

**INVESTIGATING THE EFFECTS OF FORM-FOCUSED ACTIVITIES
ON THE ACQUISITION OF ARTICLES AND PRONOUNS IN ENGLISH
AMONGST GRADE 11 XHOSA LEARNERS**

By

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Dedication:

To my family and friends whose unending support made this possible.

Some special mentions:

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Summary

The main purpose of this dissertation is to investigate if a teaching method called Focus on Form (FonF) in an English as a Second Language (ESL) class is effective in the acquisition of two grammatical forms namely articles („a”, „an” and „the”) and a selection of pronouns.

In order to test this hypothesis, quantitative research was performed. The analysis of a series of tests was done quantitatively to prove the hypothesis. The dissertation includes a theory section on Social Capital (SC) and discusses why it might play an important part in South Africa and in offering some help to the communities to enable them to help in the education of their children within South Africa.

This dissertation is divided into five chapters. The first chapter introduces the problem and explains how South African education, historically, had devastating effects in the past and continues having a far reaching effect on today’s learners. It discusses why this dissertation focuses on English and highlights how extensively English has spread throughout the world. It contains an explanation of the value of being competent in the English language. The chapter continues with a depiction of the poor pass rates of the end of year high school examinations, The National Senior Certificate (NSC). It explains the significance of the research, the purpose of the study, its theoretical framework and finally what this study proposes.

Chapter two is a literature review of the available literature discussing second language acquisition (SLA) and the difference between English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL). The chapter continues with a detailed description of how English was taught historically with an explanation of the approach being used in this study.

Chapter two continues with details of the historical „Bantu Education Act No 47 of 1953” and the racist policies of the government of the time with an exploration of the effect these policies had on the education of learners. It also specifies the grammatical forms being used in this study. A summary of Black South African English (BSAE) is included accompanied by a description of language transfer. The chapter contains a section on SC, with an explanation of how this term came about historically and what it means. The chapter includes social problems that South Africa is facing today and how these problems tie in with diminished SC. It explains the importance of SC in Education. The chapter concludes with an explanation of how SC can be utilized in communities and why it is important in a democratic country.

Chapter three explains the methodology used in this study as that of positivism and that this study in one sense is purely an empirical study and the reasons behind the choice of methodology. It also explains how a section of this study is pragmatic. Although the testing and analysis is purely statistical, the lessons that took place in the classroom, the interpersonal communication combined with the interaction between the learners and the researcher was not quantitative in nature. This interaction had no outright bearing on the results, but allowed the researcher the opportunity to observe and take notes on the experiences of the learners and the researcher in the classroom. These observations included incidents within the lessons and external problems the learners face which are linked to social issues within the literature. The chapter also contains an explanation of the testing instruments used in this study and how they were developed along with the ethical considerations of the study.

Chapter four details the statistical results of this study. It also contains the write up of the field notes of the researcher who took note of incidents that happened within the classes. There are some examples of family and personal problems related to the learners and details the environment of the school. Some of these issues tie in with the theory included; illustrating the ideas and concerns associated with SC and demonstrates how these social problems are truly part of each learner's life in a township school.

Chapter five offers recommendations to English teachers, the Department of Education (DoE) and to future researchers based on the results of Chapter four. It contains a discussion on how the community can increase SC within their own areas and within the schools.

This study argues that the Education system is in dire need of help as evidenced by the dismal exam results. It also argues that South Africa has a variety of social problems that are contributing to the overall failure and dropout rate in schools. It offers some general suggestions on how the community can work together to build systems within the community, to help themselves and their children to become educated, productive members of society. The only way for the children of South Africa to succeed is with a good education as their starting point.

Keywords

Language Acquisition

Education

English

Grammar

Focus on Form

Sociolinguistics

Abbreviations

Each time an abbreviation is mentioned for the first time in a chapter, the full form is given, followed by the abbreviation. In the rest of that chapter, the abbreviation only is used. In a new chapter using the same abbreviation, the full form is given again the first time it appears.

BSAE: Black South African English

DOE: Department of Education

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

FonF: Focus on Form

HESA: Higher Education South Africa

HIV: Human Immunodeficiency Virus

IELTS: International English Language Testing System

NBT: National Benchmark Tests

NSC: National Senior Certificate

SC: Social Capital

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TB: Tuberculosis

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

TESOL: Teaching English as a Second Language

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language

CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introductory remarks

In 1994, South Africa politically walked away from a very troubled past as a new democratic era was voted in. The new rainbow nation held great promise for the South African people and everyone looked forward to the fruits of their toils. But change does not happen immediately and there are still remnants of the previous systems that affect the young South Africans of today.

One remnant notably was the previous educational system, primarily the „Bantu Education Act No 47 of 1953“, whose unfair practices in the past left a generation of children battling with catastrophic effects on their academic abilities. The government schools of today are facing a different set of challenges, but they are just as serious, such as a lack of resources and funding, large classes and, in some cases, a dismal pass rate in the final end of year examinations.

Education, unquestionably, is a vital need in any country. In South Africa, all the final high school graduate examinations, other than the languages and those that are written in Afrikaans, the National Senior Certificate (NSC), are written in English. Therefore, it is of prime importance that learners are as competent in English as possible to give them the best chance at succeeding academically, thus enabling them to progress onto tertiary education.

South Africa is home to eleven official languages and although English is used extensively throughout the business and education sectors “it only ranks joint fifth out of 11 as a home language” (www.southafrica.info 2009, 1).

There are, according to Lewis (2009, 1), in South Africa during the 2006 census:

4,740,000 Afrikaans speakers

3,670,000 English speakers

7,790,000 Xhosa speakers

9,980,000 Zulu speakers

980,000 Venda speakers

1,940,000 Tsonga speakers

1,010,000 Swati speakers

4,240,000 Sotho speakers

4,090,000 Sepedi speakers

640,000 Ndebele speakers

3,410,000 Tswana speakers in South Africa

There are also a number of unofficial languages that are used within South Africa namely Hindi, Chinese, Swahili and Urdu.

The Census in Brief (2001,6) gives the total population of South Africa as 44,818,778. The distribution of this population is illustrated in Figure 1 below.

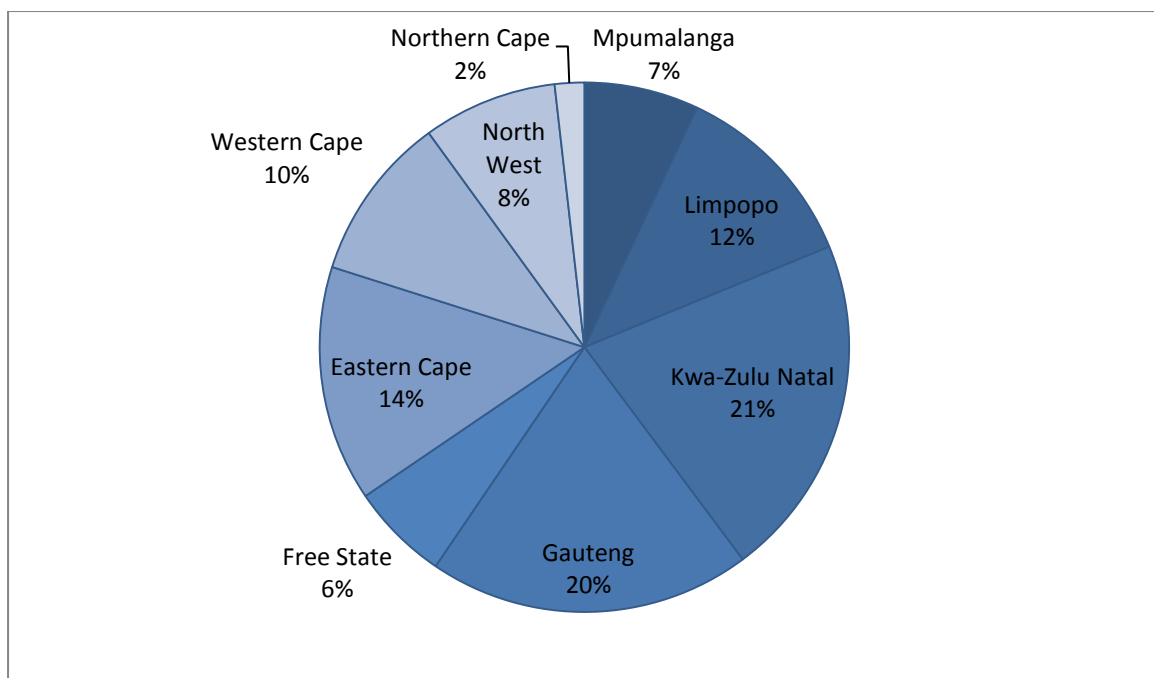


Figure 1: Distribution of population in South Africa in 2001

South African people are divided into 4 racial categories – Black, White, Coloured and Indian/Asians according to The Census in Brief (2001, 11). This breakdown is illustrated in the following graph. Seventy-nine per cent of the entire population are Black African people. The Northern and Western Cape have a larger percentage of resident Coloured people than in other provinces.

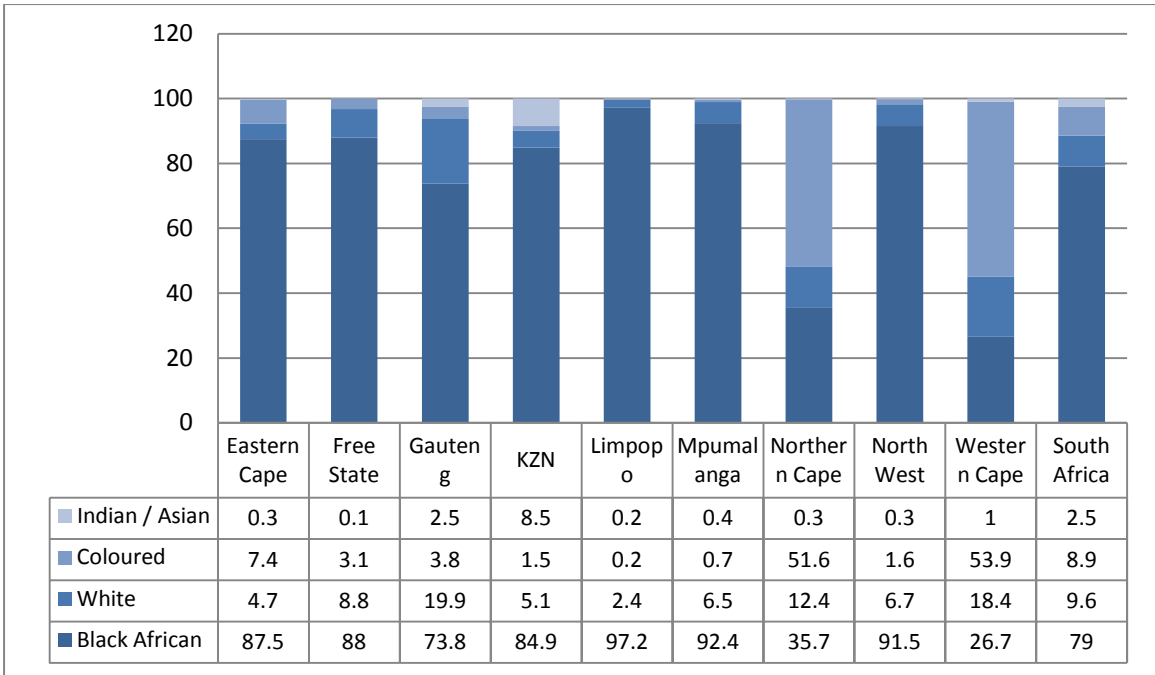


Figure 2: Population by province and population group percentages.

Language within South Africa is divided by use into the various ethnic groups currently resident in the country. The following graph illustrates the percentage of people who speak each of the eleven official languages as their home language within South Africa according to the Census in Brief (2001, 14).

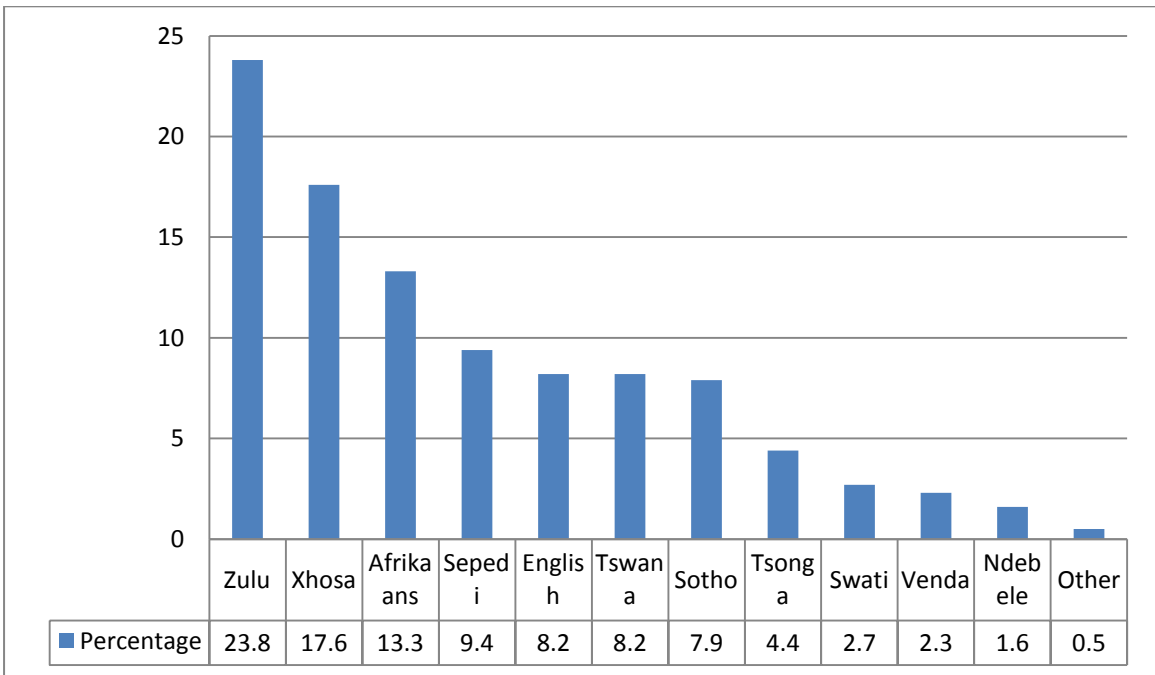


Figure 3: Distribution of the population by language most often spoken at home.

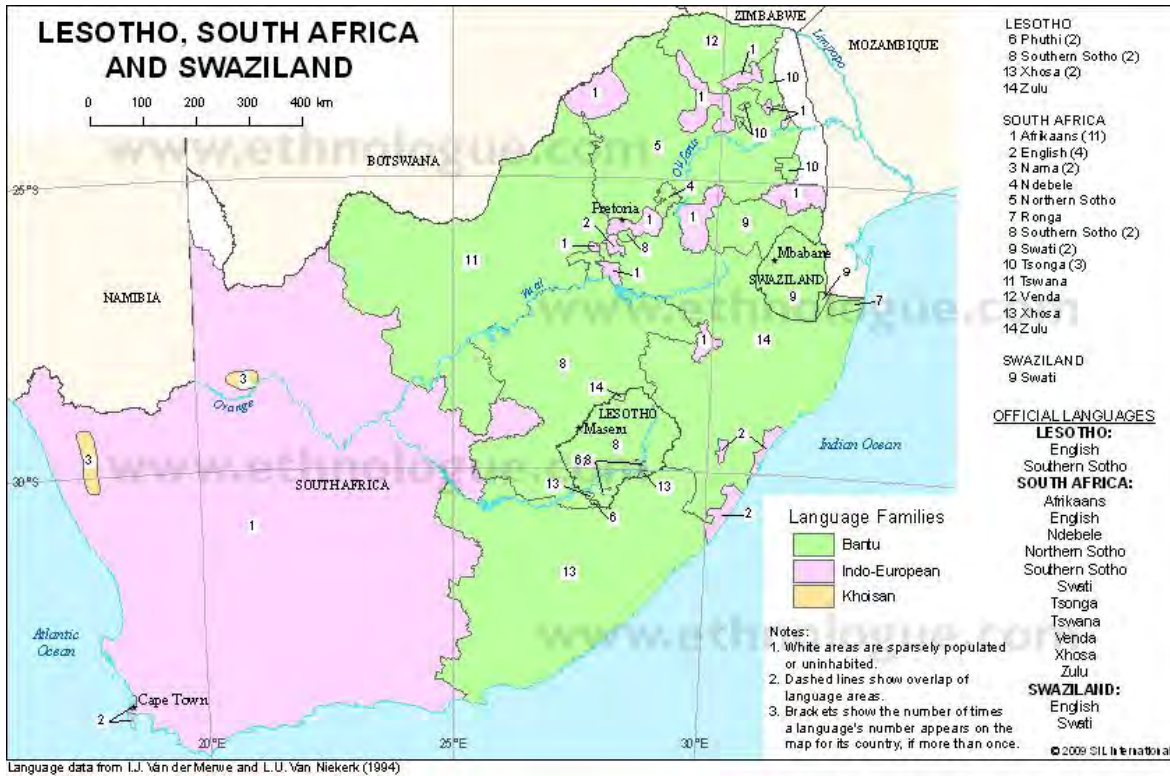
Table 1 illustrates each of the home languages used according to the Census in Brief (2001, 16) within provinces by percentage. In the Eastern Cape, which is where this study takes place, the largest home language spoken is Xhosa, which 83.4% of the population speak as their home language. This is followed by 9.3% of speakers who use Afrikaans as their home language and then 3.6% of people who use English as their home language. These figures demonstrate that most English learners within the Eastern Cape are L2 learners.

<u>Home Language</u>	<u>Eastern Cape</u>	<u>Free State</u>	<u>Gauteng</u>	<u>KZN</u>	<u>Limpopo</u>
Afrikaans	9.3	11.9	14.4	1.5	2.3
English	3.6	1.2	12.5	13.6	0.5
Ndebele	0.1	0.4	1.9	0.2	1.5
Xhosa	83.4	9.1	7.6	2.3	0.3
Zulu	0.8	5.1	21.5	80.9	0.7
Sepedi	0.0	0.3	10.7	0.1	52.1
Sotho	2.4	64.4	13.1	0.7	1.3
Tswana	1.0	6.8	8.4	0.1	1.6
Swati	0.1	0.3	1.4	0.1	1.1
Venda	0.0	0.1	1.7	0.0	15.9
Tsonga	0.0	0.3	5.7	0.0	22.4
Other	0.2	0.2	1.0	0.4	0.3
Total	100	100	100	100	100
<u>Home Language</u>	<u>Mpumalanga</u>	<u>Northern Cape</u>	<u>North West</u>	<u>Western Cape</u>	<u>South Africa</u>
Afrikaans	6.2	68	7.5	55.3	13.3
English	1.7	2.5	1.2	19.3	8.2
Ndebele	12.1	0.1	1.3	0.0	1.6
Xhosa	1.5	6.2	5.8	23.7	17.6
Zulu	26.4	0.3	2.5	0.2	23.8
Sepedi	10.8	0.1	4.2	0.0	9.4
Sotho	3.7	1.1	5.7	0.7	7.9
Tswana	2.7	20.8	65.4	0.1	8.2
Tswati	30.8	0.1	0.6	0.0	2.7
Venda	0.2	0.0	0.5	0.0	2.3
Tsonga	3.8	0.0	4.7	0.0	4.4

Other	0.3	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.5
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Table 1: Home languages within the South African provinces by percentage.

The map below illustrates the linguistic spread of languages within South Africa.



Lewis (2009, 1)

Figure 4: A linguistic map of South Africa.

One result of this linguistic diversity is that:

All 11 languages have had a profound effect on each other. South African English, for example, is littered with words and phrases from Afrikaans, Zulu and other African languages. African-language speakers often pepper their speech with English and Afrikaans, as this Zulu example recorded in Soweto by MJH Mfusi shows (English is in italics, and Afrikaans in bold):

I-Chiefs isidle nge-referee's *optional time*,
 otherwise ngambe **sleg. Maar** why benga stopi *this system*
 ye-*injury time*?

Chiefs (a local soccer team) have won owing
 to the referee's optional time, otherwise they could have lost. But why
 is this system of injury time not phased out? (English translation)

(www.southafricainfo.co.za 2009, 1)

But even with the great linguistic diversity present in South Africa today, English is the country's lingua franca and is also the primary language of business and politics and education according to South Africa Info (2009, 1).

This dissertation looks at one approach used in English as a Second Language (ESL) teaching that offers assistance in improving English acquisition. The research endeavours to find out if this approach can help learners acquire certain English grammatical forms effectively.

This dissertation explores the efficacy of a Focus on Form (FonF) approach to teaching aspects of English grammar to second language (L2) speakers of English. The study was a longitudinal one carried out over a seven month period in which an intervention was made in the experimental class to test the hypothesis about how effective a FonF approach might be to the acquisition and learning of the article system and selected aspects of the pronominal system in English. The study was conducted in a high school in a poor township in one of the larger cities in South Africa.

This dissertation also details a sociological concept called Social Capital (SC). SC is, according to Portes (1998, 2), a concept in which involvement and participation in groups can have positive consequences for the individual and the community. He continues by discussing the positive effects of SC, when it is expanded by tight community networks, is proving useful to parents, teachers and police authorities as they seek to maintain discipline and promote compliance among those under their care.

SC in its positive form works as a „network“, where people trust one another and come to one another for help and for support. The reason that SC is included and discussed in this study is that the researcher sees it as a possible way for „lower-income“ or impoverished communities to help improve the education of learners in school. This may be achieved by having the people of the community come together and work together in groups, to try and resolve problems where ever possible, or purely to offer support to those with social problems and difficult lives. It has been suggested that difficulties in learners' lives may affect their ability to learn effectively.

Demand for education may not be present because of the opportunity costs of educating children: parents may prefer that their children work to supplement household income, do household chores, or care for sick family members. In African countries afflicted by AIDS, children may stay out of school to care for sick parents or orphaned siblings. Opportunity costs make even free schooling unaffordable for some families.

(Hillman and Jenkner 2004, 1)

The learners in poor communities are faced with a variety of challenges that they contend with on a daily basis. When, for example, a 15-year-old child is the head of the household because both parents have died from Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) and they are worrying about where their next meal will come from for themselves and their 2 or 3 siblings, it makes concentrating on school work very difficult.

Brady-Smith et al (1998, 1) explain that in a study done where children from poor families were compared with learners from higher income families using national datasets in the United States of America, they discovered that poor learners are twice as likely as non-poor learners to have to repeat a grade, to have been expelled or suspended from school, or to have dropped out of high school. This was evident in this FonF study, with some of the control group being as old as twenty-one in Grade 11, when the normal age is around 16-17. Most of the older learners were repeating the same grade again and again until they passed.

There are a number of theoretical reasons given for the poor academic performance of learners; a couple of these reasons are health and nutrition. When one is living in abject poverty, the main goal is to try and purchase as much food as the budget allows. Nutritionally beneficial food may not be a viable choice. The amount of money available will dictate what type of food is purchased.

In South Africa, the cheaper foodstuffs are those made from white flour, like pasta and white bread. The more nutritionally beneficial foods for example: whole wheat bread or whole wheat pasta tend to be more expensive. A lettuce is more expensive than a loaf of white bread and a loaf of white bread will feed more people than a lettuce will. Good quality lean meat is usually expensive; the lower grade meat with more substantially more fat is likely to be more affordable.

Parental health is also seen to play a large part in the learners' education. Parents dealing with serious health issues like the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) and Tuberculosis (TB) may not be able to care for a learner and provide a stimulating home environment. "Findings emphasize the importance of mental stimulation in the home and the benefits of a high-protein diet. During the past two decades, research has shown that most of the brain is "built" after birth in a process that depends on factors such as these" (Bainbridge and Lasley 2002, 1).

In poverty stricken homes, the odds are stacked against the learner performing well at school. This is before examining the detrimental effects of crime and sexual abuse on learners which is prevalent within the townships in South Africa. With a high level of SC, community groups may work together to try and find solutions to some of these problems.

1.2 Focus on English

This research project focuses on English because of its standing as an international language and the role it plays in South Africa and the world as the language of both education and business.

English has become the de facto „lingua franca“ in South Africa in recent years. Since the end of apartheid and the introduction of eleven official languages in the country, English has gained in importance. In South Africa, “of eleven official languages, where about 92% of the 44 million people have a mother tongue other than English...English seems to be functioning as an unofficial language of wider communication” (Puhl 1997, 2 cited in Weir 2010, 1).

Should any South African wish to study, or work internationally, it is likely that they would need to be proficient in English. Universities in developed countries like England, Australia, Canada and America all require English as the medium of communication and educational instruction. Any learners who wish to study in one of these countries would be required to take either a „Test of English as a Foreign Language“ (TOEFL) if they want to study in America or an „International English Language Testing System“ (IELTS) examination should they choose to study in England, Australia or Canada.

Learners require high results in these tests to be considered for admission to any university. These examinations are also being used for immigration purposes and by companies hoping to employ South African citizens. These tests are in place to ensure the applicants are competent enough to cope using English and their medium of communication in these countries.

One of the reasons that English has spread worldwide is partly due to colonisation. To demonstrate this spread, Bhatt (2001, 530) uses the concentric circle model which was adapted from Kachru (1997, 1). In this model, there are three circles, the „inner“ circle, the „outer“ circle and the „expanding“ circle.

Figure 1 below demonstrates the expansion of English world wide from the traditional bases of English in the „inner“ circle like England, Australia, and The United States to the „outer“ circle. Within countries that are classified as being in the „outer“ circle, English is not a native language but is very important and in some cases has an official status. This circle encompasses countries like Bangladesh, Kenya, India and South Africa.

English was then seen to spread throughout the world further to the „expanding“ circle, where it is now used as „lingua franca“ for business and international relations. This „expanding“ circle includes countries like China, Egypt, and Korea and the continent of South America.

There are an estimated 100-1000 million worldwide speakers of English as a Foreign Language.

South Africa is situated within the „outer“ circle, which means that even though English is not a native language of this country, it has been given official status. English is used throughout the schooling system and in business alongside Afrikaans and the other nine official languages.

Today, English is the country's lingua franca, and the primary language of government, business, and commerce. It is a compulsory subject in all schools, and the medium of instruction in most schools and tertiary institutions. According to the 2001 census, English is spoken as a home language by 8.2% of the population (3,673,206 people) – one in three of whom are not white.

(www.southafricainfo.co.za 2009, 1)

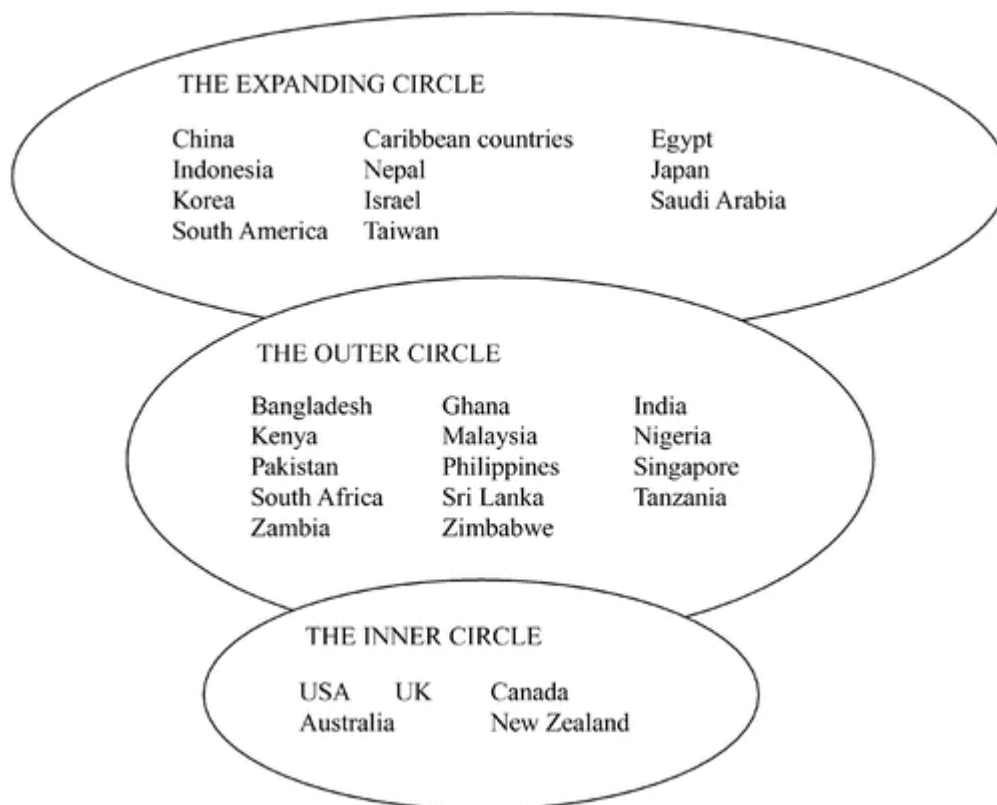


Figure 5: Kachru's concentric circle model of the expansion of English.

Kachru (1997, 1)

Table 2 below shows the number of English speakers in a variety of countries, this demonstrates that English is an international language and has spread worldwide. If a person wants to be successful internationally in this ever shrinking globalised world, English

proficiency in the business place or in academia is a pre-requisite. Research has shown that a key trend has been identified in the numbers of people learning English worldwide and this “is likely to peak at around 2 billion in the next 10-15 years” (Graddol 2006, 14). This is further supported by the fact that English is at the centre of most globalisation mechanisms and this globalisation trend will affect its future in Asia according to Graddol (2006, 40).

English Speakers Around the World							
Country	# of speakers	Country	# of speakers	Country	# of speakers	Country	# of speakers
Algeria	1 mill	Ethiopia	2.4-4 mill	Lesotho	.16 mill	Senegal	.12 mill
Angola	3 mill	Fiji	.4 mill	Liberia	2.5 mill	Serbia	1.2 mill
Argentina	3.5 mill	Finland	.8 mill	Macau	.1 mill	Sierra Leone	.6-3.9 mill
Austria	1.5 mill	France	11.9 mill	Madagascar	1.1 mill	Singapore	1.1-1.9 mill
Bangladesh	3.8-8.1 mill	Gambia	.12 mill	Malawi	.75 mill	Slovakia	.16 mill
Belgium	2.1 mill	Germany	28.1 mill	Malaysia	4-5.8 mill	Slovenia	.43 mill
Benin	2.4 mill	Ghana	1-3 mill	Malta	2.5 mill	Somalia	2.6 mill
Botswana	1 mill	Guatemala	24 mill	Micronesia	.1 mill	South Africa	5.3-30 mill
Brazil	9 mill	Guyana	9 mill	Morocco	2.9 mill	Spain	4.1 mill
Bulgaria	1.6 mill	Haiti	3 mill	Mozambique	.77 mill	Sri Lanka	.7-2.6 mill
Burkina Faso	2.5 mill	Honduras	.1 mill	Nepal	.6-4.7 mill	Sweden	4.1 mill
Burundi	5.3 mill	Hong Kong	1-42 mill	Netherlands	8.2 mill	Switzerland	1.4 mill
Cameroon	1.1-6 mill	Hungary	.6 mill	Niger	1.1 mill	Tanzania	2.8-3.7 mill
Other Caribbean Ctry	1.7-2.3 mill	India	28-139 mill	Nigeria	3.6-44.3 mil	Thailand	5.7 mill
Chile	5 mill	Indonesia	10.6 mill	Norway	27 mill	Trin & Tob	.6-1.2 mill
China	1.3-200 mill	Israel	2 mill	Pakistan	2.5-13.2 mil	Turkey	2.3 mill
Colombia	.58 mill	Italy	2.9 mill	P-N Guinea	2.4 mill	Uganda	5.2 mill
Croatia	.64 mill	Ivory Coast	.66 mill	Philippines	30.7-50 mil	Venezuela	1.8-2 mill
Cyprus	28 mill	Jamaica	1.6-2.3 mill	Poland	1.4 mill	W. Samoa	.1 mill
Czech Rep	5 mill	Japan	12.3 mill	Portugal	1.3 mill	Yemen	.9 mill
Denmark	22 mill	Jordan	1.4 mill	Puerto Rico	1.5 mill	Zaire	1.1 mill
Egypt	22 mill	Kenya	.7-18.4 mill	Romania	1.1 mill	Zambia	.9-2 mill
El Salvador	1.9 mill	South Korea	14.7 mill	Russia	5.8 mill	Zimbabwe	1.9-3 mill
Estonia	.1 mill	Lebanon	1.1 million	Saudi Arabia	2.9 mill		

Table 2: Number of English speakers around the world - 1996

<http://cis.org>

There is a requirement for a „common language“ for people to be able to communicate with one another around the world for what ever reason they choose, be it for business or education or tourism. English has become a common language or „lingua franca“. Hence this research project focuses on the acquisition of English.

1.3 The problem

English is considered by many as a worldwide lingua franca. It is the international language of business and is used in many English speaking countries as the language which educational facilities such as universities present their classes in. In South Africa, the majority of universities present their lectures in English and the examinations are in English. The NSC, which all learners wanting to graduate from high-school must write, is administered in English, with the exception of Afrikaans speakers who can write in Afrikaans. Learners need to pass this examination in order to graduate from high school.

The following graph demonstrates the results of the 2008 NSC. There were 533,561 learners who wrote the end of year exams.

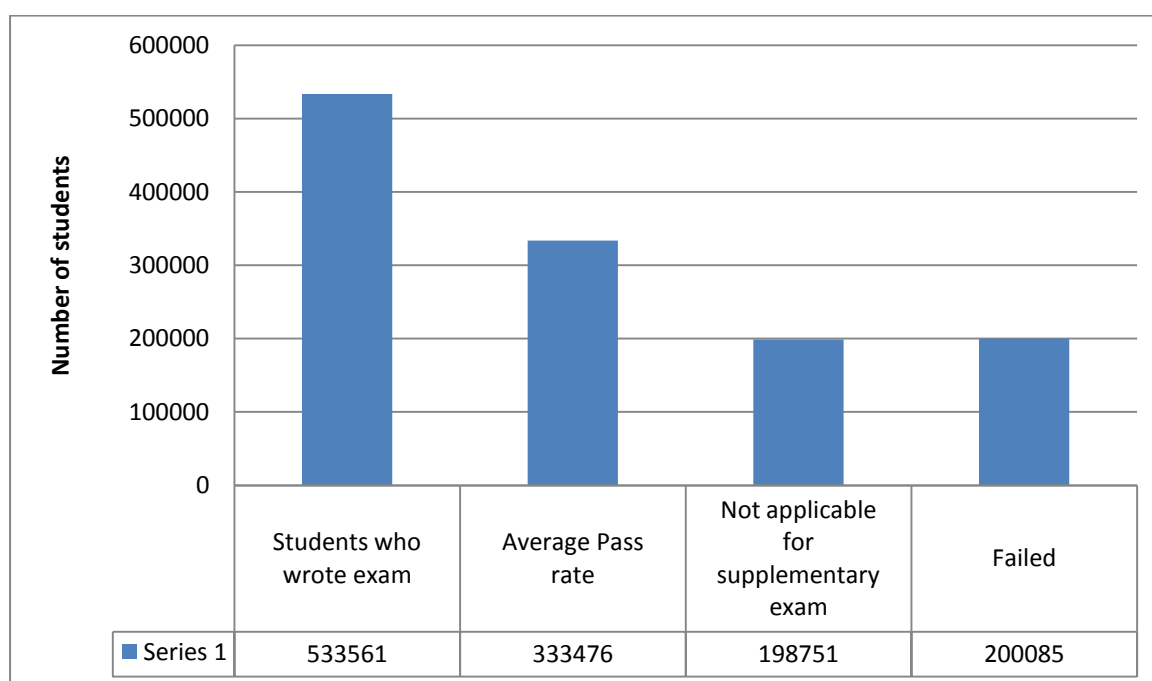


Figure 6: Learners who wrote the National Senior Certificate in 2008

(Department of Education 2009, 1)

The national pass rate for learners in the 2008 examinations was 62.5%, while “provinces that achieved below the national average were the Eastern Cape, Kwazulu-Natal, Limpopo and Mpumalanga” (Department of Education 2009, 1).

The following graph demonstrates the number of schools nationwide whose results fell below the average pass rate of 62.5%.

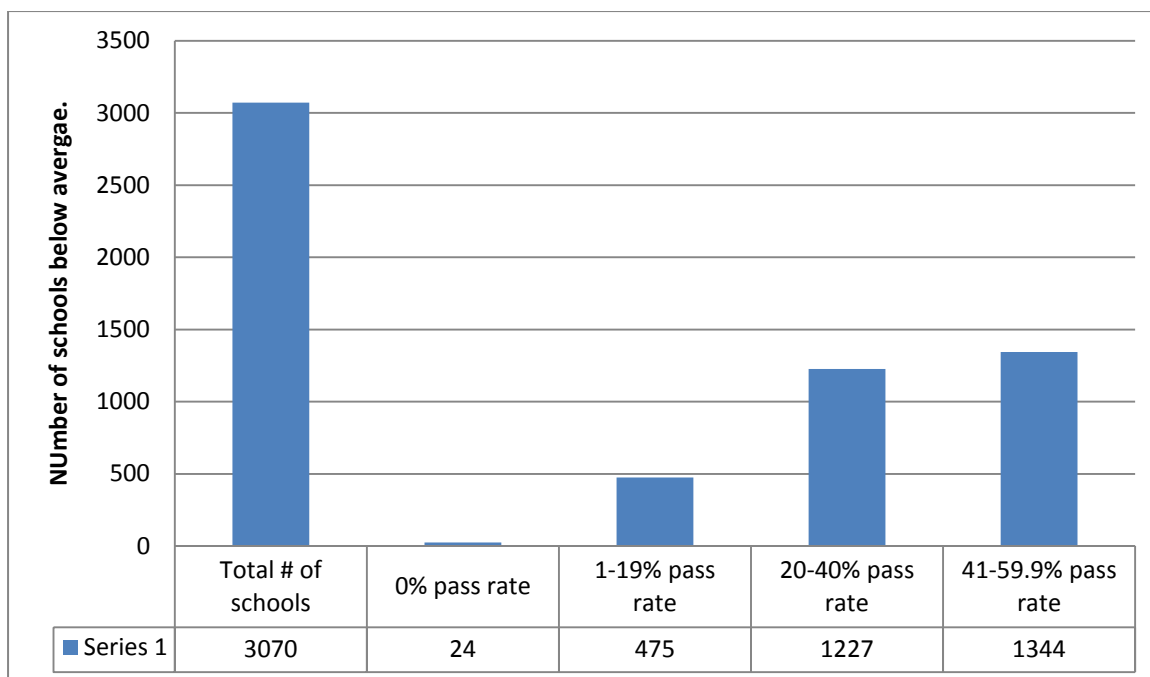


Figure 7: The number of schools countrywide that fell below the national average of 62.5%

(Department of Education 2009, 3)

The above graph demonstrates how many schools scored below the national average of 62.5% with 24 schools achieving a 0% pass rate.

To obtain a pass rate in the NSC a learner needs to do the following:

According to the Department of Education, firstly the learner has to write exams in seven subjects. Of these seven subjects, four are compulsory, the compulsory subjects are two languages, mathematics and life orientation. The learners can then select three other subjects based on their own preferences. To obtain a pass, three subjects must be passed with a minimum of 40% and three other subjects with a minimum of 30% (2009,2).

This pass rate does not allow entrance into tertiary educational institutions however. For a learner to enter into a tertiary educational institution they need to “Pass NSC with: An achievement rating of 4 (50 - 59 %) or better in four subjects from the designated list, together with any other university requirements:

Applicants who wish to enrol for a degree programme need to ensure that four of their seven subjects are from the designated list.
 The list already includes three of the four compulsory subjects for obtaining the NSC, namely, Languages, Maths or Maths Literacy.
 A learner must then select one or more subjects from the list below, provided that they are not from the same group in order to apply for a degree programme.

Accounting	Languages
Agricultural Sciences	Life Sciences
Business Studies	Mathematics or Mathematical Literacy
Dramatic Arts	Music
Economics	Physical Sciences
Engineering Graphics and Design	Religion Studies
Geography	Visual Arts
History	Consumer Studies
Information Technology	

(Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University 2010, 1)

The entry requirements of universities in South Africa do not correlate with the pass marks of the NSC. The percentage of learners who achieve results that make them eligible for university is a vastly different figure from the 62.5% of learners that actually pass the NSC. The discrepancy between the high-school pass rate and the level of ability required for a degree at university forced universities to make their own entrance examinations to determine the actual academic levels of high school graduates. One of these level tests is „The National Benchmark Tests“ (NBT) which were devised to try and give an accurate assessment of learners“ abilities.

This project was developed to demonstrate inefficiencies in Higher Education and to address concerns about how to interpret the new National Senior Certificate. There were difficulties in identifying students“ educational needs and there was lack a lack of appropriate curriculum flexibility at entry to meet these needs. The project aimed to provide additional information about performance in core underlying areas of Academic Literacy, Quantitative Literacy and Mathematics. The tests categorised students into three domains depending on whether they fell into the proficient, intermediate or basic bands. [Higher Education South Africa] HESA identified challenges with students who placed in the intermediate band. These challenges would impact on their chances to achieve a degree of quality within a reasonable time. The universities would have to put in programmes to assist these students with their needs. Students in the proficient band did not need much assistance. An institution that admitted students that fell into the basic band had to demonstrate to the Department of Education that it was involved in initiatives to help these students.

(Department of Higher Education 2009, 1)

According to a report at a Department of Higher Education briefing in 2009, where there was a explanation of the National Benchmarks Tests Project, members “thought that there must be a serious discrepancy between the National Senior Certificate (NSC) examinations, which most learners passed, and the National Benchmark Tests (NBT) which the majority did not pass” (Department of Education 2009, 2).

To illustrate this discrepancy one needs to note that out of the 62.5% of learners who passed the 2008 NSC examinations, only 107,462, or 20.2%, had results that were high enough to pass the minimum entry requirements for university (Stuijt 2009, 1).

The following graph illustrates the percentage of learners who passed the NSC exams and the percentage who achieved scores that enabled them entry into university; it also illustrates the failure or dropout rate of learners who actually made it into university.

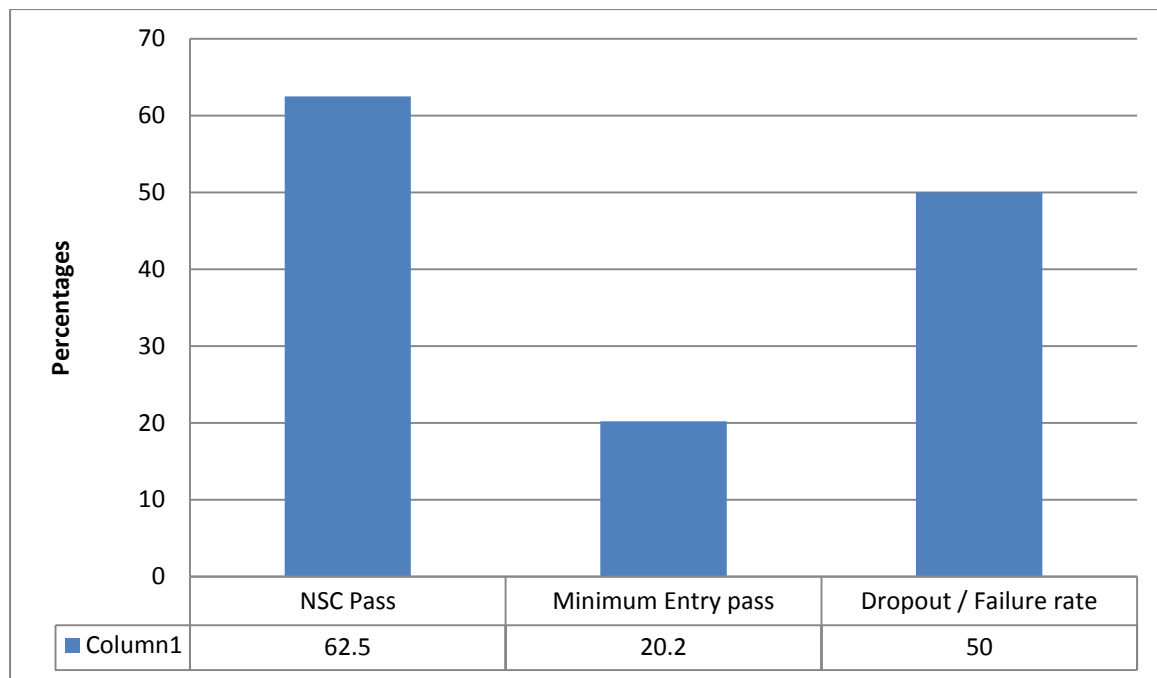


Figure 8: Percentages of learners from 2008 NSC

(*The Mail and Guardian*. January 12, 2009, 1)

Figure 8 demonstrates the NSC pass rate of 62.5% in the first column and compares this figure with the rate of learners who met the minimum entry requirements for university admission in the second column. The percentage of learners who achieved the minimum results to make them eligible for university was only 20.2% of the learners who wrote the NSC examinations. Of this 20.2% of learners who actually make it into university there is still not a guarantee of graduating. This percentage “means little in the context of a 50% failure and dropout rate at university level” (*The Mail and Guardian*. January 12, 2009, 1). Of the 533,561 learners who wrote the examinations, then, only approximately 53,890 learners will eventually graduate from university. This is a very low one in ten ratio. One needs to look at why so many learners fail or drop out of university. Could this possibly be due to learners not being able to cope using English at an advanced academic level?

The 2010 NSC Results are as follows:

- 67.8% of the 537 543 full-time matriculants passed.
- 642,001 learners wrote the exams. This figure includes 104,458 part-time learners, as well as some candidates from independent (private) schools.
- 23.5% of the full-time candidates achieved university-entrance passes (up from last year's 19.9%).
- 58 subjects were written.
- Quality assurance body Umalusi retained "raw" marks in 39 of the 58 subjects.
- Umalusi took marks up in nine subjects and down in 10.
- Provincial pass rates: Gauteng – 78.6% (last year: 71.8%); Western Cape – 76.8% (75.7%); North West – 75.7% (67.5%); Northern Cape – 72.3% (61.3%); KwaZulu-Natal – 70.7% (61.1%); Free State – 70.7% (69.4%); Eastern Cape – 58.3% (51%); Limpopo – 57.9% (48.9%); Mpumalanga – 56.8% (47.9%).
- Most improved province: Northern Cape (11% increase).
- 504 schools (out of 5,915 nationally) achieved a 100% pass and 127 of these were in the three poorest poverty categories (that is, quintiles one to three).
- 18 schools recorded a 0% pass rate.
- 263,034 candidates wrote maths and 124,749 passed (down from 133,505 in 2009).
- 280,836 candidates wrote maths literacy and 241,576 passed (up by 44,910 from 2009).
- 205,364 candidates wrote physical science and 98,260 of them passed (up from 81,356 in 2009).

(MacFarlane and Seekoi, *The Mail and Guardian*. 2011, 1)

MacFarlane concludes his article with a quote from the Basic Education Minister Angie Motshekga, who called these results a „whopping“ increase from the 2009 results. In 2009, the pass rate was 60.6% and the 2010 pass rate is 67.8%. The total increase in the pass rate between 2009 and 2010 is 7.2%. But there has been some question as to the validity of these results, with Umalusi admitting that they had adjusted the marks but refusing to

explain the details of the adjustment. “In a major public rebuke, respected academic and Umalusi standardisation committee member Professor John Aitchison told City Press it was “appalling” that the body was secretive about the subjects that were adjusted” (Kruger and Chuenyane 2010, 1).

Figure 9 below illustrates the differences between the percentage of learners who passed the NSC examinations and the percentage of learners who achieved university level passes in 2008, 2009 and 2010. The difference is very significant.

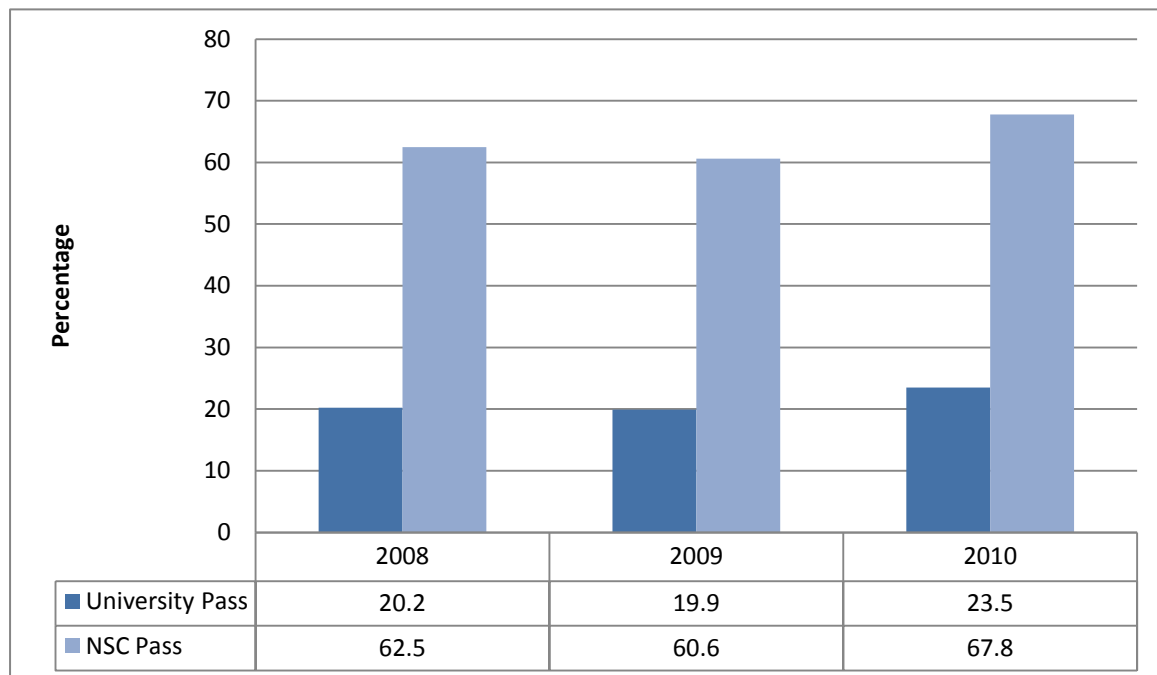


Figure 9: Comparison of NSC pass rates with university level passes in 2008, 2009 and 2010.

The NSC results figures and the above graph clearly demonstrate that South Africa is facing a serious problem within the education sector. The pass rates are unacceptably low and even if they manage to achieve the minimum entry requirements, learners are not coping with university level studies. It is up to the schools to empower their learners” to the optimum level of their abilities to enable them to become productive, useful members of society.

One of the ways they can do this is to ensure each learner is competent in using the English language at levels that are required at tertiary education level, because if they are not, this will hinder him or her dramatically in any degree they choose to register for.

Learners cannot absorb the lessons being taught if they cannot understand what is being said, or be able to write effective assignments and examination papers if they cannot access

the language required. A good level of English is therefore a necessity in all disciplines. It is the tool with which learners can shape their futures.

The lack of an acceptable level of English is evident within South Africa and is demonstrated in various aspects of the media, for example, newspaper reporting and advertising. One also finds an unacceptably low level of English in many levels of government from the local town council minutes to speeches in parliament. An example of this can be seen in the Grade 11 November 2010 „English as a first additional language“ examination paper 1 from the Department of Education. Included as Appendix 1. A number of errors were visible in the paper:

- In the instructions:

Instruction number 3:

Start each section on a NEW page and rule of on completion of EACH section.

“of” is incorrect and should be „off“

- In the comprehension section:

The heading of the reading comprehension is:

Grab the many opportunities.

This sentence is grammatically incorrect. The use of „the“ here is incorrect.

Question 1.1 asks for the FIFA acronym to be written in full, but nowhere in the reading passage do they give the FIFA acronym in full. Therefore, unless the learner knows it prior to the exam he or she cannot answer the question. The purpose of a reading comprehension is to find answers within a text.

Question 1.8.3:

Give a positive advice as to what transport owners should do to their vehicles before transporting visitors to and from games.

The use of the article „a“ between give and positive is incorrect.

Question 1.9:

How can the theme of food be used to embrace:

1. South African brand

2. Diversity

In this question in the first point it should include „a“ to make the first part of the question say „a South African brand“ which is grammatically correct.

- In Section B

Question 2 in the „Instructions section“

1. List SEVEN points in full sentences using no more than 70 words.

„that“ is incorrect in this sentence.

- In Section C: Language

Question 3: Visual Literacy

3.1.1 Study the advertisement and comment on how the spirit of 2010 FIFA World Cup has unified South Africa.

This sentence is missing the article „the“ before 2010.

3.1.4 Why is FIFA World Cup logo included in this advert?

This question is missing the article „the“ before the acronym FIFA.

Whilst some of these errors can be attributed to typing errors and careless error checking after the paper was finalised and before going to print like „of“ instead of „off“ and „that“ instead of „than“. It is obvious that some of the „article“ errors are grammatical and not the result of typing errors. If learners are exposed to this level of English, which, coming from the Ministry of Education, should be of a high level, and what learners should be aiming to achieve, then it is understandable that they do not achieve high results.

1.4 The significance of the research

The aim of this research is to see if a certain teaching approach can help children learn ESL by answering the following question:

- Will using the intervention of a „focus on form“ approach in the teaching of articles and pronouns improve the use of these grammar structures in Grade 11 learners?

In order to answer this question, a study will be undertaken, the focus of the study is a set of three tests which will be administered to an experimental and a control group. After the first

set of tests, the experimental group will undergo a series of lessons using a FonF approach and they will then again be tested to see if the lessons will have had an effect or not.

Should the testing prove that the FonF approach is effective and the researcher comes away from the study with a positive result, the researcher will then use this positive result to inform and guide other ESL teachers so they can integrate FonF lessons into their regular English classes for second language learners in schools, thus giving learners every possible chance of success in their studies.

Should other ESL teachers decide to implement this approach into their classes, the researcher hopes that learners will be able to improve their knowledge of English to be able to proceed onto tertiary education and be better equipped to cope with studies at an advanced academic level.

1.5 The purpose of the study

Based on the above research question, the aim of this research is to see if the FonF approach makes a difference in the acquisition of articles („a“, „an“ and „the“) and a selection of pronouns in an ESL class in a poor township school in the Eastern Cape.

The reason these specific grammatical structures were chosen is because of the difficulty Xhosa language speakers have with the acquisition of them. Nguni language speakers, the class of language to which Xhosa belongs, according to Ayliff (2003, 57), make typified errors in the use of pronouns and articles. Nguni language speakers also do not typically use the „he“ / „she“ pronoun differentiation that the English language has.

The FonF approach has proven successful in ESL classes that are well resourced in certain first world countries. This study takes place in a disadvantaged school with only pen, paper and a chalk board. The researcher wants to determine if this approach can be as effective in underprivileged schools, where there is even a greater need for effective SLA.

1.6 Previous research in South Africa on FonF

There have been relatively few studies completed in South Africa that investigate FonF. There was a PhD study that was undertaken at Stellenbosch University. The title of this study is „Focus on Form in a framework for task-based isiXhosa instruction in a specific purposes multimedia curriculum“ (Steenkamp 2009, 1).

Another PhD study was undertaken at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. The title of this study is „The Efficacy of Form-Focused Instruction on the Morphosyntactic Accuracy of Advanced English Second Language Students“ (Ayliff 2003).

These studies are discussed in more detail in Chapter 2, the literature review.

The lack of research done in South Africa leaves the door wide open for other studies to be undertaken.

1.7 Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework used in this study is the sociolinguistic approach. Johnson and Johnson (1999, 294) describe sociolinguistics as variationist work on regional and social accents and dialects and correlates linguistic variables with speakers socio-economic status, sex and age. There are various related fields to sociolinguistics which include „Ethnography of Communication“ which looks at microlinguistics choices in performing speech acts, uses of form and linguistic routines. A different branch of sociolinguistics is that of sociolinguistics in language teaching.

Sociolinguistics in language teaching incorporates issues like Universal Grammar (UG) and the learners' interlanguage (IL). This is a language system that learners create. An IL "is composed of numerous elements, not the least of which are elements from the NL [Native Language] and the TL [Target Language]... .What is important is that the learners themselves impose structures on the available linguistic data and formulate an internalized system (IL)" (Gass and Selinker 1994, 11). It also includes „Implicit“ and „Explicit“ knowledge.

Implicit learning is acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operations. Explicit learning is a more conscious operation where the individual makes and tests hypotheses in search of a structure. Knowledge attainment can thus take place implicitly (a non conscious and automatic abstraction of the structural nature of the material arrived at from experience and instances), explicitly through selective learning (the learner searching for information and building the testing hypotheses).

(Ellis 1994, 1)

UG was a term coined by Noam Chomsky and explains that language includes knowledge of certain fundamental grammatical rules which humans possess without actually having to learn them. "The approach to second language acquisition known as Universal Grammar (UG)... .within this view, universal principles form part of the mental representation of language. It is the properties of the human mind that make language universals the way they are" (Gass and Selinker 1994, 121).

Within the framework of sociolinguistics, the researcher will discuss the acquisition of English as a Second Language.

1.8 What this study proposes

This study proposes that the FonF approach is effective in helping ESL learners learn certain grammatical items in English, in this case articles („a“, „an“ and „the“) and a selection of pronouns. It also proposes that this approach can be used by each and every English teacher in ESL classes to help their learners“ master parts of English that are problematic for them. The study also proposes that with an increase of SC, communities may be able to help improve their learners“ academic performance.

In order to research this proposal, the researcher undertook the following study:

1.8.1 Study Outline

Chapter 1 discusses the problem, the significance of the research, the background to the problem and the purpose of the study. It also discusses the theoretical framework.

Chapter 2 provides a literature review on theories to do with FonF studies and SLA. It also explains the problems faced by young South African“s today and the baggage left over from South Africa“s history that has been carried over to the present, which is still affecting education today. There is a review of SC, along with the social issues that are affecting South African society today.

Chapter 3 explains the philosophical framework and the methodology used to implement this research study.

Chapter 4 contains the statistical results of the study along with a discussion of these results. It also gives an anecdotal report of observations in the classroom during the FonF lessons that the researcher made whilst involved in this study.

Chapter 5 offers recommendations for teachers, the Department of Education (DoE) and for other researchers who may be interested in pursuing research using this approach in the future.

1.9 Summary

Chapter 1 gives details on the educational history of South Africa and details how problems in the educational sector still affect today“s youths much like the problems did in the past. It also explains why the focus of this study is on the English language and the acquisition of English and why this is important in today“s society. The chapter gives a breakdown of the number of English speakers in different countries and how English has spread throughout the world.

There is a discussion detailing the problem of education in South Africa in terms of poor pass rates at high school level and what the significance and purpose of this study is. It continues with an explanation of the theoretical framework and offers a breakdown of the five chapters that make up this dissertation. It also explains the basic concept behind SC and how it is part of this study.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the theories of learning and acquiring a second language and how the teaching of second languages has evolved over time. It highlights the differences between English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL), and also includes an in-depth review exploring the literature available on an approach that is used to integrate grammatical forms into communicative classes. This approach is known as the „Focus on Form“ (FonF) approach.

The chapter includes an overview of the historical methods of teaching English, up to and including today’s modern approaches. The chapter continues with a discussion on English in South Africa and the advent of a „new“ English called Black South African English (BSAE).

It concludes with a discussion on the topic of „Social Capital“ (SC) which, according to Portes and Landolt (2000, 531), is the benefits accruing to individuals or families by virtue of their ties with others. It explores the SC of youths and explains the issues in communities that decrease the levels of SC.

Learners come to school with the explicit goal of learning or acquiring skills and knowledge. But there are also a variety of external factors: personal problems, financial problems and peer problems, which play a part in the learning process and these issues, can be a barrier in the acquisition of knowledge.

2.2 Differences between EFL and ESL

EFL and ESL are two forms of English language teaching found in some educational institutions at present. EFL training occurs when an English teacher is teaching English to speakers of a different language in a non-English speaking country. An example of this could be an English teacher who is working in Japan, teaching native Japanese speakers English. The learners only use English in the classroom. Once they leave the classroom they rarely have any further exposure to the language at all until the next class. This form differs from ESL.

ESL occurs when a teacher is teaching English to non-English speaking people but in an English speaking country. An example of this could be when a Brazilian national comes to live and work in South Africa and has to converse daily in English at their place of employment, at the shops or in social settings and is also choosing to study English at the same time.

2.3 Approach

The approach being investigated is FonF as an approach to be used in an ESL classroom to help learners achieve a near „language one“ or mother-tongue (L1) level of English output. This approach is primarily to do with the way certain elements of the language, like grammatical forms or vocabulary items, can be taught in an ESL classroom. The FonF approach will be used in the study to test the acquisition of two elements of grammatical form in an ESL class of high-school learners.

This study is an ESL study as it is aimed at 15 – 18 year old Xhosa L1 speakers who are living and studying in South Africa. The medium of their high school education is in English; however, they still use their L1 at home with their families, but are constantly being exposed to English in their daily lives via television, books, newspapers, advertising and music. The learners all have the hope of continuing their studying at a tertiary level, which, in South Africa, is conducted in English (and in Afrikaans at a number of institutions). Each learner would therefore be required to have a high level of English to be able to cope with the academic demands of any qualification, whether it is a degree or diploma at a university or other tertiary institution.

2.4 An historical overview of how English as a Second Language was taught.

Over 500 years ago, Latin was the “world’s most widely studied foreign language” (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 3). However, today it is English. There are various estimates of how many people are multilingual in the world today, Tucker (1999, 1), for instance, notes that available data indicates that there are many more bilingual or multilingual individuals in the world than there are monolingual. Others such as Richards and Rodgers (2001, 3) estimate that 60% of the world’s population is multilingual.

The spread of English across the world began in the sixteenth century when Britain began to colonise large parts of the world. It was during this period that one of the first handbooks that was made for the teaching of „English as a foreign language“ was written in 1554 and was named „A Very Profitable Book to Learn the Manner of Reading, Writing and Speaking English and Spanish“ (Howatt 1994, 8).

This book was produced around the time that a huge influx of Huguenot refugees (French Protestants) moved to England, escaping religious persecution from Roman Catholics. Many of the refugees were teachers and “made a living by teaching languages in London and other major English cities” (Howatt 1994, 13). This early textbook was extensively used by the teachers practicing during this period.

English has been taught since Latin began to be phased out and the modern languages “began to enter into the curriculum of European schools in the eighteenth century” (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 4). This is also discussed by Howatt (1994, 3) who states that the teaching of modern vernacular languages began in England towards the end of the middle ages when French died out as the second language of the kingdom and English took its place.

English was then taught in a very similar fashion to the way Latin used to be “through rote learning of grammar rules, study of declensions and conjugations, translation, and practice in writing sample sentences” (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 4). This form of teaching was called the „Grammar Translation Method“ and continued in schools for at least a hundred years. The teaching techniques employed by this method were very structured and formal.

Young children arrived at school around the age of eight with “acquired basic literary skills in the mother-tongue, and were immediately force-fed with a diet of unrelenting Latin grammar rules and definitions” (Howatt 1994, 32). Essentially, school children of the time had very little option but to learn the text by rote, even if they did not understand it, according to Howatt (1994, 32), as they risked being beaten if they did not do as they were told.

One of the main concepts of this method was “memorizing rules and facts in order to understand and manipulate the morphology and syntax of the foreign language” (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 5). There was no emphasis on speaking or listening, as the primary focus was on reading and writing. This method led to technical competence but in various instances, a low level of verbal or communicative competence. This method’s shortcomings left a gap which allowed for different methods to be developed. This establishment of different methods also led to the study of language teaching by linguists becoming prevalent.

Language teaching as a profession really came into focus during the twentieth century as the various linguists looked at both psychology and linguistics and endeavoured to “develop principles and procedures for the design of teaching methods and materials” (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 1). Their goal was to develop “effective and theoretically sound teaching methods” (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 1).

During this period, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001, 7), new methods were being developed by various language teaching experts like Claude Marcel, Thomas Prendergast and François Gouin. But changes really became evident, they explain, when Henry Sweet, Wilhelm Viëtor and Paul Passy emphasised that speech, rather than the written word, was the primary form of language. Unfortunately these “early reformers were essentially „Joners“. Each of them produced a method and each wrote a background thesis to justify the ideas it

represented. None of them, however, attracted a following or founded a school of thought with a potential for further development” (Howatt 1994, 147). But this lack of a dedicated following of any school of thought did not hamper the development of new methods.

Linguists continued to develop new methods, which were termed „natural methods“ and this led to the development of the „Direct Method“. This method immersed the learner in the language by teaching exclusively in the target language and the focus was primarily on speaking and listening.

This was in direct contrast to the „Grammar Translation Method“, but there were some weaknesses in this method. All the teachers had to be English mother-tongue or L1 speakers, and explanations had to be conducted in the target language which could take a long time when a word or two in the learner’s language could explain it simply, and in a much shorter period of time. These delays in communication and understanding could be seen as reducing the efficacy of the „Grammar Translation Method“.

This method led on to many other different methods, including the „Audiolingual Method“ and the „Situational Method“.

The „Audiolingual Method“ was derived by American Linguists in the 1950s and one of the primary developers was Charles C. Fries. According to Howatt (1984, 225), this method followed the „four skills model“. This consisted of listening, speaking, reading and writing. This method, more than any other method, required large amounts of aural-oral drill work based on a graded syllabus with minimal context. A vital part of this method involved having the learners spend a great amount of time in a language laboratory participating in the aural-oral exercises which consisted of listening to and repeating sentences, whilst teachers would listen in and critique their efforts. But the short dialogues were considered quite dull and not conducive towards effective language learning.

The later, more modern language laboratories used in the „audiolingual method“ consisted of a row of computers which were used for drill practices where learners used a microphone and headphones and listened to a sentence, they then repeated the sentence which was recorded and they then listened to their recorded version and compared it with the original version. A teacher would sit at one end of the room and listen in and offer advice or make comments on the learners output. These were far more technologically advanced laboratories when compared to the old versions which used magnetic tapes and even reel to reel tapes. Language laboratories really came into their own in the 1960s. “There was an explosion in the number of facilities, thanks to generous federal support: \$76 million in funds

by 1963... by 1962 there were approximately 5000 installations in secondary schools" (Roby 2002, 525). A different approach to the „Audiolingual Method“ was the „Situational Method“.

The „Situational Method“ also called “the oral approach” was developed by British linguists in the 1920s onwards. This method, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001, 38), involved systematic principles of selection, gradation and presentation. One of the most active proponents of this approach was George Pittman, an Australian who produced a series of influential teaching materials using this approach. The main objective of this approach is to teach language skills through structure.

The main characteristics of this approach are as follows:

1. Language teaching begins with the spoken language. Material is taught orally before it is presented in written form.
2. The target language is the language of the classroom.
3. New language points are introduced and practiced situationally.
4. Vocabulary selection procedures are followed to ensure that an essential general service vocabulary is covered.
5. Items of grammar are graded following the principle that simple forms should be taught before complex ones.
6. Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient lexical and grammatical basis is established.

(Richards and Rodgers 2001, 39)

Both of these methods were superseded by the „Communicative Approach“ (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 15). These methods were the major methods of the time but various less influential methods were also developed, each with their own strengths and weaknesses.

There is an underlying philosophy of the „communicative method“ that Howatt (1994, 192) points out is not purely a rational process that can be organised in a step by step manner following graded syllabuses of new points to learn followed by exercises and explanations. Rather it is an intuitive or natural process which, if simply explained, consists of three conditions needed to learn a language: someone to talk to, something to talk about, and a desire to understand and make yourself understood. Interaction is at the heart of natural language acquisition. This was a method which “flows from the input-hypothesis: progress is made if teacher-input is „roughly tuned“ to the learner’s present level of competence plus elements representing the next stage of competence [follow] the natural order” (Johnson and

Johnson 1998, 227). This method has remained popular right up to today and plays a part in a number of current educational systems like South Africa's.

As no conclusive method has been proven to be the perfect method and all the various methods have „pros“ and „cons“, “we can therefore expect the field of second and foreign language teaching in the twenty-first century to be no less a ferment of theories, ideas and practices than it has been in the past” (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 254). The „communicative method“ seems to be used in schooling today with little attention drawn to grammatical rules.

2.5 Second Language Acquisition

Second language acquisition (SLA) is what Ellis (1997, 3) defines as the way in which people learn a language, other than their L1, inside or outside a classroom. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is still a relatively new field of study but has become more thoroughly researched, as more people begin to study English in an attempt to learn the „international language“. People are learning English for various reasons such as business, personal, educational or even for recreational purposes, much like having a hobby. Differences in opinion in the way a second language is acquired and learned are markedly diverse and what is considered to be the best way to learn a second language (L2) has made for many discussions:

When we entered the field of second language acquisition (SLA) in 1980, SLA research and L2 teaching were seemingly intractably split. Some influential SLA researchers were claiming that instruction made no difference because natural language acquisition processes are all powerful. Apart from those individuals for whom such pronouncements validated the ever popular “communicative approach” to language teaching, many teachers developed a mistrust of SLA, furthering the divide between researchers and practitioners.

(Doughty and Williams 1998, 1)

As an educational field, SLA is filled with varying opinions and ideas on the most effective way for learners to learn and for teachers to teach the English language. Even today there are teachers who continue to use the traditional grammar translation method in which grammatical forms are taught in isolation in arbitrary sentences, and rote learning is the norm. At the other end of the continuum there is the purely communicative form of teaching where the object is to get vocal fluency irrespective of whether the correct grammatical forms are mastered.

The factors that can affect and influence SLA are many and varied. One of the external factors that can influence learners’ uptake is “the social milieu in which learning takes place”

(Ellis 1997, 4). In this study, the learners are living in South Africa, a country that has a very troubled history often characterised by racial conflict and tension. Wars between the colonials and the indigenous African peoples were frequent during the latter half of the nineteenth century and many laws imposed by the colonial settlers deprived the African peoples of their lands and rights during the first half of the twentieth century. One of these rights was the fundamental right to education.

During the implementation of Apartheid in South Africa, the Afrikaner government wanted to keep what they regarded as different races separate from each other by forcing people to live in different areas, to go to separate schools, and by inflicting unfair racist policies on the various races. One of the racist policies instituted was an educational system that was called The „Bantu Education Act No 47 of 1953“. It is described by South African History Online as follows:

A pillar of the apartheid project, this legislation was intended to separate black South Africans from the main, comparatively very well-resourced education system for whites. Authored by Dr. H. F. Verwoerd (then Minister of Native Affairs, later Prime Minister), it established a Black Education Department in the Department of Native Affairs. They were tasked with the compilation of a curriculum that suited the "nature and requirements of the black people". African children learners were to be educated in a way that was appropriate for their culture. No consultation occurred on this...It's stated aim was to prevent Africans receiving an education that would lead them to aspire to positions they wouldn't be allowed to hold in society. Instead Africans were to receive an education designed to provide them with skills to serve their own people in the Bantustan „homelands“ or to work in manual labour jobs under white control. This legislation was condemned and rejected as inferior from the time of its introduction. This cornerstone of apartheid ideology in practice wreaked havoc on the education of black people in South Africa, and deprived and disadvantaged millions for decades. Its devastating personal, political and economic effects continue to be felt and wrestled with today.

(South African History Online 2000, 1)

The act ensured that African children were educated in their home languages until higher primary school and then they were educated in Afrikaans, which became “the medium of instruction in half the subjects in higher primary (middle school) and secondary school (high school)” (South Africa: Overcoming Apartheid Building Democracy 2005, 1).

Afrikaans was the mother-tongue language of the then, ruling political party. The ruling party's racist practices and system of apartheid made Afrikaans and the Afrikaner people extremely unpopular with the African population. This led to Afrikaans being viewed as an oppressive language.

When one combined this animosity towards Afrikaans, with the learners' general lack of ability in languages, due to a bad system of education, it led to a complete educational travesty and this hindered the education of the learners irrevocably.

The learners started to fight back against this racist policy. The depth of the racism in the educational act was clearly evident in the explanation of the government's new education policy offered by Dr Hendrik Verwoerd:

There is no place for him [the "Native"] in the European Community above the level of certain forms of labour... . For that reason it is of no avail for him to receive a training which has as its aim absorption in the European Community, while he cannot and will not be absorbed there. Up till now he has been subjected to a school system which drew him away from his own community and practically misled him by showing him the green pastures of the European but still did not allow him to graze there.

(Hansard 1953, col 2619)

On the 16th of June, 1976, thousands of learners from Soweto organised a protest against this education act. The learners "carried signs that read, 'Down with Afrikaans' and 'Bantu Education – to Hell with it'" (South Africa: Overcoming Apartheid Building Democracy 2005, 1). There were more than 1000 learners involved in this protest and the police responded to this demonstration by firing directly at the participants. At least two hundred people were killed and hundreds more were injured.

As a response to this oppression, English began to be seen as the language of liberation, freedom and power. Even so, English still carries some historical baggage, as it is the language of European colonialists and the language of an oppressor. For some black South African learners, this troubled linguistic and political history may affect their learning of English. Ellis's comments, "It is one thing to learn a language when you respect and are respected by native speakers of that language. It is entirely different when you experience hostility from native speakers or when you wish to distance yourself from them" (Ellis 1997, 5), may be aptly applied to today's young learners who were not part of apartheid or colonisation but rather learn indirectly from the older generation.

Others, however, may see English in a more positive light and look at it as the language of potential, power and money. In today's society when many of the horrors of Apartheid have been forgotten by today's learners who were too young to have experienced it, both English and Afrikaans are used throughout South Africa and Europeans might be seen to fall under one „white" umbrella.

English is the dominant and hegemonic language because of its global status as the language of business, the internet, etc, but also because it has served in the course of many decades of struggle as the, to some extent mythical, language of national unity and language of liberation. There is no doubt at all that it has been, and continues to be, the language of wider communication for all middle-class South Africans including the current political class.

(Bloch and Alexander 2003, 91-92. cited in Hornberger and McKay 2010, 553)

When learning a second language like English, learners bring a vast amount of knowledge to the process of language learning. Ellis (1997, 5) discusses how learners have already learnt their own L1 and they therefore have varying amounts of general knowledge which they can use towards their language uptake. They can even improvise when faced with a word they do not understand; they may still communicate the idea with other words that are able to convey the same meaning. An example of this could be if a learner is trying say „postbox“ they might say „a box that a person puts letters in“.

To really understand SLA one needs to start with the hypothesis that, as Ellis (1997, 13) explains, SLA involves different kinds of learning. Ellis (1997, 13) clarifies this by explaining that, while on the one hand, learners can learn chunks of language structure (i.e. formulas), on the other hand, they learn rules, (i.e. how a particular grammatical form structure can and cannot be used). Ellis (1997, 13) calls these two different components „item learning“ and „system learning“. These two types of learning can be explained in the following way. Item learning is characterised by the learner learning one full expression such as „Can I have a ___?“. Here the expression is unanalysed and is used as a whole or an item. When the learner progresses to learn that „can“ is followed by a various number of verbs, and has different functions like possession, ability, etc, he or she is then involved in system learning which means that they have learnt the „rules“ for „can“. Ellis (1997, 13) concludes that “an explanation of L2 acquisition must account for both item and system learning and how the two interrelate” (Ellis 1997, 13).

Along with „item learning“ and „system learning“ within SLA, there is also the issue of an „accuracy order“ that researchers such as Brown, Burt and Dulay (1973) have discovered within their linguistic studies as Ellis explains (1997, 13). This „accuracy order“ or „morpheme order“, was developed by Brown in 1973 in response to the controversial behaviourist theory of transfer that many researchers like himself felt needed disproving.

The growing awareness of the failure of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis to predict a number of observations in SLA led to a shift in perspective on the part of researchers in the late 1960s and early 1970s from a primary interest in transfer to a primary interest in staged development and cross-learner systematicity.

(Towell and Hawkins 1994, 23)

In response to this, “in the early 1970s a series of studies called morpheme order studies was highly influential in the development of the field of SLA. These studies were strongly based on the idea developed by Burt and Dulay (1973) that child SLA was similar to child L1

acquisition. "This came to be known as the L1 = L2 Hypothesis" (Gass and Selinker 1994, 79).

A vitally important question that came to the forefront whilst researching SLA was as explained by Saville-Troike (2006, 43) the concept of interlanguage. This concept came to prevalence during the 1970s and it triggered an investigation of whether there was a natural order (or universal sequence) in the grammatical development of L2 learners and many researchers such as Brown, Burt and Dulay set out to prove that there was.

Whilst Brown and his colleagues were investigating the acquisition of grammatical morphology by child L1 learners of English, they made two extremely important discoveries. Towell and Hawkins (1994, 24) explain that firstly, in three unrelated children acquiring L1 English in different households (and therefore probably exposed to different samples of English), the order in which grammatical morphemes of English appeared in the speech of the children was the same. To illustrate this, the first 9 of the 14 morphemes Brown studied emerged in the order shown below:

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Progressive - ing | The boy is eating. |
| 2. Plural | The boys are hungry. |
| 3. Irregular past | The boy sang. |
| 4. Possessive | The boy's book. |
| 5. Article | He saw the / a boy. |
| 6. Regular past | The boy shouted. |
| 7. Third person singular | The boy runs. |
| 8. Copula's | The boy's hungry. |
| 9. Auxiliary's | The boy's going. |

This led to the thinking that "if the same order of acquisition is found in children's L1 learning, there is the additional implication that the acquisition processes may be very much the same for all of language development" (Saville-Troike 2006, 43).

This morpheme order list is replicated or supported in a discussion by Ellis (1997, 13), who provides a similar list of grammatical forms that learners master in a particular order.

This order remains the same irrespective of the learners' ages, mother-tongues and whether they have had formal instruction or not. The order is as follows:

- Progressive - ing
- auxiliary be
- plural s

These are learnt first followed by

- articles
- irregular past

The most difficult seem to be

- regular past
- third person - s

This demonstrates, in Ellis's (1997, 13), opinion which is supportive of Towell and Hawkins' (1994, 24) discussion of Brown's findings, that there must be a natural order of acquisition that all learners follow. There is a slight difference in the order dependent on the researcher being quoted.

It has been noted by researchers like Gass and Selinker (1994, 79) that there are L2 strategies that are common to all children regardless of their own L1 or mother tongue. Importantly, emphasis is placed on the centrality of mental processes and the innate propensity for language that all humans have.

In one study, where both child and adult learners spoke the same L2, but who came from different L1 backgrounds, and were learning the L2 under different conditions (naturalistic, classroom and mixed environments), Towell and Hawkins (1994, 25) discuss how both parties seemed to develop accuracy in grammatical morphology in a „natural“ order. In some of the studies, the results that emerged proved that “although not identical, the order of morpheme acquisition reported was similar in L1 and L2” (Saville-Troike 2006, 44).

The discussion of the „accuracy order“ or „morpheme order“, was concluded as explained in Saville-Troike (2006, 44) by asserting that L2 learners are neither merely imitating what they hear nor necessarily transferring L1 structures to the new code, but (subconsciously)

creating a mental grammar which allows them to interpret and produce utterance they have not heard before.

All the above research lends credence to the theory that there seems to be a natural order in which L2 learners acquire grammatical forms and this order is the same for all learners irrespective of how they are learning or if they are children or adults. This “concept of „natural order“ remains very important to understand SLA, both from linguistic and cognitive approaches” (Saville-Troike 2006, 44).

Learners also seem to be involved in a process called „transitional constructions“ which is a process where learners move through “a series of stages en route to acquiring the native speakers“ rules” (Ellis 1997, 23).

After rigorous research, Ellis (1997, 23) devised a table to demonstrate the progression of a learner through the various stages to finally learning one grammatical form, in this case it is the irregular past tense forms:

Stage	Description	Example
1	Learners fail to mark the verb for past time.	„eat“
2	Learners begin to produce irregular past tense forms.	„ate“
3	Learners over generalise the regular past tense form.	„eated“
4	Sometimes learners produce hybrid forms.	„ated“
5	Learners produce correct irregular past tense forms.	„ate“

Table 2.1 Stages in the acquisition of the past tense of „eat“

(Ellis 1997, 23)

In addition to this table, Ellis (1997, 23) explains that even if a learner produces „ate“ early on in their development, it does not mean they have actually internalised the form. This is due to a U - shaped course of development where a learner seems to have progressed, but then they actually slide back again into using an incorrect form. The reason behind this is “learners reorganise their existing knowledge in order to accommodate new knowledge: thus stages 2 and 3 only arise once they have begun to acquire regular –ed (as in jumped)” (Ellis 1997, 23). This is called restructuring. This is just one step in the learner’s progression towards becoming fluent in the language they are learning. This development and restructuring occurs all the time that learners are interacting with the L2 they are learning,

and during this process they are continually reorganising the internal knowledge in their heads.

When a learner is approached by a L1 speaker they can respond in two different ways. Their language output is determined by the situation they might find themselves in. In a formal context, a mother-tongue speaker will automatically switch to a more formal style but when they are with a group of friends they will speak very informally. It is a different situation with second language speakers who may use formal language in an informal context as they have learnt primarily formal language in the classroom context, not colloquial language. But once these learners approach L1 levels of fluency their language style switches are smoother and come more easily. So whilst a learner is still in the acquisition process, when an unplanned output occurs, the learner may use the wrong style or the incorrect target language. A learner “is more likely to use target language forms when he has time to plan” (Ellis 1997, 27).

When learners start learning a second language, they develop what is called an interlanguage. This term was developed by the American linguist Larry Selinker (cited in Ellis 1997, 33). The learners use their knowledge of their first or mother-tongue language to be able to cope in the second language. The learners may import some of the features of their home language into the second language. Learners “construct a linguistic system that draws, in part, on the learners’ L1 but is also different from it and also from the target language” (Ellis 1997, 33). The learners construct rules in their minds. This is called a „mental grammar“ or interlanguage. This interlanguage may cause the learner to transfer rules and styles from their L1 to the L2. This has been noted as a cause of errors in L2 output and is known as “transfer”. Transfer from the mother-tongue or L1s “refers to the influence that the learners L1 exerts over the acquisition of an L2” (Ellis 1997, 51)

L1 transfer can result in avoidance. For example Chinese and Japanese learners of English have been found to avoid the use of relative clauses because their languages do not contain equivalent structures. These learners make fewer errors in relative clauses than Arabic learners of English but only because they rarely use them.

(Ellis 1997, 52)

Transfer is discussed at length further on in this chapter.

Another issue that Ellis discusses within the framework of SLA, is that the learner’s acquisition of language may not progress at a steady state or may even stop and fossilise if the learner “fails to acculturate to the target language group, that is, when they are unable or unwilling to adapt to a new culture” (Ellis 1997, 40). One reason Ellis mentions may be responsible for this failure is social distance and this refers to how involved the learner

becomes with the people who are mother-tongue speakers of the language they are learning. Extended contact with members from the target language group helps the L2 learner learn the language more successfully than one who has very little contact at all. The learners involved in this study have very little contact with other ethnic or cultural groups. They primarily interact with people from the same cultural group from which they come and who speak the same L1. This may be one of the problems with the learners in the current study, they socialise and fraternise with people only from their own culture and their own age speaking the same L1, in this case Xhosa. It was very rare to find one of the learners in this study having a friend who was not from the same socio-cultural grouping as them.

2.6 Models or methods of teaching ESL

Within English as a „second“ or „foreign“ language there is mention of three terms throughout the theory that have considerable overlap and can cause confusion. These are „approach“, „method“, and „model“. An approach “to language teaching and learning represents an outline conception of the way in which these should proceed, a seedbed from which a method springs, but is not yet a strategy specifying details of classroom practice” (Johnson and Johnson 1998, 11).

The term „method“ was summarised and explained by Richards and Rodgers (2001, 33) who explained that within a „method“ there is the approach, the design and the procedure.

- An approach constitutes a theory of the nature of language:
 - an account of the nature of language proficiency.
 - an account of the basic units of language structure.
- It also consists of a theory of the nature of language learning:
 - an account of the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in language learning.
 - an account of the conditions that allow for successful use of these procedures.

In order for an approach to lead to a method, it is necessary to develop a design for an instructional system. Design is the level of method analysis. Under the heading of design fall the following parts:

- The general and specific objectives of the method.

- A syllabus model.
- Types of learning and teaching activities.
- Learner roles.
- Teacher roles.
- The role of instructional materials.

This leads onto „procedure“, which encompasses the actual moment to moment approaches, practices and behaviours that operate in teaching a language according to a particular method. Procedure consists of:

- The classroom approaches, practices and behaviours observed when the method is used.

(Richards and Rodgers 2001, 33)

A „model“ is an actual practical approach, take for example „the natural approach“ or „the grammar translation method“, the model is not purely the theory comprising one of these techniques of teaching, but a list of actual components making up the way of teaching one of these approaches.

Whilst linguists spend time clarifying the different aspects of SLA like the methods for the actual teaching of English, one important issue keeps raising its head and that is to do with grammar. Debates ensued within the ESL teaching circles which raised the question of “whether and how to include „grammar“ in L2 instruction” (Doughty and Williams 1998, 1). In addition to this question there is another question which is: Why do some people learn a language well, and others founder, quit, or never progress in their studies? In response to these, and other important questions, SLA studies grew and became a popular field of academic enquiry. When people started to look at this field of study and question what SLA was, one of the answers was:

It is the study of how second languages are learned. It is the study of how learners create a new language system with only limited exposure to a second language. It is the study of what is learned of a second language and what is not learned; it is the study of why most second language learners do not achieve the same degree of proficiency in a second language as they do in their native language

(Gass and Selinker 1994, 1)

There have been many approaches to ESL and EFL teaching, each with various levels of success whilst employing different teaching techniques, some including grammar and some

focusing purely on communication, but when these levels of success are compared to the acquisition of a L1 “classroom (typically adult) SLA is variably successful” (Doughty and Williams 1998, 2).

This lack of success in adult SLA clearly demonstrated that there was something else required to help learners achieve native-like language. This led to the inevitable questions: Should English learning be purely communicative or should there be repetitions and drills in grammatical form, or is there a middle way that offers a better chance of target language acquisition? Is FonF an answer to these questions?

2.7 Focus on Form

2.7.1 What is Focus on Form?

In a response to the question of whether to teach grammatical forms in the classroom, Long (cited in Doughty and Williams 1998, 3) developed an approach towards grammar learning within ESL classes. This approach resulted in a method that combined certain aspects of two different methods. One method focused purely on the communicative aspect of ESL learning and the other method focused purely on grammatical competence. Long’s approach was to try and fuse the two methods together.

This approach was to teach communicatively and then focus on grammatical form points as, and when, they arose. Doughty (2001, 211) merged the various definitions of this approach and argued that its one unique characteristic is that it, “involves learners briefly and perhaps simultaneously attending to form, meaning and use during one cognitive event” (Doughty 2001, 211).

To achieve this in an ESL class, the teacher would draw the learners’ attention intensively to grammatical forms as they occurred in the lesson. These various grammatical form structures could be dealt with implicitly or explicitly. Long (cited in Doughty and Williams 1998, 3) went on to demonstrate that this approach could be divided into two distinct ways in the teaching of ESL and these are Focus on Form (FonF) and Focus on Forms (FonFs). Doughty and Williams (1998, 3) explain the difference between the two; FonFs as an approach is more concerned with the individual language elements, for example verb endings, whereas FonF demands attention to meaning before looking at the individual linguistic elements.

To understand that these two are not opposites, it is stressed that “Focus on Form entails a focus on formal elements of language whereas Focus on Forms is limited to such a focus and focus on meaning excludes it” (Doughty and Williams 1998, 4).

When using FonF as an approach, the teacher would “overtly draw learners” attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication” (Doughty and Williams 1998, 3). This allows the learner the chance to see the grammatical form in context, to see how it works. In the study done by Jingjing Qin (2008, 61), where dictogloss and processing instruction tasks were used as FonF approaches, the results demonstrated the benefits on acquisition that were evident after the study was completed. These results added additional evidence to the usefulness of FonF as an approach in drawing learners” attention to the target forms, whilst engaging in meaningful activities. In another study done by Doughty and Varela (1998, 132) where they were investigating „communicative focus on form” they came to the conclusion that:

The control group median improved slightly but significantly on the written measure, where the analysis was of interlanguage past time reference. It is perhaps not unexpected that learners can make some progress on their own without attention to linguistic forms. However the progress made by the FonF group was much more substantial.

(Doughty and Williams 1998, 132)

This research points to the usefulness of FonF as an approach, and therefore this study will use FonF in an ESL classroom. The two areas of grammatical form will be the use of articles and pronouns. The results of this research may be added to the ever-growing database of ESL studies, and can be used to help inform researchers and teachers alike about effective approaches, and approaches that can be integrated into their classrooms. These studies demonstrate that FonF is proving to be more effective than rote memorisation of rules or the „synthetic approach”.

The „synthetic approach” is one in which “parts of the language are taught separately and step by step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of parts until the whole structure of language has been built up... . At any one time the learner is being exposed to a deliberately limited sample of language” (Wilkins 1976, 2). The learner would then put all the parts together and this would theoretically lead to effective communication. This approach is located at the one end of the English teaching spectrum, whilst at the other end, there is the purely „communicative approach”.

The „communicative approach” gravitates towards „living the language”, and is founded on the assumption that purely being exposed to English and using English is enough to learn the language effectively. Therefore, if a learner is immersed in an environment where they encounter on a regular basis the language they are trying to learn, this will be enough for them to learn it. As Doughty and Williams (1998, 18) comment, “exposure to comprehensible target language samples is sufficient for successful L2 or foreign language acquisition by

adolescents and adults, just as it appears to be for L1 acquisition by young children” (Doughty and Williams 1998, 18). But, although this might work in some cases, Doughty and Williams have argued that there are many advantages for learners who receive formal instruction.

FonF can take place in a variety of tasks and in a variety of ways as explained by de la Fuente (2006, 265). She expands upon Ellis’s definition that form-focused instruction can take place as any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce learners to pay attention to linguistic form. Form-focused instruction can be classified under three categories: “(1) Focus on Forms, where primary attention is paid to form (or grammatical form instruction, both explicit and implicit); (2) planned Focus on Form, where primary attention is devoted to meaning but tasks are focused on specific L2 forms; and (3) incidental Focus on Form, where primary attention is also paid to meaning and attention can be placed on a variety of L2 forms” (de la Fuente 2006, 263-295).

Within the approach of FonF there lie “experimental studies of implicit and explicit learning” (Doughty and Williams 1998, 26). The differences between implicit and explicit learning, according to Ellis (1994, 24), are that implicit acquisition of knowledge takes place naturally and unconsciously, and is usually because of a stimulating environment. Explicit learning occurs when a person is conscious of the acquisition, and therefore takes an active role in the learning process. The learner learns the rules through instruction and then “tests hypotheses in a search for a structure” (Ellis 1994, 24).

Some studies were done on explicit FonF instruction and Doughty and Williams (1998, 26) explain that explicit instruction can lead to greater short term learning of simple L2 rules, when compared to implicit learning. Long and Robinson (1998, 27) discuss a study which demonstrated a short term advantage for learners receiving instruction in complex rules, together with structured exposure to examples which contributed to the theory of SLA mechanisms.

Researchers such as de la Fuente (2006, 265), Loewen (2003, 315) and Swain (cited in de la Fuente 2006, 265) have offered arguments supporting the FonF approach saying that it is an effective tool in ESL teaching. When a task-based lesson combined with an explicit FonF component is compared to a task-based lesson that excludes this component, the results in the acquisition of the grammatical form structures vary. The explicit FonF component in the lesson promoted the acquisition more effectively than the lesson without it. Due to these positive results that the theory points to, the lessons for this study all used FonF within them.

In a study on the long-term effects of instruction on question formation in which Spada and Lightbrown (1993, 208) participated. A two-week period of explicit instruction was presented followed by corrective feedback and the result was that subjects demonstrated both pre-test and post-test gains in the accuracy of the form tested. Another result of a FonF approach is that, during the interaction, learners notice certain input features and compare them to their own output, and this brings to their notice the linguistic items in the input that might, in a purely meaning-focused lesson, go unnoticed. This, then, helps learners to push their output further, which stretches their competence because of their desire to express their ideas accurately and clearly.

FonF has received a greater amount of attention recently Loewen (2003, 315) explains as researchers and theorists have called for a mixture of both meaning-focused and form-focused lessons in the classroom. There is a distinct differentiation between „FonF“ and „FonFs“, the latter calling for pre-planned lessons in the form that is being taught whereas the former, FonF, embeds the linguistic item in the context of meaning-focused instruction which offers a better chance of the learner remembering the item and using it correctly. Loewen (2003, 316) continues by discussing that the interest in this approach comes from the idea that it can enable learners to develop accuracy in the language they are learning because it allows interlanguage restructuring to occur. This approach may also provide learners with the opportunity to see the gap in their own knowledge when compared to the models of the target language that they are learning, which, in turn, helps learners seek self-improvement by pushing themselves to be correct.

Within the FonF family there are various types such as „Incidental“ Focus on Form; „Reactive“ Focus on Form; „Pre-emptive (or planned)“ Focus on Form; „Teacher-Initiated“ Focus on Form and „Learner-Initiated“ Focus on Form. These are described and discussed below.

1. Incidental Focus on Form is divided into two parts: namely, Reactive Focus on Form and Pre-emptive Focus on Form.

1.1. Reactive Focus on Form:

Reactive FonF is characterised by the teacher’s reaction to an error produced by a learner. When the teacher in a class encounters an error produced by a learner, he or she provides feedback immediately on the error. An example would be:

Learner: My mother and me like to go to the shops.

Teacher: not “me”, “my mother and I like to go to the shops”. As you are in the subject position of the sentence not the object, you will be “I” not “me”. Can you repeat the correct sentence?

Learner: My mother and I like to go to the shops.

Teacher: Good.

Lyster and Ranta (1997, 46) have distinguished six types of feedback looking at reactive FonF:

1. Explicit correction (i.e. the teacher supplies the correct form and clearly indicates that what the learner said was incorrect).
2. Recasts (i.e. the teacher implicitly reformulates all or part of the learner’s utterance).
3. Clarification requests (i.e. the teacher uses phrases such as “Pardon?”).
4. Metalinguistic feedback (i.e. the teacher provides comments or questions related to the well-formedness of the learners’ utterances).
5. Elicitation (i.e. the teacher directly elicits a reformulation from the learners).
6. Repetition (i.e. the teacher repeats the learners ill-formed utterance, adjusting intonation to highlight the error).

(Lyster and Ranta 1997, 46)

1.2 Pre-emptive Focus on Form:

With pre-emptive FonF, the linguistic item that the teacher wants to focus on has been pre-planned. During a meaning-focused class the teacher will attract the learners’ attention for a short while to introduce the item, or to reinforce their prior knowledge and then return to the meaning-focused class. An example of this is described below.

During a lesson at the beginning of a new week, where learners are giving talks about what they did during the weekend that has just finished, the teacher could interrupt the talks and present an explanation of the rules and uses of one of the past tenses, such as the „simple past“, with a number of examples to demonstrate the correct use of this form. In this way, the teacher draws the learners’ attention to the structure being presented. The teacher then allows the learners to continue their explanation of what they did at the weekend. Should the

learners make errors in the form that has just been explained, the FonF episode could then be reinforced by reactive FonF to supplement what has just been taught.

2. Teacher Initiated Focus on Form:

When the teacher has started or initiated the FonF episode, whether it is as a recast or is reactive or pre-emptive, it is known as Teacher Initiated FonF.

3. Learner Initiated Focus on Form:

When a learner asks for clarification or has made an error and looks for correction this is known as Learner Initiated FonF.

Planned or Pre-emptive Focus on Form was not included in the original definition of FonF as defined by Long (1991, 4-5).

Long's definition stated that FonF had five criteria:

1. It occurs in discourse that is primarily meaning-centred.
2. It is observable (i.e. occurs interactionally).
3. It is incidental (i.e. it is not pre-planned).
4. It is transitory.
5. It is broadly focused (i.e. several different forms may be attended to in the context of a single lesson)

(Long 1991, 4-5 and Ellis et al 2001, 281-318)

This early definition has been variously modified by more recent researchers. Doughty and Williams (1998, 3), for instance, "view FonF as including planned lessons directed at teaching specific linguistic features, providing the features are taught in context through communicative activities" (Ellis et al 2001, 284). This definition allows for planned FonF to be integrated into lessons where suitable. Doughty and Williams' (1998, 3) FonF definition incorporates Long's (cited in Doughty and Williams 1998, 3) points 1, 2 and 4, but the difference lies with points 3 and 5. The difference is that "planned Focus on Form obviously does not occur incidentally, and it is intensive rather than extensive (i.e. it involves repeated attention to a single form rather than one shot treatments of multiple forms)" (Ellis et al 2001, 284).

FonF in the classroom can take many forms such as verbal recasts, explicit written corrections, implicit corrections and peer group corrections. A verbal recast occurs when the error is immediately pointed out and the correction is offered in full. The learner is then made to repeat the correction verbally. It can also take place in written form in the corrections of learners' work. In this case the correct form is explicitly written down in the learners' work; however, a less explicit method is to highlight parts of the texts that have to be corrected, this can be done in both written and electronic work. Pair or group work may also be used to focus on forms when learners compare and correct one another's work. Ellis et al (2001, 288) goes on to discuss a focus on recasts which were divided into two main groups: isolated recasts and incorporated recasts. When incorporating isolated recasts, the correction is given without any additional information being supplied, however, with incorporated recasts "the correct reformulation of all or part of the learners' utterance becomes part of a longer statement" (Ellis et al 2001, 284). Based upon Ellis's research, the researcher ensured that the FonF lessons included as many of the FonF forms as possible, recasts were used extensively throughout the period of study, written forms of corrections were also implemented and pair and group work was used to help the learners acquire the grammatical forms as effectively as possible.

Alcon (2007, 41) discusses a study done on incidental FonF where the effectiveness of both planned and incidental FonF had been seen to warrant more research in SLA. The gains in learners' ability was tested empirically after planned episodes of FonF instruction were presented. It was reported that in immediate and delayed post tests the learners who had received recasts after non-target-like question forms outperformed learners who did not. But only a small number of studies have been done on incidental FonF results. Alcon (2007, 41) goes on to explain that FonF in a foreign language context seems to be possible and effective in raising learners' awareness of lexical items and in facilitating immediate language use.

2.8 Background of English in South Africa

English came to be established in South Africa in the late 18th century when England, Mesthrie (2002, 108) explains, was, after the loss of America, on the lookout for new colonies to add to its empire, and decided that South Africa would be an acceptable addition. South Africa, as a colony, changed hands a number of times. The Cape had been occupied by England in 1795 to control the strategic Cape sea route to India. Ownership of South Africa was then passed to Holland in 1802, but during the Napoleonic Wars, England owned and occupied it again, and held it until 1812. After changing ownership yet again, South Africa became British again after the congress of Vienna in 1814 and Britain remained a

colonising power until the establishment of the Union of South Africa in 1910. During this period English, as a language, became well established throughout South Africa alongside Afrikaans.

English, due to colonisation, has infiltrated many countries and has become a world language. English will therefore be “likely to continue to play a leading role internationally as an important language of education and as the language of choice for business, science and popular culture” (Platt 1984, 28).

De Klerk (2002, 358) explains that in South Africa from around 1935, the education system was such that in the black schools, the child’s home language or mother-tongue was what they were taught in for the first 8 years of their schooling, then the children switched to English and Afrikaans. English teachers were slowly phased out of the education system and this approach left second language teachers teaching English which led to “certain characteristic patterns of pronunciation and syntax (traceable to the mother-tongue) being entrenched as norms of spoken Black South African English (BSAE) with consequential lowering of levels of comprehensibility” (De Klerk 2002, 356).

This system of education was followed by the „Bantu Education Act No 47 of 1953”, which led to even lower linguistic capability of learners in the affected schools.

In the new democratic post 1994 South Africa, there are eleven official languages, Mesthrie (2002, 23) explains how nine African languages (The Nguni group of isiXhosa, isiZulu, siSwati and isiNdebele; The Sotho Group of Sesotho, Sepedi and Setswana, and Xitsonga and Tshivenda) were added to the two previously official languages of English and Afrikaans.

“South African English is an established and unique dialect, with strong influences from Afrikaans and the country's many African languages.

- Home language to: 8.2% of the population
- Family: Indo-European
- Varieties: Black South African English (BSAE), Indian English, Coloured English, Afrikaans English”

<http://www.southafrica.info/about/people/language.htm>

English became a popular choice of language after the end of apartheid in 1994, “since it was being widely used by the anti-apartheid political leadership, [and] English became the

language of unity and liberation” (Mesthrie 2002, 22). Therefore, in order to empower the majority of South Africans, Mesthrie (2002, 22) suggests empowering their languages too.

During the pre-liberation negotiations, the question of official languages was a difficult question and much deliberation revolved round the fact the Afrikaans was already an official language in South Africa. To demote Afrikaans to an unofficial language and sanction the use of English as the sole official language would have alienated many of the Afrikaans speaking community. Using English “as the only official language would have been anathema to many Afrikaans speakers” (Mesthrie 2002, 23). To leave only English and Afrikaans would have made the statement that nothing had changed. To address this, the new democratic government, then, after careful deliberation, made the decision to have 11 official languages. This seemed at the time of these sensitive negotiations the way to please as many people as possible.

English is now seen in South Africa as the “internal de facto lingua franca” (De Klerk 2002, 359). De Klerk goes on to explain that English is attractive to people as it is seen as the language of higher education, wealth and work opportunities but most importantly because it “was seen as the language of liberation and resistance to apartheid domination, because of its role in the ANC and PAC as the language of the struggle prior to 1994” (De Klerk 2002, 359).

But alongside the positive things previously mentioned about English, one must not lose sight of the issue that, “speakers of African languages experience a love-hate relationship with English, and find themselves forced to make an effort to master it” (De Klerk 2002, 371). This could be a leftover feeling from when there were „whites-only schools” and as they were English medium schools this may have led to resentment in non-white school children. The learners who left these schools spoke conservative English as opposed to ethnically marked Black South African English BSAE.

At present, the previous whites-only, English-medium schools are turning out ever increasing numbers of young black learners who will have a different command of English to the regular poorer schools where learners are taught by second language speakers, which leads to a different type of pronunciation. This is evidenced by the previously named matriculation examinations (this final examination is presently called the National Senior Certificate) which offers English at two levels to learners: English as a L1 and English as a second language. This clearly demonstrates a need for both types of English teaching and a need for a focus on English as a second language teaching in schools.

2.9 FonF in South Africa

There have been relatively few studies completed in South Africa that investigate FonF. There is a PhD study that was undertaken at Stellenbosch University. The title of this study is „FonF in a framework for task-based isiXhosa instruction in a specific purposes multimedia curriculum“ (Steenkamp 2009, 1). This study was completed in 2009.

This study attempted to explore the key issues involved when designing a task-based specific purposes curriculum with a specific use of FonF. The motivation behind this study was the continual integration of different racial groups in South Africa, and therefore multilingual classes have become very common. Teachers whose first language is English or Afrikaans are faced with numerous Xhosa speakers in their classes and therefore need to learn Xhosa in order to become more effective teachers. The researcher wanted to see if FonF would have an impact on the efficacy of Xhosa training.

Another PhD study was undertaken at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. The title of this study is The Efficacy of Form-Focused Instruction on the Morphosyntactic Accuracy of Advanced English Second Language Students (Ayliff 2003).

The motivation behind this study was the inability of many L2 learners of English to cope with tertiary education. With language classes focusing primarily on communication, with little time dedicated to language rules, the researcher wanted to investigate the efficacy of form focused instruction on L2 learners English.

This small amount of research done opens the door for many future studies on the efficacy of FonF in the various educational institutions in South Africa.

2.10 Education in South Africa

The national curriculum statement states that “learners should *not* be given grammatical rules or lists of vocabulary to learn. They will learn grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation in context by repeatedly:

1. Hearing and reading structures, words and sounds in oral and written texts; and
2. Writing down unfamiliar words in their dictionaries, learning and using them.

In the early years of learning an additional language, fluency (the ability to understand and communicate confidently) is more important than accuracy. Developing a wide vocabulary is the key to fluency” (National Curriculum Statement 2002, 11).

This policy of „outcomes based education“ that the Ministry of Education subscribes to has led to a way of teaching in schools where the approach used is primarily a communicative approach. “For many years now second-language learners of English have been taught through a communicative meaning based approach” (Ayliff 2010, 2). This approach means that learners do not have classes that have structured grammatical form taught to them. The teachers “direct their learners to the meaning of the discourse in the belief that the form, including the grammar, vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation will be acquired almost unconsciously” (Ayliff 2010, 3). This meaning-focused instruction does not lead to grammatical competence or accuracy. This is echoed in the poor examination pass rates.

The Department of Education commented on the 2008 National Senior Certificate Examination results in a briefing. Their findings were: “of the 533,561 students that wrote the exam, 37.25% had failed or qualified for a supplementary exam. The national average pass rate was 62.5%. Provinces that achieved below the national average were the Eastern Cape, Kwazulu-Natal, Limpopo and Mpumalanga” (Parliamentary Monitoring Group 2009, 1).

Learners need to write seven subjects; “these consist of two languages, mathematics or math literacy, life orientation and three other subjects of their choice. The NSC requires three subjects passed with a minimum of 40% and three other subjects with a minimum of 30%” (Parliamentary Monitoring Group 2009, 2).

But these pass rates do not allow entrance to institutes of higher education such as Universities. To enter into a South African University you need “to obtain a certificate which allows a learner to undertake Bachelors study (this certificate was the old „university exemption“); four of the six subjects passed must be at the 50% level and must be recognised 20-credit NSC subjects” (Keeton 2010, 1). The 2008 NSC results equated to “an increased number of bachelors passes from 18% to 32%” (*The Mail and Guardian*, 08 January 2010, 1) in 2009. But these rates mean very little “in the context of a 50% failure and dropout rate at university level” (*The Mail and Guardian*, 12 January 2010, 1). These dismal rates show that the educational system is not succeeding in South Africa and requires a serious intervention if change is to be brought about.

2.11 Black South African English

The variety of English spoken by the respondents in this study is Black South African English (BSAE). BSAE evolved as one of the new „Englishes“, which is English that has undergone a change or a metamorphosis, This process occurs when a language is being continually reinvented as different cultural groups acquire it and make it their own .

These new forms of English take on different accents, infuse themselves with adopted words from other languages and gradually become known as new „Englishes“. BSAE is English which developed in South Africa after the end of apartheid, when children were able to go to schools of their own choices and began to come into contact more frequently with English as they began to integrate with white, L1, English speaking children.

De Klerk and Gough (2002, 356) explain that BSAE developed through the educational system as an L2 in an area where English is not the language of the majority but has become localized for use in intra-regional communication. They estimate that there are 7 million black people in South Africa with a command of English as a second language.

This study is being done in Port Elizabeth where the majority of the local population are Xhosa speaking and grew up with Xhosa being their L1.

Researchers such as Gough and De Klerk (2002, 256) propose that there are different forms of BSAE. To determine which version of BSAE a person speaks is dependent on which of the other official languages they grew up speaking as a L1, they talk about “Xhosa English” which they consider to be just one version of South African English.

BSAE speakers include each, and every, South African who speaks a Bantu language as their L1 and English as their second language, which they learned from a teacher who speaks BSAE. We need, however, to be aware that there are nine official Bantu languages in South Africa, and this large variety of languages leads to question of “whether there are various forms of BSAE related to the individual mother-tongues of the speakers, or perhaps some kind of general Nguni - English or general Sotho - English. The usual compromise is to refer to BSAE generically” (De Klerk 2003, 464).

One of the challenges facing learners is that “by 1990, most teachers of English in the Department of Education and Training (DET) school were L2 speakers, products of Bantu Education themselves, whose English was inadequate through no fault of their own” (De Klerk and Gough 2002, 358). This contributes to the acquisition problems already faced by the learners. Meierkord (2005, 1) also concurs that although after the Soweto uprising which eventually led to English becoming the sole medium of instruction in schools for blacks in 1976, teachers often only had a limited command of the language themselves, thus passing the particular features of their own second language form of English on to their pupils.

Attitudes to BSAE are currently changing considerably. De Klerk and Gough (2002, 362) attribute these changes to the use of English as a major language in government combined

with the rising socio-economic status of L2 English speakers who are currently forming a black middle class.

De Klerk (2000, 317) explains that in 1997, 3.5 million blacks comprised the top socio-economic bracket in South Africa. When that figure is compared with the 4 million whites in the same position, it adequately demonstrates the rising socio-economic status of the black middle class. This “rising socio-economic status of BSAE speaker lends credence to the way they speak... .The changing perceptions of the status, authority and persuasive appeal of BSAE in business, entertainment and the media has led to the increased use of BSAE accents in both serious announcements and in up-market advertisements” (De Klerk 2000, 317).

2.11.1 Relationship between English and Xhosa

De Klerk (2002, 362) explains that BSAE shares some grammatical features with a range of new Englishes generally. Some of the errors that have been picked up in previous studies are as follows:

Omission of Articles

(a) He was ^ good man.

Extensive use of resumptive pronouns

(a) My standard 9, I have enjoyed *it* very much.

(b) The man who I saw *him* was wearing a big hat.

Gender conflation in pronouns

(a) *he* came to see me yesterday (where the referent is male).

Problems with new pronoun forms

(a) She was very unhappy *of which* it was clear to see.

(De Klerk 2002, 362)

These errors have been attributed by De Klerk and Gough (2002, 362) to language transfer from the speakers L1 or mother-tongue to their L2.

2.11.2 Xhosa and English Transfer

Transfer or the effect that learners' L1 has on their learning of their second language has been around for a long time and has been written about as far back as the 1950s. It has been the topic of much debate as to its actual effect on the acquisition of the second language. Some of the questions raised are, „What effect does transfer have on the learning of a second language" and do „structures from the L1 play any part in the output of the L2?"

Before the term „transfer" was coined, the issue was discussed in various ways. Over time, the role that the L1 plays in the acquisition and learning of an L2 has been extensively debated. Initially it was thought to have had an enormous influence, but since the late 1960s and early 1970s, researchers such as Dulay and Burt (1973) have shown that the impact of the L1 has not been as great as had been previously thought. Gass and Selinker acknowledge these changing ideas when they comment that “the role of the native language has had a rocky history during the course of SLA research. This subfield of SLA has come to be known as language transfer" (1994, 53).

The meaning of transfer has been defined by Gass and Selinker as “the psychological process whereby prior learning is carried over into a new learning situation. The main claim with regard to transfer is that the learning of Task A will affect the subsequent learning of Task B" (1994, 54).

Transfer has been mentioned and discussed by many other linguists, Towell and Hawkins highlight the fact that “we are most aware of transfer in SLA where the L1 and L2 differ on a particular property, because this leads to patterns in the speech of the non-native speaker not found in the speech of the native speaker" (1994, 7).

Transfer does not only apply to written language but also to spoken language. Towell and Hawkins note that “when we hear non-native speakers using English we are frequently able to make a good guess about the native language of those speakers. This may be the effect of a particular „foreign accent" or of particular syntactic, morphological or lexical features of the native language in question" (1994, 7).

A prominent early linguist who was interested in this issue is Robert Lado who is very clear in his assertion that a learner relies heavily on his or her L1 when learning a second language. Gass and Selinker (1994, 53) comment on Lado's (1957) book „Linguistics Across Cultures" and state that it has always been assumed that in a second language learning situation, learners rely extensively on their L1. Lado states this clearly illustrating that transfer was also historically important:

Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture – both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives.

(Lado 1957, 2)

Transfer therefore became the focus of many linguistic studies and the results generally seemed to indicate that “transfer of linguistic properties from a speaker’s L1 into the L2 is a pervasive feature of SLA” (Towell and Hawkins 1994, 7). The studies included different aspects of English including morphology, syntax and phonetics. In a study between English and French, for instance, “at the phonological level, nasal vowels and /y/ exist in French words like those in (1.1a). Diphthongs and /ð/ exist in English words like those in (1.1b).

1.1a *bon*, good; *sang*, blood; *fin*, end; *pur*, pure; *sud*, south

1.1b fail, soil, bout; this; there

It is a noticeable feature of many L1 English speakers of L2 French that they pronounce words like *fin* as English „fan“, or words like *sud* as English sued, and of many L1 French speakers of L2 English that they pronounce words like „fail“ a bit like „fell“, and „this“ as „zees“. This is clearly because they are transferring phonological properties of English into French, and French into English”.

(Towell and Hawkins 1994, 8)

Saville-Troike (2006, 35) discusses the division of transfer into two sections: positive transfer and negative transfer. Using these divisions, another different area of language was studied – plurals and the languages were English and Spanish. If the transfer is positive (or facilitating), it means the form is the same in both languages, for example “in the transfer of a Spanish plural morpheme –s on nouns to English (e.g. *lenguajes* to *languages*). The transfer is called negative (or interference) when the L1 structure is used inappropriately in the L2, as in the additional transfer of the Spanish plural –s to a modifier in number agreement with the noun: e.g. *lenguajes modernas* to *Modern Languages*” (Saville-Troike 2006, 35).

Krashen (1988, 64) explains that the topic of L1 transfer has an unusual history with it being presumed to be the only major source of syntactic errors in adult second language performance. Krashen (1988, 66) continues to explain that subsequent empirical studies demonstrated that many errors are not in fact traceable to the L1 at all. Therefore it must be kept in mind that transfer is not responsible for all errors but certainly does seem to account for some. Krashen’s research produced the following results:

1. First language influence appears to be strongest in complex word order and in word for word translations of phrases.
2. First language influence is weaker in bound morphology.
3. First language influence seems to be strongest in „acquisition-poor“ environments.

(Krashen 1988, 66)

Transfer like many other theories has many ideas attached to it. Some say it is the source of all errors, while others remain unconvinced. In this study it is presumed that transfer does play a part in SLA.

When a learner proceeds with learning a second language, occasionally external or internal influences may have a negative affect on the process required for the acquisition of the grammatical features of the language they are endeavouring to learn. In this particular case the learners are L1 Xhosa learners who are learning English. The internal issue, which may present a hurdle, is language transfer from their L1 which may influence the effective learning of the grammatical forms being focused on. The features focused on in this study are articles (a, an and the) and pronouns (he, she, they, their, etc). A discussion was entered into with Mr Ron Endley, a lecturer of Xhosa at Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. Questions were posed to Mr Endley about language transfer and his response was that there is no conclusive data in this regard but it is worth noting that:

In Xhosa you will say “Umfundi uyafunda” - the learner is learning

Literally: the learner [he/she] is learning

The same will apply to: Umntwana uyadlala – the child is playing, etc.

The “u-“can therefore mean “he /she”. Because this is grammatically derived from the prefix “Um-“ regardless of the meaning, this could possibly explain why the Xhosa mother- tongue pupils interchange “he/she” , i.e. attaching actual meaning to “u-“ is something foreign to them.

(Endley 2010)

This issue may cause the learners to find difficulty in acquiring the correct use of „he and she“ when using English as a second language.

Another issue that was raised in the interview was the structure of a particular type of sentence: In English a sentence describing the colour of a car or other object is structured in the following way:

1. The car is black.

2. The bottle is green.

In Xhosa the structure of the sentence is:

- The car it is black. Imoto i(it)mnyama
- The bottle it is green. Ibhotile i(it)luhlaza

This form can be transferred to English making errors in English sentences when the learner produces a sentence in English such as „the car it is black“.

When a person refers to an object like a building:

- I see a building / I see the building the equivalent in Xhosa is: Ndibona isakhiwo / Ndiyasibona isakhiwo - the „si“ refers to „it“, namely the building.

Mr Endley commented that L1 speakers do not perceive the meanings „it“ / „she“ etc, but use the „i-“, „in-“, etc as grammatical concords agreeing with the noun.

These issues could possibly interfere with the effective acquisition of pronouns in English.

2.12 Social Capital

The term „Social Capital“ (SC) has a variety of definitions. One of the influential writers on SC, Robert Putnam, defines SC as features of social life, networks, norms and trust, that enable participants to act together more effectively to pursue shared objectives (1995, 665). The main idea, according to Portes (1998, 2), is that involvement and participation in groups can have positive consequences for the individual and the community and that this dates back to Durkheim’s emphasis on group life as an antidote to anomie and self destruction and to Marx’s distinction between an atomized class-in-itself and effective class-for-itself. It is a concept that covers many aspects of life from politics to health and education. This interaction between people and groups is seen as valuable. Studies of this concept have led researchers to believe that these social contacts can affect productivity in a positive way for both individuals and groups.

2.12.1 Origins of Social Capital

One of the first mentions of the term SC was by L.J Hanifan in his 1916 article about support for rural schools. It was further written about by various sociologists including Pierre Bourdieu in his 1972 article „Outline of a Theory of Practice“. Bourdieu produced the first systematic contemporary analysis of SC according to Portes (1998, 3) Bourdieu’s treatment of the concept was instrumental on the benefits accruing to individuals by virtue of

participation in groups and on the deliberate construction of sociability for the purpose of creating this resource. Others who have explored SC are James Coleman and Glen Loury. SC even played a big part in political policy making in the USA after being featured in Robert Putman's „Bowling Alone: The collapse and revival of American Community“.

To understand SC more, one can look at Coleman's (1990, 300) explanation that social interdependence and systematic functioning arise from the fact that people have interest in events that are fully or partially under the control of other people. He explains that individuals are living a type of „fiction“ by assuming they can be completely independent from society:

The philosophical and economic arguments of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were followed by extensive social changes in the direction of individualism and these changes have not abated. Despite these changes the fiction is just that – for individuals do not act independently, goals are not independently arrived at, and individuals are not wholly selfish.

(Coleman 1990, 301)

2.12.2 Sociology and Social Capital

SC has been discussed and researched by many sociologists and has generated much interest in the academic and political world.

In sociology, in particular, a tripartite family of effects developed as researchers explored the implications of the concept. Social Capital became defined as:

1. A source of social capital
2. A source of family mediated benefits
3. A source of resources mediated by non-family networks.

The latter usage, exemplified by personal connections that facilitate access to jobs, market tips, or loans.

(Portes and Landolt 2000, 532)

2.12.3 What is Social Capital?

A simple example of SC is illustrated by a person leaving his house and meeting a neighbour. They communicate, and then meet another neighbour and communicate as a group. This communication builds SC as it forms a network. This network of people make it possible for one to help another out in times of need.

An example of this could be: Neighbour A (who is a mechanic) has a problem with the vegetables he is growing in his garden as there are insects eating them. But he does not know what insects they are, or how to solve the problem. Neighbour B is a gardener or has some experience in gardening, and gives useful advice to Neighbour A which helps him rid his vegetables of insects. At a later date, Neighbour B has a problem with his car and

Neighbour A repays the favour by helping him fix his car. This is an example of how SC builds up in a community.

But SC is not purely limited to one helping another; it is included in many other relationships. For example, the relationship people have with the government of a country can build or destroy SC. The levels of crime in a community can destroy SC, the economic status of people in a community plays a part and even the health of people in a community is important to building SC.

James Coleman (1998) discusses a paper he wrote on the wholesale diamond market in New York. In this paper he discusses how in this market:

Merchants frequently hand over bags of diamonds, often worth many thousands of dollars. To other merchants to examine at their leisure. This is done without insurance or formal agreement. To an outsider this might seem extremely risky and unwise, as there appears nothing to stop another merchant taking advantage and pocketing the diamonds. Yet the market is extremely successful and efficient. Inside the network of traders, information flows freely and exchanges can be made without the need for elaborate and expensive contracts or insurance. This market can only work because of the closeness, high degree of trust and trustworthiness among the community of diamond merchants. To any individual trader, having access to this network of similar traders with shared understandings of how to behave honourably is an immense asset that greatly facilitates their ability to trade efficiently and profitably.

(Halpern 2005, 3)

This network of traders is what can best be described as SC.

SC can be divided into three basic components:

- A network
- A cluster of norms, values and expectations that are shared by group members
- Sanctions – the punishments and rewards that help to maintain the SC network.

These three components should be recognizable in almost any form of social association according to Halpern (2005, 10). He continues his discussion of SC by explaining what a network is. He illustrates a network by referring to a traditional, locally embedded community or neighbourhood where one usually knows one's neighbour with whom their relationship may take on different forms. It could be just knowing their face and maybe greeting them when they pass one another or it could be deep friendships where they visit each others homes and offer one another different levels of material and emotional support.

Halpern (2005, 10) continues by explaining that a cluster of norms or values are the rules and expectancies that are inherent within the community – they are usually unwritten and

could be for example, not making loud noise at night or keeping an eye on someone's property when they are away. Finally he discusses sanctions.

Sanctions can be both positive and negative. In terms of negative sanctions, these tend to be what the outcome will be should the norms and values of the community not be followed. They can be mild in nature like being told to turn the music down, or to clean up the yard. Sometimes the sanctions take place as gossip about the offender and in more serious cases can be the threat of legal action. A positive sanction occurs in the form of a compliment or being thanked verbally or with a small gift for help offered or given.

There are several examples which Coleman (1990, 303) says illustrate SC in its different forms. One is the relationship between a doctor and patient. He explains that recently in the United States, this relationship has broken down, hence the greater number of malpractice suits which has led to some doctors refusing to be in private practice any longer. Or for obstetricians refusing to accept female attorneys or wives of lawyers as patients for fear of a law suit, this breakdown in trust has led to a breakdown in SC.

Another example that Coleman uses to illustrate SC is of a mother who moved with her family of 6 children from Detroit to Jerusalem, she explains that one of the reasons for the move was she can now allow her eight-year old child to take her six-year old child on a bus across the city to a park. This was something she could never allow whilst she was residing in Detroit. In Jerusalem, the normative structure ensures that unattended children will be looked after by other adults in the vicinity, but no such structure exists in the United States of America.

2.12.4 Bridging and Bonding Social Capital

SC is divided into two parts, bridging SC and bonding SC. Generally, bridging SC is seen as a positive form of SC whilst bonding can be seen as negative, depending on the results of the bonding.

An example of negative SC in the form of bonding SC could be illustrated by the example of a group of young men who form a gang and become involved in criminal behaviour; they are building a form of SC between themselves, but it is not to the benefit of the community. It has a detrimental effect on the community but a positive effect on the gang. This positive effect could be purely material, or if the gang members are social outcasts, it may give them a sense of belonging, almost like a family.

One further negative aspect is that if people operate as a group that means that someone will be excluded from the group. Being excluded from the group is not beneficial to the person who does gain anything from the group in any way. There are other negative effects of SC. Recent studies “have identified four such negative consequences of SC: exclusion of outsiders, excessive claims on group members, restrictions on individual freedoms, and downward levelling norms” (Portes and Landolt 2000, 532). Despite these negative effects of SC, there seem to far more positive effects that negate the negative issues.

2.12.5 Social Capital in South Africa

SC can be beneficial in South Africa by helping the community to work together towards improving their children’s educational performance at school. SC is built up by having trust in your neighbours, your peers and your government; it gets built up by people working together towards a goal or to achieve a result in a project. On the other hand, SC gets depleted by various problems within communities. There are a large number of social problems within South African society that could deplete the levels of SC.

2.12.5.1 Social Capital and the Government

One of the social problems that can deplete SC is a lack of trust in government. If the government voted in by the people is not seen to be effective and trustworthy and is not fulfilling its promises this erodes away the level of SC in a community. In Robert Putman’s 1995 article „Tuning In, Tuning Out: The Strange Disappearance of Social Capital in America” he discusses a study he undertook in Italy in which he was a researcher. His research on the topic of local government led him to the conclusion that the performance of government and other social institutions is powerfully influenced by citizen engagement in community affairs.

If citizens are not involved within government and do not feel part of government, or feel alienated by the government, then SC does not accumulate. An example of this in the South African context could be seen in, for example, the ANC government’s Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) projects, where the community were waiting for the promised housing that for various reasons never materialised. The community’s loss of trust in the promises of politicians” lead to a depletion of SC. In this “new „everyone for himself” environment promoted by free reign of the market, there is little incentive for public officials to adhere to standards of probity, or for the poor to respect the social order that has abandoned them” (Portes and Landolt 2000, 530).

For the levels of SC to be rebuilt, the community would need to become involved in government and to almost „police“ the government into keeping their promises by voting out ineffective politicians. With the community feeling as if they have control over what happens in the government, and in their lives, this confidence could help rebuild SC.

Accountability for how the government is using the people’s tax money, in-depth rooting out of corruption within all departments, removing politicians who are feathering their own nests and not working for the good of the country, would be tools that would go a long way towards building trust in the government and SC.

2.12.5.2 Social Capital and Crime

Crime is one of the social ills that depletes SC. With the high crime rate prevalent in South Africa, people feel unsafe, particularly in the townships where it is often dangerous for women to walk alone and the chance of being robbed, raped or murdered is statistically extremely high. The South African Police Service (SAPS) 2009 / 2010 crime statistics report stated that “during 2009/2010 a total of 2,121,887 (approximately 2,1 million) serious crime cases were registered in the RSA [Republic of South Africa]... .of the approximately 2.1 million cases, roughly a third (31.9%) were contact crimes, 26.1% were property related crimes” (SAPS 2009, 1).

Contact crimes include murder, rape, attempted murder, and assault and robbery with aggravating circumstances. Property-related crimes include burglary, vehicle theft and stock theft.

The murder rate has officially decreased in South Africa and is down to below 17,000 per year. According to Lana, “South Africa’s murder rate is officially down to 34.1 murders per 100,000 people... .the murder rate is still too high, as high as in the most violent places in the world, including war zones”(2010, 1) These high crime figures, accompanied by the fact that one feels one has to constantly be on guard to safeguard one’s possessions and person inevitably leads to a severe depletion of trust in the community.

For this negative drain on the levels of SC to be turned around, communities could form neighbourhood watch groups and develop a strong relationship with the police and other law enforcement agencies such as security firms. This relationship would put power into the hands of the people and help them feel they are making a difference, hence increasing SC.

Where corrupt police are discovered they should be removed from their positions and prosecuted. By ensuring the police services live up to their calling and the community

becomes accountable for playing a part in crime prevention, trust would be built up between neighbours and within the community.

The fact remains that “rising crime and widespread corruption of public institutions, including those charged with maintaining public order, have been associated with normative decline” (Portes and Landolt 2000, 530).

The community could also become involved in rehabilitation programs for minor offenders with the goal of helping them integrate back into the community and become productive, responsible members of society. Programs that are beneficial to the community could be developed for these young offenders such as a library service, growing vegetable gardens, painting and repairing of communal buildings and litter removal and care for the natural environment.

Evidence indicates that SC has a causal effect on crime Halpern (2005, 135) explains. This is at the micro, meso and macro levels. This is summarised in figure 1 below.

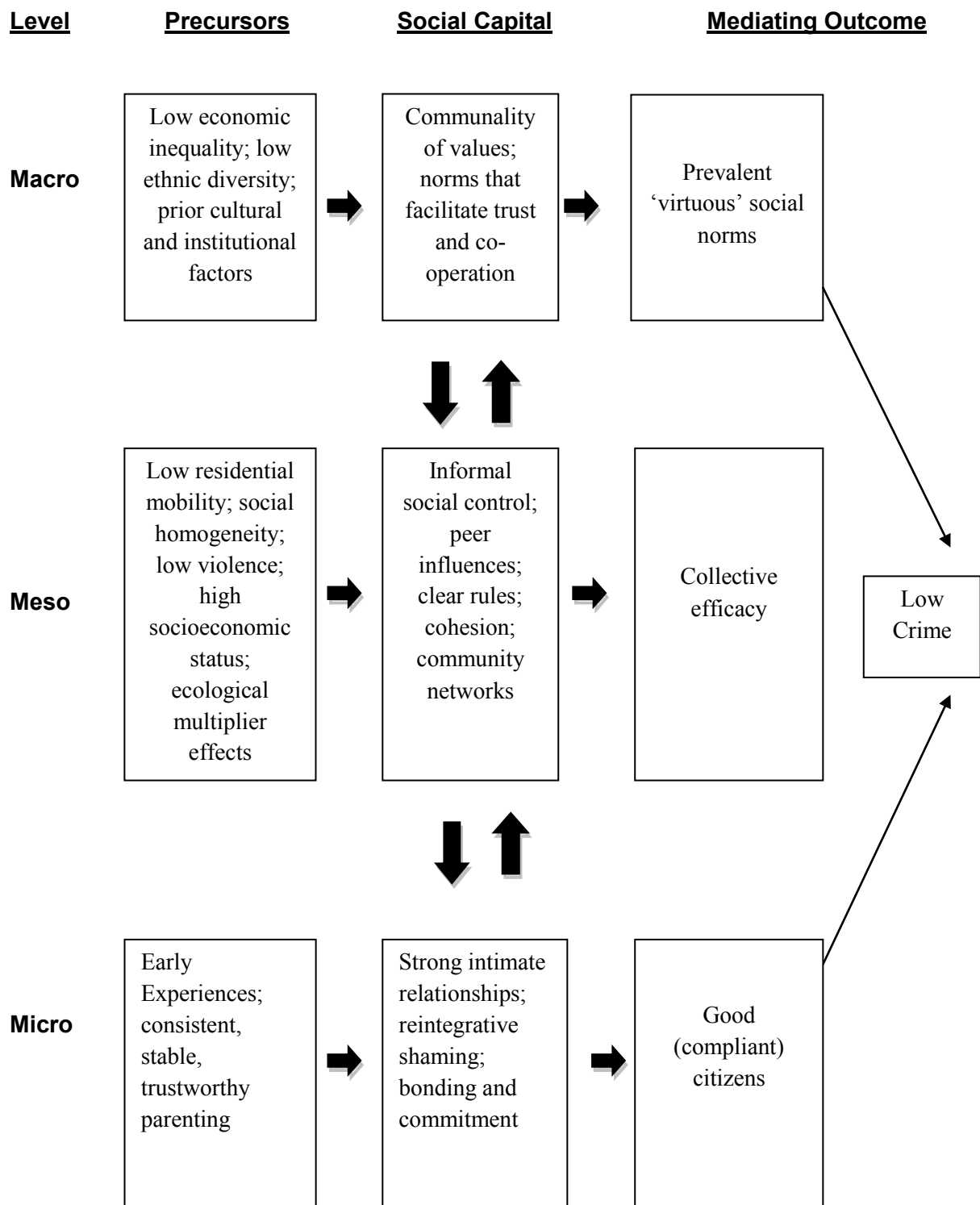


Figure 1: Summary of social capital and crime at micro-, meso-, and macro levels.

(Halpern 2005, 137)

At the micro level, Halpern (2005, 136) explains is when one finds individuals who are less bound into intimate and trusting relationships are more likely to become offenders and the victims of crime. He explains how strong, consistent and trustworthy intimate relationships draw youths into a wide range of commitments, values and mainstream satisfactions and these inhibit criminal offending.

An illustration of the positive effects of a supportive social relationship that Halpern (2005,136) refers to is a study that was undertaken of troubled and disadvantaged young people where researchers found that conduct disorders in young people were strongly predictive of antisocial personality and other problems in adulthood. The minority of troubled children who tended to not offend had supportive people in their lives.

At the meso or community level, Halpern (2005, 136) explains that neighbours tend to join together to enforce everyday norms and values and the extent to which neighbours trust one another is associated with higher collective efficacy.

Finally, we also see large-scale regional and even national differences in crime levels that appear to relate to social capital. Partly these differences appear to reflect macro-level social and economic forces, such as economic inequality, that strain the social fabric across the society, reducing trust, mutual respect, and the common ground on which social capital at the micro- and meso- levels must be built.

(Halpern 2005, 136)

The presence of many stable families in a community Putnam (1995, 314) explains, is usually associated with lower levels of crimes committed by youths, he attributes this to the families raising well-adjusted and well-behaved children. These sets of families produce a ripple effect throughout the community by producing peers that other children can look up to and then follow as good examples. This leads to less delinquency and a lower drop out rate at school. Halpern (2005, 129) also suggests that having neighbours intervene in minor problems like graffiti and children skipping school seem to prevent a neighbourhood deteriorating into more serious crime.

2.12.5.3 Social Capital and Poverty

Given that crime may be seen as one result of poverty, the high crime rate in South Africa may be due to the exceptionally high rate of poverty:

Approximately 57% of individuals in South Africa were living below the poverty line in 2001, unchanged from 1996. Limpopo and the Eastern Cape had the highest proportion of poor with 77% and 72% living below the poverty income line, respectively. The Western Cape had the lowest proportion in poverty (32%), followed by Gauteng (42%).

(Human Sciences Research Council 2004, 2)

The number of people living below the poverty line did not change significantly between 1996 and 2001, however, the level of poverty that people are living in currently has worsened and the gap between the rich and the poor has widened. To illustrate this “the [Human Sciences Research Council] HSRC has used a measure called the poverty gap that measures the required annual income transfer to all poor households to bring them out of poverty. The HSRC study has shown that the poverty gap has grown from R56 Billion in 1996 to R81 billion in 2001, indicating that poor households have sunk deeper into poverty” (Human Sciences Research Council 2004, 1). The table below, adapted from the HSRC factsheet illustrates the poverty indicators by province:

Province	# of poor people (Millions)	% of population in poverty	Poverty gap (R – billion)	Share of poverty gap
Eastern Cape	4.6	72%	14.8	18.2%
Free State	1.8	68%	5.9	7.2%
Gauteng	3.7	42%	12.1	14.9%
KwaZulu-Natal	5.7	61%	18.3	22.5%
Limpopo	4.1	77%	11.5	14.1%
Mpumalanga	1.8	57%	7.1	8.7%
North West	1.9	52%	6.1	7.5%
Northern Cape	0.5	61%	1.5	1.8%
Western Cape	1.4	32%	4.1	5.0%
South Africa	25.7	57%	81.3	100%

Table 1. Poverty Indicators by province

(Human Sciences Research Council 2004, 2)

While poverty can force people into committing crime purely for survival, not all crime is (in any direct sense, at least) poverty-driven. Some criminals join gangs where they feel they are worth something as a gang member or simply to commit crime for profit.

NGOs and other organisations working together with government, the community and local companies to stimulate job creation, leading to increased employment would help towards ridding South Africa of the „crime for survival“ phenomenon. This increase in availability of jobs and higher levels of employed people could help to increase levels of SC.

While people living in poverty depletes the level of SC in the community, the widening gap between the „haves“ and the „have nots“ in South Africa is also leading to a loss of SC. The “political sociology of class cleavages has long suggested that with increasing inequality

individuals might find it more difficult to relate with each other's expectations, decreasing trust and undermining conditions necessary to sustain long term co-operation" (Alexander 2007, 371).

2.12.5.4 Social Capital and Prostitution and Child Prostitution and Abuse

Prostitution also plays a part in depleting SC. Some women turn to prostitution as a way to survive financial hardships and others as a way to make more money than if they worked for the minimum wage in a factory or a supermarket, (assuming they were even able to get a job in one). Many of these women may have grown up in extreme poverty, or lost their parents when they were still children, and have no skills or education to call upon in order to earn a living. In a 2007 survey conducted by the Institute for Security Studies within a 54 kilometer radius of the centre of Cape Town, a total of 103 brothels were identified, 964 prostitutes working within these brothels. There were a further 247 prostitutes counted who were working outside the brothels on the street.

An even greater social issue is that of child prostitution. Helen Zille, the Democratic Alliance leader made a speech in 2008 on drugs, decay and child abuse, in which she stated:

In South Africa, 23,000 rapes and 50,000 cases of assault against children were reported to the police. There are many, many more cases that go unreported. Child abuse is a complex problem, but it is clear that the rampant drug and alcohol abuse is a major factor driving it. When parents abuse drugs and alcohol, they neglect their children. These children are left to their own devices, at the mercy of those who prey on children. And, when children are neglected and there are drug dealers on every street corner, it is not long before they are caught up in a cycle of drug and alcohol abuse themselves. Without the means to pay for drugs and alcohol, these children often resort to selling their bodies on the street to buy drugs. And this is what is happening here in Vrededorp, an area that has become infamous for having the highest rate of child abuse in the greater Johannesburg region.

The Teddy Bear Clinic in Johannesburg is currently caring for a 9 year old boy who was selling his body on Vrededorp's streets to pay for his addiction to crack cocaine. His is only one such case.

(Zille 2008, 1)

Abuse against women and children is a serious problem in South Africa. Child rape is a common occurrence. Social ills such as these erode away at SC.

2.12.5.5 Social Capital and Health

HIV and Aids in South Africa is a massive problem. "Based on a wide range of data including the household and antenatal studies, UNAIDS published in 2010 an estimate of 17.8% prevalence among 15-49 year olds at the end of 2009. Their high and low 17.2% and 18.3% respectively. According to their own estimate of total population, this implies that

around 5.6 million South Africans were living with HIV at the end of 2009, including 300,000 children under 15-years-old” (www.avert.org 2009, 1).

This epidemic leaves children alone with no parents running households with younger siblings. In the General Household Survey 2002-2006 it was estimated that 122,000 children live in child headed households in South Africa (2009, 4). “Child headed households are at risk of having to cope not only without adults but also with poorer living conditions than other children. They lack regular income from earnings and social grants, and are disproportionately located in non-urban areas, where service delivery is poor” (Meintjes et al 2009, 4). The AIDS epidemic depletes South Africa of its workforce and the cost to the State of antiretroviral medication is enormous. Additionally, HIV becomes even more deadly when combined with the high rate of tuberculosis (TB) that exists in South Africa. “South Africa has one of the highest co-infection rates, with an HIV prevalence of almost three-quarters among people with incident tuberculosis. Despite accounting for just 0.7% of the global population, the country accounts for 28% of the world’s people living with both HIV and TB” (www.avert.org 2009, 1). Combine these illnesses with the terrible living conditions that the poverty stricken face in the township shacks and one is faced with an appalling situation. This epidemic depletes SC as people infected simply try to survive on a day-to-day basis.

2.12.5.6 Social Capital and Teen Pregnancy

Teenage pregnancy is an additional serious social problem in South Africa. According to The Childs Institute at the University of Cape Town, the percentage of teenage girls (15-19 years) who have experienced a pregnancy is illustrated in the following table:

Province	1998	2003
Eastern Cape	18%	14%
Free State	13%	15%
Gauteng	10%	12%
KwaZulu-Natal	17%	2%
Limpopo	20%	17%
Mpumalanga	25%	13%
North West	13%	14%
Northern Cape	18%	15%
Western Cape	16%	14%
South Africa	16%	12%

Table 2. Percentage of teenage girls (15-19) who have ever been pregnant.

(Childs Institute: University of Cape Town 2009, 1)

The high levels of teenage pregnancy demonstrates the fact that many girls are participating in unsafe sexual practices, and hence they are at risk of contracting any of the sexually transmitted diseases (STIs), including HIV / Aids. In instances where girls come from poor families or child headed households, another baby in the home becomes a huge burden on the girl and her household. Furthermore, the stigma of pregnancy may force her to drop out of school thus ending her chance of getting an education. This situation does nothing to improve the levels of SC in a community.

2.12.5.7 Social Capital and Racism

South Africa's apartheid past has led to a severe erosion of SC. The racist forced removals of people from areas such as District 6 in Cape Town and South End in Port Elizabeth tore communities apart and people were forcibly removed into areas they did not want to be in. The racist policies of the Apartheid government engendered fear, hatred and distrust throughout the populace and destroyed any sense of community or togetherness amongst the peoples of South Africa. This made for a country split by race, filled with hatred and intolerance.

The phenomenon of xenophobia that is currently an issue in South Africa, which is essentially directed from black South Africans towards other African immigrants coming to live and work in South Africa from the rest of the continent, serves to illustrate just how intolerant some South Africans still are and how little SC there still is in some communities. Despite the fact that the apartheid era ended more than 16 years ago, this appears not to have led to a desire for unity in some communities, neither between South Africans themselves, nor between South Africans and Africans from other countries such as Zimbabwe and Somalia, who place an extra burden on the South African economy if they are illegal immigrants. SC seems to be difficult to cultivate in diverse communities. "Preliminary evidence suggests that ethnically and racially diverse communities tend to have lower SC levels than homogenous communities" (Alexander 2007, 369).

The „brain drain“ of professional people to other countries also plays a large part in the lack of SC in South Africa. In 2001 it was estimated that “up to 100,000 people are believed to have left South Africa over the last three years and 70% of skilled South Africans still in the country are considering emigrating despite government calls for them to stay and help this country” (BBC News 2002, 1). This state of affairs demonstrates a worrying lack of faith in South Africa's future.

According to a report by the South African Institute on Race Relations. Some 800,000 out of a total white population of 4 million have left since 1995, by one count. But they're hardly alone. Blacks, and Indians are also

expressing the desire to leave. In the last 12 years, the number of blacks graduating in South Africa with advanced degrees has grown from 361,000 to 1.4 million a year. But in that time the number of those expressing high hopes to emigrate has doubled.

(Johnson 2009, 1)

The reasons cited in Johnson's article for this number of people leaving South Africa are varied. Crime is one of the main reasons, along with what is perceived to be a political crisis with South Africa's current president, President Zuma having been to court on corruption and rape charges. The killings of farmers and the government's affirmative action policies all contribute towards a situation which "many whites feel limits their opportunities for advancement and which keeps many émigrés from returning" (Johnson 2009, 2). These issues are not conducive to raising the level of SC in the country, and the loss of so many skilled people is detrimental to South Africa's future.

At the regional level, Halpern (2005, 193) discusses how Putnam's study of Italy provides the classic example of the relationship between SC and government effectiveness. It particularly highlights the importance of horizontal or egalitarian forms of SC as being more effective than hierarchical forms of SC. Halpern (2005, 193) also says that although no other study of regional government comes close to being as comprehensive as Putnam's, studies of regional government in Germany, Hungary, Russia and the USA have reported similar findings. These findings are:

Cross-national studies have shown that corruption within government is strongly and negatively associated with social capital, measured as trust between strangers. Putnam's observation that more hierarchical forms of social organisation are less conducive to social trust and effective government is also borne out by cross-national analyses – having higher proportions of the population ascribing to hierarchically organised forms of religion (notably Catholicism) is strongly associated with lower social trust. More detailed research on the relative performance of the post-Soviet nations and on the failures of government within many African nations reveals a similar association between weak social capital and poorly performing government institutions.

(Halpern 2005, 193)

2.12.5.8 Social Capital and Education

Education plays a vital role in increasing SC. For SC to accumulate or occur one needs shared norms and values and reciprocity, which was evident in the classroom in this study as all the learners came from one particular area and one economic grouping. These similarities helped form bonding capital between the learners. The teachers were all predominantly Xhosa apart from the researcher who was white and a few part-time Zimbabwean teachers who were helping out at the school and volunteer groups from

countries like Germany. There was an unequal relationship between the learners as the researcher came from a different race, a different economic class, and had a different home language. This reduced bonding capital between the learners and the researcher. However, according to Woolcock (2001, 13-14) these dissimilar situations allowed for vertical ties to be established. According to Islam et al, vertical ties are hierarchical or unequal relations due to differences in power or resource bases and status (2006, 8). These vertical ties helped the learners to access resources, ideas and information from outside their social context.

In one issue that they raise when looking at the concept of education and SC, Helliwell and Putnam (2007, 1) discuss the fact that the level of education of an individual and the levels of education in groups is one of the most important predictors of many forms of political and social engagement, from voting to chairing a local committee. Participation is linked to education. To illustrate this, they discuss the fact that participation in society is affected primarily by educational levels, and that people are more likely to participate in political and social organisations when they and the people around them are more educated. So, by having a better educated younger generation one would expect more civic participation of South Africans in the running of their country.

At an individual level, educational achievement is consistently found to predict SC. Halpern (2005, 163) explains that individuals with higher education attainment have greater civic and voluntary engagement, larger and more diverse social networks, and higher trust in others. As Putnam (2007, 46) found, individuals with higher levels of education (university level as compared to elementary school) are six times more likely to attend public meetings.

According to Bassani (2007, 17) the issue of youth studies has become increasingly popular in the social sciences because of its utility in explaining the well-being of individuals and groups. Youths naturally gravitate into groups either at school or outside with their friends or peers or even as part of a gang. SC which is “the product of social relationships (such as trust, loyalty, security, self confidence) that youths have within such groups as the family, school and other organisations is believed to play a major role in the development of well being” (Bassani 2007, 17).

There are five main dimensions in SC theory within the current literature these are:

1. Various forms of capital influence well-being, of which SC plays a pivotal role.
2. A positive relation between SC and well-being exists.
3. Social resources are transformed into SC.

4. Social capital is created in a complex process.
5. Social capital formed in two groups (such as the family and school) interacts to influence the effect that social capital has on youths.

(Bassani 2007, 18)

These five main dimensions can all be extended to all measures of youth well-being. Well-being is measured in this context via academic achievement and in some cases behaviour (indirect and direct physical aggression, emotional disorders and general behaviour) and can also be measured when examining the health of youths, including functional health according to Bassani (2007, 19).

In conclusion, SC has been “shown to be important for strengthening democracy and promoting development” (Krishna 2007, 941). However, the main point that has to be made is that it needs communities to make SC grow: Krishna (2007, 954) explains that it is the communities who form self-initiated local organizations and develop rules to manage collective enterprises among themselves, and have available leaders to help organise building and rule developments, only then will SC grow. SC is not significantly grown where only outside organisations go in and try to implement projects: “Internal agency is critical for SC generation” (Krishna 2007, 954).

2.13 Summary

To summarise, Chapter 2 discussed the theory behind English as a second language and SLA, FonF, the teaching of English language history, Xhosa and English, language transfer and Black South African English. The chapter starts with an explanation of the two forms of English language teaching, EFL and ESL and how they differentiate from one another.

The chapter continues with an explanation of how English was originally taught in the same way that Latin was taught hundreds of years ago with a main focus on rote learning. There is also an explanation of a number of ESL teaching approaches that were popular historically after the rote memorisation technique was deemed ineffective.

Thereafter followed a discussion on ESL teaching and the problems facing certain learners in South Africa. These problems include the effects of the remnants of the Bantu Education Act and the apartheid policies, both of which have left their mark on the linguistic effectiveness of today’s learners.

Mid-way through the chapter, a detailed explanation is given of the approach used in the study called „FonF“ with examples to show how it is used and why it being considered a useful tool by the researcher.

An issue that may affect learner ability is then incorporated into the chapter with a discussion on Xhosa and English and language transfer, and how this may be a factor in language acquisition.

This is then followed by a discussion on South African English and the term „Black South African English“ (BSAE). The next section contains studies that have already been undertaken where this approach has been used in the classroom setting.

The literature review concludes with an explanation of SC, along with examples of social issues which increase or decrease the levels of SC in communities.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

3.1.1 Philosophical framework

The methodology underpinning this research is both qualitative and quantitative in nature. Much of the classroom practice that involved various FonF approaches is essentially qualitative as it is not possible to capture all the nuances of the inter-personal communication that happens in a classroom by using quantitative methods. On the other hand, however, the data produced by the tests and free writing exercises could be analysed using statistical techniques that quantified the frequency and distribution of certain linguistic units.

The qualitative portion of the research falls under the „pragmatic“ philosophical framework. This framework “arises out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than antecedent conditions as in postpositivism” (Creswell 2009, 10). It is focused on being practical and according to Creswell (2009, 10), is not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality. It applies to mixed methods research in which the researchers can draw from both qualitative and quantitative assumptions when they are involved in their research.

This framework allows the researcher freedom of choice to find methods, techniques and procedures that best suit the needs of the research. Pragmatism’s practical focus is about “what works” (Creswell 2009, 10; Patton 2002, 136) and looks for solutions to problems (Creswell 2009, 10). Pragmatism supports the idea that “truth is what works at the time. It is not based in a duality between reality independent of the mind or within the mind. Investigators use both quantitative and qualitative data because they work to provide the best understanding of a research problem” (Creswell 2009, 11).

Qualitative methodology involves “exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (Creswell 2009, 4). The qualitative approach is linked to the phenomenological or interpretivist paradigm. The beginnings of this approach go “back to the ethnographic fieldwork as first advocated by anthropologists, such as Frans Boas during the nineteenth century... .The origins of qualitative research in social research are more often linked to the pioneering work of sociologists at the University of Chicago in the first two decades of the twentieth century” (Babbie and Mouton 1998, 25). The sociologists emphasised doing fieldwork in the natural settings of actors and they brought prominence to the use of various qualitative methods that are now usual in this type of research.

Qualitative research is:

Research that investigates aspects of social life which are not amenable to quantitative measurement. Associated with a variety of theoretical perspectives, qualitative research uses a range of methods to focus on the meanings in interpretation of social phenomena and social processes in the particular contexts in which they occur.

(Jupp 2006, 248)

The reason behind the choice of a qualitative paradigm is that qualitative research “is concerned [with exploring] the subjective meanings through which people interpret the world, the different ways in which reality is constructed (through language, images and cultural artifacts in particular contexts” (Jupp 2006, 249). Under this main umbrella term of qualitative research, the lessons and the interactions and communication fell under the paradigm of phenomenological research.

This phenomenological “paradigm is based on a predominantly mental metaphor, i.e. the centrality of human consciousness” (Babbie and Mouton 1998, 28). This tradition aims primarily at understanding people. Many of the main ideas of a phenomenology of the social sciences were developed by Alfred Schutz in the 1940s.

Alfred Schutz wrote two articles in which he “set himself the task of analysing the reality of everyday life” (Babbie and Mouton 1998, 28). Schutz worked together with an American philosopher named William James. James came up with an idea of „sub-universes“. These „sub-universes“, James concluded, are an infinite number of order of realities, each with its own special separate style of existence. These orders of reality include phenomena such as the world of physical things, the world of science, religion, and the supernatural. Babbie and Mouton (1998, 28) discusses how the word „real“ refers to anything that stands in a certain relation to ourselves.

Phenomenologists also “argue that the relation between perception and objects is not passive – human consciousness actively constructs the world as well as perceiving it” (Gray 2009, 171). It is necessary to gain access to people’s common-sense thinking in order to interpret and understand their actions. Gray (2009, 171) explains that phenomenology seeks to understand the world from the participant’s point of view.

All the FonF lessons took place in the classroom and therefore the classroom could, in a sense, be considered to be a kind of sub-universe that James refers to, where the teacher is interacting with the learners. How the learners perceive the lessons that they are participating in constructs, not only their knowledge, but also constructs the sub-universe of the classroom that they are immersed in for the period of the lesson.

The classes consisted of lessons with reading and discussions along with feedback and interpersonal communication. The learners brought to the class various issues from their personal lives that could affect their performance in the classroom and affect the uptake of the lessons presented. They also brought a group dynamic and interacted as a class.

The other methodological approach used in this research is essentially a quantitative one. This was employed to analyse the data produced by the various tests and free writing exercises given to the control and experimental groups. The philosophical position underlying this aspect of the research project is that of positivism. This position allows for numeric recording and analysis of observations. Jupp (2006, 229) defines positivism as the methodological underpinning of survey research and experimental approaches.

This approach is verificatory it gives a true or false, yes or no answer to any question asked in the study. Positivism “is a term with many uses in social science and philosophy. At the broad end it embraces any approach which applies scientific method to human affairs conceived as belonging to a natural order open to objective enquiry” (Grix 2004, 80). Grix elaborates more on positivism with an explanation that positivism is an epistemological approach and is a broad term under which many approaches to social enquiry are known.

Positivism has a long history going back to Aristotle and was then developed further by the likes of René Descartes, Auguste Comte and Émile Durkheim. They looked upon natural science as a model for social science. By using this position, the researcher is trying to “establish regular relationships between social phenomena by using theory to generate hypotheses which can then be tested” (Grix 2004, 81).

Some “researchers state that they do not prove a hypothesis; instead, they indicate a failure to reject the hypothesis” (Creswell 2009, 7). This is because Creswell explains that under this position, one of the assumptions is that knowledge is conjectural and antifoundational so absolute truth can never be found.

The approach is an empirical approach using a quantitative method to test the hypotheses. Empiricism “began as a philosophical doctrine in the writings of Locke, Berkeley and Hume. In the twentieth century it had an enormous influence on scientific method and was the basis of positivism” (Jupp 2006, 90).

In empirical studies, knowledge is validated either through sense experience or scientific experiments or “in the social science through survey questionnaires and interview data” (Jupp 2006, 90). This study is empirical in nature and the hypothesis is either proven or disproved by using tests to obtain results. Empirical research refers to “evidence based on

observations, especially evidence obtained by systematic and controlled scientific research” (Hoy 2010, 5). Hoy explains that empirical research is based on experimentation and careful observations, which are methodical, measured and controlled. This study uses tests which can be measured to extract results. This approach is suitable for this study as the researcher was looking for a definitive answer to the research question as to whether this teaching method proved useful.

A quantitative method is a technique of research that involves the collection of data in numerical form for quantitative analysis. This method has “certain strengths and weaknesses as a methodology, and is mostly associated with the positivist tradition” (Jupp 2006, 250). It is a method which “tests a theory by specifying narrow hypotheses and the collection of data to support or refute the hypotheses” (Creswell 2009, 16). This method was then used to test the researcher’s hypotheses, by using statistical analysis of the results of tests to prove whether the FonF treatment was effective or not.

A sample of participants was identified to participate in the study. The participants then used the experiment designed by the researcher to generate results. The results of the study can then be generalised to the rest of the population, in this particular case, the ESL learners in schools in South Africa.

The greatest advantage of quantitative research is the fact that the data obtained via these methods can be subject to considerable statistical analysis, can generalize beyond the sample under investigation, allowing the testing of hypotheses, and the evaluation of the efficacy of interventions in various areas of interest, including social policy. In addition, experimentation would have no meaning without quantitative research methods.

(Jupp 2006, 250)

Creswell also comments that “[e]xperimental research seeks to determine if a specific treatment influences an outcome. This impact is assessed by providing a specific treatment to one group and withholding it from another, then determining how both groups scored on an outcome” (2009, 12). This experimental design was specifically used to determine if the FonF treatment influenced the outcome of grammatical structure acquisition in the classroom.

By having the study use both qualitative and quantitative methodologies the researcher was able, firstly, to gather, statistical results to suggest that the FonF approach could be successfully used within a ESL class in a disadvantaged school, and secondly, to investigate the interpersonal dynamics of a classroom in a township school in South Africa. By using qualitative methodology in the classroom, then, the researcher was able to observe and

report on the human side of the study. This aspect looked at the interaction of the learners and how their personal and social problems affected them within the classroom.

The quantitative method, by contrast, allowed for the numeric data to be collected and analysed, which, when statistically analysed pointed to some significant differences that supported the hypothesis that FonF can be useful in helping learners acquire grammatical forms.

The theoretical framework in this dissertation is that of sociolinguistics. This is a branch of language study that falls within the overall discipline of linguistics. Johnson and Johnson describe sociolinguistics as that branch of linguistics that studies all aspects of the relationship between language and society. It includes variationist work on regional and social accents and dialects and correlates linguistic variables with speakers' socio-economic status, sex and age.

There are various related fields to sociolinguistics which include „Ethnography of Communication“ that investigates the microlinguistics choices in performing speech acts, uses of form and linguistic routines. Another branch of sociolinguistics is that of sociolinguistics in language teaching.

Different branches of sociolinguistics have considerable impact on Second and foreign language teaching... . Since the late 1960s sociolinguists have focused their attention on naturally occurring language use and the description of communicative competence of speakers from various speech communities. This prompted foreign and second language specialists to look to sociolinguistic research for clues in designing syllabuses for language teaching and developing teaching methodologies suitable for the teaching of this material.

(Johnson and Johnson 1998, 294)

The background to sociolinguistics is explored by, amongst others, Mesthrie (2009, 3). He discusses that sociolinguistics had two branches that had strong nineteenth-century antecedents, the study of rural dialects in Europe, and the study of contact between languages that resulted in mixed languages.

Some of the important milestones in the development of linguistic studies include the following:

- C.500BC: Pānini and his followers in India produced oral treatises on phonetics and language structure. Later, independent traditions of language study developed in Europe.
- 1786: This marks the milestone of the founding of modern linguistics, on the basis of a seminal speech by Sir William Jones concerning the relations between Sanskrit,

Latin, Greek and other ancient languages. Linguistics entered an historical phase in which principles of language comparison and classification emerged.

- Early twentieth century: structuralism predominated in linguistics. „Structuralists“ such as Ferdinand de Saussure in Europe and Leonard Bloomfield and others in the USA were concerned with internal systems of languages rather than with historical comparisons.
- 1957: Generative linguistics was founded with the publication of Noam Chomsky’s *Syntactic Structures*. Linguistics shifted to a psycho-biological stage, with an interest in the way in which children acquire languages on the basis of an abstract „universal grammar“ common to all languages.

(Mesthrie, Swann and Leap 2009, 3)

Within sociolinguistics for language teaching there are various theories. One is “variation studies” which looks at all levels of linguistic analysis such as phonology, morphology, lexis, syntax and discourse. It focuses on “linguistic variation is a function of many interlocking factors” (Johnson and Johnson 1998, 295). In fact, everything we say can be said in more than one way. “A sociolinguistic variationist model for the study of SLA can provide an indispensable framework to focus SLA research on the interaction of social factors and cognitive processes as they produce the evolving, variable linguistic system called interlanguage” (Tarone 2007, 845).

Current sociolinguistics came about when there was a break between “sociolinguistics with an interest in language use within human societies and followers of Chomsky’s approach to language (with their interest in an idealised, non social, psycholinguistic competence)” (Mesthrie 2009, 4). Coupland (1998, 1) discusses how sociolinguistics has never been theory deficient and amongst its other achievements has made significant contributions to theorising linguistics and therefore social change along with communicative competence and the communicative bases of human interaction.

Sociolinguistics has also contributed to the linguistic constitution of social context interpersonal relationships and adaptation along with social structure, especially class, race and gender. Coupland (1998, 1) also explains that sociolinguistics has contributed to the establishment of the theoretical significance of language variation that does not only deal with the criticism of theories, but is used as a core dimension of social policy and planning and in the analysis of social inequality. As Coupland points out sociolinguistics should be aimed at “improving linguistic theory and at developing our understanding of the nature of language, and not at making linguistics a social science” (Coupland 1998, 2).

One of the areas that sociolinguistics had made a significant contribution to is SLA and education. Johnson and Johnson (1998, 295) explain that learners will show variable behaviour in their interlanguage (IL). IL is the level of competence that a learner has at any particular time; the grammar is not an imitation of anyone else's, but is purely a system of their own. It is the learner's own internal language which has been developed by their intake of language and building up their own personal grammar. It is systematic and rule-governed, reflecting the learner's evolving L2 system that is independent of the learner's L1, but is not yet of the standard of an L1 speaker of the target language. This is an important aspect of sociolinguistic SLA work, which "examines the interdependence between the social contexts in which IL is used and the cognitive processes of the learner that affect learner language variation and change, leading to acquisition" (Tarone 2007, 837).

This variability in SLA led to recognition of a universal variation in L1 and L2 which then led to language teaching experts recognising the fact that the existence of only one pedagogical standard is not viable. Johnson and Johnson (1998, 299) conclude by questioning whether it matters how L2 learners use conversational style and how they perform linguistic rituals and speech acts. The answer they give is that it does matter, as it affects learners' lives.

Johnson and Johnson (1998, 299) point out that with the secure place of English as a world language one must remember that the L2 learners will be using English to communicate in many situations, such as self- presentation in contexts where their future social, educational and economic well-being is dependent on the culture-dependent style and content of their job application, job interview or lecture. Thus conforming to the cultural norms of the target community does matter.

They emphasise this by reproducing a copy of an authentic unsuccessful letter of application to a British University:

Dear Sir.

I am fine and prey to God, that my these words may please find you in the best of you health and all beautiful colours of life. Sir, I am (nationality), and keen in English studies but the big huddle in my studies is my financial position. Will you please send me, complete information regarding my studies along with information will you please guide me, how can I get a Job there. So that I can get my education and support myself too. I hope you kindness do me a favour. An early reply is requested please

Truly yours.

First Name Surname

(Johnson and Johnson 1998, 300)

The main reason that this applicant was unsuccessful in his-her endeavours was due to the non-native-like style. One of the roles of sociolinguistics, then, is to provide learners with appropriate rules of speaking and writing as well as raising their awareness of the socio-cultural differences across language according to Johnson and Johnson (1998, 300).

Tarone (2007, 837) explains the importance of the link between sociolinguistics and SLA and she also explains how sociolinguistics is a well established branch of linguistics that focuses, not only on the study of the impact of society, but also the impact of social context on the way language is used. She explains that a sociolinguistic approach to SLA is one that studies the relationship between social contextual variables like interlocutor, topic and tasks with the formal features of the learner's language.

Mesthrie (2009, 344) details educational sociolinguistics as a subfield of sociolinguistics and explains that this deals with the relationships between language and education as he points out the "key theme in educational linguistics is the role of language in school success or failure" (Mesthrie 2009, 369). This primarily had been looked at within classroom settings, but recently has seen examination of the language education relationships outside of schools in informal education and community-centred instruction and media / distance education.

Educational sociolinguistics looks at the differences between language use in the classroom and language used outside the classroom such as in learners' homes or in social settings with learners in groups with their friends. Mesthrie (2009, 348) explains that classroom-based teaching and learning is heavily dependent on language and even though teachers may use visual aids to present new information, „teacher talk“ is a primary means of classroom instruction. He also explains that differences between classroom language and home/community language and cultural tradition are one of the most widely cited explanations for classroom-related language difficulties experienced by pupils. In this study the lessons were all presented in English and the use of the learners' home language, in this case Xhosa, was prohibited but the researcher noted that the learners lapsed into Xhosa whilst participating in group work or during breaks outside of the class. The learners say they primarily use Xhosa at home, but occasionally switch into English in certain social circumstances or use English or Afrikaans words in their spoken Xhosa.

3.1.2.Outline

The following sections of this chapter discuss further details of the methodology employed to determine whether a FonF approach to teaching grammatical forms in an ESL classroom is an effective tool or not. It describes the length of the study plus the instruments used to measure the results of the approach and how they were developed. There is an explanation of the grammatical forms examined and how they were introduced in the classroom using a FonF approach.

The chapter further details the sample of the participants ideally required and what sample was finally achieved. The chapter details the ethical considerations taken into account along with the limitations and difficulties encountered. The next part of the chapter offers suggestions for future researchers to consider should they wish to pursue a study similar to this.

This study was a seven month study. The study consisted of three sets of tests. Each set consisted of two tasks. The two tasks were used to establish the level of understanding of the two grammatical forms that were being targeted in this study.

3.1.3 The Tests

3.1.3.1 The judgement and correction task

The first test was a judgement and correction (J & C) task. This task consisted of a set of 90 sentences.

The 90 sentences consisted of a selection of pronouns and all the articles in English. There were 67 incorrect sentences and 23 correct sentences. They were all spaced so as to keep them as far apart as possible from sentences containing the same pronoun or article. For instance the sentence “My brother is good at maths. She will go to university.” was a minimum of eight sentences away from the similar sentence “Thanduxulo was the first male student to take cookery. She is now a top chef”, that tested the same pronoun/ article.

Learners had to read each sentence and decide firstly if the sentence was correct or incorrect. If they deemed it was correct they ticked in the box next to the end of the sentence. If they deemed it incorrect, they then secondly had to locate the error, cross it out, and write the correction underneath the incorrect word. In each case there was only one word which was incorrect. This test appears as Appendix 2.

There are, for example, in this task, 6 incorrect sentences and 2 correct sentences for the article „a”.

Examples of some of the sentences are as follows:

- My brother is good at maths. She will go to university.
- Tobela plays soccer for Celtic. He is an excellent player.
- The new term began yesterday. Did them all register?

- Relative Pronouns

- | | | |
|---------|-------------|-----------|
| ○ who | 4 incorrect | 1 correct |
| ○ whose | 4 incorrect | 2 correct |

Examples of some of the sentences are as follows:

- This is the student whose spoke to me.
- This is the man who built the house.

- Reflexive Pronouns

- | | | |
|-----------|-------------|-----------|
| ○ himself | 3 incorrect | 1 correct |
| ○ herself | 3 incorrect | 1 correct |
| ○ myself | 3 incorrect | 1 correct |

Examples of some of the sentences are as follows:

- Himself and I are good friends and often help each other.
- He told her that herself must find out what happened and report it.

- Articles

- | | | |
|-------|-------------|-----------|
| ○ the | 5 incorrect | 2 correct |
| ○ an | 6 incorrect | 2 correct |
| ○ a | 6 incorrect | 2 correct |

Examples of some of the sentences are as follows:

- He is a best student in the class.
- Let's look at some of the errors I found in your tests.
- I would enjoy the cup of tea, if it were offered.

3.1.3.2 The free writing test

When preparing the free writing tests, the pictures selected had to have one theme which could be presented in three different ways, as they were used in each of the three free writing tests, i.e. the pre-test, the post- test and the delayed post-test. It was also kept in mind that the picture should be of scenes that the learners could relate to from their own life experiences. A busy street scene was therefore selected and three different versions of a street scene made up the picture content of the free writing exercise. This test appears as Appendix 3 with all three pictures included. A sample of one of the learners' answers is also provided along with a copy of the marking sheet.

The marking sheet was designed to mark the number of correct and incorrect examples of each of the forms being tested. See Figure 2 below.

Category Description	# Correct	# Incorrect
Personal Pronouns – subject position (he)		
Personal Pronouns – subject position (she)		
Personal Pronouns – subject position (they)		
Personal Pronouns – object position (him)		
Personal Pronouns – object position (her)		
Personal Pronouns – object position (them)		
Personal Pronouns – possessive form (mine)		
Personal Pronouns – possessive form (yours)		
Personal Pronouns – possessive form (ours)		
Personal Pronouns – possessive form (their)		
Personal Pronouns – possessive form (theirs)		
Relative Pronouns – (who)		
Relative Pronouns – (whose)		
Reflexive Pronouns – (himself)		
Reflexive Pronouns – (herself)		
Reflexive Pronouns – (myself)		
Articles definite (the)		
Articles - indefinite (a)		
Articles – indefinite (an)		

Figure 2: Free writing marking grid.

Both the J & C task and the free writing task were piloted on five Grade 12 learners to assess whether there were any problems with the tests that needed to be corrected.

One of the issues that were picked up was the use of the chain shop name „Pick and Pay“. The learners identified this as an error and corrected it to „Pick n Pay“ as the logo of the shop is printed. This was changed to „Pick n Pay“ in the tests to avoid any complications.

The names used in the J & C task are Xhosa names to avoid any problems due a lack of knowledge of the gender of a person based on an unfamiliar English name.

3.1.4 Administration of the tests

The first set of tests or pre-tests was administered at the beginning of May 2010 before any of the FonF lessons were given. The ten FonF lessons, each two hours in length, were then presented to the experimental group throughout May, July and August. June was not included due to the school holidays. The set of two post tests was then administered at the end of August and the set of two delayed post tests was finally administered at the beginning of November.

The second test consisted of a free writing test. In this test the learners were presented with a picture of a busy street scene in the centre of a town. The learners had to look at the picture and write three or four paragraphs, consisting of about 15 sentences in all, describing what they saw in the picture. They were assisted by being given an instruction of how to begin the task. The instruction was „When I look at this picture I can see...“ This enabled the researcher to see the prevalence of the use of both pronouns and articles in writing about common everyday things. In addition, the verbs “look” and “can see” established the tense as present which helped establish uniformity in the scripts.

3.1.5 FonF Lessons

After the first set of two pre-tests took place in May, a series of 10 FonF lessons took place. These lessons consisted of a series that was repeated twice. The series was as follows:

Articles:

Lesson 1 and 6 A/an

Lesson 2 and 7 The

Pronouns:

Lesson 3 and 8	Relative Pronouns: who, whose
Lesson 4 and 9	Reflexive Pronouns: himself, herself, myself
Lesson 5 and 10	Personal Pronouns: he, she, him, her, them, (Possessives – mine, yours, ours, their, theirs)

These lessons took place with the experimental group in which the researcher provided a focus on each of the above mentioned grammar forms that were used and tested in the tests. In the case of the chosen pronouns; reflexive, personal and relative, this took place in the form of verbal explanations, discussions and various written exercises of the different types of pronouns. This was followed by, for example, a story containing many examples of the forms explained. All occurrences of the forms in the story were highlighted using italicised type. An extract of the story is found as Appendix 4.

An example of how each pronoun is used was provided. Explanations of the general rules of pronouns were also provided. Some examples are:

Relative pronouns: It was explained that they do two jobs at once. They act as subjects or objects of a verb and they can join two clauses together.

„Who“ is used for people. „Whose“ is a possessive relative word referring to people and things.

One of the lessons included a story which contained many examples of the relative pronoun. Each relative pronoun was italicised drawing the learners' attention to the form and how it was to be used correctly. The story is presented as Appendix 5.

There was also a reading exercise with a discussion which included the above mentioned relative pronouns. This lesson appears as Appendix 6. Recasts were used throughout all subsequent lessons to keep drawing learners' attention to this form.

Personal Pronouns: „he“, „she“ and „they“ are used as subjects before verbs. „Him“, „her“, and „them“ are normally used in other cases.

After prepositions: Look at **her**. Why is she with **him**?

In short answers you can use „him“ (informal) or „he“ in conjunction with a verb (more formal). The same rule applies after „as“ and „than“:

Informal

More Formal

„Who’s paying?“ „**Her.**“

„Who’s paying?“ „**She is.**“ (NOT „**She.**“)

I’ve got the same number as **him.**

I’ve got the same number **as he has.**

(Swan and Walter 1997, 48)

Other lessons included rewriting sentences, swapping the nouns for pronouns using a printed table to help. This lesson appears as Appendix 7. This was followed by a „sorting pronoun“ game where the learner had to cut out and sort pronouns into a „possessive“ and „personal“ table. The learners had to colour the two different types of pronouns different colours. Personal pronouns were red and possessives were green. These lessons appear as Appendix 8. Various other exercises were provided to the learners throughout the lessons, in which where sentences had to be read and the pronouns had to be underlined, or a pronoun was given and a sentence then had to be written. These two exercises appear as Appendix 9.

Reflexive Pronouns: Reflexives are used (in bold) when the object is the same person/thing as the subject.

I cut **myself** shaving this morning. (Not I cut ~~me~~...)

He tried to kill **himself**. (Different from *He tried to kill him.*)

Sometimes a reflexive pronoun refers to something that is not the subject.

His letters are all about **himself**.

I told **her** the truth about **herself**.

Reflexive pronouns can also be used to emphasise the subject or object.

I’ll see the President **himself** if necessary.

(Swan and Walter 1997, 50)

Exercises were given where learners had to choose the correct pronouns from a list in a box and fill in the blanks and complete the sentences. A table was also provided, listing the reflexive pronouns and demonstrating that the subjects and the pronouns must match. These appear as Appendix 10.

Homework was issued in the form of written essays. When marking these essays, the researcher highlighted the incorrect forms, and the learners had to write out the corrections. Throughout the classes, oral recasts took place and on occasion some of the stronger learners took to correcting the weaker learners themselves.

Articles (in bold) were presented in a similar fashion. Some general explanations follow:

A/an:

We use „**a**“ before a consonant and „**an**“ before a vowel. But it depends on the pronunciation of the following word and not the spelling.

A dog

A hat

A union

An uncle

We use **a/an** to say what kind of thing somebody or something is, what job a person does, or what something is used as. **A/an** has no plural.

She's **a** farmer. They're farmers.

He worked as **a** taxi driver. They worked as taxi-drivers.

A/an can mean „any example of something“. In the plural, we use no article or „some“.

A spider has eight legs. Spiders have eight legs.

I'd like **a** cup of coffee. I'd like **some** chips.

A/an can mean „a particular one“, if you do not say exactly who or which. In the plural, we use some or no article.

A man called while you were out. **Some** men called.

James married **a** doctor. They both married doctors.

The:

The is used when the subject or object is understood to be a specific thing (i.e. „you know which (one/ones) I mean“.

I bought a radio and a CD player, but **the** CD player didn't work. (= the CD player I just told you about. You know which one.)

The does not mean ‚all‘.

We do not use **the** in generalisations with plural and uncountable nouns.

I like music. (Not ...~~the music.~~) Can you turn off **the** music?

Books are expensive. Put **the** books on the table.

We can use **the** in generalisations with singular countable nouns, to talk about a whole class of things. This is common in scientific and technical language.

Who invented **the** telescope? Do you like living in **the** country?

I can't play **the** piano. I hate **the** telephone.

(Swan and Walter 1997, 21)

The learners were also given a detailed list of examples of the uses of „a/an“ and „the“ along with a story where the articles were highlighted using italics. The learners had another reading comprehension exercise where they had to highlight all the articles and write explanations for at least five articles that they found. These exercises are included as Appendices 11 and 12.

This was followed by verbal group discussions with error correction which took place in the form of recasts. All future lessons of any topic included both written and verbal recasts of all the pronoun forms (reflexive, relative and personal) and articles that were focused on.

The control group continued with their regular lessons where normal focus on all aspects of English was applied – no extra focus to the forms being studied was presented at all.

After a three month period, the post tests were administered and two months later the delayed post tests were administered to both the control and the experimental group. The results of these tests were entered into the statistical spreadsheet, awaiting analysis.

3.2 The Research Question

The main research question of this dissertation is as follows:

- Will using the intervention of a focus on form approach in the teaching of articles and pronouns improve the use of these grammar structures in Grade 11 learners?

Should this approach prove to be effective in helping the learners master the grammar forms focused on, what recommendation can then be made for the implementation of this in the school curriculum?

If this is effective, should a larger long term study be undertaken to verify the results with recommendations being provided, upon positive results, to the Ministry of Education?

3.3 The Research Hypothesis

$H_{0;1}$ Article and Pronoun Acquisition: There is no significant difference in the acquisition of articles and pronouns by the experimental group and the acquisition of articles and pronouns by the control group.

$H_{1;1}$ Article and Pronoun Acquisition: There is a significant difference in the acquisition of articles and pronouns by the experimental group and the acquisition of articles and pronouns by the control group.

3.4 Sample and Participants

The sample for this study came from one school in the Nelson Mandela Metropole. After permission had been sought from the school, the researcher sent letters to the parents / guardians asking for their permission for their children to take part in this study.

The learners, who were given permission to participate in the study by their respective parents / guardians, then took part in the three sets of tests. The experimental group then participated in extra FonF lessons over a three month period whilst the control group continued with their regular lessons.

Care was taken to select all the learners from the same grade and with the same mother tongue. The ages and gender of the participants in the two groups were matched as closely as possible. All the participating learners' academic marks were also available for use in the study. A number of learners were lost from the study due to personal reasons, and were therefore unable to complete all three tests.

The total number of participants that was ideally required for this study was sixty. This figure is made up of twenty in the experimental group and 40 in the control group. The control group ideally would have comprised 20 girls and 20 boys between the ages of 16 and 17. The experimental group would ideally have been made up of 10 girls and 10 boys between the ages of 16 and 17. Unfortunately it was impossible to have the ideal mix of participants. The study finalised with 19 in the experimental group and 35 in the control group. The mix was as follows:

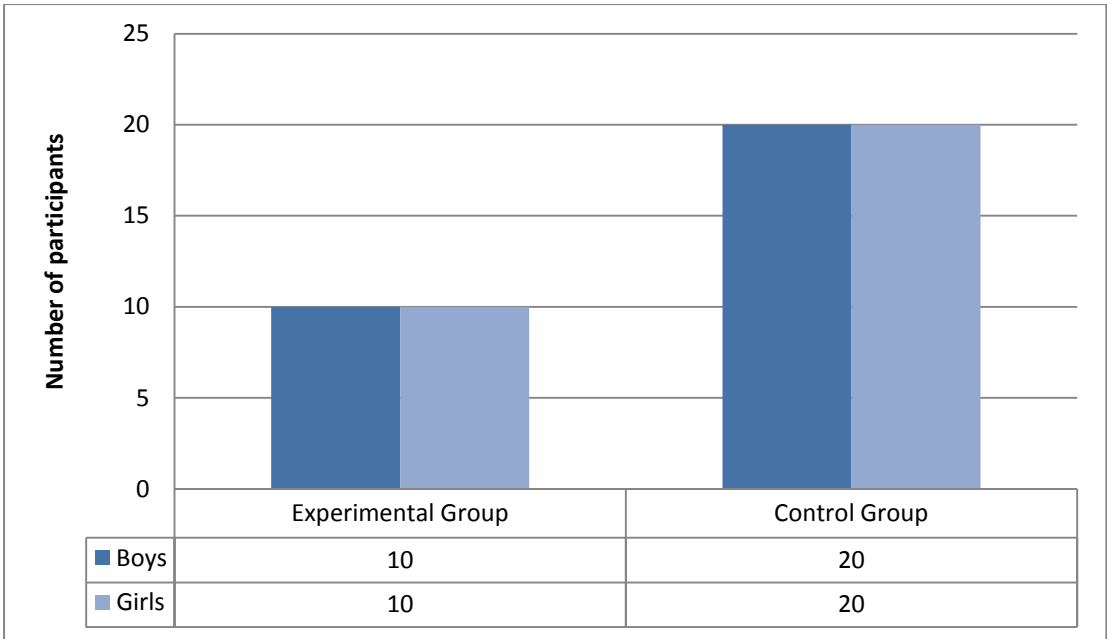


Figure 3: Ideal gender mix of participants for the study.

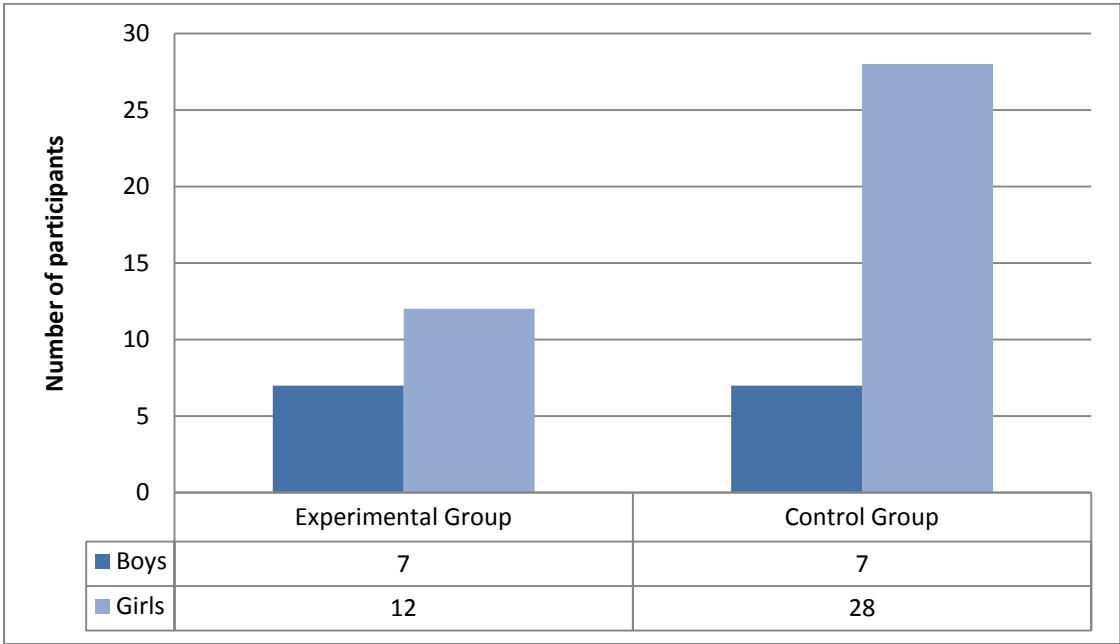


Figure 4: Actual gender mix of the study.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

The researcher’s first step was to obtain ethics approval from the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. Permission was also sought from the Department of Education. The school was then approached and the Principals’ permission was obtained. The Grade 11’s English teacher’s permission was also obtained. Because the participants in this study were

children, permission was then sought from their respective parents / guardians. Letters asking for approval were sent to the parents asking for permission for their child to participate in the study. Once the replies came in, and were all accounted for, the researcher then spoke to the children. Each child was given a letter outlining and explaining the study relevant explanations were given to the control group and the experimental group. Only those children who wished to participate in the study took part.

The children whose parents had approved and had agreed were the only children to write the tests and participate in the FonF lessons.

Confidentiality was maintained at all times with no mention of names in the study. Each child was assigned a code number which was used in the analysis. This further protected their identities.

3.7 Materials and Conducting of Research

The two tests per set that the children had to write, consisting of the J & C test and the free writing test, were conducted under the controlled supervision of the researcher and class teacher in May, August and November.

The pre-test set were written in early May, the post-test set were written in August and the delayed post-test set were written in November. The learners were allowed to ask for clarification of the instructions at any stage of the progress, but no further advice was given regarding the errors they came across in the J & C test.

As soon as the tests were completed, the learners handed them in and no one was allowed to take the tests home or out of the classroom. All tests were administered by the researcher and either an assistant or the class teacher. This was all done manually and all tests were handed directly to the researcher as each learner completed the test.

3.9 Limitations

A limitation was in the age of the learners. There was a significant age difference of eligible learners in Grade 11. Because the other criteria were important the numbers left to choose from were small and a sample of exactly the same age was impossible.

3.10 Challenges while conducting, collecting and processing the research: Suggestions for future researchers

There were a number of challenges that the researcher faced during the process of conducting, collecting and processing the research. These are included here in the hope that they will prove useful to future researchers and help with the smooth collection of data when

similar studies are conducted. These challenges were usually associated with the disruption of the school programme. Disruptions and frustrating delays and changes occurred because of high absentee rates, strike action and transport issues. Other challenges were related to the lack of facilities at the school where the research was being done.

3.10.1. Absenteeism and strike action

Absenteeism from school was a problem, making the extra lessons a challenge for the researcher. The learners who had missed a class had to be mentored and taught separately on their return or else the results would not be uniform. Strikes in the public service sector, which included strike action by the teachers and resulted in the school closing down for some three weeks, delayed getting permission from teachers and the principal for the final tests to be given.

3.10.2 A lack of modern facilities

The lack of electricity in the classrooms and lack of modern facilities meant all lessons had to be done with minimal technology. The lack of overhead projectors, computers with Powerpoint installed, DVDs, etc, curtailed the planning of lessons and limited the researcher to “talk and chalk” and pencils and paper.

3.10.3 Transport issues and unexpected school activities

Transport issues involving the lack of buses and taxis were blamed for the late arrival or the complete lack of arrival of many of the learners involved in the research project. Learners were also sometimes kept out of the classroom by other school activities such as sport, meetings or choir practice. Trying to fit the extra classes in without interrupting these other activities was a challenge, but if planning is done in advance some of the delays can be avoided.

3.10.4 Timing

Everything seemed to take much longer than anticipated and so time needs to be allocated to counter-act these challenges.

3.10.5 Recommendations regarding challenges

Almost all the challenges need time to resolve them. The letters of permission required by the university authorities and the Department of Education take an enormous amount of time to administer and to retrieve from the parents, learners and others who are required by law to submit them to the researcher before she / he is able to embark on the research with the

respondents. The regular absenteeism requires extra time to make up the lost time in class as does the time lost due to transport problems.

The lack of electricity outlets in the classrooms, together with the lack of modern equipment that uses electricity, requires researchers to be inventive in coming up with games, group work activities and enjoyable learning experiences that keep the learners interested in and concentrating upon the grammatical forms that are being taught.

Planning well ahead of time, while simultaneously being flexible and adaptable are keys to the success of conducting research in disadvantaged schools such as the one where this research was carried out. In addition to these recommendations that pertain to the situation in which the research is performed, there are the usual other caveats addressed to future researchers such as backing up all electronic documentation in triplicate and keeping duplicates of all hardcopies such as tests, class exercises, letters of permission, etc, in safe places.

3.11 Summary

Chapter 3 discussed the philosophical framework that this dissertation used. It also discussed the research question and explained how the data for the study was collected. The chapter explained the sampling and how permission was sought for the participants of the study along with the ethical considerations, it ended with a summary of the challenges and advice for future researchers.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of a discussion of the test results of the two groups in the study, by comparing the performance of the experimental and control groups with regard to the results of the three sets of tests that all learners participated in.

The second set of results comprises inferential statistics on the ages and test results of both groups, and this is followed by a discussion of the results.

4.2 Inferential Statistics

The pre-test of each group was compared to the post test and the delayed post test of the same group in order to obtain the results required to test the hypotheses mentioned above. The aim of the research was to look at the following:

- The improvement in the mean number of articles used correctly in a free writing context.
- The improvement in the mean number of errors detected and corrected in the use of articles in a judgement and correction task.
- The improvement in the mean number of a selection of pronouns used correctly in a free writing context.
- The improvement in the mean number of errors detected and corrected in the use of a select number of pronouns in a judgement and correction task.

In addition, the researcher investigated the ages of the learners as well as the marks obtained by them for their English exam at the end of 2009. The researcher worked with a statistician at NMMU, who calculated the necessary statistics based on the raw data provided by her.

In terms of the tests, age of learners and marks of learners, the following were calculated for both the experimental group and the control group and the differences between these groups:

mean,

standard deviation,

minimum,

median ,and

maximum.

To determine the significance of differences, the following techniques were used:

To determine the statistical significance based on the mean differences, the t-test was used with Cohen's d statistic to measure the effect size (practical significance).

The interpretation intervals for practical significance based on the Cohen's d statistic are depicted in Table 1 Gravetter, F. J. and Wallnau L. B. (2009).

Small	Moderate	Large
$0.2 < d < 0.5$	$0.5 < d < 0.8$	$d > 0.8$

Table 1: Practical Significance Interpretation Intervals for Cohen's d statistic

4.3 The Two Groups

4.3.1 Group Size

The experimental group consisted of nineteen participants. The control group consisted of thirty five participants. All were at the time of the study in Grade 11. The study originally started with twenty learners in the experimental group and forty in the control group but during the course of the seven month study, one participant was lost from the experimental group and five participants were lost from the control group. This was due to personal reasons in the learners' lives which made it impossible for them to continue with the study.

4.3.2 Age

The age of the experimental group ranged from fifteen through to eighteen years of age. The age of the control group ranged from fifteen years of age through to twenty-one years of age. Whilst all efforts were made to match the ages better the researcher was constrained by the lack of available learners in the preferred age range.

The following table illustrates the age range of all the participants in the study in both the experimental group and the control group.

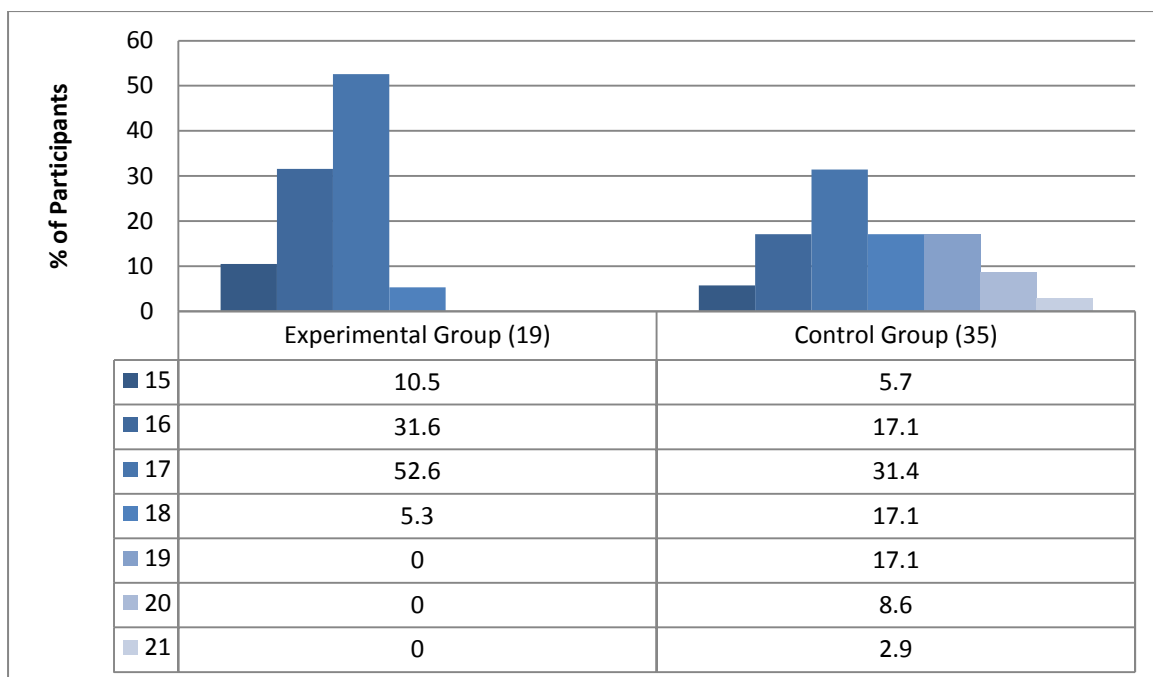


Figure 1: Age distribution

The mean age of the experimental group (16.53) was significantly ($t = -2.94$, $d.f. = 52$, $p = .005$, $d = 0.84$) less than that of the control group (17.60). See Table 2.

Mean	-1.07		
Standard Deviation	-0.71		
Minimum	0		
Median	0		
Maximum	-3.00		
Statistical significance		Practical significance	
t-statistic	-2.94	Cohen's d	0.84
d.f.	54		
p-value	.005		

Table 2: Age differences between Experimental and Control Groups

4.3.3 Gender

Whilst the researcher endeavoured to have an equal number of male and female participants in the study, this proved impossible as there were not enough learners with the correct criteria to fulfil the researcher's requirements.

The gender distribution of the two groups by percentage is depicted in Figure 2.

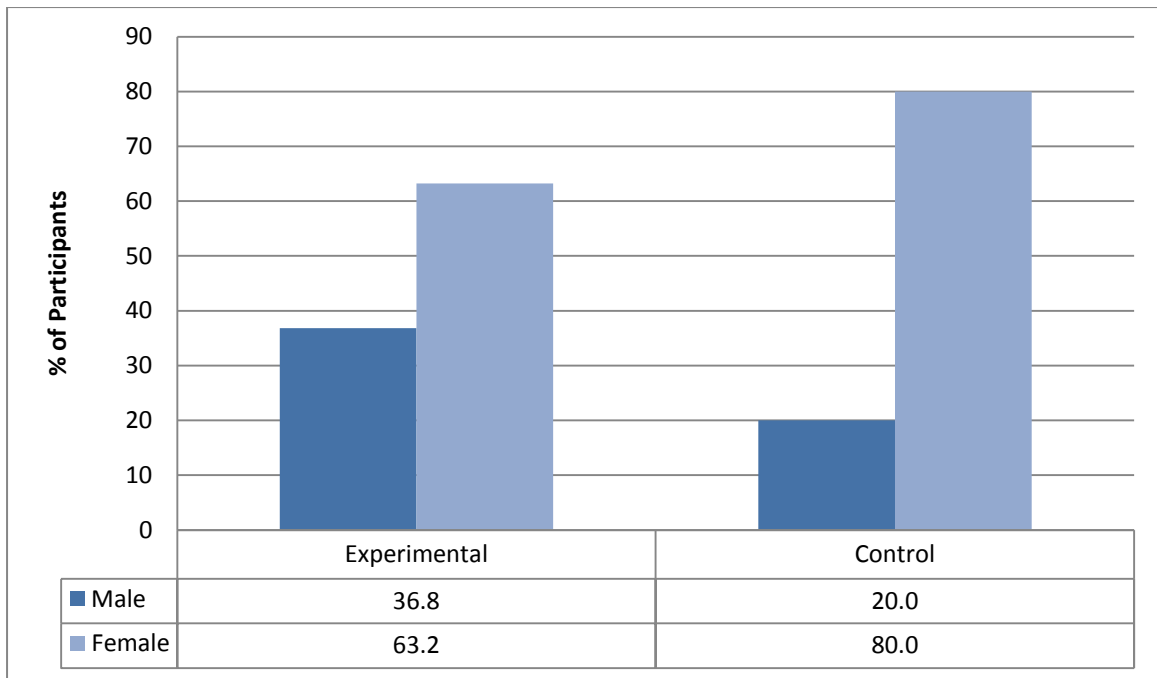


Figure 2: Gender Distribution by percentage

The gender distribution of both groups by actual number of participants both male and female is depicted in Figure 3.

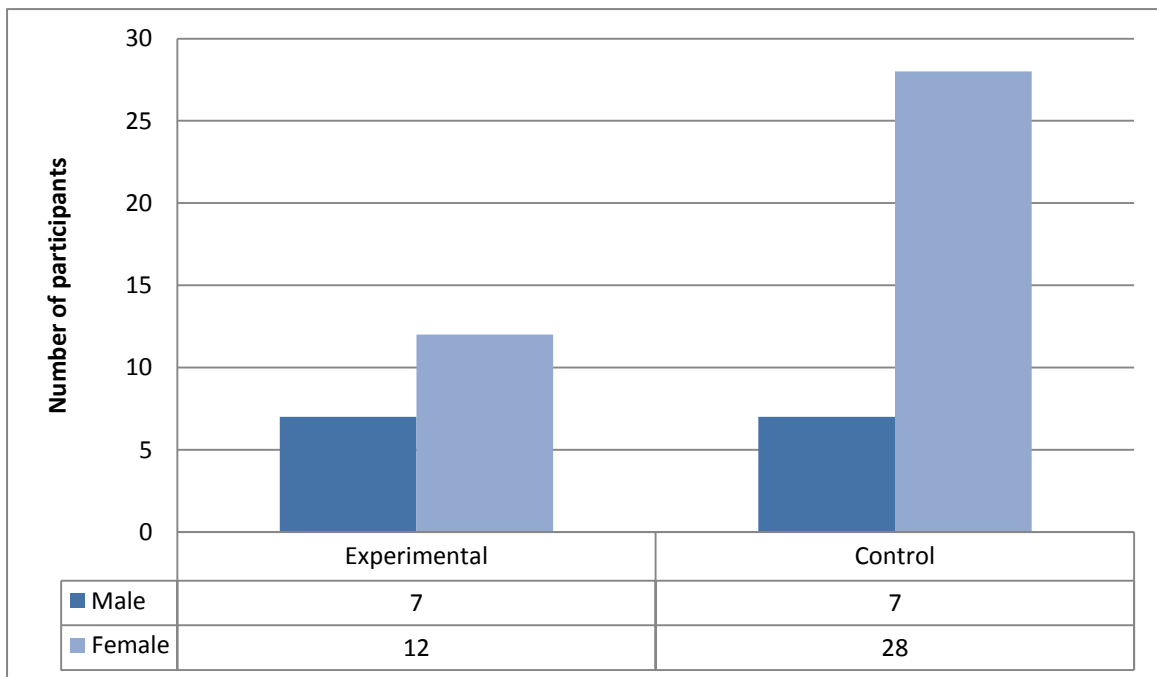


Figure 3. Gender distribution by number

4.3.4 Home Language

All the learners who participated in this study use Xhosa as their home language or mother tongue. The learners spoke varying amounts of Afrikaans and a variety of the other nine official languages.

4.3.5 End of year exam results

The two groups had different end of year exam results with the control group having a much lower level of results than the experimental group. This means that the two groups could not be compared directly. What was compared was the change in performance during the course of the study. This was done to avoid bias due to the control group's initial inferior academic performance.

The experimental group has been involved in an English program for a year aimed at improving their overall English hence their higher test results. During their participation in this program no lessons were presented upon the two grammar forms being tested. The FonF treatment only took place after the pre-test was administered to the participants. The control group continued with their regular English lessons with no FonF treatment.

The table below contains the percentage results of both groups end of year High School English Examination result for 2009.

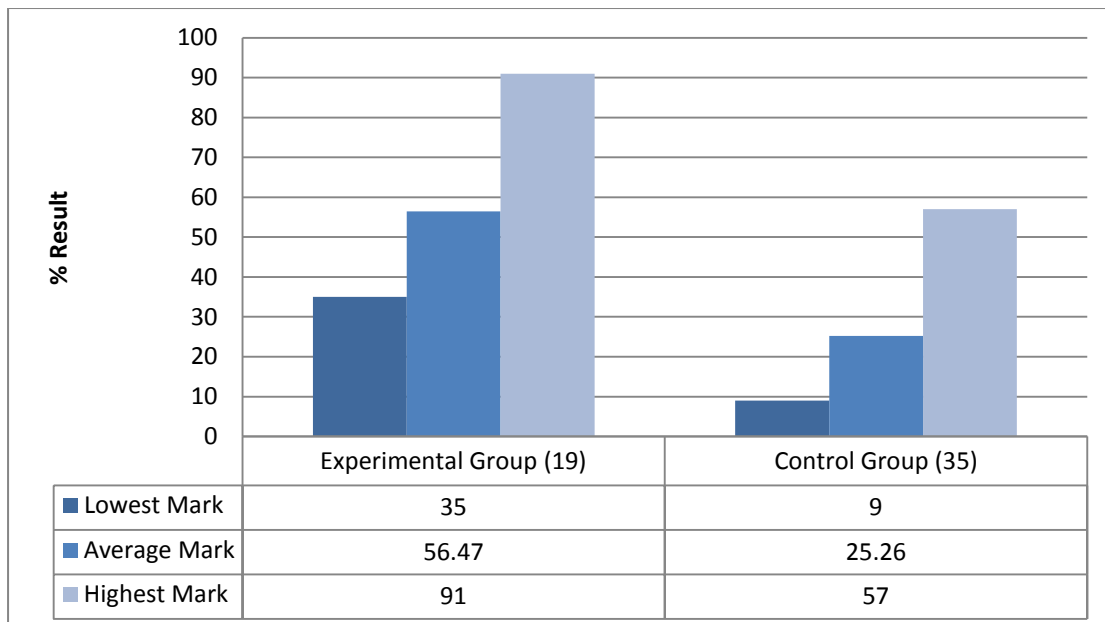


Figure 4: 2009 High School English Examination Result

The mean exam result of the experimental group (56.47) was significantly ($t = 8.96$, $d.f. = 52$, $p < .0005$, $d = 2.55$) better than that of the control group (25.26). See Table 3.

	Experimental	Control	Diff. (Exp. – Con.)
Mean	56.47	25.26	31.22
Standard deviation	14.69	10.69	4.00
Minimum	35.00	9.00	26.00
Median	57.00	24.00	33.00
Maximum	91.00	57.00	34.00
Statistical significance		Practical significance	
t-statistic	8.96	Cohen's d	2.55
d.f.	52		
p-value	<.0005		

Table 3: High School Examination Results by Experimental and Control Groups

4.4 Test Results

The following sections present and discuss the mean differences between the experimental and control group with regard to the results of the tests they participated in.

Judgement and Correction Tasks

Results						
Details	Test 1		Test 2		Test 3	
	<u>Exp</u>	<u>Con</u>	<u>Exp</u>	<u>Con</u>	<u>Exp</u>	<u>Con</u>
Mean	63.47	46.00	69.89	50.11	71.79	50.03
Median	64.00	49.00	74.00	51.00	74.00	52.00
S/D	10.83	12.79	10.73	14.16	9.17	13.50
Minimum	43.00	21.00	48.00	26.00	50.00	24.00
Maximum	80.00	73.00	86.00	78.00	88.00	70.00
Differences						
Details	Test 2-1		Test 3-2		Test 3-1	
	<u>Exp</u>	<u>Con</u>	<u>Exp</u>	<u>Con</u>	<u>Exp</u>	<u>Con</u>
Mean	6.42	4.11	1.89	-0.09	8.32	4.03
Median	7.00	2.00	2.00	0.00	7.00	3.00
S/D	4.90	7.03	5.56	5.34	5.96	5.80
Minimum	0.00	-7.00	-8.00	-14.00	-3.00	-9.00
Maximum	19.00	29.00	15.00	10.00	18.00	17.00
Statistical significance Test 2-1			Practical significance Test 2-1			
t-statistic	1.27		Cohen's d		n/a	
d.f.	52					
p-value	.210					

Statistical significance Test 3-2		Practical significance Test 3-2	
t-statistic	2.57	Cohen's d	0.73
d.f.	52		
p-value	.013		
Statistical significance Test 3-1		Practical significance Test 3-1	
t-statistic	1.28	Cohen's d	n/a
d.f.	52		
p-value	.205		

Table 4: Judgement and Correction Task Results

As indicated in Table 4, only the difference between Test 3 and 2 differed significantly when the Experimental and Control groups were compared, with the Cohen's d statistic (0.73) indicating a difference of medium practical significance.

The following graph illustrates the three mean test results of each group.

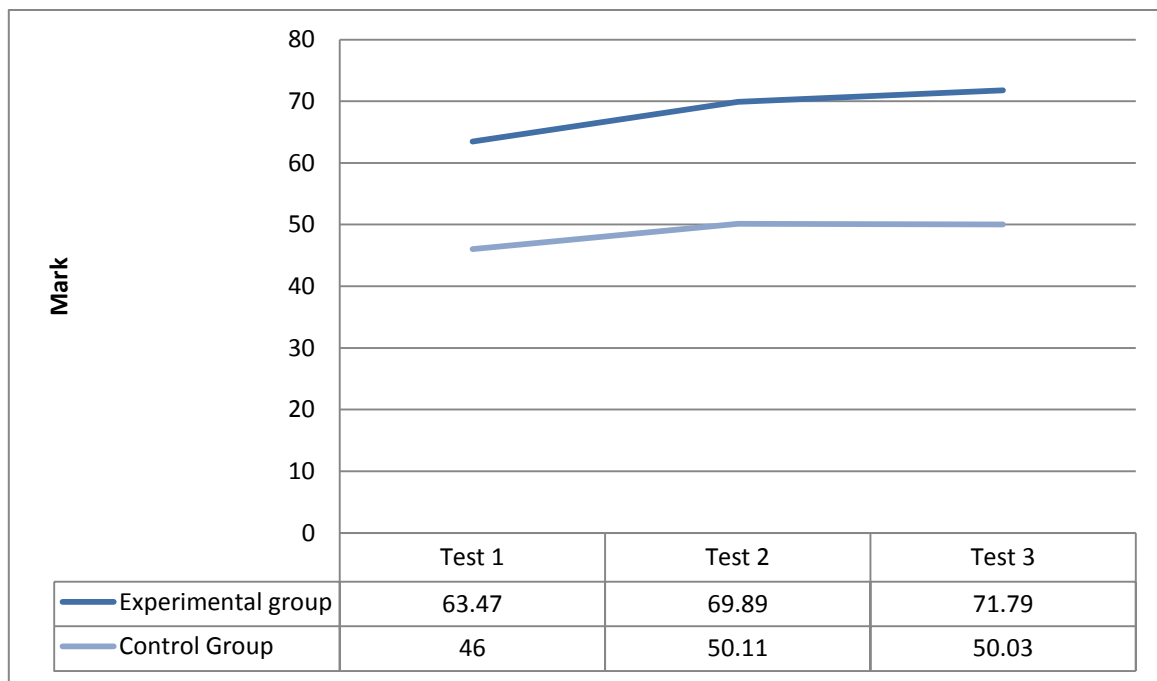


Figure 5: Judgement and Correction Task Results

The Experimental group's mean test results for the Judgement and Correction Task shows an increase of 6.42 between test 1 and test 2 and an increase of 1.90 between test 2 and test three with an overall increase of 8.32 between test 1 and test 3 which shows an

improvement in the use of the two grammatical forms being tested and no loss of delayed retention in the delayed post test.

This result is supported by the study done by Jingjing Qin (2008, 61) and explained in the Literature Review, where dictogloss and processing instruction tasks were used as FonF approaches, the results demonstrated the benefits on acquisition that were evident after the study was completed. These results added additional evidence to the usefulness of FonF as an approach in drawing learners' attention to the target forms whilst engaging in meaningful activities.

The control group also showed an increase of 4.11 between test 1 and test 2 but a small decrease of 0.08 between test 2 and test 3.

The mean results of the experimental groups Judgement and Correction Task support the researcher's hypothesis (see below): as illustrated in Figure 6 below.

*H*_{1;1} Article and Pronoun Acquisition: There is a significant difference in the acquisition of articles and pronouns by the experimental group and the acquisition of articles and pronouns by the control group.

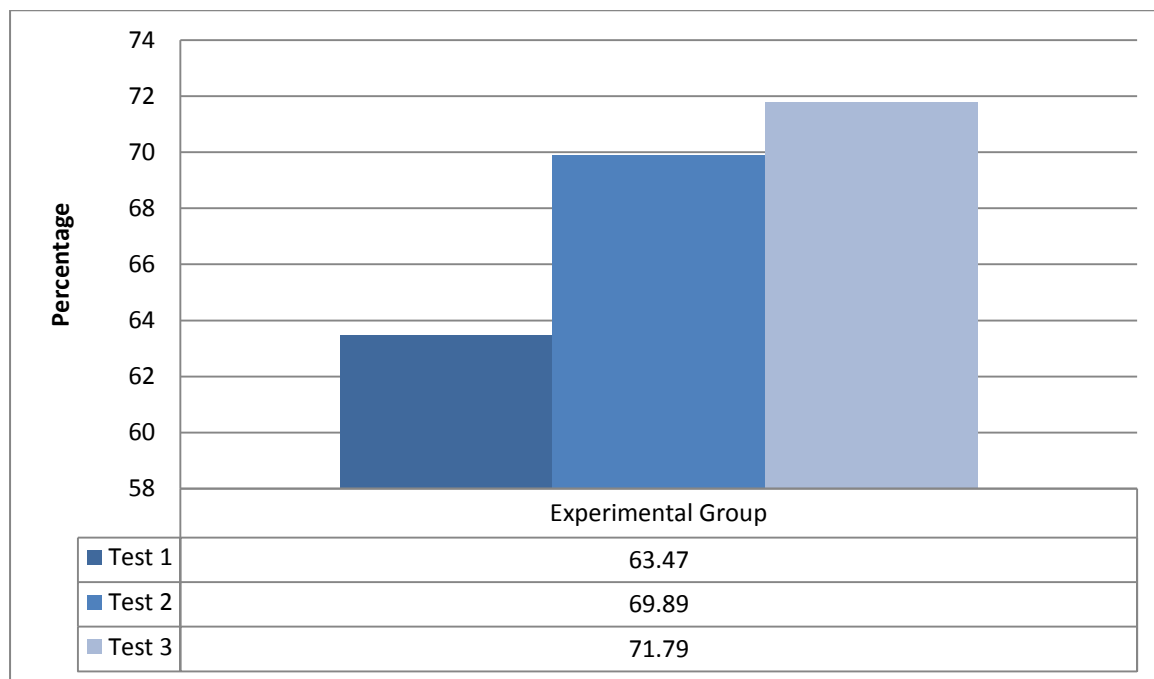


Figure 6: Mean results of the three J & C Tasks of the Experimental group

Table 5 illustrates the correctness in the use of articles and pronouns in the Free Writing Tests.

	Test 1		Test 2		Test 3	
	Exp	Con	Exp	Con	Exp	Con
Mean	85.58	68.34	81.32	61.17	83.47	64.20
Standard Deviation	13.74	21.78	15.80	20.53	13.10	19.78
Minimum	47.00	21.00	50.00	13.00	60.00	17.00
Median	87.00	74	86.00	61.00	85.00	65.00
Maximum	100.00	100.00	100.00	97.00	100.00	93.00

Table 5: Free Writing Results – Correctness

Table 6 illustrates the richness of use of articles and pronouns in the three Free Writing Tests.

	Test 1		Test 2		Test 3	
	Exp	Con	Exp	Con	Exp	Con
Mean	20.42	16.11	12.53	14.20	14.47	13.20
Standard Deviation	11.27	7.47	5.77	7.05	4.94	5.15
Minimum	4.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	4.00
Median	18.00	16.00	12.00	15.00	16.00	14.00
Maximum	42.00	34.00	29.00	28.00	24.00	23.00

Table 6: Free Writing Results – Richness

Table 7 illustrates the differences in the two categories „correctness“ and „richness“ between the tests. It also demonstrates the significance of these differences.

As indicated in Table 7, the only significant result when comparing the various mean differences was in respect Richness test 2 minus test 1, where, according to the Cohen’s d statistic (0.63) a moderately significant difference was observed between the decrease observed for the Experimental group (-7.89) and the value for the Control group (-1.91).

Differences in Free Writing Test – Correctness						
	Test 2-1		Test 3-1		Test 3-2	
	Exp	Con	Exp	Con	Exp	Con
Mean	-4.26	-7.17	-2.11	-4.14	2.16	3.03
Standard Deviation	22.01	21.59	15.51	15.07	18.66	21.43
Minimum	-43.00	-50.00	-38.00	-44.00	-25.00	-39.00
Median	-1.00	-5.00	0.00	-5.00	-2.00	5.00
Maximum	39.00	44.00	25.00	24.00	39.00	39.00
Differences in Free Writing Test – Richness						
	Test 2-1		Test 3-1		Test 3-2	
	Exp	Con	Exp	Con	Exp	Con
Mean	-7.89	-1.91	-5.95	-2.91	1.95	-1.00
Standard Deviation	11.62	8.25	11.68	8.27	4.58	7.25
Minimum	-30	-16.00	-30.00	-22.00	-9.00	-15.00
Median	-6.00	-2.00	-1.00	-1.00	2.00	-1.00
Maximum	16.00	20.00	12.00	18.00	5.50	16.00
Significance based on Mean Difference – Correctness						
t-statistic	0.47		0.47		-0.15	
d.f.	52		52		52	
p-value	.641		.641		.882	
Cohen's d	n/a		n/a		n/a	
Significance based on Mean Difference – Richness						
t-statistic	-2.20		-1.11		1.60	
d.f.	52		52		52	
p-value	.032		.220		.889	
Cohen's d	0.63		n/a		n/a	

Table 7: Differences in Free Writing Tests

Figure 7 illustrates the „correctness“ in the results of the Free Writing Tests.

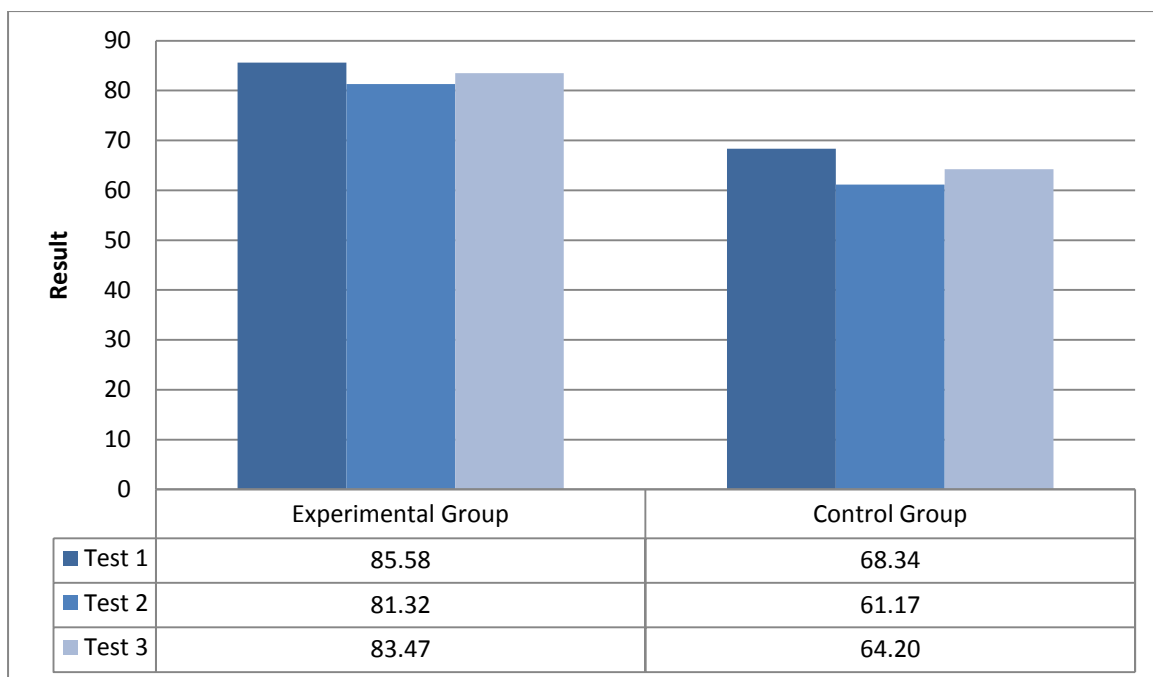


Figure 7: Free Writing Test Results – Correctness

As shown in the Figure 6, the experimental group's results decreased slightly from a Test 1 mean value of 85.58 to 81.32 for Test 2 and increased again to 83.47 for Test 3. The corresponding values for the control group were a decrease from 68.34 to 61.17 and an increase again to 64.20.

This decrease between test 1 and 2 could be attributed to the fact that there seems to be a natural order with which L2 learners acquire grammatical forms and this order is the same for all learners irrespective of how they are learning or if they are children or adults. This "concept of natural order remains very important for understand SLA, however, both from linguistic and from cognitive approaches" (Saville-Troike 2006, 44).

Learners also seem to be involved in a process called „transitional constructions" which is a process where learners move through "a series of stages en route to acquiring the native speakers rule" (Ellis 1997, 23). So even though they may have progressed the learners according to Ellis (1997, 23) may follow a U shaped course of development where they slide back into using an incorrect form whilst they reorganise their knowledge and slot the new knowledge into the correct place at the correct time and start then using the form correctly.

Figure 8 illustrates the „richness" in the results of the Free Writing Tests.

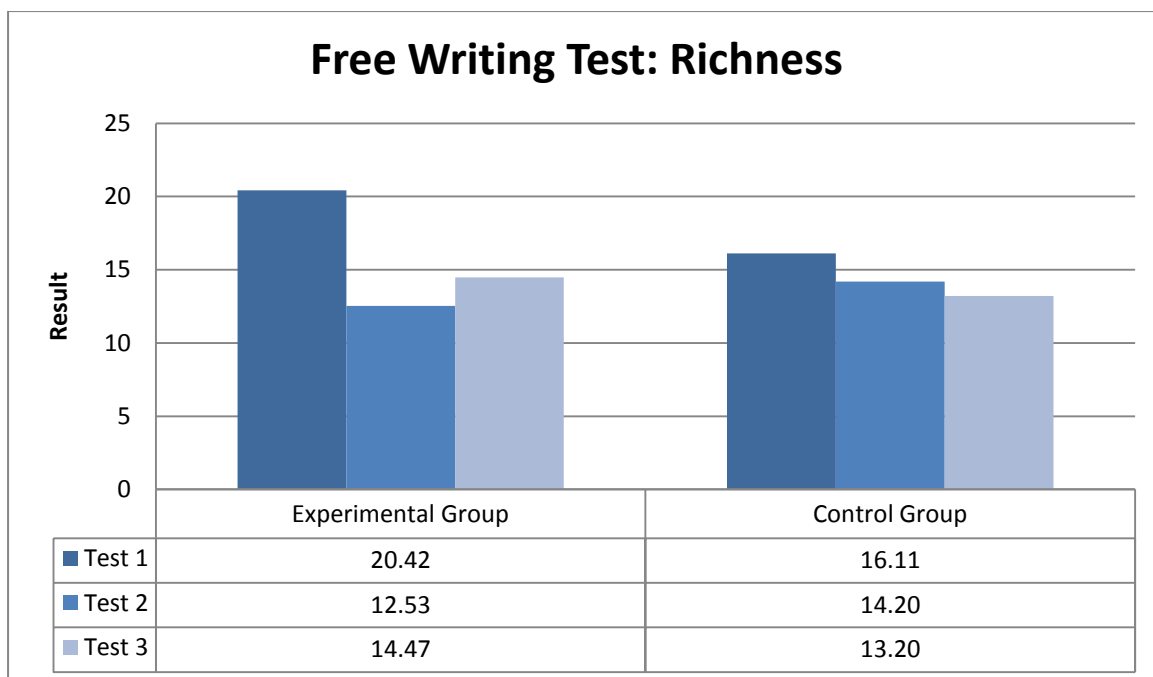


Figure 8: Free Writing Test Results – Richness

In Figure 7, the graph demonstrates that the experimental group's mean result in Test 1 was 20.42 and this decreased in Test 2 to 12.53 but then increased to 14.47 in Test 3. The Control group showed a steady decline from an initial result of 16.11 in Test 1 to 14.20 in Test 2 and then a further drop to 13.20 in Test 3.

This drop demonstrates that without the form being embedded into the lesson and focused upon despite 7 months of regular English classes the control group's results showed a steady decline. This, according to Long and Robinson (1998, 16), could be because instead of learning discrete lexical, grammatical, or notional-functional items one at a time, research shows that both naturalistic and classroom learners rarely, if ever, exhibit sudden categorical acquisition of new forms and rules. Rather they traverse what appear to be fixed developmental sequences in word order, relative clauses, negation, interrogatives, pronouns and other grammatical domains.

Comparison and examination of both the control groups and the experimental groups writing in test 1 and test 3.

Control Group Test 1 Example of Free Writing:

When I look at this picture I can see many people's in this picture and the buildings and the cars that stand near to the robot, and also near to the church street the is a boy stand there holding a big paper sell to another who is running in road.

Behind to the Luthuli Street the is a taxi stand into the stop and the is a man who get outside the window, this man said in the loudy voice Station Stasie! and also near to the Best Bank the is a boy and girl both of them are hold a suitcase and they are talking some news.

Look at the stop the is a mother who hold their child, and also in front of them the is a lady that wearing a bootleg jeans and this lady hold a paper bags and the boy hold the Adidas bag in front of them there is a car.

This was an example of the free writing from one of the control groups" participants.

A couple of the errors that were picked up were:

Firstly a lack of use of the pronouns „he" and „she“:

Behind to the Luthuli Street the is a taxi stand into the stop and the is a man who get outside the window, this man said in the loudy voice Station Stasie!

In this example the pronoun „he" instead of „this man" would have been correct.

The incorrect use of „the" when the participants should use „there“:

and also near to the church street the is a boy stand there holding a big paper sell to another who is running in road.

In this example, „the" is missing between „in" and „road“.

This is the same learners Test 3 Free Writing exercise.

When I look at this picture I can see a lot of cars, some are not the same. Some cars is like a van, taxi, and tracks. And also I see a spaza shop that called Tshepo CocaCola Shop. I see the house next to the Simba, this house have a car.

And also in this picture I see the people's getting inside the shop, near to the truck there's a father who holding a dogs and in front of this truck the rest is someone who walk with a crack stics other one is inside to a scooter bike. Some other boys are playing soccer with some friends, this taxi is opening the door, the is some boy is holding a door behind him the is a girl and also there is someboy is looking down. I can see the dog in front of the gate, next to the van someone driving a bike.

In this example there is still the incorrect use of „the" instead of there:

the is some boy is holding a door behind him the is a girl and

also there is someboy is looking down.

These examples show that there has been little overall improvement between the first test and the third test written by this participant. As demonstrated in the test results some of the control groups participants did improve but there was no statistically significant improvement. In fact, the control group showed a steady decline from an initial result of 16.11 in Test 1 to 14.20 in Test 2 and then a further drop to 13.20 in Test 3 in the richness of use of articles and pronouns in the free writing tests.

Experimental Group Test 1 Example of Free Writing:

When I look at this picture I see the busy city streets of South Africa. I see that people are very busy. I also see that people are very busy. I also see that it's a morning because it seems like some people are going to work. I also see people getting inside a taxi and others are making money by selling newspapers. I also see that there are many bussinesses such as, banks, building, cinema's and the street written Luthuii with a poster of ANC. Other people are coming from shopping they are carrying labelled plastic Bags. There's also a lady jogging and another lady walking with a child. I see that everyone is doing what they are doing and minding their own things.

The general calibre of writing of this participant and the majority of the learners in the experimental group is better than the participants in the control group. Hence the results of the tests of the control group are not compared with the results of the experimental group. The only comparison made is between the improvement or lack thereof in each learner.

This said, one can see the errors in the use of the definite articles for example:

I also see that it's a morning because it seems like some people are going to work.

The use of „a“ here is incorrect and should be „the“. Other grammar errors were ignored as the complete correct sentence should read „I also see that it's in the morning because it seems....“ Only the use of the article or pronoun was looked at.

Another example of incorrect article use is when the participant is describing a street:

I also see that there are many bussinesses such as, banks, building, cinema's and the street written Luthuii with a poster of ANC.

In this example „the“ should be „a“. Again any other grammatical errors were ignored.

This is the same learners Test 3 Free Writing exercise.

When I look at this picture I can see a lot of people. It looks like a town where people live, shop and visit their neighbors. I can see cars that are parked outside houses.

I can see a small spaza shop written "Tshepo shop, were the people living there are going inside. I can see an old man walking with a stick across the street. I also see another man walking with two dogs.

I also see woman and men that are wearing T-shirts, shorts and short skirts. They are getting into a taxi and others are standing outside the taxi. There's a man that is riding a bicycle next to a bakkie.

There is a slight improvement in the use of articles in this example of free writing, but there are two errors in the use of the word „that“ when describing a person.

I also see woman and men that are wearing T-shirts, shorts and short skirts.

In this case the word „that“ should be „who“. It is evident again in this second sentence.

There's a man that is riding a bicycle next to a bakkie.

In this case again the word „that“ should be „who“.

In the complete results of the free writing exercise, there was only significant result when comparing the various mean differences was in respect Richness test 2 minus test 1, where, according to the Cohen's d statistic (0.63) a moderately significant difference was observed between the decrease observed for the Experimental group (-7.89) and the value for the Control group (-1.91).

Figure 9 illustrates the average of both tests combined, the Judgement and Correction Task and the Free Writing Test.

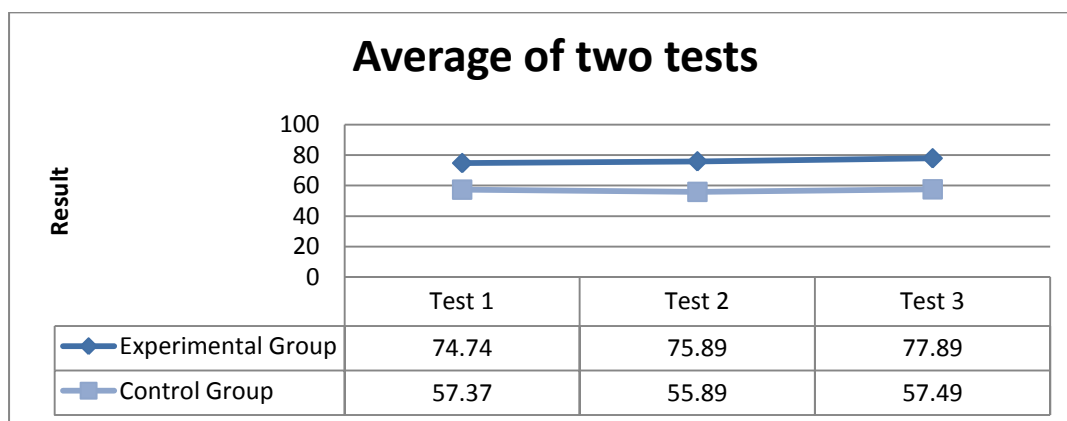


Figure 9: The Average of the Judgment and Correction and Free Writing sets combined

As Figure 9 demonstrates, there is an overall improvement in the experimental group whose combined test results steadily rose from 74.74 in test 1 to 75.89 in test 2 and continued up to 77.89 in test three. In comparison, the control group's results fluctuated and went from 57.37 in test 1 up to 55.89 in test 2 and then decreased to 57.49 in test 3.

This is supported by the literature by the study done by Doughty and Varela (1998, 132) where they were investigating „communicative FonF“. They came to the conclusion that:

The control group median improved slightly but significantly on the written measure, where the analysis was of interlanguage past time reference. It is perhaps not unexpected that learners can make some progress on their own without attention to linguistic forms. However the progress made by the FonF group was much more substantial.

(Doughty and Varela 1998, 132)

4.5 Discussion

The results from the previous sections on the inferential statistics indicate that the FonF treatment had a positive effect on the learners participating in the study. For instance, the significant difference in the results of test 2 and 3 as indicated in Table 4 in both the practical and statistical significance sections shows a marked positive difference in the Judgment and correction tests. This is supported by the literature where the researcher, de la Fuente (2006, 265) offered an argument supporting the FonF approach saying that it is an effective tool in ESL teaching. She also explained that when a task-based lesson is combined with an explicit FonF component and the results of these are compared to a task-based lesson that excludes this component, the results in the acquisition of the grammatical form structures vary. The explicit FonF component in the lesson promoted the acquisition more effectively than the lesson without it.

4.6 Results of observations during the classes and write up of field notes.

The classes took place over a seven month period where the researcher worked in the afternoons with learners from an impoverished community and witnessed social problems that the learners had to face during the research period along with anecdotal evidence provided within the lessons. This part of the discussion will firstly focus on the social problems that the learners faced and then will conclude with anecdotal evidence and a discussion of class time.

Learner A – A female learner in the experimental group came to school looking very grey, almost ill-looking and stressed after missing two of her previous classes. The researcher entered into a short discussion with her and asked her if something was the matter. The learner replied saying she had a big problem but she was unable to explain the problem with

the researcher and apologised for not coming to the class. It was the last class the learner attended. After that class she then did not return to the class and we were later informed that she had fallen pregnant and had subsequently dropped out of school to avoid the stigma of being a „teen“ pregnancy. She decided to keep the baby and apply for the government stipend. This social problem is supported by the statistics presented in the Literature review where in South Africa in 2003 in the Eastern Cape 14% of girls aged between 15-19 years old had experienced a pregnancy according to Berry and Hall (2009, 1).

Learner B – This male learner has irregular attendance and sometimes looks upset. He tends not to concentrate in class, is introverted and not much of a joiner in group activities. The researcher attributed this initially to shyness. One day he came to the researcher and said he would miss the next lesson as he had a court date.

The learner explained that he and a group of friends had been at The Boardwalk (a local entertainment centre) and according to him; his friends had stolen a cell-phone and had given him the cell-phone to hold. The learner had been caught by the security with the cell-phone and handed over to the police for arrest.

His subsequent trial has been continuing for over a year and by the end of 2010 had still not been resolved with various appearances at court which made him miss school. The reasons for the delays that were explained to the researcher by the learner were a number of issues like the witnesses not appearing for court on a number of separate occasions, the cell phone owner not appearing to testify and the co-accused not appearing for court.

The learner did not want the school to be informed of his legal problems. He sometimes had to miss classes in school and at one time missed an end of year exam due to a court appearance that resulted in a continuance again.

Crime is a very large problem in South Africa. With crime rates during 2009/2010 numbering a total of 2,121,887 (approximately 2,1 million) serious crime cases were registered in the RSA [Republic of South Africa]... .of the approximately 2.1 million cases, roughly a third (31.9%) were contact crimes, 26.1% were property related crimes” (SAPS 2009.1). Along with exceptionally high crime rates, poverty levels are sitting with a nationwide total of 57% of people living below the poverty line in South Africa, with the Eastern Cape having one of the highest rates of poverty of 72% according to the Human Sciences Research Council (2004. 2). When poverty is rife an increased level of crime will naturally follow on. SC has according to a review of the literature by Porter (1998, 9) who explains that SC can be used as a source for social control, and as a source of family support and also as a benefit source through extra familial networks. If SC had been higher within the community being that is

part of the study, learner A may not have fallen pregnant due to the family support she was receiving and not felt obliged to follow her boyfriend's demands to participate in unsafe sexual practices. More social control due to SC may have prevented Learner B from supposedly participating in a criminal activity which led to his arrest. Both these learners could have said „no“. But whether peer pressure or a lack of parental control led to these acts with higher SC they learners may have said „no“ saving them from becoming yet another statistic.

Learner B – The same male learner mentioned above came to the researcher with a desire to quit the study in the middle of the year. Along with his legal troubles as described above, the learner faces family problems at home. His stepfather according to him is an abusive alcoholic. His mother does not reside in Walmer Township but lives in Motherwell. The learner resides in Walmer Township with his stepfather. The learner tends to miss Monday classes regularly and occasionally other classes during the week, with a full three week period where he skipped all classes before coming forward and saying that he wanted to quit. He says he feels scared and unhappy and overwhelmed at home and wants to relocate to Motherwell to live with his mother as he did not want to stay in the house with his step father where he is being abused. After some consideration he decided to keep on with the study and stay on at the same school. He was going to speak to his mother for help after the school year came to a close.

In this case, learner B is living with his step father and not with his mother which in fact puts him into a one parent family. This can have an effect on his education. Portes (1998, 10) explains that Coleman's writings are very definite about the second function of SC which is as a source of parental and kin support. He explains that intact families and those where one parent has the primary task of rearing children possess more of this form of SC than do single parent families. One of the primary beneficiaries of this resource are children whose education and personality development are enriched accordingly. This lower level of SC may have led to learner B being involved supposedly in criminal activities.

Learner C – This female learner has a father who is terminally ill with both tuberculosis (TB) and HIV Aids and is resident at a major TB clinic. Her mother was recovering from TB but had not been able to resume work as of yet. The daughter was involved in the care of her mother whilst she recovered from TB and in visiting her father at the hospital. The high rate of TB and HIV Aids is illustrated by the statistics from the United Nations who “estimate that of the total population, around 5.6 million South Africans were living with HIV at the end of 2009, including 300,000 children under 15 years old” (www.avert.org 2009, 1).

There has been a link between SC and health. According to Islam et al:

Studies of social capital and health in the USA have found an association between a variety of indicators (trust, reciprocity, group membership) and health outcomes (lower all-cause and cause-specific mortality and better self rated health.

(Islam et al 2006, 19)

Learner D – This female learner developed a lung infection which made her miss school for a period of about 2 weeks and on her return looked unwell and weak. She has since then recovered and seemed to get a new lease on life which made her become an even more hardworking productive learner.

With a greater amount of SC in the community people can work together to help those who are ill and help to educate other about the illness's that affect people living within the community. Like helping one another to go to the clinic and to take their medication.

Learner E – in the last three months of 2010 came and explained to the researcher that she had fallen pregnant and after a discussion with her parents had decided to keep the baby. As she was not visibly showing that she was pregnant by the end of the school year she decided to see the year out and write all her Grade 11 exams. Her intention was not to drop out of school but to try and graduate. As with the previous learner who dropped out of the study, in a class of 20 learners, two girls fell pregnant within one year. This is an unacceptable high amount. The rest of the class explained to the researcher that many girls fall pregnant. Some of the reasons explained for this is the boys refuse to wear condoms and the girls participate in sex as they do not want to lose their boyfriends if they refuse to have sex with them. The learners all said they know about HIV and the risk of teenage pregnancy but still participated in unsafe sexual practices in order to keep their boyfriends happy. Rape and sexual abuse was not mentioned in respect to the two pregnancies within the program but the other girls in the program mentioned that they all knew girls who had been raped or abused by a stranger or by a family member.

Learner F and Learner G both were mugged whilst they were involved in the program. They explained the incidents to the researcher and said they both had been held up by men with knives who stole their cell phones on the way home from school.

Many of the learners blame crime and other social ills on poverty and have a distinct lack of trust in the government, they feel let down as they live in very poor circumstances and some have to study by candlelight in the shacks they live in.

When a village or an area has very little SC it can be seen very clearly according to Woolcock (1998, 152) he discusses a paper on SC and economic development where he asked a group of villagers in a South Asian village why their situation was so terrible, he comments that their responses were very revealing:

The main problems, they say, are that most people simply cannot be trusted, that local landlords exploit every opportunity to impose crushing rates of interest on loans, and pay wages so low that any personal advancement is rendered virtually impossible. There are schools and health clinics in the village, they lament, but teachers and doctors regularly fail to show up for work. Funds allocated to well-intentioned government programs are siphoned off by local elites... You venture that surely everyone would be better off if they worked together to begin addressing some of these basic concerns. "Perhaps," they respond, "but any such efforts seem always to come to naught. Development workers are no different: Just last month, someone who claimed to be from a reputable organisation helped us start savings and credit groups, only to vanish, absconding with all our hard earned money. Why should we trust you? Why should we trust anyone?"

(Woolcock 1998, 153)

A lot of these problems are mirrored in the townships within South Africa. A lack of trust in everyone hinders economic development as genuine attempts to implement development policies will be met with reservation and mistrust.

Woolcock (1998, 188) explains that SC provides sociologists with a fruitful conceptual and policy device by which to get beyond exhausted modernization and world system theories and to make potentially important contributions to questions of economic development.

4.7 Issues at the school.

One of the most disturbing issues that took place at the school during the study was a 3 week strike by the teachers who were striking for better wages. It was a public servants strike and more than 1 million people took part in it.

A teachers strike has shut schools across South Africa just weeks before year-end exams, compounding the failures of a state education system that has left more than half the country's black youths unemployed. Unions representing about 1.3 million state workers started an open-ended strike on Aug. 18, after the government rejected their demands for an 8.6 percent wage increase. The government offered an increase of 7.5 percent today to end the deadlock. The strike has highlighted the government's failure to improve apartheid-era educational levels that have left South Africa one of the world's most unequal societies. A doubling of the education budget to 165.1 billion rand (\$22.4 billion) in five years has failed to reverse a decline in exam results or to improve the standard of teaching.

(Cohen 2010, 1)

The learners tried to counteract the effects of the strike by forming into groups in their homes and studying together to try and keep up with the work they were required to finish by the time the end of year examinations came.

One of the things that was a problem was even if there were teachers who wanted to continue working they were met with threats of violence so the school had to be closed to avoid any destruction of property or threat to both learners' and teachers' safety. Krishna (2007, 942) explains that building SC in circumstances where SC is low, like in the middle of a strike, is made difficult on account of a collective action dilemma. In a situation where trust is low and few networks exist, why should any member of a community invest in building SC? Why, for instance, should a rational, selfish worker ostracise or otherwise punish those who do not want to join the union? What's in it for him? The answer Krishna gives is that even if all people were then made equally better off there would still be a failure of supply. So although the strikers wanted more pay they put their own needs first before the needs of the community and put learners at risk by stopping classes for three weeks and this breaks down the SC in a community.

Within a week of the strike ending the learners at various township schools then went on strike as they felt they were not ready to write "We are not attending school any more. We are just staying home," said Vuyokazi Sijeku, 20, a Grade 12 pupil in the south-eastern town of Umtata, who wants to study law next year. "We are worried because we are not going to be ready for the final exams." (Cohen 2010, 1). During this learners' strike the school was again closed for a short period due to the threat of violence against learners going to school. More than 12 million pupils were affected by the teachers strike.

Another issue that was of import was the lack of text books. In some cases learners had 1 text book between 5 learners and the learners had to again form study groups after school and share the book or else pass the book around between them, one learner having it on Monday and another on Tuesday for example. The reason for the lack of school text books is a lack of money within the school.

Learners have very little access to computers and the internet and therefore are unable to improve their own general knowledge and gain access to international news. Most learners have some access to the national TV channels and therefore to the national news channels. The lack of general knowledge in the learners was also noticeable to the researcher. This included a lack of general geographical knowledge along with a lack of understanding of other cultures in the world. The lack of computers except via expensive internet cafes or the public library where a learner can use one of the 4 computers for up to an hour limits the learners' ability to use computer programs, research, typing up assignments and generally improve their knowledge.

This lack of modern facilities, whose availability is almost taken for granted in developed countries, is due to poverty and a lack of development within certain communities in South Africa. According to Abdul-Hakim et al:

In the past, the strategies to reduce poverty are generally macro in nature. Besides, assistance to the poor is focused on improving the physical and human capital of the poor to enable them to expand their economic activities, increase productivity and hence income. It appears another form of capital, i.e. social capital, is neglected in the poverty alleviation strategy. This is unfortunate since a growing body of recent literature has demonstrated that social capital, which is generally characterised by trust, social ties, and networks, is important for the advancement in material gain and welfare. It is an essential form of capital, such that it plays an important role in affecting the well-being of households as well as the level of development of communities and nations... Social capital is vital in poverty alleviation, and that strategies such as improving the educational level of the poor and the creation of new jobs do not necessarily guarantee a reduction in poverty. These efforts must be complemented with the development of social capital if the strategy is to be effective.

(Abdul-Hakim et al 2010, 557)

During the classes the learners would work well as a group and had no problem in helping each other whilst they were in class. There was one learner who was a difficult learner to deal with who had various conflicts with class members. The group tried to work together as a group and keep him obeying the rules and under some control but he was very obstinate and would not listen, They then wanted him removed from the study but as it was right at the end and no chance of replacement the learner stayed on and completed the problem. The thing the researcher noticed the most about the learner was his intelligence. He was very bright. If he could just control his bad attitude he would do well. He actively seemed to pursue conflict with both the class members and teachers.

One of the girls in the program was much slower than the others on both uptake of new ideas and reading output during the lessons. She found it very difficult to grasp the concepts and also to improve her reading out loud.

Early on in the year and before the study started, when the researcher was at the school, all the learners became involved in an episode they termed was „demons in the school“. All the learners seemed to go into a form of mass hysteria and one learner tried to dive through a closed first floor window. Fortunately for her the other learners stopped her.

The school has unsanitary toilet conditions and a lack of electricity in all but a few classrooms. The desks are very damaged and in need of sanding down as every single desk has been written on in all types of ink and scratched badly.

The learners were very bad about things like throwing garbage into the bin. They had no problem with dropping papers on the floor for someone else to pick up.

One thing which impressed the researcher was the participants' readiness to learn and try. The learners demonstrated their desire for reading. They also worked well when they were required to form groups. The one thing which showed up throughout was a lack of leadership; very few of the learners showed strong leadership abilities. When a leader was elected they did not control the group; they still behaved like one of the group and seemed afraid to issue orders or reprimand any learners who were slacking.

Crime is a major problem in the school along with destructive behaviour. An example of this was at the tuck shop where the learners are able to buy food. One day the lady in charge of the tuckshop left it unattended for fifteen or so minutes. Some unknown learners entered and stole all the food along with a gas cooker. On top of the theft, they poured tomato sauce on the floor and smeared margarine on the walls. The majority of learners have said that they wish crime would be eradicated in South Africa and they feel the government needs to get more involved in combating crime and should help the citizens of South Africa with health care and housing. Halpern (2005, 177) discusses data from the 1990 World Values Survey and controlling for GDP per capita and this investigation found that high social capital was strongly associated with:

- Lower rates of government corruption at the national level, as measured by officials demanding bribes in connection with import and export licences, exchange controls, tax assessment, policy protection or loans.
- Higher bureaucratic quality as measured by strength and expertise to govern, with autonomy from political pressure and without drastic changes in policy or government services.
- Higher tax compliance.
- Infrastructure quality.
- Higher efficiency and integrity of the legal environment.

(Halpern 2005, 178)

Some of the Grade 11 boys – the majority from the study had formed a poetry group where they would organise a time and meet up and compose poetry in their free time. Their creativity is immense and a lot of the learners show they have talents that could be nurtured and used to their benefit.

There are a number of projects the school in this study is involved in which are contributing to increased social capital between parents and teachers and in the community on general are as follows:

The school led by its headmaster raised enough funds to build a big school hall which is fully carpeted and has a stage and plenty of space. The headmaster then approached the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) and provided them with an opportunity to get involved in the decoration of the hall. The NMMU ran a competition and the winning group of design students then decorated the hall.

The hall has since become a place within the township community for all to use; people rent the hall for auctions, parties and funerals. It has brought the community into the school and by doing this has increased the good feelings between the educators and the community allowing them to build stronger relationships, which help in the education of the children. As Halpern (2005, 144) points out educational underachievement is a key link in the cycle of disadvantage, there are a number of things which also contribute to this cycle like parental education or lack thereof and financial resources. It has also been shown by research that the human and financial capital of the parents can help to predict the educational success or failure of the children. When parents, learners and teachers are bound together in a close knit network then learners tend to perform better at school. The school hall helps to provide this closeness.

One other project is the running of a scholarship program funded by the United States Government to provide extra English classes to a selection of Grade 10 and 11 learners for two years. This program also on occasion offers one of the learners from the program a chance to go to the United States for various types of workshops aimed at improving the leadership skills of the learner. They also teach the learner how to give back to the community things they have learnt. These projects give the learners goals to aim for in their future and to empower them to become productive members of society, the parents of the learners become more involved in the school as a result of these projects and programs.

There is also a Fulbright scholar at present working in the school and refurbishing the school library. The community have joined in with this with local companies donating things like Laptop computers and building supplies. The learners are also involved in the project and by making the library their own by painting it and being trained as junior librarians it builds SC by making them respect and value the library which will stop them vandalising or destroying it when they are unsupervised.

The headmaster works tirelessly towards ensuring he does the best for his learners as he can, he organised the senior learners extra lessons in mathematics and science at an elite private school and at the NMMU in an attempt to improve their final NSC examination results. He commands great respect within the community and is valued for his efforts to educate learners. He works in cooperation with local church ministers, the Department of Education, the parents of the learners and the community in general. This cooperation leads to increased SC within the community the school operates in.

CHAPTER 5 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The recommendations presented in this chapter are informed by the literature review and based on the interpretation and statistical analysis of the results of the judgement and correction task and the free writing exercise. These recommendations are important for future researchers and for English teachers in ESL classes countrywide and for the Department of Education to consider when devising materials for the national curriculum.

The purpose of these recommendations is to give advice to those involved in the teaching of ESL and to offer guidance to other researchers who want to participate in a further study of this sort.

This study explains the concept of SC which the researcher believes plays a large part in the education of learners. The social environment the learners are in is influential in how well they do at school. Sociolinguistics is concerned with investigating the relationships between language and society according to Wardhaugh (1992:13), he continues by explaining that the goal of sociolinguistics is to find a better understanding of the structure of language and how languages function in communication and how social structure can be better understood through the study of language.

Society plays a role in language, how people speak, what type of language they use for example teenagers buy into the use the slang their peers use to ensure they are incorporated in the group. In this case, society plays a part in the education of the learners. Wardhaugh (1992, 10) explains this as the relationship between language and society and how the social structure may either influence or determine linguistic structure or behaviour. Learners are influenced by their peers, their families and even by the circumstances of their lives. These issues play a part on the education of a learner.

The effect that society has on the learner is important as Tarone states:

Sociolinguistics is a well established branch of linguistics that focuses on the study of the impact of society, including the impact of social context, on the way language is used.

(Tarone 2007, 837)

In Tarone's opinion, substantial progress has been made in developing a model of the sociolinguistical processes that inform SLA. She explains that:

This model is supported by empirical evidence of the relationship between social context and second language use and acquisition, which shows that learners' second language input and processing of L2 input of social settings are socially mediated, that social and linguistic context affect linguistic use, choice and development, and that learners intentionally

assert social identities through their L2 in communicating in social contexts.

(Tarone 2007, 837)

This can be demonstrated by the male learners in the program speaking the way they consider is „cool“ and“ gangster like“, in a similar way the rappers and hip hop artists talk. An example of this would be “Yo, I don’t need to do no homework, you check, lets bounce this joint brother”.

Teachers need to be aware of the social context the learners are growing up in and the social issues the learners face and tailor the lessons to suit both the learners and the environment they are in for the lessons to be effective.

The effective acquisition of English is a vital tool for any learners” education within South Africa and any tool or treatment that can aid in the improvement of a learner”s acquisition of English is important and should be incorporated in ESL teachers” teaching approaches.

The inferential and descriptive statistical analysis in Chapter four indicates that there was a statistically significant difference between the results of the three tests that the experimental group participated in and very little difference in the results of the three tests that the control group participated in.

This demonstrates that when a learner is exposed to a FonF treatment in an ESL class they can learn the grammatical structure more effectively than they do in a purely communicative class with little if any focus on grammatical structures.

5.2 How FonF can be used

This tool can be used in the following ways:

- Items of importance in the English curriculum can be highlighted and these items can then be introduced using the FonF approach throughout the educational year. Some of the items that can be focused on are as follows:
 - Grammatical Structures
 - Vocabulary
 - Sentence Structure
 - Punctuation
 - Use of Paragraphs

- FonF can make the learning of complicated items like grammatical structures more accessible and simpler without the boring repetitiveness of memorisation of copious amount of rules.

With a list of items that learners should know in order to be able to cope effectively in English the teacher would be able to know which things need more focus on than others.

5.2.1 Testing of learners requirements

To identify learners' needs and weaknesses one could test at a macro or micro level. At a macro level, an analysis of previous learners' exam papers by the Department of Education would be able to pinpoint generalised weaknesses like the past tense or other grammatical structures that are needed to improve learners' results in their final National Senior Certificate Examinations. This could give an overall idea of general weaknesses within South African ESL learners. Instructions could then be included in the curriculum issued by the Depart of Education for teachers to focus on certain weaknesses. Lessons could then be prepared by teachers of English to included FonF approaches aimed at the problem areas.

At a micro level, in each separate school or even in each separate class, the English teachers could test the knowledge of the general structures and rules required at each specific level of English with each grade. The teacher could then mark these tests and identify weaknesses and focus purely on the weaknesses. Say a weakness in vocabulary is identified but punctuation is acceptable, then an extra focus could be placed on vocabulary rather than a divided focus on both punctuation and vocabulary.

5.3 Recommendations for future researchers

In the case of a researcher wishing to do a more in-depth or longer study, one could look at doing a two year study. This study consisted of ten lessons which was a relatively short study and took seven months and therefore could only focus on two grammatical forms.

One could look at a longer term study with a larger selection of items to focus on. The items could include more than purely grammar to make the uptake of knowledge more useful for the participants. This would also offer an answer to whether FonF works better with one type of item i.e. grammatical rules or with something else like vocabulary.

The other limitation was a lack of time. Due to the short school year because of the World Cup that took place in 2010 and the three weeks of strike action which interfered in the study, the researcher feels that a longer study with more FonF lessons would provide more

conclusive results and offer a stronger argument that FonF is an effective essential tool in ESL classes.

When dealing with children in a disadvantaged school, one of the problems faced was absenteeism. The researcher recommends that any future researcher takes this into account and has extra time allocated to counter this problem. Another problem was losing learners from the study to personal problems they encounter in their lives. The researcher recommends having more learners in the study than required so when a few drop out it does not have too much of an effect on the results.

Another problem that was faced was a strike by teachers due to a salary dispute. This led to schools being closed under threat of violence. Therefore classes did not take place and the study had to come to a halt.

One cannot not foresee these kinds of delays in the planning of a study but the researcher recommends that a large amount of extra time be added for unforeseen events like this as it can mean the difference between making a deadline or missing it.

One other problem was with the ages of the learners and their end of year exam results. Many of the learners had repeated Grade 11 a number of times, leaving the researcher with a grade which had learners ranging in age of sixteen right up to twenty-one. It proved impossible to get a group of similarly aged learners who performed similarly academically from one grade.

Future researchers should ensure that things like age be not too much of an important factor should they wish to have a large number of participants as even with a large pool of possible candidates it would be difficult to match the ages better. One way to match the ages would be to include a number of schools and therefore have a far larger number of learners in which to choose their sample from.

In considering the end of year high school results, again it proved difficult to match the results. This led to the researcher not being able to compare the experimental group with the control group but rather compared the increase or lack of increase in each groups test results with the other groups test results. This was done to avoid any bias on the control groups' initial inferior results. This problem could also be managed if a future researcher include more than one school in the research allowing for a larger pool of learners with which they could select their sample from.

5.3.1 Adapting FonF for disadvantaged schools

In schools with large budgets and modern high tech facilities like computer laboratories and equipment like projectors and televisions, FonF is much easier to do. Learners can work on computers using interesting programs that inspire learners to learn and have highly interactive lessons and music, and are generally interesting. They can watch television programs that are specially made to focus on the form required.

When working in a disadvantaged school where one may not have electricity and only a chalk board and paper at their disposal, the researcher recommends choosing texts that are interesting in content and that the learners find stimulating, exciting and can relate to.

Coloured crayons and coloured chinks help along with highlighters and pictures. Discussions where the learners can be active participants and be involved rather than passive recipients seemed to make the lessons run more smoothly and achieve the desired result. Keeping the learners' attention is vital to achieving positive results. This approach does not need expensive equipment or modern well heeled facilities to be used. What it needs is a teacher who is interested in helping his / her learners improve their English. With the dedication of a teacher this approach can be used anywhere and at anytime. It is highly adaptable and easy to integrate into any lesson with a little pre-planning.

5.4 Recommendations for the Department of Education

South Africa is facing an educational crisis. The pass rates of high school learners are very low and 50 % of the learners who make it into university either fail or drop out. This calls for an urgent intervention. The effectiveness of the current education system is failing dismally and the learners are being terribly affected. Learners need to improve their results dramatically and improve their language studies in order to cope with tertiary education better.

Frans Cronjé of the South African Institute for Race Relations states "these very low pass rates also are the country's largest single crisis which must be addressed most urgently by the African National Congress government. South Africa will never become a successful, industrialised economy if the educational authorities continue to deliver such unacceptable results" (Stuijt 2009.1).

The Department of Education has to find different effective techniques to ensure that learners can and do achieve their full potential in not only English but also mathematics and science. This FonF approach could be used to try and help raise the English level and therefore results of learners in schools in South Africa.

Learners need access to the internet and computers. The Department of Education would give learners a lot of opportunities to improve their general knowledge and research skills by providing access to the internet and to computers and lessons in how to use computers. Instead learners are having to learn basic computer skills and research skills upon commencing university which puts them at a disadvantage to the learners who already have that knowledge from more affluent school within the country.

The lack of text books is a big issue in the school. More books need to be provided along with a library in each school. It was evident that the learners really loved to read and apart from walking the 2-3 blocks to the public library after school, would benefit immeasurably from having books available to them in their own school.

5.5 How the FonF Approach can be spread to different schools

The researcher will be offering a workshop to the English teachers at the high school that the study took place in. Parents and other educators may also attend the workshop as this approach may be used in other disciplines such as mathematics classes or science classes.

The workshop will demonstrate firstly what the FonF approach is and then how it can be used in the classroom. The workshop will provide a handout for each teacher with copies of the lessons taught included in it, along with how the FonF approach was included in each lesson. The researcher will then present a sample of one of the lessons to the teachers so they may see how it was presented from the perspective of the learner.

For this approach to be effective, teachers around the country need to learn about it and learn how to use it. For this spread of knowledge to be achieved the researcher suggests empowering schools and empowering teachers as an effective way to spread the approach and knowledge.

One could start with a workshop in a school where teachers from neighbouring schools were invited. The teachers from the school where the study took place in and who have attended the original workshop and who have used the approach in their own classes could then present and demonstrate the FonF approach. In return for this workshop teachers could then go to other teachers who hadn't attended the workshop and pass the knowledge on. This empowers the teachers to be learners themselves and to then pass on the knowledge by teacher other teachers.

On a macro level, pamphlets or booklets could be made by the Department of Education with a clear explanation and easy to use instructions and examples which could be

disseminated at the various schools and given to teachers. Once the Eastern Cape has been covered then one could look at taking it country wide.

5.6 How people can increase Social Capital within their communities.

How communities can increase SC and how it can be beneficial to learners in schools.

The social problems that South Africa faces are numerous and there is no quick fix. Communities are faced daily with economic hardships, crime, a lack of resources and health problems. To then try and support children at school with their studies becomes a burden and is very difficult to do when faced with so many problems. To counter act these hardships the community needs to share the difficulties by grouping together. By working together the communities could help themselves rather than waiting for someone else to help them. By taking ownership of the problems the communities face and by committing to working together to find solutions they could build SC and help make it through their difficulties.

Mothers could form small parental supervision groups to watch over younger children while others work. HIV orphans could be included in these groups to give the other children running child headed households the chance to go to school. When people do things for one another Coleman (1990, 318) explains it by using an illustration of a bank account. A does something for B, hence earning a credit. If A does another five things for B, A will then have six credits. B could then repay some of those credits by doing something for A. An example of this repayment could be the adults in a community getting together into a group and organising some of the group who have the means to supervise their children when the others in the group are at work.

Men could form neighbourhood watch groups to help try deal with crime in the community. They could also develop a good relationship with the police or apply to become police reservists or volunteer police. They could run interventions with gangs and young children who are being persuaded or pushed into joining gangs. The community could have a „no tolerance approach“ to drug dealers and weapons and turn them into police whenever possible.

Older children could form study groups and help younger learners with their studies and share resources like text books. Community efforts to help curb the spread of teenage pregnancy and alcohol abuse by guiding teenagers and creating diversions like community projects, sports days, social clubs for children to actively involved and off the streets where they fall prey

5.7 Reflection on the study

The importance of education can not be overemphasised and the terrible high school results of learners in South Africa are shocking and demonstrate a desperate cry for help. More research needs to be done in all of the education sectors to establish why learners are performing so poorly and what needs to be done to help them improve. Only then does South Africa have a chance to become an educated, industrialised country. The results of this study demonstrate that FonF might be beneficial in helping learners acquire grammatical forms effectively. Programs using FonF and other educational approaches need to be put in place to improve learners' acquisition on English.

South Africa is faced with a myriad of social issues which are extremely difficult to solve like crime, poverty, alcohol and drug abuse and corruption. The way people can get involved in solving these issues is by working together to eradicate the negative influences that persist in corrupting today's youths and to try and educate their children to the best of their abilities. By building up SC in communities and empowering themselves to challenge each and every problem. As single people they are helpless but as a united front everything is possible.

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APPENDICES

Please note all appendices are scanned documents.

Appendix 1 – The National Senior Certificate, Grade 11, November 2010, English First Additional Language, Paper 1.



Province of the
EASTERN CAPE
EDUCATION

**NATIONAL
SENIOR CERTIFICATE**

GRADE 11

NOVEMBER 2010

ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE P1

MARKS: 80

TIME: 2 hours

This question paper consists of 11 pages.

INSTRUCTIONS AND INFORMATION

1. This question paper consists of THREE sections, namely SECTION A, SECTION B and SECTION C.

SECTION A:	Comprehension	(30 marks)
SECTION B:	Summary	(10 marks)
SECTION C:	Language	(40 marks)

2. Answer ALL the questions
3. Start each section on a NEW page and rule of on completion of EACH section.
4. Leave a line after EACH answer.
5. Number the answers correctly according to the numbering system used in this question paper.
6. Write neatly and clearly.
7. Pay special attention to spelling and sentence construction.

SECTION A: COMPREHENSION

QUESTION 1

Read the following passage (TEXT A) and answer the set questions.

Make 2010 your year
Grab the many opportunities
TEXT A

1. The 2010 FIFA World Cup, which we've all been waiting for, will soon be here. Will it bring opportunities for people? There will be many ways to benefit before, during and after this momentous event. Businessman and minister of housing and settlement, Tokyo Sexwale, warned a few months ago that the benefits of the World Cup would not go to those who sat back and waited for opportunities to come to them. In other words, people should create opportunities for themselves. Tokyo added: "the era of spoon-feeding has to come to an end."
2. There are a number of ways you can benefit from the World Cup. How you decide to make the most of this once-in-a-lifetime opportunity is entirely up to you. Remember that the 2010 FIFA World Cup Product Licensing Programme assists with the legalities around creating or using a product during the World Cup. The licensing programme is controlled by the Global Brands Group, which is part of FIFA. Its task is to protect the FIFA brands. According to Michael Francis, who will be providing accommodation in Johannesburg during the event, the process was simple and painless. "Getting my house ready for World Cup was easy and did not take much time. I followed FIFA regulations to ensure that I can provide suitable accommodation without any problems."
3. Thousands of foreigners will be coming to South Africa; they will all need a place to stay. Assisting them with accommodation is a great way to capitalize on the event. FIFA has systems in place to check if the accommodation you provide is appropriate and suitable.
4. Next to the World Cup itself, the spotlight will be on our natural beauty, our landmarks and our wildlife. Tourists will enjoy visiting places like the Kruger National Park, Soweto, Gold Reef City, as well as our many game reserves and beaches. Why not take a tourism course so you can show people our many attractions? It's a great way to meet new people and make meaningful contacts. If there are items that say "proudly South African" get involved in making them. It could even mean international exposure for your product.
6. There is a great potential market in transporting guests to and from the games and to our tourist attractions. Just make sure that the transport you provide is safe and reliable because you do not want to get stuck transporting clients! People will even be looking for transport to and from airports, or between where they are staying and restaurants or tourist spots.

7. Everyone loves good food. Supplying 2010 tourists with proudly South African cuisine will be sure to please them. You can provide braais, good South African favourites - such as pap, boerewors rolls or kota and bunny chow - at various places. Try to cater for everybody's needs, so that more people have access to your food.
8. If you don't think these suggestions are right for you, come up with a brilliant idea, create a unique idea for yourself and be creative. Look at previous World Cups and see how people benefited from the event. Don't be afraid to try something new. Ensure that you follow the correct procedures when it comes to licensing and offering services, so as to avoid possible legal actions later. You can't use certain images or slogans such as the FIFA logo, without proper permission.

[Adapted from *Move!*, December 2009]

NOTE: All questions must be answered in your own words, unless you are asked for a quotation.

- 1.1 Write the acronym FIFA in full. (1)
- 1.2 1.2.1 Choose from the following what is NOT a positive vision for FIFA. (1)
- A People will sell their expertise.
 - B The creation of jobs.
 - C People will see the world here at home.
 - D To make money out of our visitors.
- 1.2.2 Refer to the above question and support your choice. (2)
- 1.3 Which items can South Africans wear to identify themselves from the rest of the world? Give only TWO. (2)
- 1.4 1.4.1 Explain the meaning of the "era of spoon-feeding has to come to an end." (2)
- 1.4.2 Agree or disagree with the "era of spoon-feeding has to come to an end" by giving a practical example. (2)
- 1.5 What is implied by the phrase "...once-in-a-lifetime opportunity..." (2)
- 1.6 State whether the following statement is TRUE or FALSE and give a reason for your answer by quoting a relevant sentence from the passage. (2)
- Many people would exploit the World Cup by providing accommodation of inferior quality.

- 1.7 1.7.1 Mention any TWO tourist attractions that South Africa has to offer. (2)
- 1.7.2 South Africans can render a professional service in acting as tourist guides. Which advice is given in the passage with regard to this service? (2)
- 1.8 1.8.1 State TWO precautions given to transport owners concerning transporting visitors to and from games? (2)
- 1.8.2 Suggest TWO types of transport that can be used during the World Cup. (2)
- 1.8.3 Give a positive advice as to what transport owners should do to their vehicles before transporting visitors to and from games. (2)
- 1.9 How can the theme of food be used to embrace:
- i) South African brand (2)
 - ii) diversity (2)
- 1.10 Create a unique idea that will make people from rural areas feel they are part of the World Cup. (2)

TOTAL SECTION A: 30

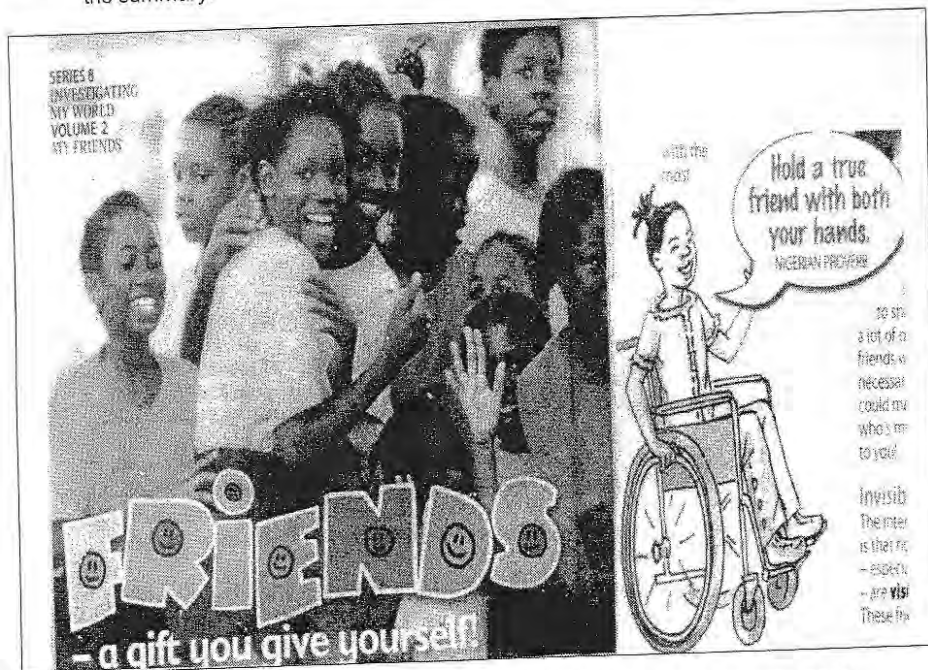
SECTION B: SUMMARY (TEXT B)

QUESTION 2

To embrace the spirit of oneness during the world cup your friends chose you to prepare a set of rules on how to be a good friend.

INSTRUCTIONS

1. List SEVEN points in full sentences using no more than 70 words.
2. Number your sentences from 1 to 7.
3. Write only ONE point per line.
4. Use your OWN words.
5. Indicate the total number of words you have used in brackets at the end of the summary.



[Pictures adapted from *DRUM*, January 2009]

1. Friendships work both ways and everything won't always be about you. Give your friends space to talk, listen to what they say and pay attention to what's important to them. If every conversation always ends up being about you, you, you don't expect your friends to stick around.

2. Your friend supports Pirates, you support Chiefs. She loves shopping; you prefer staying at home and watching TV. So what? We all have our little quirks, and we all have habits that might irritate other people. Don't waste energy focusing on the things you and your friends don't agree on. Rather celebrate all the things you do have in common.
3. Remember their birthdays, and pay close attention to what they tell you. They'll appreciate the work you put in remembering the details. If you haven't seen them for a while, drop them an e-mail, send them an SMS or make a quick call.
4. Who bought lunch last? Who phoned last? Who wrote the longest e-mail? Who's always going to whose house for visits? Who cares? You're friends. Give them a break. And if you feel like you're the only one who's putting any effort into your friendship then speak to your friend about it.
5. Crazy as it sounds, some people aren't happy unless they are better off than their friends. They can't stand it when their friends are successful, and they're intensely jealous of any happiness their friends might enjoy, don't be that kind of person. Be happy when they accomplish something and show your support by celebrating along with them.
6. Be there for them, through the good and the bad times. Remember the old saying "a friend in need is a friend indeed?" Show your support when your friend is going through a rough patch. A friend will always stand by your side, no matter how tough life is and not just when it's all braais and parties and good times
7. Go out, have fun and make memories. Be there to keep them out of trouble, and be there to listen when they want to talk. In friendships, as in so many things in life, the secret to success often lies in simply showing up. Know the boundaries: a friend who spends a lot of quality time with you is a good friend but a friend who never knows when to leave is a different story.

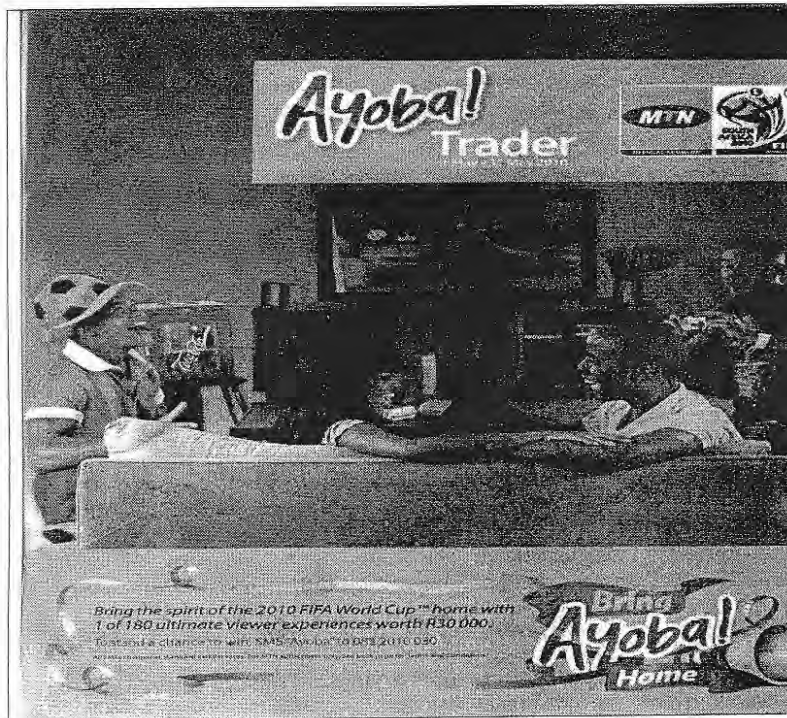
[Adapted from *LEWIS CLUB*, April/May 2010]

TOTAL SECTION B: 10

SECTION C: LANGUAGE

QUESTION 3: VISUAL LITERACY

3.1 ANALYSING AN ADVERTISEMENT



[Adapted from *The Daily Dispatch*, 28 March 2010]

- 3.1.1 Study the advertisement and comment on how the spirit of 2010 FIFA World Cup has unified South Africa. (2)
- 3.1.2 Quote a word from the advertisement that creates a warm atmosphere and a feeling of excitement. (1)
- 3.1.3 What is the major brand advertised in the picture? (1)
- 3.1.4 Why is FIFA World Cup logo included in this advert? (2)
- 3.1.5 What in the context of the advertisement is meant by 'Home'? (1)
- [7]

3.2 ANALYSING A CARTOON

Study the following cartoon and answer the questions set on it:



[Adapted from *DAILY SUN*, 23 April 2010]

- 3.2.1 Study the first speaker's facial expression in frame 1, and find a reason why it can be decided that he is mocking Bafana Bafana. (1)
- 3.2.2 What is implied by the second speaker in frame 1? (2)
- 3.2.3 The speaker in frame 2 is ...
 - A optimistic.
 - B patriotic.
 - C pessimistic.
 - D hopeful.

Choose the best option from the ones listed above.

(1)
[4]

QUESTION 4: LANGUAGE AND EDITING

- 4.1 Rewrite the following sentences taken from a *TEEN* magazine Facebook in Standard English. **Underline the changes.** (3)
- I love ur mag so much! Keep up da hard work!
- 4.2 Punctuate the following sentence. **Underline the punctuated words or phrases.** (3)
- ms van halter doesnt approve of the over publicising of the World Cup on tv
- 4.3 Complete the following passage by filling in the blank spaces. **Write only the missing words.** (4)
- South Africans are preparing themselves for this once-in-a-lifetime opportunity. The beauty of it (i) that they have put their misunderstandings aside. Many people preferred that it (ii) held in summer, but some preferred winter to summer but at last they reached a common understanding. Things (iii) begun to take shape. Everyone is (iv) forward to June 11!
- 4.4 4.4.1 Read the following sentence and **write the underlined numbers in words.** (2)
- Only 32 countries have qualified for the 2010 FIFA World Cup.
- 4.4.2 Correct the following sentence by writing the underlined position of Bafana Bafana properly. **(Write it in words)** (1)
- Bafana Bafana are ranked 88 in the world!
- 4.5 Begin the following sentence as shown below: (3)
- "We want people to register with us"
- FIFA controllers explained that...
- 4.6 Rewrite the following statement in the plural form. (2)
- As soon as school re-opens, he has to be serious.
- 4.7 Finish this sentence with a question tag. (2)
- Learners will have a good time.

- 4.8 Join the two sentences by starting as shown below.
Bafana Bafana struggle to score goals.
Bafana Bafana have a handful of talented players. Despite... (3)
- 4.9 4.9.1 Disagree with the following statement, by beginning as shown below.
Jomo Sono will coach Bafana Bafana.
No... (2)
- 4.9.2 Begin the statement in QUESTION 4.9.1 as follows:
Bafana Bafana ... (2)
- 4.10 4.10.1 Complete the following sentence by giving the opposite of the underlined word.
The FIFA World Cup is surely bringing victory for South Africa, we cannot imagine the bitterness of ... (1)
- 4.10.2 What type of a noun is **victory**? (1)

[29]

TOTAL SECTION C: 40

GRAND TOTAL: 80

Appendix 2 – The Judgement and Correction Task Test 2.

Judgement and Correction Task Test 2

Name: _____

Date: _____

Home Language: _____

Date of Birth: _____

Male or Female: _____

Instructions: Read each sentence and see if you think it is correct, if you believe it is correct then tick the space next to it, if you think it is incorrect then put a line through the word that is incorrect and write the correct word on the line below it. There are 90 sentences.

Example:

1	Have you met Mary? What does they look like? _____ she _____	X
2	I fell over and I hurt myself. _____	✓
3	It was an hot day yesterday. _____ a _____	X

1	Global warming is an international problem.	
2	The teachers are still in a meeting. Did he all not hear the bell?	
3	You've got my girlfriend's cell number. Please call her.	
4	Here, this is your.	
5	The learners have all passed their tests.	
6	I don't understand who's this is.	
7	Please tell me whose beautiful pictures these are.	
8	Noqaba is a new member of staff. He has already fitted in well.	
9	The principal found him and myself hiding under the table.	
10	At the end of a soccer game I'm very tired.	
11	That's an old story. Please don't keep repeating it!	
12	He hurt herself when she was assisting her Mom cut bread.	
13	When my sister leaves the secretarial school she will get the good job.	
14	My grandmother is over there. Ask him to help you with that sewing.	
15	My beanie fell under the chair. I think your did too.	
16	Our is that new Chrysler car.	

17	He thinks that is theirs.	
18	Whose packets are these?	
19	All my friends wrote the test. She are awaiting their results.	
20	She told my brother and myself to go to the shop for sugar.	
21	Which is a quickest way to the clinic?	
22	My girlfriend is a really nice woman. She is always gentle and concerned about me.	
23	Luthando was the first male student to take sewing classes at my school. She is now a top fashion designer!	
24	Vuyani has asked you to assist her.	
25	You can decide on their for the class team.	
26	This is Mary's skirt – where's yours?	
27	I told you – theirs a mouse in our roof!	
28	My friend, Thando, said he, himself, would investigate the matter.	
29	Here is a best example of how to write a letter of application that I know of.	
30	Next year I will be the Varsity College student.	
31	Finally the assembly came to an end and we all went to class.	
32	Andile plays rugby for Crusaders. He is an excellent player.	
33	The extra classes began last week. Did them all register?	
34	This is my baby girl's new dress. It was given to him by my cousin, Nondumiso.	

35	She give it to me as a present, so it's my now.	
36	Your grandfather looks just like ours.	
37	Whom shouted at you about that?	
38	Himself and I are best mates and often help each other.	
39	Peter does not like to eat the egg for dinner.	
40	This is the coach who team did so well.	
41	Perhaps an article by a male writer, Zakes Mda, would be interesting for the class to read.	
42	In the few years' time I shall be employed in a big firm.	
43	This is the girl whose fetched her.	
44	We were all granted a licence. Here is mine.	
45	My sister is a hairdresser. He is doing very well and earning plenty of money.	
46	I informed him that himself must report the matter to the principal.	
47	Hand out these pencils and collect it again at the end of the lesson.	
48	I don't think you cut up a onion into this soup!	
49	There's my uncle. Please call her over here.	
50	Mrs Sigonyela wants to know where the exam books are. Please show them to him.	
51	There are the instructions. Put them on the notice boards so they may be read.	

52	Michael sent this to you, so it's your now!	
53	The children have lost their lunch money again.	
54	This is the person who found the house.	
55	Who's anorak is that?	
56	I, myself, have been teaching the junior choir	
57	He informed her that herself must find out what happened and report it.	
58	Mvula wishes to get a bursary to study for the engineering certificate.	
59	Nomsa has just popped down to the Spaza shop. He won't be long.	
60	Why are all the girls here? Don't they know the correct classroom is Room 8?	
61	There is the head boy. Ask him to come here.	
62	I've looked for my. Have you found yours?	
63	Our is the blue house.	
64	Let's decide who's this is.	
65	Herself and my sister are good friends and often assist each other.	
66	She and I were at a only high school in a little village in the Transkei.	
67	I would enjoy the cup of water if it were offered.	
68	This year's Fifa World Cup makes me glad to be a African.	

69	My Mom works at Spar where she is in the vegetable section.	
70	Most of they replied.	
71	Notbuhle gave the team oranges! Where're our?	
72	There shoes need a polish.	
73	Whose found this?	
74	Nozuko, herself, went to find the child who was lost.	
75	Mncedisi and myself are now entering high school.	
76	Let's look at some of the errors I found in your tests.	
77	I have the problem with my Biology teacher. He does not like me!	
78	This is a example of how to write a good paragraph.	
79	The headmaster is in the office. Please ask her to announce this just before break.	
80	This is Tobeka's book. Where is my?	
81	These are there soccer balls.	
82	Please hand out theirs test papers.	
83	Who's cloth is this?	
84	Tabisai and himself carried the heavy suitcase up to the second floor.	
85	He is a best student in the class.	

86	Are you in grade 12 still? No, I am now the university student.	
87	The release of Madiba was a historical event here in South Africa.	
88	There is the grey uniform.	
89	My grandmother is great! My Mom and herself see each other often.	
90	My brother is good at English. She will become a lawyer.	

Appendix 3 – A copy of the Free Writing Test instructions along with copies of all three pictures used by the test.

Free Writing Exercise

Name: _____

Grade: _____

Home Language: _____

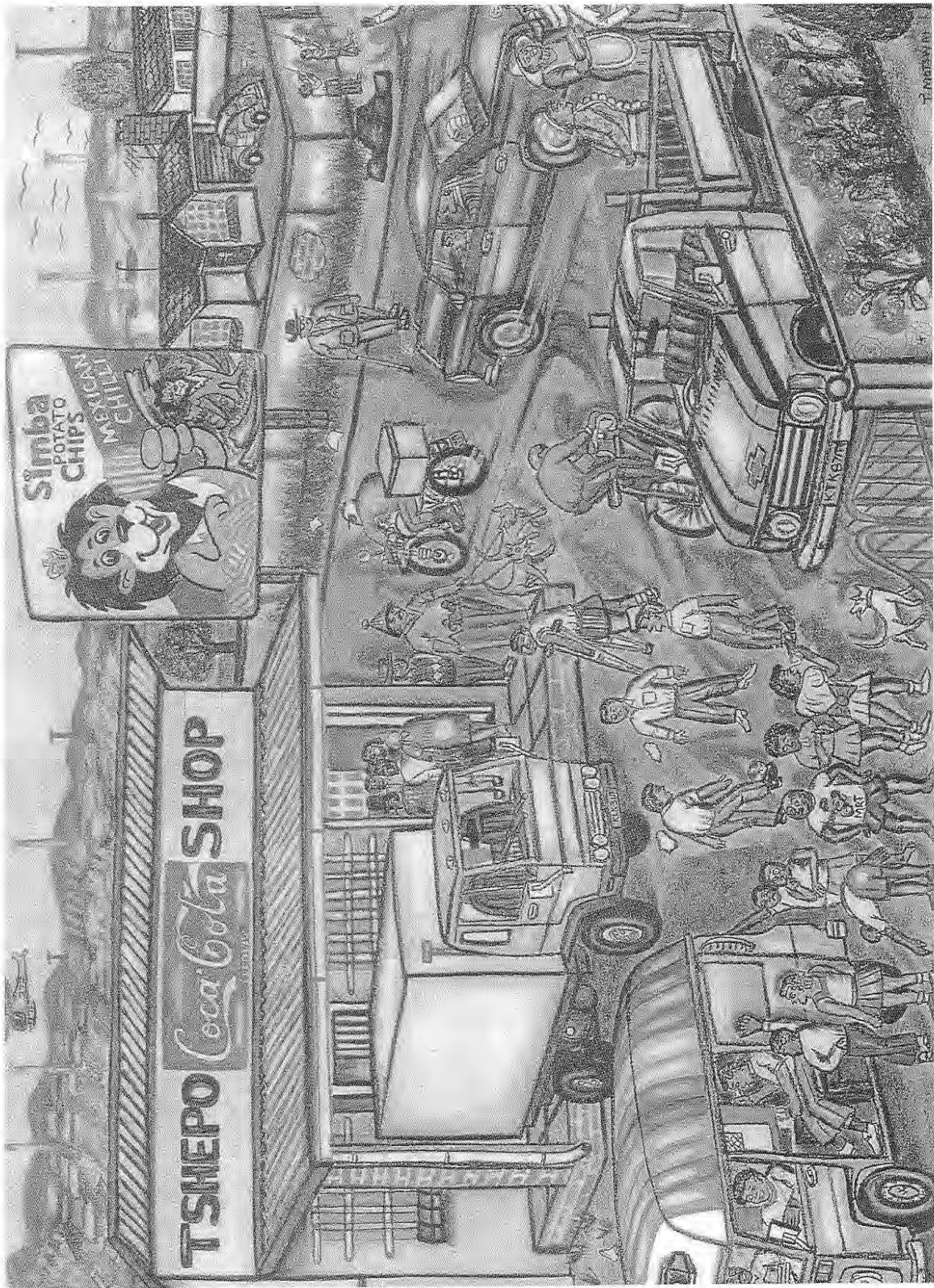
Date of Birth: _____

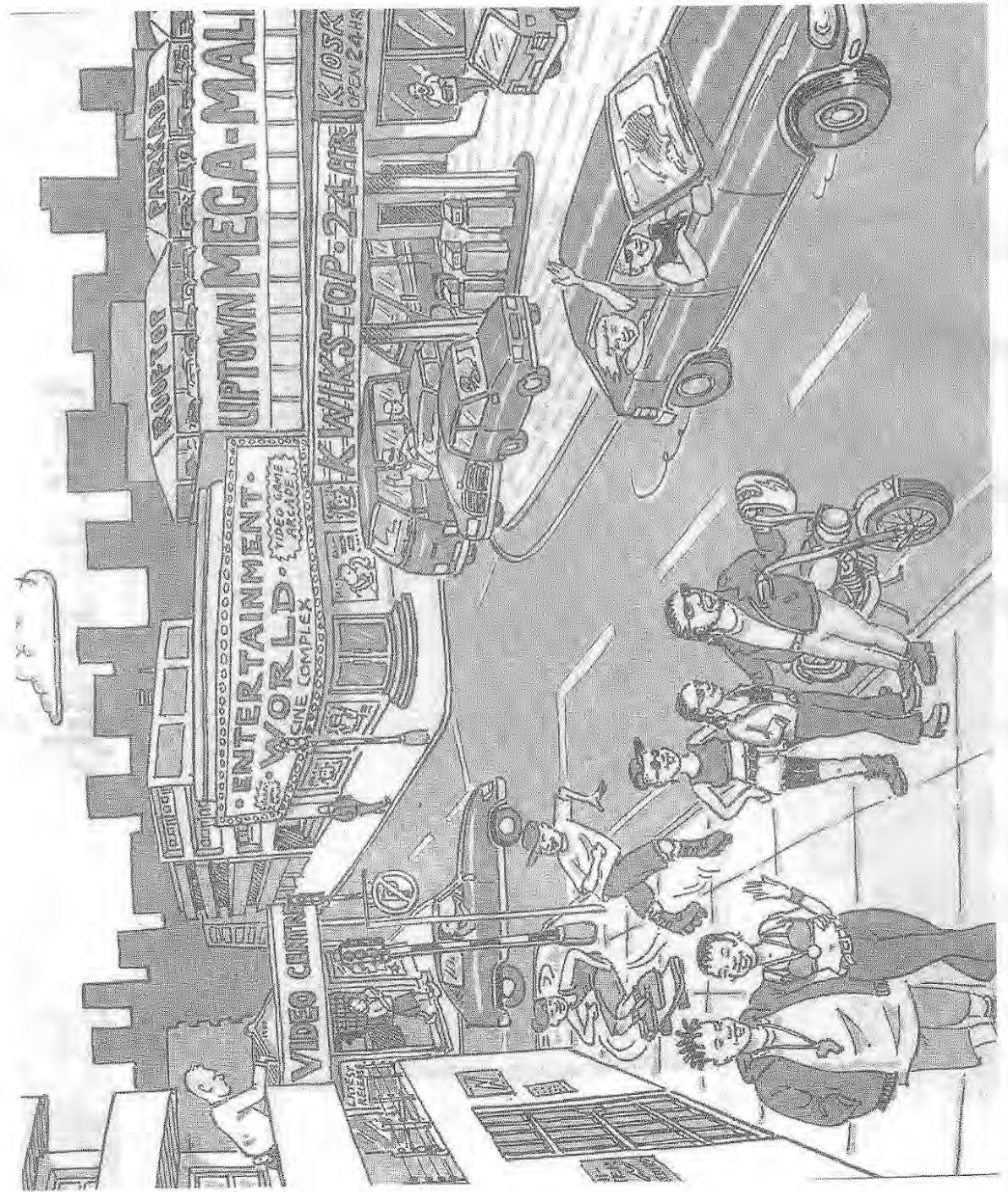
Male or Female: _____

Instructions:

Look carefully at the picture on the next page; describe what you see in the picture. Write 3 paragraphs about (12 – 15 lines in total). Start your description with:

When I look at this picture I can see _____





Appendix 4 – A copy of the „Fortune Teller“ pronoun exercise.

The Fortune Teller – Pronoun Exercise

Instructions:

Rewrite the following paragraph, substituting an appropriate pronoun for each italicized word or group of words. For example, the first sentence might be rewritten in this way:

The fortune teller moved *her* dry, shrivelled hands over the glass ball that *she* had bought at a dollar store a long time ago.

When you are done, compare the sentences in your new paragraph with those in the revised paragraph on page 2.

The Fortune Teller

The fortune teller moved *the fortune teller's* dry, shriveled hands over the glass ball that *the fortune teller* had bought at a dollar store a long time ago. *The fortune teller* could hear the laughter and the occasional shouts of the children as *the children* ran outside from ride to ride and from tent to tent. *The children* never came in to see *the fortune teller*. Instead it was always the face of a laid-off dock worker or a romantic teenager that peered through the entrance way of *the fortune teller's* tent. The unemployed dock workers wanted to hear about winning lottery tickets and new job opportunities. The teenagers were eager to hear stories about far away places and dark, mysterious strangers. And so the fortune teller always told *the dock workers and the teenagers* what *the dock workers and the teenagers* wanted to hear. *The fortune teller* liked giving *the dock workers and the teenagers* something to dream about. *The fortune teller* tried to fill the minds of *the dock workers and the teenagers* with great expectations. Just then, a young man appeared in the entrance way. *The young man* was nervous, and the smile of *the young man* was timid. *The young man* shuffled into the dark tent, *the young man's* head full of dreams and yet, at the same time, innocently empty. The fortune teller took the trembling hands of *the young man* into *the fortune teller's* own hands, and peered at the revealing lines etched on the palms of *the young man*. Then, slowly, in the cracked, ancient voice of *the fortune teller*, *the fortune teller* began to speak of new job opportunities, far away places, and dark, mysterious strangers.

The Fortune Teller

The fortune teller moved *her* dry, shriveled hands over the glass ball that *she* had bought at a dollar store a long time ago. *She* could hear the laughter and the occasional shouts of the children as *they* ran outside from ride to ride and from tent to tent. *They* never came in to see *her*. Instead it was always the face of a laid-off dock worker or a romantic teenager that peered through the entrance way of *her* tent. The unemployed dock workers wanted to hear about winning lottery tickets and new job opportunities. The teenagers were eager to hear stories about far away places and dark, mysterious strangers. And so the fortune teller always told *them* what *they* wanted to hear. *She* liked giving *them* something to dream about. *She* tried to fill *their* minds with great expectations. Just then, a young man appeared in the entrance way. *He* was nervous, and *his* smile was timid. *He* shuffled into the dark tent, *his* head full of dreams and yet, at the same time, innocently empty. The fortune teller took *his* trembling hands into *her* own hands and peered at the revealing lines etched on *his* palms. Then, slowly, in *her* cracked, ancient voice, *she* began to speak of new job opportunities, far away places, and dark, mysterious strangers.

Appendix 5 – A copy of the relative pronoun exercise.

The story I am about to tell you contains lots of examples of the "Relative Pronoun". Before you read it, look through the following notes:

General

1. Relative pronouns do two jobs at once:
 - a) acting as subject or object of a verb
 - b) joining two clauses together
2. The most common are: *who*, *whom*, *which* and *that* — *who* and *whom* for people and *which* for things.
3. *Whom* is not used much in conversation and refers to an object of a verb or a preposition.
4. *That* can often replace *whom*, *who* and *which*.
5. After nouns referring to times and places, *when* and *where* can be used to mean at which or *in which* and *why* can be used to mean *for which*.
6. *Whose* is a possessive relative word, referring to people and things.

Particular

1. Defining and non-defining relative clauses
Compare:
"George, *who* lives next door, always watches television."
"The couple *who* live next door always watch television.»
2. *That*
 - a) For people and things and in conversation.
 - b) After the following: all, everything, something, anything, nothing, none, little, few, much.
 - c) After superlatives.
3. In defining relative clauses the relative pronoun is often left out if it is the object of the verb.
4. Prepositions can come before the relative pronoun or at the end of the clause but you cannot use *that* or *who* after a preposition.
5. In a non-defining relative clause *that* cannot be used and object relative pronouns cannot be left out.
6. Sentence Relative
Compare:
"He showed me a photo *that* upset me."
"He tore up the photo, *which* upset me."
7. Relative and infinitive
"He was unhappy unless he had someone with *whom* to argue."
8. *Whose* can refer to people or things and can be the subject of a clause, the object of a verb or the object of a preposition.
9. Instead of *whose*, *of which* can be used.

10. *What*

Compare:

"I gave her the money that she needed."

"I gave her what she wanted."

Now read the story and see how many examples of the pronoun you can find.

Relatives

I hope you know what I'm talking about. I could be talking about "*who*", "*which*", "*whose*" and so on, or I could be talking about aunts, uncles and cousins. That's the trouble with English. One word can have two quite different meanings. Well, in this short piece I'm going to talk about both — that is primarily aunts, uncles and so on and with a bit of luck the other "relatives" should be there too.

Anyhow, there are those members of the family *whom* you regard as part of the family and it never occurs to you that the chap *whom* you call Dave is also someone to *whom* you could give the title "uncle". You know him so well that it never occurs to you that he is in fact a relative. Then there are those *that* you only see on special occasions, *which* don't take place very often like weddings and funerals. In the former you're usually enjoying yourself so much that you don't take much notice of them and in the latter you hardly talk to anyone because it's a time when you don't talk much to anyone and a place *where* you don't normally go out of your way to be sociable.

Then there is that special category of relatives *which* you hardly ever consider and *whose* names you only vaguely remember because they did something terrible or left the country in a hurry or *who* have funny ways which most of us can't accept.

I had one like that, an aunt *whose* name was Enid. In fact whenever I hear the name spoken or read it in a book, I always conjure up in my mind that aunt *who* must have been the strangest member that my family has produced. As a child I had heard stories about her that may or may not have been true. The best one I remember was *when* she ended up in hospital with a broken leg. Apparently she was very proud of her house, *which* she kept in an immaculate condition, and in this particular incident *that* illustrates her eccentricity, she had seen a mess on one of the rugs she kept in her sitting room. As she was expecting a visitor, *who* was due any minute, she opened the door to the garden and threw out the rug *that* was causing the trouble and *whose* stain was upsetting her. Unfortunately she forgot to get off the rug first and threw herself out into the garden as well. That was *how* she ended up in the hospital with a broken leg. There were endless stories like those, *which* were probably exaggerated and *that* had been added to over the years. Nobody really knew *what* was true and *what* was complete fabrication. The one thing *that* nobody could understand or explain was why she had gone to live in another country *where* she had stayed for more than twenty years. Everybody had something to say on the matter: she had had an unhappy love affair with a man *who* was married, she wanted to make a fresh start in a place *where* no-one knew her, she wanted to get away

from her family whom she couldn't put up with. Such stories, *which* grew in number as the years went by, fascinated me. The strange thing was that not one of these stories fitted with the generally accepted belief *that* Aunt Enid was supposed to be a very shy person, *who* wouldn't have the courage to say boo to a goose. This was an enigma *that* I wanted to resolve and when I heard that she was returning to the place where she was born. I hoped I might have the opportunity to meet this living legend and get to the bottom of these stories.

My parents had decided to meet her at the port *where* her ship was due to arrive and I was allowed to go with them. I can still remember the excitement and anticipation I felt as a child waiting for the ship to arrive. My father, *who* was always making fun of Aunt Enid, made some remark to the effect *that* she had probably missed the boat and taken the wrong one to another destination *that* was probably the other side of the world. We waited and then slowly through the mist we saw the ship *whose* right side bore the name "Voyager", *which* I thought was very romantic since it aptly described what my aunt had been doing for the last twenty years. I even imagined that the small dot visible on the deck was Aunt Enid waving to us. But my father pointed out *that* what I thought was Aunt Enid was in fact one of the anchors.

Eventually the "Voyager" docked and as was to be expected the last person to disembark was my celebrated Aunt. I must admit that she was a bit of an anti-climax because she was small, frail, gray-haired, spoke with a tiny crackling voice, *which* sounded like a tiny mouse, and was to all intents and purposes a very ordinary old lady.

It was several weeks before Aunt Enid and I were alone together. In fact it was the afternoon on *which* she was preparing to go back to her home abroad. I had not had enough courage to put the question to her, *which* I had promised myself I would. In a sudden rush of confidence I burst out: "Why did you go and live abroad all those years ago, Aunt Enid?" She smiled that smile for *which* old people are famous, *that* combines compassion with wisdom. "I'll tell you on one condition", she replied "and *that* is that you don't tell a living soul". I promised. As all the "living souls" to *whom* she was referring are now no longer alive, I think it's reasonable to reveal Aunt Enid's secret. Apparently the day on *which* she left home for the last time she had taken a train to visit a friend, *who* didn't live far away but unfortunately she had fallen asleep, missed the station she wanted and didn't wake up until the train came to the end of the line, *which* happened to be the very port *where* we had met her some weeks before. She decided there and then that she would not put up with any more of the jokes *which* had haunted her all her life and booked a passage on the next ship never finding the courage with *which* to explain the reason for her departure. *What* you might call a **RELATIVELY** simple explanation.

Appendix 6 – A copy of the „Pronouns Anyone?“ exercise.

Name _____

Date _____

Pronouns Anyone? Standing in for Nouns

Reading and Discussion

What is a **pronoun**?

A pronoun is a word that takes the place of a noun. You have learned that nouns name any person, place, or thing. Pronouns stand for people or things too. The difference is that pronouns do not name them. Let's look at some examples.

- Martha, Sue and Joan walked to the store yesterday.

In this sentence we use the nouns, **Martha, Sue and Joan**.

If we wanted to write the same sentence using pronouns, we might write the sentence like this:

- **They** walked to the store yesterday.

They is a pronoun. It stands for all three girls without naming them. If we were writing a long story about the girls, it would be easier to use pronouns than to keep writing their names. For example:

Martha, Sue and Joan walked to the store yesterday. Martha, Sue and Joan each bought a bag of striped candy. Martha, Sue and Joan ate the candy on the walk home.

With pronouns, the story is shorter and simpler to write.

Martha, Sue and Joan walked to the store yesterday. They each bought a bag of striped candy. They ate the candy on the walk home.

They is a pronoun that tells about more than one. Here are some more pronouns:

- **I, me, my, you, she, he, they, them, it**
- **Us, we, your, his, their, our, mine, yours, her**

Pronouns are small words but they are very helpful. They stand in for nouns so that we don't have to keep repeating nouns in a sentence.

Name _____

Date _____

Activities

Activity A: Let's Review

1. _____ take the place of a noun.
2. _____ name any person, place, or thing.
3. Name a pronoun that stands for more than one. _____
4. Which pronoun can take the place of **Helen's** name in the following sentence.

Helen likes to read about space. Rewrite the sentence using the pronoun.

Activity B: In each of the following sentences, a noun is underlined. Rewrite the sentences using a pronoun from the list below. Use each pronoun once. When you use a pronoun, you might have to rewrite the sentences using fewer words.

- me, he, she, it, her, they, them, their

1. Brian enjoys playing soccer after school.

2. Sam and Seth went fishing.

3. What did you do with the ball?

4. Janet's books were in the book bag.

5. Janet left the book bag at school.

6. My cat loves (use a pronoun in place of your name.)

Activity C: Fill in the sentences using a pronoun that means more than one.

1. Six window washers came to school. Our class watched ___ clean the windows.
2. ___ wore white uniforms and used ladders to reach windows on the top floor.
3. "The window washers are professionals at _____ job," our teacher said.

Activity D: Which other pronoun is used three times in the sentences above? _____

Name _____

Date _____

Pronoun Relative Using Relative Pronouns

Reading and Discussion

Pronouns are words that stand in for a noun. Instead of writing this:

- Susan rode Susan's bike to the park.

We could use pronouns and write this:

- She rode her bike to the park.

She and **her** are some of the personal pronouns we often use.

While we use personal pronouns the most, there are also other types of pronouns. Let's take a closer look at **relative pronouns**.

Relative pronouns are used as connecting words to introduce adjective clauses. An adjective clause does the same job as a single adjective. It modifies or describes a noun or a pronoun. Here are some common relative pronouns:

- **that, who, whom, what, which, whose, whomever, whoever**

Remember to use **who, whose, and whom** with proper nouns or names.

- Sparky, **who** helps the men at Fire Station 24, rides on the fire truck.
- Mrs. Sampson is the teacher **whom** everyone likes.

Use the relative pronouns **that** and **which** when talking about things or animals.

- The fire truck, **which** is parked next to the station, is shiny.
- Sam returned the bike **that** he had borrowed.

Relative pronouns are used to introduce a **dependent clause**. What is a dependent clause? A dependent clause is a group of words that cannot express a complete thought and cannot stand alone. Let's look at our last sentence.

- Sam returned the bike **that** he had borrowed.

The relative pronoun is **that**. It introduces **that he had borrowed**.
Is this a complete thought? No. Could it stand alone as a sentence? No.

What about the rest of the sentence? **Sam returned the bike**.
Is this a complete thought? Yes. Could that stand alone? Yes.

So the words **that he had borrowed** are dependent on the rest of the sentence, **Sam returned the bike**, to make sense. Therefore, **that he had borrowed** is a dependent clause that begins with a relative pronoun.

Name _____

Date _____

Activities

Activity A: Let's Review.

1. What type of pronoun introduces an adjective clause? _____
2. What does an adjective clause do? _____
3. Name four relative pronouns.

4. Name two relative pronouns used when talking about people?
_____ and _____
5. Name two relative pronouns used when talking about things?
_____ and _____
6. What is a dependent clause? _____

Activity B: Underline the relative pronouns in the following sentences.

1. Mars, which is the largest planet, is often called the red planet.
2. Dad flew the kite that I had built.
3. The neighbor, who lives behind us, mows our lawn
4. The boat that has the yellow stripe is my favorite.
5. The children whose desks are neat will go to recess first.
6. Mrs. Thompson, whom all the children like, will be the story leader.

Activity C: Write a sentence using **that** and a sentence using **who**.

1. _____
2. _____

Activity D: That or who? Fill in the blanks with the correct relative pronoun.

1. My brother, _____ likes to build model ships, won the boat-building contest.
2. The turtle _____ we keep in the aquarium is fun to watch.

Appendix 7 – A copy of the „Swapping nouns for pronouns in sentences“ exercise.

Swapping nouns for pronouns in sentences.

Re-write the sentences swapping the nouns for pronouns. Use the table to help you. The first few nouns have been highlighted...the rest are for you to spot!

	Singular pronouns	Plural pronouns
Use these when the pronoun is the subject of the sentence.	I you he she it	We You they
Use these when the pronoun is the object in a sentence.	me you him her it	us you them
Use these pronouns to show that something belongs to someone.	mine yours his hers its	our (s) your (s) their (s)

1. Louis and his mums house is next door to the house you live in.
2. Ryan did Ryans work straight away.
3. When Luke stroked the cat and listened to the cat purring softly, Luke felt calm and peaceful.
4. Lisa went out to find Cody and Stephen.
5. The class asked Peter if Peter was feeling better.

Extension

Can you make up a sentence or two with pronouns in...

Appendix 8 – A copy of the „Sorting pronouns“ exercise.

Sorting pronouns.

Cut out and sort the pronouns into 'possessive' and 'personal' by putting them into the table. Copy the table into your English book.

Personal pronouns (describe a person)	Possessive pronouns (describe who or what belongs)

mine	I	yours	she	ours
you	me	he	its	it
hers	her	his	him	theirs

Identifying pronouns in sentences

Copy the sentences below, writing the pronouns in a different colour...

1. She went out to find them.
2. We asked him if he was feeling better.
3. You should ask if she wants to joins us.
4. It isn't yours, it's mine!
5. They took me home with them.
6. I will leave when they arrive.
7. We all wanted her to succeed
8. He took his football over to them for a match.

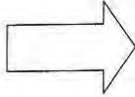
Appendix 9 – A copy of the „General Pronouns“ exercise.

Name _____

Date _____

Pronouns

A personal pronoun takes the place of a noun.

The boy heard. He heard.

The following words are pronouns.
They take the place of nouns in a sentence.

Remember: singular = one plural = more than one

Singular Pronouns	Plural Pronouns
I, me, my, mine	We, us, our, ours
You, your, yours	You, your, yours
He, him, his	They, them, their, theirs
She, her hers	
It, its	

Read the following sentences and underline the pronoun in each one.

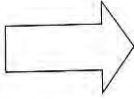
1. Sally went to the store and she bought fruit.
2. Tom wanted to see if his friends could go.
3. The dish looked like it was broken.
4. The girls took candy with them to the movies.
5. That book is mine.

Name _____

Date _____

Pronouns Questions

A personal pronoun takes the place of a noun.



The boy heard. He heard.

Singular Pronouns	Plural Pronouns
I, me, my, mine You, your, yours He, him, his She, her hers It, its	We, us, our, ours You, your, yours They, them, their, theirs

Now let's practice.

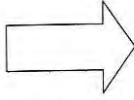
Read the following sentences
and circle the correct pronoun for each blank.

1. Mrs. Smith gave out awards to the students that _____ (she, he) thought did a good job.
2. Joe is a basketball coach because _____ (it, he) plays really well.
3. Do _____ (you, my) think it will be hard to make the team?
4. The principal asked students to clap _____ (hers, their) hands.
5. Marty dropped the ball because _____ (she, it) was too slippery.

Name _____

Date _____

Pronouns Questions (Cont'd)



A personal pronoun takes the place of a noun.

The boy heard. He heard.

Now it is your turn to practice writing with pronouns. Below, write a sentence for each pronoun. Underline it in your sentence.

1. my

2. she

3. ours

4. them

5. theirs

Name _____

Date _____

Pronouns Answers

Page 1:

1. Sally went to the store and she bought fruit.
2. Tom wanted to see if his friends could go.
3. The dish looked like it was broken.
4. The girls took candy with them to the movies.
5. That book is mine.

Page 2:

1. Mrs. Smith gave out awards to the students that _____ (she, he) thought did a good job.
2. Joe is a basketball coach because _____ (it, he) plays really well.
3. Do _____ (you, my) think it will be hard to make the team?
4. The principal asked students to clap _____ (hers, their) hands.
5. Marty dropped the ball because _____ (she, it) was too slippery.

Page 3:

Answers will vary.

Appendix 10 – A copy of the „Intensive or Reflexive?“ exercise.

Name _____

Date _____

Intensive or Reflexive? How to Use Them

Reading and Discussion

Pronouns are words that take the place of a noun. The most common pronouns are personal pronouns. There are several other types of pronouns too, such as:

- intensive
- reflexive
- demonstrative
- indefinite
- interrogative
- relative

Intensive and **reflexive** pronouns are the same pronouns, but they are used in different ways. Here are the most common intensive and reflexive pronouns:

- myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves

These pronouns can be confusing because they are exactly alike. Let's take a closer look at this pair and take the mystery out of their use.

Intensive pronouns are personal pronouns that emphasize a noun or another pronoun. They intensify the subject. An easy way to find these pronouns is to look for the ending **self** or **selves**. Intensive pronouns are not used as objects. They are used only to give more emphasis to the **subject**.

- John **himself** built a sand sculpture of a dragon.

The pronoun **himself** is used to give emphasis to the subject **John**. An intensive pronoun is used like a spotlight to shine on the subject.

- I will build a sand castle **myself**.

Here, the pronoun **myself** is used to give emphasis to the subject **I**.

Reflexive pronouns are the same pronouns as intensive pronouns, but they are used in a different way. A reflexive pronoun cannot be used alone. It must refer to someone or something already spoken about. A reflexive pronoun is used as an **object**.

- John built **himself** a sand castle.

Here, the pronoun **himself** is used as an object. It reflects back to the subject **John**.

- The kitten hurt **itself** when it jumped off the roof.

Here, the pronoun **itself** reflects back to the subject **kitten**.

Name _____

Date _____

Activities

Activity A: Intensive or Reflexive? Which pronoun is used in the following sentences? If the underlined pronoun is **intensive**, write **I** on the blank line. If the underlined pronoun is **reflexive**, write **R** on the blank line.

1. _____ My little sister just learned how to feed herself.
2. _____ Susan wrote herself a note.
3. _____ I myself will take the puppy for a walk.
4. _____ Jake and Ryan themselves will bake a cake.
5. _____ We ourselves have cleaned the yard.
6. _____ The kite twisted itself around the tree.

Activity B: Write a sentence using an intensive pronoun.

1. _____

Activity C: Write a sentence using a reflexive pronoun.

1. _____

In Greek mythology Narcissus looked into the water of the pool and saw his own reflection. In other words he saw *himself* — he saw a reflection of *himself*. Both those words that I have highlighted are called *reflexive* pronouns and in both cases the subject and the object are the same just like the reflection of Narcissus. But we'll come back to that later.

Let's do some more reflecting or thinking. A reflection, apart from being another picture of someone or something as in the case of our Greek friend, who incidentally died gazing at his reflection in the pool, is also another word for a considered thought or coming back to think about something again. If you are writing an account of your childhood for example and you are thinking back to that time, you could call this description; "Reflections of my childhood." Again if you think that crime occurs because of the type of society in which people live, you could say that "The increase in crime in cities is a sad reflection of the poor conditions in which some people live." In these examples you can see that one thing is a sort of representation of another. In fact the older spelling of "reflection" was "reflexion" and we also find "reflective" and "reflexive". The former means "thinking seriously about" — you can be described as "in a reflective mood" when you are deep in thought about has happened. The latter of course brings us back to the pronoun.

Let me show the forms of the reflexive pronoun in tabular form using the same sentence:

- *I* saw *myself* on the TV news last night.
- *You* saw *yourself* on the TV news last night.
- *He* saw *himself* on the TV news last night.
- *She* saw *herself* on the TV news last night.
- *It* saw *itself* on the TV news last night. (Let's imagine the "it" here refers to the dog!)
- *We* saw *ourselves* on the TV news last night.
- *You* saw *yourselves* (plural) on the TV news last night.
- *They* saw *themselves* on the TV news last night.

Two points to note in particular: "you" as a personal pronoun does not change when it becomes plural but it does in the reflexive pronoun: the spelling of the third person plural — themselves.

Take a look at these two sentences, both of which contain the word "himself" but in each sentence the word has a different meaning:

- Narcissus himself saw it in the water.
- Narcissus saw himself in the water.

In the second sentence the meaning is that Narcissus saw a reflection of himself in the water but in the first sentence the meaning is that Narcissus and nobody else saw it in the water. When it has that meaning we call the pronoun an *emphatic* pronoun but the form in singular and plural and all the "persons" is exactly the same as with the *reflexive* pronoun. The important thing about the emphatic pronoun is that it is not used always with transitive verbs and obviously is not used with sentences where the subject and object are the same. Now let's put all that into a very short and simple narrative and try and find which are emphatic and which are reflexive pronouns: Imagine a young man at a party who is very *full of himself* and who is talking to another person whose back is *itself* facing a mirror:

Personally I *myself* have always prided *myself* on being able to look after *myself* in whatever situation I happen to find *myself*. My father *himself* always taught me to take decisions. "You should make your own mind up *yourself* and let other people get on with things by *themselves*." Those are the very words *themselves* that he used. I don't know what you *yourself* do. I mean we are all supposed to try and make the best of *ourselves*. I guess or I imagine from what you *yourself* look like that you have a reasonable job. I don't imagine that you earn as much as I *myself* do. I assume that you and your family are *yourselves* struggling to pay the rent or the mortgage? What exactly do you *yourself* do for a living? For a moment the pompous young man turned round on *himself*. When he turned back he found *himself* staring at *himself* in the mirror. The other 'self' had slipped away and was now enjoying *herself* in another part of the room talking to a young man who was looking very pleased with *himself*.

Appendix 11 – A copy of the „Articles – both definite and indefinite“ exercise.

Articles — both definite and indefinite

Indefinite — a, an

Uses

- Before a singular noun which is countable when it is mentioned for the first time and represents no particular person or thing.
"A horse is a noble animal."
- Before a singular countable noun which is used as an example of a class of things.
"A book is something you read."
- With a noun complement, including names of professions.
"She is a doctor, he became a famous actor."
- In certain numerical expressions.
"a dozen, a hundred"
- In expressions of price, speed, ratio.
"60 miles an hour, 4 hours a day, 30p a box"
- With "few" and "little"
"a few people, a little sugar"
- In exclamations before singular, countable nouns. "What a pity! What a sunny day!"
- It can be placed before Mr., Mrs, Miss, Ms + surname.
"a Mr. Brown phoned today."

Not Used

- Before plural nouns.
"Horses are noble animals."
- Before uncountable nouns
"Milk is good for you."
- Before abstract nouns.
"Fear is natural."
- Before names of meals except when preceded by an adjective.
"We had a late breakfast and decided to miss lunch."

Definite — the

Uses

- Before nouns of which there is only one.
"The earth is round."
- Before a noun which has become definite as a result of being mentioned a second time.
"We saw a good film last night. It was the film you recommended."
- Before a noun made definite by the addition of a phrase or clause.
"The woman dressed in black."
- Before a noun which, by reason of locality, can represent only one particular thing.
"There's a bee in the kitchen."
- Before superlatives and "first", "second" and "only"
"The longest river in the world."
- Before singular nouns used to represent a class of objects.
"The donkey is a very obstinate animal."
- Before an adjective used to represent a class of persons.
"That tax hurts the rich."
- Before names of seas, rivers, chains of mountains, groups of islands and plural names of countries.
"the Pacific Ocean, the Thames, the Andes, the West Indies, the Netherlands"
- Before musical instruments.
"She plays the piano"

Not Used

- Before countries, towns, proper names.
"Charlie lived in Chicago in America"
- Before abstract nouns.
"Jealousy can be dangerous."
- Before parts of the body and articles of clothing — these normally prefer a possessive adjective.
"Lift your left arm."
"He removed his hat."

"Charlie the Brave"

Charlie is *a* teacher and his wife, Maria is *an* artist. One of *the* main differences between *the* two is that Charlie has no imagination well perhaps *a* little whereas Maria has *the* most vivid imagination you could think of.

Now — imagination is *an* essential quality if you're *an* artist but sometimes it can lead to — problems. Take *the* night before last, for example. It was *a* fine summer night and you could see *the* moon and *the* stars quite clearly, it was shortly before *the* longest day of *the* year. Charlie was sitting in *a* deckchair enjoying *the* warm summer air when he felt something touch *his* shoulder; it was Maria's hand and he could tell immediately she was *a* little worried about something. He had noticed this sensation *a* hundred times before. He asked her what *the* matter was and she replied that there was *a* strange thing on *the* jacket that was hanging in *the* bedroom. Now you must remember that they had both lived in *the* West Indies and had seen *a* lot of strange creatures in their house before. But now they were living in — England and so Charlie just laughed and said he would have *a* look at *the* "thing".

He left *the* garden and made his way to *the* bedroom. He could see *a* jacket hanging in *the* bedroom and went up to it to have *a* closer look at *the* "thing". The moment he touched it, *the* thing sprang into — life. Now Charlie experiences — fear like the rest of us but when this creature opened *its* wings, he jumped out of *his* skin and ran screaming from *the* room like *a* small child doing about 100 miles *an* hour.

What *a* fuss you may say and *the* brave among you may well regard such behaviour as pathetic but — bats (for this thing was *a* bat) bring out *the* worst in many people. For a moment *the* next-door neighbours thought that Charlie was murdering his wife because of *the* noise they could hear. In fact *the* bat was *the* one that was frightened and it fluttered *its* wings and flew from one side of the bedroom to *the* other. Eventually Charlie managed to trap *the* bat in *a* box and went out into *the* front garden clutching *the* box as if it had *a* bomb inside it, took off *the* lid and *the* bat, obviously delighted to be free, flew away into *the* dark. Eventually Maria, who had been playing *the* guitar while Charlie was upstairs, asked Charlie if he had found out what *the* thing was. "Oh, nothing to worry about", he said casually hoping that *the* terror could not be seen in his eyes, "it was just *a* bat."

Appendix 12 – A copy of the „Articles, reading comprehension“ exercise.



Reading Comprehension Informational Passages



Directions: Read the passage. Then answer questions about the passage below.

Do you live in a house? You might be surprised to learn that there are many, many kinds of houses. Most people in the United States are used to houses made of wood or bricks. But many people around the world live in houses made of grass, dirt, or cloth.

In the Great Rift Valley of Eritrea, the nomadic people who are in the Atr tribe build their houses of straw. Their houses are shaped like domes – half spheres. The homes are small and cool. The people can move their houses when they want to move. Since the people are *nomads*, they move often. They take their animals to new places in order to find food.

People who belong to the Uros tribe of Lake Titicaca, Peru build their houses of reeds. Not only that — they also live on islands that are made of reeds! Their boats are made of reeds too! About 2,000 people live on these man-made islands. They started to build their own islands about 500 years ago.

In Andalusia, in the south of Spain, some people live in underground houses. This kind of house is called a *cueba*. During the winter, the houses stay warm. During the summer, the houses stay cool.

In Sana'a, Yemen, some people live in tall houses made of bricks. These bricks are made of clay, straw, and soil. The bricks last many years — maybe as long as 500 years. The modern houses in Sana'a are made to look like the older, *traditional* houses, but they are made of concrete instead of bricks.

In Mindanao in the Philippines, some people still live in tree houses. The tree houses are made of bamboo with grass roofs. The houses are good lookouts for snakes and wild animals. The air is cool and the houses stay dry. Now, most people use these tree houses as meeting places.

The fishermen of Sabah, Malaysia build their houses on the water. They use wood from mangrove trees. This wood stays strong in the water. The houses receive official addresses from the government.

Fujian, China has many townhouses that are made of hard-packed *soil*. The dirt becomes as strong as brick when it is packed hard. One large family group lives in a townhouse. The townhouses were built around 300 years ago. A group of townhouses is protected by a thick dirt-packed wall.

In the Gobi Desert in Mongolia, some nomadic people live in homes called *gels*. These homes are made of cloth. The cloth is filled with animal hair. Two poles in the center of the house hold the house up. The people move often to find food for their animals. The houses are easy to move and set up.

Some American Indians live in teepees. These homes are made of cloth or buffalo hide. There are wooden poles used to hold the teepee up. Now some people use teepees only for special ceremonies, but people used to live in them all the time.

The traditional houses of Chitos, Greece, are made of stone. They have arched doorways and indoor courtyards. They have outdoor dining rooms which are *decorated* with tile and rock. This means they are ornamented, and made to look more beautiful.

The Dayak people of Indonesia build some of their houses on stilts, several feet above the ground. The frame of the house is made of iron. The walls are made of tree bark. The floors are made of wooden planks which are placed side by side. The houses are decorated with pictures of water snakes and rhinoceros birds. These animals are part of the people's story of *creation*, or how the world was made.

People build their houses to fit the needs of their lives. The houses are different, but one thing is the same wherever you go. There's no place like home!

10 How are the islands and the houses of the Uros tribe the same?

- A. They are both made by machines.
- B. They are both made of reeds.
- C. They are both made of soil.
- D. They are both built on land.
- E. They are both very modern.

11 Why did people live in tree houses?

- A. So they could see far.
- B. So they could stay cool.
- C. So they could stay safe.
- D. All of the above.
- E. None of the above.

12 Which groups have cloth houses?

- A. The Atr and the Uros people.
- B. The Dayak and the Greek people.
- C. Mongolians and American Indians.
- D. Andalusians and the Dayak people.
- E. The Greek and the Malaysian people.

13 Where do houses have outdoor rooms?

- A. In Greece.
- B. In Malaysia.
- C. In Indonesia.
- D. In the Philippines.
- E. In the Gobi Desert.

14 Why are Dayak houses decorated with pictures of snakes??

- A. The Dayak people are afraid of snakes.
- B. The snake pictures scare away other animals.
- C. The snakes are part of the Dayak creation story.
- D. Both B and C are correct.
- E. None of the above

15 *Nomads* are people who...

- A. live on small farms.
- B. move from place to place.
- C. build their homes of stone.
- D. live in underground houses.
- E. build their homes on the water.

16 *Traditional* houses are houses that have been built...

- A. to be easy to move.
- B. of clay, straw, and soil.
- C. the same way for a long time.
- D. with the dining rooms outdoors.
- E. with decorations of tile and rock.

17 What is another word for *soil*?

- A. Tile
- B. Dirt
- C. Cloth
- D. Brick
- E. Concrete

18 When something is *decorated*, it is...

- A. made larger.
- B. made stronger.
- C. made to look more beautiful.
- D. made to look more frightening.
- E. None of the above.

19 *Creation* is the process of...

- A. making something.
- B. moving something.
- C. living in something.
- D. decorating something.
- E. holding something up.