the inclusion and exclusion criteria and indicators of quality assessments were used to extract data relevant to this research. Numerous research has presented different results regarding how pre-service teachers are prepared for English FAL teaching. Moreover, past studies focused on pre-service teachers' beliefs, perceptions, and self-efficacy during their preparation programme, not the methodologies employed. Therefore, a review of the secondary literature was required to determine the preparation programme of pre-service teachers and provide recent findings.

A search strategy assisted in gathering relevant literature through journals, databases, books, and reference lists. Fifty studies conducted in Turkey, Indonesia, Japan, Australia, Saudi Arabia, the United States, Cyprus, Germany, Malaysia, Philippines, Vietnam, and the United Kingdom, published between 2010 and 2020, were included in the study. A data extraction sheet was employed to extract information from the studies that contributed to the review.

The literature revealed that a dominant teacher training programme is four years, with the final year being the practicum teaching. Micro teaching, communicative language teaching, technology-based teaching, and grammar teaching approaches are employed in the preparation programme. Most of these approaches do not emphasise orals, leading to pre-service English FAL teachers feeling inadequate in speaking English. Bachelor of Education, Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Secondary Education, and Bachelor of Elementary Education are requirements for becoming an English teacher in various countries. The preparation programme of pre-service teachers indicates a gap between theory and practice because they only go for teaching practice (to teach and not to observe) in the final year of study. This practicum period is insufficient because pre-service teachers need experience in classroom management, application of different teaching strategies, time management, curriculum coverage, and improvision techniques should they teach in schools that lack resources. This could be developed if they started their practicum in their first year of study.

## III.RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was inspired by the researcher's personal experiences as an English FAL teacher. During these experiences, feelings of inadequacy and challenges in teaching and learning English FAL arose, which led to questions on how pre-service English FAL teachers are trained to teach.

The knowledge from the empirical research on how pre-service English teachers are prepared to teach English FAL can provide solutions to addressing the challenges experienced during teaching in the workplace. The literature on various preparation programmes from a national and global perspective provides insight into the importance of curriculum, pedagogy, and subject content. Its approaches to teaching can contribute to professional development and increase confidence and knowledge in English FAL teachers.

However, limitations emerged during the research, such as not finding any information about the love for teaching. It is assumed that if one loves teaching, everything else comes easy. Although one can excel in content and pedagogical knowledge of the English subject, it does not override the frustrations the job brings because there is not much love for it. Another factor contributing to frustrations and feelings of inadequacy at work is whether a person wants to be a teacher or loves being an English FAL teacher but does not understand the reality of the career. Perhaps there should also be a course in the preparation programme to ensure that teachers are not demotivated in their teaching world.

This study's theoretical framework (Pedagogical Content Knowledge) helped clarify the importance of speaking English and knowing English as a subject, meaning knowing about approaches, teaching materials, subject content, and assessment and evaluation techniques. Pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986) deals with knowledge of what is being taught (content knowledge) and how it is taught (pedagogical knowledge) (Lee & Lee, 2017). In addition, a lesson could be planned with multiple strategies to help meet the learning needs of all learners. The theoretical framework also encourages the correction of misconceptions; for instance, as an English FAL teacher dealing with cases where learners are Africans and feel that English is used to replace their culture. Thus, creating an effective teaching and learning environment and understanding the subject content and pedagogy, learners' activities, curriculum goals, the school, and the community is vital.

Furthermore, there were other limitations to the study that can provide suggestions for future studies. This study is a desktop study and did not involve any live participants. The researcher did not have the opportunity to probe for more information on questions from direct sources to gain more insight but provided an outline of what is in the literature. Thus, future studies could do qualitative or quantitative research or mixed-method study that gives access to more insight. The current study excluded literature published before 2010 and after 2020, which could have left out important information. Most articles that met the inclusion criteria lacked specificity on the approaches used to prepare English FAL teachers, which signals a gap in the literature. It could be because this study has inclusion and exclusion criteria that left out articles with the specified approaches used in pre-service teacher preparation for English FAL teaching. For example, a study by Liaw (2009) on pre-service teacher preparation for English FAL teaching indicated the approaches used but were excluded based on the year of publication. Perhaps future studies should consider expanding the criteria for including studies, which would be beneficial for gaining more information.

Moreover, pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986) did not include much information on 21st-century learning skills and technology integrated into the present teaching and learning. Therefore, future studies could employ technological pedagogical content knowledge (Koehler, Mishra & Cain, 2013) as their theoretical framework or any other framework covering current teaching and learning trends to gain more insight into how pre-service teachers are prepared. Also, the literature used in the study does not specify extensively what pre-service teachers' instructors or trainers think about the curriculum and duration of teacher practicum. Future studies could research the perceptions of pre-service English teachers' instructors of teacher preparation programmes.

## IV. CONFLICT OF INTEREST

There are no conflicts of interest.

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