

**THE ROLE OF FORMAL INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE
ACQUISITION WITHIN THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH**

by

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Problem Defined

Traditionally, grammar occupied a central role in the teaching and learning of a second language. Knowledge of grammar, here defined as the formal properties of language, was viewed as the organizing principle in second language teaching until the early 1970's.

The predominance of grammar in the syllabuses for English Second Language was seriously called into question with the advent of the Communicative Approach, which is currently followed in various departments of education in South Africa. A relatively minor role was assigned to the knowledge of grammar, referred to as "grammatical competence", in the acquisition of communicative competence.

In addition, a peripheral role was assigned to the teaching of grammar in the second language classroom by Krashen (1982) and his collaborators who advocated the Natural Approach to second language acquisition (SLA). It was argued that grammar should no longer be taught explicitly, as Krashen's Monitor Model claimed the primacy of informal language acquisition over formal language learning.

The dramatic impact of the Communicative Approach and the Natural Approach on second language teaching is sketched by Dirven (1990:8) in the following way: "for many applied linguists the amalgamation of the two approaches led to the claim of banning all formal grammar teaching from the curriculum".

The confusion caused by such a strong claim did not only launch a whole body of research in the field of instructed second language acquisition (ISLA), but the role of formal grammar teaching has also become a major concern to most second language teachers in recent years.

The problem is referred to by Stern (1983:405) as the "code-communication dilemma".

The code-communication dilemma needs to be defined more clearly as it gave rise to the present study. In the past, classroom language teaching was mainly concerned with the analysis and practice of the formal properties of the linguistic code or grammar of the second language. Formal instruction which focused on the explicit teaching of grammar was thus the commonly accepted teaching method in a second language classroom centred on the teaching and learning of grammar.

Second language learners were sometimes exposed to the target language as used by native speakers in a natural language environment. Moreover, second language learners participated actively in the language learning experience by using the second language in authentic communicative speech acts. Natural learning was thus viewed as a non-analytical or experiential language learning method which relied on authentic communication.

However, the recent introduction of natural learning in the second language classroom through use in communication, has at worst negated the importance of formal instruction in promoting SLA, and at best called for a re-assessment of its role within the Communicative Approach to SLA.

A general ambivalence caused by the code-communication dilemma prevails not only on the

levels of instructed second language acquisition research (ISLA-research) and SLA methodology, but also on the level of syllabus design and the compilation of teaching material. Kilfoil (1990) reports, for example, an ambivalence in the syllabuses and textbooks used by the various departments of education in South Africa. Syllabus compilers influenced by Krashen's hypothesis that exposure to language data or input serves as sufficient condition for acquisition, erroneously assume on the one hand that a communicative approach excludes attention to form. On the other hand, they seem to believe that formal instruction can, somehow, lead to acquisition, which accounts for the lists of structures and functions included. Kilfoil (1990:21) voices the uncertainty experienced by teachers about the formal instruction of grammar in the following question: "If both the syllabus compilers and the textbook writers vacillate on the grammar issue, how must the teacher feel?"

Very little empirical research has been conducted at secondary school level in English Second Language (ESL) classrooms in South Africa at the senior secondary level to investigate the code-communication dilemma. The focus of this study is therefore the teaching of fairly advanced grammatical structures, namely the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses within the general framework of the Communicative Approach. The following questions need to be addressed:

- * Does formal instruction contribute statistically and practically significantly to ESL proficiency in the use of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses ?

- * What kind of instruction contributes statistically and practically significantly more to the acquisition of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses within the Communicative Approach, formal instruction or the Natural Approach?

1.2 Purpose of This Study

The aim or purpose of this study is to determine whether the formal instruction of grammar contributes significantly more than the Natural Approach to SLA within the Communicative Approach.

1.3 Hypothesis

The formal instruction of grammar contributes statistically and practically significantly more than the Natural Approach to SLA within the Communicative Approach.

1.4 Method of Research

A thorough literary survey of SLA research reviews, books and articles, delineating various approaches to the teaching of grammar in SLA and defining certain concepts such as "grammar" and "formal instruction" according to a particular view of language, was conducted. Furthermore, teaching methods and techniques implementing the linguistic theory underlying a particular approach were studied, as well as examples of empirical studies conducted to examine their practical implications for second-language teaching.

The empirical study, implementing the insight gained from an intensive literary survey, combined with quite a few years of experience in teaching English as a second language to Afrikaans speaking pupils at senior secondary level, constitutes the most important part of this study. For the purpose of the empirical investigation, two Std 9 groups in a typical Afrikaans ESL school, consisting of 20 pupils each, including an equal number of boys and girls, were used as subjects. The research design selected for the study was a quasi-experimental, non-randomized pretest-posttest design.

1.5 Programme of Study

In chapter 2 the central role of grammar in the teaching and learning of a second language is explored. A brief historical survey of the Grammar-Translation Method, the Audiolingual Method and Transformational-Generative Grammar (TGG) is offered.

In chapter 3 the peripheral role of grammar is examined by firstly investigating the reasons why the role of grammar has changed from central to peripheral. The degree to which grammatical competence has become peripheral is then discussed by investigating various theories of communicative competence, the concept "communicative" in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and consciousness-raising as a learning style. An examination of the peripheral role assigned to the learning of grammar in the Natural Approach concludes the chapter.

In chapter 4 a survey of formal instruction in ISLA-research is given. A critical discussion based on overviews of published studies is followed by a description of recent studies

illustrating the controversies on the role of formal instruction which mainly stem from the code-communication dilemma.

Chapter 5 offers the description of an empirical study in classroom-research on the role of formal instruction in English SLA within the Communicative Approach. Care is taken to provide clear descriptions and detailed examples of the teaching style.

In chapter 6 the results of the study are analyzed and their implications for second language teaching are discussed.

Chapter 7 contains a brief conclusion and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

THE CENTRAL ROLE OF GRAMMAR IN SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to explore the conceptualization of grammar as the organising principle in three consecutive, influential approaches to second language teaching and learning which were generally followed in South African secondary schools for the most part of the 20th century until the early 1970's.

Furthermore, the aim of chapter 2 within the overall purpose of the present study, is to investigate the role of formal instruction as determined by the definition of grammar in each approach. Generally speaking, the link between formal instruction and the conceptualization of grammar in all three approaches is to focus deliberately on the development of the student's linguistic awareness of the formal properties in the target language.

This chapter therefore offers a somewhat detailed description of traditional grammar in the Grammar-Translation Method, taxonomic or structural grammar in the Audiolingual Method, and the principles of transformational-generative theory as applied in TGG and the Cognitive Code Method. The historical survey to follow consists firstly of a description of how grammar was interpreted according to the particular view of language followed in each approach. Secondly, the specific methodology and techniques followed in the formal instruction of grammar in each approach will be discussed in order to form a clearer picture of various kinds of formal instruction which have been used successfully in the past and are

still used in the present.

2.2 The Grammar-Translation Method

The role of traditional grammar was, as Dirven (1990:12) points out, "extremely narrow in scope in that it limited its grammatical awareness to parts of speech and word categories". According to Rivers (1981:66), the Greek system of classification which described their language in terms of observed form and function, established formal categories to which conceptual interpretations of their external environment were attached. These conceptual interpretations, such as nouns denoting names of people, places and things, and verbs denoting actions or states, have become universally applied categories. Although narrow in scope, a rich legacy of grammatical terminology has been treasured by successive schools of linguists so that this terminology is still viewed as "a dominant metalanguage for speaking about and formalising the various levels of structure in the language" (Dirven, 1990:12).

The main emphasis placed on traditional grammar is thus on its ability to foster analytical thought in the description and classification of language, essentially in its written form. This view of grammar can also be seen in its implementation in the Grammar-Translation Method, which focused on detailed analysis of the grammar rules in the target language. The main feature of its teaching technique was translation from, and into, the target language. An example of this method can be found in Ollendorff's language courses offered in Europe in the 1840's. A typical lesson consisted of a statement of the rule, followed by a vocabulary list and translation exercises. At the end of the course translation of connected prose passages was attempted. By means of the translation technique, the pupils were therefore continually

engaged in active, problem-solving situations where language rules, taught deductively, had to be applied. Their grammatical awareness of both the first language and the target language was thus heightened.

The positive effect of the predominant role assigned to traditional grammar lies in the fostering of a linguistic awareness which enables pupils and teachers not only to communicate logically in the second language, but also to communicate about the language in a metalanguage essentially shaped by the analytic procedures in the Grammar-Translation Method.

2.3 The Audiolingual Method

The scope assigned to taxonomic grammar in the Audiolingual Method is wider than in the Grammar-Translation Method. According to the structuralist theory of language followed in the Audiolingual Method, learning a language "entails mastering the elements or building blocks of the language and learning the rules by which these elements are combined, from phoneme to morpheme to word to phrase to sentence" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:49). Linguistic awareness is therefore widened in scope, which Dirven (1990:13) describes as including an analysis of relationships among elements within the sentence as a whole, as well as an analysis of the types of sentences or the possible sentence patterns".

The inductive classificatory procedures followed by taxonomic grammar to establish structural meanings at several levels are explained in Rivers (1981:71-72). Firstly, syntactic relationships are identified. These syntactic relationships could be between sections of a

sentence, between phrases such as a noun phrase and a verb phrase, or between words within phrases. Larger entities are then gradually broken down by a process of binary division into smaller and smaller constituents. At the level of the word, constituents are grouped into functional categories signalled by their formal features.

The classification of words in word-classes, viewed as functional categories in taxonomic grammar, therefore differs from the conceptual interpretation of word-class classification according to universal categories in traditional grammar. Taxonomic or structural grammar also includes the classification of segments of words below the word level, referred to as "morphemes", the smallest elements which convey meaning. Phonology is studied separately from syntax and morphology, but is studied similarly, as the stream of sound is also reduced to its smallest constituents, "phonemes", described as "the smallest elements of sound conveying distinctions in meaning" (Rivers, 1981:72).

The emphasis on syntax in the structural view of grammar can also be seen in the implementation of a popular second language teaching technique in the Audiolingual Method, known as structure or pattern drill. The aim of pattern drills is to teach the student certain isolated formal or functional features of the target language. The student has to listen for certain formal cues and then respond to them orally by using some of the patterns already mastered in pattern drills. This teaching technique demonstrates the combination of a structural view of grammar and behaviourist psychology to form the viewpoint that second and foreign-language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit formation. Correct responses are necessary to form good habits, therefore the use of pattern drills and the memorization of model dialogues minimize the chances of producing errors.

Furthermore, the importance of oral repetition follows logically from language learning seen as a process of mechanical habit formation. Grammatical errors, as well as pronunciation errors, are corrected on the spot so that speaking skills are learnt more efficiently. The development of listening and speaking skills consequently holds primacy over the practising of reading and writing skills. Mechanical habit formation in language learning also favours analogy to analysis in second language teaching. Students are taught to master a grammar rule by practising a pattern in a variety of contexts, using the substitution technique.

Thus, most of the students' time in an audiolingual course is spent drilling grammatical forms and structures, placing grammar in the form of highly structured exercises in the centre of their language learning activities. Van der Walt (1993:47-48) mentions two teaching situations illustrating the implementation of the Audiolingual Method, namely the training programmes of the U.S. Army during World War II and the adoption of the Audiolingual Method in the Foreign Language Elementary School (FLES) programmes throughout the United States during the 1950's.

The Audiolingual Method thus influenced second language teaching positively in providing teaching procedures with a linguistically and psychologically-based framework in which to operate systematically. The Audiolingual Method also defined the four skills of listening, reading and writing more clearly by assigning a definite role to each skill in the teaching programme. The emphasis on the development of listening and speaking skills furthermore introduced new teaching techniques such as pattern and substitution drill. The students' confidence in mastering the grammatical structures of the target language was boosted by the Audiolingual Method's insistence on working in groups and in pairs, and by using the

language laboratory for individual oral and aural drill.

In terms of its short-range objective, namely the mastery of skills, the Audiolingual Method thus had a positive influence on second language teaching as the average student experienced success in developing oral and aural skills quite early in the audiolingual programme. However, in terms of its long-range objective, namely to promote the acquisition of a knowledge of language as the native speaker uses it, the Audiolingual Method was less successful.

2.4 Transformational-Generative Grammar (TGG)

The TGG theory of grammar also assigns a central role to grammar in its view of language and language learning. Its description of grammar is, as in taxonomic or structural grammar, limited to the scope of the sentence. However, within these boundaries, it is more comprehensive in defining grammar as "the whole of grammatical competence, including phonology, syntax and semantics" (Dirven, 1990:14).

TGG, as a theory of grammar, was never intended to be implemented as a language teaching method. Yet, its impact on language learning, as well as on second language acquisition research (SLA-research) in shaping the beginning of recent approaches to SLA, has been far-reaching.

In the late 1950's Chomsky, the innovator of TGG, published his *Syntactic Structures*, explicating his linguistic theory which represents a revolution in the aims of linguistic study.

The taxonomic classification of structures was no longer considered adequate: "linguists became concerned with developing systems of rules which account for, rather than merely describe by means of lists, the structural possibilities of a language" (Brumfit and Johnson, 1979:2-3).

Basic to the understanding of grammar as viewed in TGG, is Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance which attempts to go beyond the conception of language as a systematic inventory of items in a particular language to the description of the processes underlying all languages; a description of Universal Grammar. Chomsky viewed linguistic or grammatical competence as "concerned with the tacit knowledge of language structure, that is, knowledge that is commonly not conscious or available for spontaneous report, but necessarily implicit in what the (ideal) speaker-listener can say" (Brumfit and Johnson, 1979:7). Performance is viewed as the imperfect manifestation of the ideal speaker-listener's linguistic competence in his actual use of language and as such, not suitable for linguistic description.

The procedures followed by transformational-generative linguists to analyse and describe the role of grammar in the competence/performance distinction set out in detail by Rivers (1981:74), will be briefly summarised for the purpose of this discussion.

The surface structure of every utterance (performance) in a particular language can be analyzed through successive transformations including processes such as replacement, addition, and changes of position. Transformational rules continue to operate until the base structures, conforming to the abstract systems of grammatical relations present in the deep

structures of all languages, are revealed. This Universal Grammar is not learnt by children, but already forms part of the ideal speaker-hearer's intrinsic competence. Examples of base structures are the subject-predicate relationship and the noun-verb distinction appearing in all languages. These base structures are described in terms of the universal categories in traditional grammar.

Grammar, then, is viewed in Transformational-Generative Grammar theory as "a system of transformational and rewrite rules which can predict all possible sentences of the language, but none which the native speaker will consider unacceptable" (Rivers, 1981:74). Furthermore, the method provided by generative grammar uncovers the variation in deep structure of two utterances which would, according to a taxonomic grammatical analysis, appear to be identical in their surface structures. A classic example of this fact is the juxtaposition of the two sentences, *John is eager to please* and *John is easy to please*. In the former, John does the pleasing, while in the latter, someone else pleases John. In this respect, TGG has more explicatory power as a grammar than taxonomic grammar, as it uncovers important differences in meaning.

TGG theory views language as a rule-governed and creative system. The creative ability of the language learner to construct an internal grammar is, according to Chomsky, due to an innate mechanism or language acquisition device (LAD) which proceeds by hypothesis testing. Wilkins (1973:169) explains the procedure as follows: The child is exposed to language from birth. Language acts as a trigger for the learning device. The child's innate mechanism has the capacity to formulate hypotheses about the structure of the language to which it is exposed. The hypotheses are then tried out in the child's own performance of

utterances, and are regularly checked against the further data that his exposure to language provides. As he grows older, he brings his speech closer and closer to the adult model until it becomes the complete grammar of the adult language.

Performance, however, is seen as an imperfect manifestation of the ideal speaker-listener's competence and as such, irrelevant to the theoretical and descriptive linguist. Chomsky thus views the task of the linguist as specifying "the nature of the linguistic theory that enables the child to learn language. The task is to give an adequate description of the Universal Grammar" (Van der Walt, 1993:48-49).

The emphasis on hypothesis testing in Chomsky's LAD theory has led to interesting lines of research in first as well as in second language acquisition, heralding the beginnings of recent approaches in SLA and method. Selinker's term "interlanguage" originates, for example, from the observation of first-language acquisition researchers that young children seemed to pass through a series of interim grammars as they were testing hypotheses about the form of the language they were learning. He used the term "interlanguage" to describe the learner's version of the new language which still deviated from the native speaker's language at a specific point in time.

Interlanguage studies, based on the new direction given to research in contrastive linguistics by TGG, addressed the problems of interference, or negative transfer, from the viewpoint that it was possible "to compare the structures of two languages on the basis of language universals and thus account for the specific learning difficulties in a given language pair" (Dirven, 1990:14-15). A whole series of error analysis studies was conducted, attempting

to predict second language learners' errors resulting not only from LAD, but also from other learning strategies such as overgeneralization and simplification.

An influential impact of hypothesis testing and interlanguage theories on teaching techniques is that a climate of error tolerance was created. Errors were no longer viewed as an indication of the learner's incompetence to learn a new language, but rather as proof of the learner's developing linguistic competence. The creative abilities of the learner to form his own internal grammar, emphasized in TGG, has awarded the language learner an active, participatory approach to the acquisition of a new language. More opportunities were consequently given to language learners to participate in language learning activities in the classroom and to be exposed to authentic use of language by native speakers. The tolerant attitude towards errors made in speaking or writing a new language gave language learners more confidence to develop a linguistic competence of their own.

The influence of TGG on language teaching stems from Chomsky's view of language as being rule-governed and creative, which implies the teaching of language "as a consciously learnt system" (Stern, 1984:470). This linguistic perspective was combined with cognitive psychology to form a cognitive code learning theory or method.

The principal assumption of the cognitive code learning theory which derived in part from the competence/performance distinction was that "perception and awareness of second language rules preceded the use of these rules" (Ellis, 1990:38). The most distinctive contrast between the Audiolingual Method and the Cognitive Code Method is described by Ellis (1990:38) as a different appreciation of the contribution of metalingual knowledge. The

Audiolingual Method negates the importance of conscious grammatical knowledge except as summaries of acquired behaviour, whereas conscious grammatical knowledge is seen as essential to the learning process in the Cognitive Code Method.

The emphasis on conscious understanding of grammar as the central aspect of the target language system in Cognitive Code Method therefore caused teachers to return to deductive teaching techniques in contrast to the inductive techniques applied in the Audiolingual Method. Consequently, a return to the explanation of grammar rules first, thereby involving students' reasoning processes in language learning, was advocated. The importance of insight in transformational exercises, such as active into passive and direct speech into indirect speech, was thus re-instated. According to Ellis (1990:38) applied linguists, however, took care to emphasize the understanding of grammar rules taught explicitly to prevent a return to the mere memorization of grammar rules in the grammar-translation method.

Another major difference between the Audiolingual Method and the Cognitive Code Method is the emphasis placed on creativity. The practice of rote-learning as advocated in the Audiolingual Method, which required students to memorize long sentences in dialogue-form and then practise them in the precise form memorized, was discouraged. Instead, teachers concentrated on producing much shorter exchanges in model dialogues containing meaningful patterns adaptable to suit the student's creative use of language in formulating his own speech.

However, despite the far-reaching influence of TGG on SLA-research and the emphasis on meaning in learning grammar advocated by the Cognitive Code Method, the impact of TGG

on actual second language teaching was minimal. The Cognitive Code Method was, according to Ellis, "insufficiently distinct from audiolingualism" (1990:40).

Brumfit and Johnson (1979:3) purport to explain the reason why the Cognitive Code Method is perceived as similar to the Audiolingual Method. The central concern of linguistic analysis in both methods remained the syntactic structure of the language. Second language learning activities still focused on structural forms and functions reinforced by grammar exercises. The Cognitive Code Method therefore remained essentially formalist in its preference for analysis of the formal properties of the target language. Brumfit and Johnson (1979:3) put it as follows: "After all, the most it can offer is alternative strategies for teaching grammar - new ways of teaching the same thing." The alternative grammar teaching strategies referred to in this quotation result from Chomsky's mentalist view of language learning which, according to Ellis (1985:14), "emphasizes the contribution of the learner, rather than that of the environment".

2.5 Conclusion

The preceding investigation of the central role of grammar reveals that the conceptualization of grammar has grown in complexity. Dirven (1990:13-14) points out that the scope of linguistic awareness has widened from a limited concern of traditional grammar with parts of speech and word categories, to an awareness of the sentence as a whole, the types of sentences and possible sentence patterns in taxonomic or structural grammar. The emphasis on cognitive insight in the acquisition of grammatical competence in TGG, has furthermore increased the scope of linguistic awareness to include not only phonology and syntax, but also

semantics.

However, the increased linguistic awareness of the complexity of grammar as the central focal point of language study, has remained a formalist exercise in which the formal properties of language were analyzed to master the grammar of the target language. The Grammar-Translation Method, the Audiolingual Method and the Cognitive Code Method therefore favour an analytic approach to second language learning and teaching. Even in the Cognitive Method with its emphasis on creativity in developing the pupil's ability to formulate his own sentences, the rules of the target language first need to be analyzed and explained.

Consequently all three methods discussed in this chapter can be described as analytical. Formal instruction which focuses on the conscious learning of a second language by developing the learners' linguistic awareness, was thus traditionally seen not only as a necessary condition for successful language learning, but also as the only method of teaching and learning grammar.

The introduction of non-analytical or experiential ways of language learning led to an emphasis on the communicative component in second language learning and teaching since the early 1970's. Following this shift in emphasis, the central role of grammar was downplayed and became peripheral in second language learners' efforts to achieve communicative competence in the target language. A more detailed examination of the peripheral role of grammar follows in chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3

THE PERIPHERAL ROLE OF GRAMMAR IN SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

3.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the peripheral role of grammar in some recent approaches to second-language teaching, by firstly looking at the reasons why a shift in emphasis from grammar as the central organizing principle in second language teaching and learning has changed to a peripheral role. Secondly, the degree to which grammatical competence is peripheral in the Communicative Approach is discussed by investigating the role of grammatical competence in various theories of communicative competence. Thirdly, the concept "communicative" in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is examined and Consciousness-Raising (CR) is discussed as a learning style. Fourthly, the Natural Approach, including Krashen's Monitor Model, is dealt with in some detail.

3.2 Reasons for the Changed Role of Grammar

The centrality of grammatical competence viewed as the touchstone of Chomsky's ideal speaker-listener was seriously challenged by Hymes (1972) in his paper, "On Communicative Competence", originally delivered at a conference on language development among disadvantaged children.

Hymes (1972) strongly expressed his discontent with Chomsky's idealistic view of linguistic competence cultivated only by the ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech

community, by referring to it as a "Garden of Eden view" which borders on being "a declaration of irrelevance" (Brumfit and Johnson, 1979:5). Instead, Hymes (1972) proposed a broader and more realistic concept of competence which also considers the communicative needs of the average language learner. The concept "communicative competence" includes grammatical competence, yet the central concern is knowledge of appropriate language use in relation to social context.

An influential reason for the peripheral role of grammar in Krashen's Monitor Model is Krashen's negation of the importance of conscious learning in his theory of second language acquisition. The Monitor Hypothesis states that conscious learning "has only one function, and that is as a Monitor or editor" (Krashen, 1982:15). Error correction and explicit teaching of rules are not relevant to language acquisition which holds primacy over learning in the Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis. Krashen's influential theory of second language acquisition underlies the Natural Approach, which is referred to by Krashen and Terrell as "an example of a communicative approach" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:129).

The powerful "amalgamation" of the Communicative Approach and the Natural Approach (cf. 1.1) has led to the claim of "banning all formal grammar teaching from the curriculum" (Dirven, 1990:8). Formal instruction of grammar in second language teaching was thus seriously jeopardized and has been vacillating ever since among various degrees of periphery. For an investigation of the peripheral role of grammar in the Communicative Approach, the present discussion will now turn to an examination of the role of grammatical competence in various theories of communicative competence.

3.3 The Communicative Approach

3.3.1 Theories of Communicative Competence

Canale and Swain (1980) classify the different theories of communicative competence according to the varying emphasis placed on grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and other areas of competence. Basic to all theories of communicative competence, however, is a view of language as a means of communication. The degree to which grammar is peripheral will be explored by examining some theories of communicative competence. Theories of communicative competence are classified in three types of theories according to their comprehensiveness, namely theories of basic communication skills, sociolinguistic perspectives on communicative competence and integrative theories of communicative competence.

3.3.1.1 Theories of Basic Communication Skills

Canale and Swain (1980:9) define a theory of basic communication skills as one that "emphasizes the minimum level of (mainly oral) communication skills needed to get along in, or cope with, the most common second language situations the learner is likely to face". Van Ek's (1976) model of basic communication skills is based on a preliminary document prepared by the British linguist, D.A. Wilkins (1972), which contained an analysis of the communicative meanings to be understood and expressed by a language learner. Two types of meaning were identified, namely notional categories and categories of communicative function. The document was later revised and expanded into a book called *Notional*

Syllabuses (1976) which, according to Richards and Rodgers (1986:65) "had a significant impact on the development of Communicative Language Teaching".

The general aim of Van Ek's model designed to provide a set of specifications for a first level or "threshold level" communicative language syllabus, is to enable learners to survive in temporary meetings with foreign language speakers in everyday situations. Grammatical accuracy and the appropriate use of register are unimportant in this model, as "more effective second language learning takes place if emphasis is placed immediately on getting one's meaning across" (Canale and Swain, 1980:10). Van Ek's model thus supplies lists of general and specific communicative functions such as imparting and seeking factual information, further specified as identifying, reporting, correcting and asking.

The model also offers lists of general notions such as existential, spatial and temporal notions and specific notions, for example names, addresses, likes and dislikes. Topic areas, settings and roles are also specified. It follows that specifications of language forms to express these functions and notions will only be viewed as peripheral.

3.3.1.2 Sociolinguistic Perspectives on Communicative Competence

Theories which offer a sociolinguistic perspective on communicative competence have been quite influential in many of the proposed communicative approaches. Hymes' paper "On Communicative Competence" (1972:281) suggests four types of knowledge and abilities :

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally *possible*;

2. Whether (and to what degree) something is *feasible* in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is *appropriate* (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually *performed*, and what its doing entails.

The interaction of grammatical, psycholinguistic, sociocultural and probabilistic systems of competence in Hymes' model of communicative competence is highlighted in a critical discussion by Canale and Swain (1980:16). They conclude that grammatical competence is equally weighted with the other components of Hymes' model of communicative competence. Grammatical competence, then, seems less peripheral in the sociolinguistic perspective of communicative competence than in theories of basic communication skills.

According to Brumfit and Johnson (1979:25-26), Halliday's sociolinguistic perspective of communicative competence entails three levels of analysis, namely the behavioural, the semantic and the grammatical, and the relationship between them. Each level is characterized by a set of options. At the behavioural level the options as to what the individual "can do" is called "behaviour potential". The semantic level offers the individual linguistic options whether to say or to write something which, in turn, offers a set of choices about "meaning potential", i.e. what the individual "can mean". Once the individual has selected what to mean, options at the grammatical level have to be chosen from to express his meaning. Therefore, according to Canale and Swain (1980:18), Halliday views language "essentially as a system of meaning potential, i.e. as sets of semantic options available to the language

user that relate what the user can do (in terms of social behaviour) to what the user can say (in terms of the grammar)".

The sociolinguistic perspectives of both Hymes and Halliday thus assign an important, though not central role to grammar as their views of communicative competence concern the interaction of social context, grammar, and social meaning.

3.3.1.3 Integrative Theories of Communicative Competence

Integrative theories of communicative competence are defined by Canale and Swain (1980:20) as theories in which there is "a synthesis of knowledge of basic grammatical principles, knowledge of how language is used in social contexts to perform communicative functions, and knowledge of how utterances and communicative functions can be combined according to the principles of discourse."

Widdowson (1978) defined a set of contrasting categories which contribute to linguistic theory by distinguishing between language as a formal system and language use as communicative events.

The shift of emphasis from teaching second language as a formal system to teaching second language as communication is clearly illustrated in Widdowson's (1978) linguistic and communicative categories:

<u>Linguistic Categories</u>	<u>Communicative Categories</u>
correctness	appropriacy
usage	use
signification	value
sentence	utterance
proposition	illocutionary act
cohesion	coherence
linguistic skills (for example, speaking and hearing)	communicative abilities (for example, saying, listening, talking)

However, Canale and Swain (1980:22) point out the danger of an overemphasis in many integrative theories on the role of communicative functions and language functions, and a lack of emphasis on the role of grammatical complexity. They question the validity of Widdowson's assumption that one is concerned with aspects of language use and not with aspects of grammatical usage, especially as far as the beginning second language learner is concerned. Canale and Swain (1980:24) reason that the beginning second language learner will most likely not be able to attend to the task of how to use language until the learner has mastered some of the grammatical forms to be used.

The theoretical framework for communicative competence proposed by Canale and Swain (1980:29-31) is viewed as an integrative theory which includes minimally three competences, namely grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. *Grammatical competence* is defined "to include knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology" (Canale and Swain, 1980:29). *Sociolinguistic competence* consists of two sets of rules, namely sociocultural rules and rules of discourse. Sociocultural rules specify the ways in which utterances are

produced and understood appropriately within a given sociocultural context. Rules of discourse concern the cohesion (grammatical links) and coherence (the appropriate combination of communicative functions) of groups of utterances. *Strategic competence* will, according to Canale and Swain (1980:30), "be made up of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence".

The examination of various theories of communicative competence by Canale and Swain (1980:1-47) led them to conclude that grammatical competence should be equally weighted with sociolinguistic and strategic competence in order to develop the learners' communicative competence. Furthermore, there should be emphasis on both grammatical accuracy and meaningful communication from the very beginning of second language study.

Canale and Swain (1980:24) also found that there is "little theoretical motivation for the overemphasis on language functions and lack of emphasis on grammatical complexity" in the organisation of many communicative approaches. Grammatical complexity should therefore be duly considered in specifying the grammatical forms and communicative functions which relate to learners' sociolinguistic needs.

Canale and Swain's theoretical framework for a communicative approach provides, then, an example of a theoretical basis for the development of the learners' communicative competence which does not down-play the role of grammar. Although grammar is no longer the indisputable organizing principle in second-language teaching, it remains a significant component in the practical implications of their theoretical framework, especially for syllabus

design.

A functionally organised syllabus design is proposed in which Canale and Swain (1980:32) suggest the following means of introducing an adequate level of grammatical sequency: (i) making use of grammatical sequencing criteria such as degree of complexity, generalizability and transparency with respect to functions; (ii) treating such grammatical sequencing criteria as an essential subset of the set of criteria used to determine functional sequencing; (iii) making use of repetitions of grammatical forms in different functions throughout the syllabus; and (iv) devoting a certain proportion of classroom time and textbook coverage to discussion of and/or practice on new or especially difficult grammatical points.

The above suggestions for the role of grammar in a functionally organised syllabus design highlight the significance of formal instruction to instil a linguistic awareness of the second language in the learner through conscious learning. Yet, Canale and Swain (1980:33) devote only one paragraph to the practical implications of their theoretical framework for teaching methodology in which they refer the reader to other sources for examples of communicative teaching and learning activities. The reason for this vagueness about how grammar could be learnt and taught is discussed in the next section.

3.3.2 The Concept "Communicative" in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

The absence of an influential language learning theory in the Communicative Approach to second language teaching has caused considerable vagueness in determining how grammar should be learnt and taught in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Widdowson

(1990:117) describes the lack of precision in defining the term "communicative" in the following way: "The term has been bandied about so freely, has been so liberally used as a general marker of approbation, that its descriptive value has all but vanished". Widdowson continues to define the concept "communicative" by distinguishing between two interpretations of the concept: "Communicative" refers either to the purpose or to the process of learning.

According to Widdowson (1990:119), communication seen as the purpose of language-learning leads to a *medium* perspective which focuses attention on the syntactic and semantic properties of the language itself and looks for ways of manipulating them for the purposes of transmission. However, communication viewed as the process of language learning, leads to a *mediation* perspective which will focus attention on creating conditions for negotiation.

In the absence of a dominant language learning theory, then, Consciousness-Raising (CR) is discussed in the present study as an example of how grammar could be learnt and taught in the Communicative Approach. Rutherford's (1987) theory of Grammatical-CR and Sharwood Smith's (1981) description of four types of CR are explored in the following section to define various ways in which learners' attention could be drawn to the formal properties of the target language, i.e. to its grammar.

3.3.3 Grammatical Consciousness-Raising as a Learning Style

Grammatical CR as a process-focused approach to CLT stems from Rutherford's (1987:153) view of language as an organic and rule-based system in which the second language learner

"is already enmeshed, the full grammatical implications of which he alone has to work out on the basis of what he comes in contact with in interaction with what he himself contributes as an already accomplished language acquirer".

Rutherford's description of the conditions in which language learning takes place also highlights his view on language learning. The learner comes to the task automatically provisioned with two kinds of knowledge or cognitive capacities, typified as "knowledge that" and "knowledge how" (Rutherford, 1987:7-8). The "knowledge how" refers to Rutherford's assumption that all learners are endowed with a tacit knowledge of language universal principles, a Universal Grammar (UG). Rutherford (1987:7) does not regard the second language learner as a *tabula rasa* when he begins learning another language. The "knowledge how" is revealed in the learner's universal need to "bend the new language into forms that will, with maximal efficiency, serve the initial desire for rudimentary communication".

Rutherford (1987:3) furthermore explicates his language learning theory by claiming that it is possible to look at the path the learner traverses towards mastering the second language in order to infer what the learner already knows. Characteristic of early interlanguage is then the learner's effort to make the link between syntax and semantics as tight as possible. Rutherford (1987:43) quotes the example of learners who make extensive use of the topic-comment structure in early interlanguage, even when neither the first language nor the second language manifests this form in their basic construction. When the second language learner's production is analyzed over a period of time, it becomes apparent, claims Rutherford (1987:40), that "a process is at work where interlanguage of an earlier phase has become more **grammaticized** in a later phase". This gradual process thus reveals a progressive re-

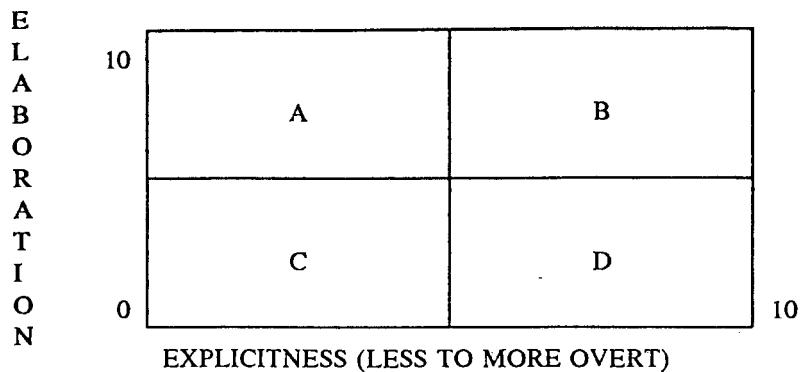
analysis of grammatical phenomena. The early topic-comment usage in English second-language production will, for example, be gradually (and unconsciously) re-analyzed as target language subject-predicate.

Rutherford's theory of SLA therefore advocates a problem-solving approach to CLT which involves learners in an interactive process of language learning viewed as "an inductive, holistic process, moving from discourse to structure" (Kilfoil, 1990:21). The mediation view of CLT which underlies this approach favours the process of second-language acquisition specified according to each learner's individual internal syllabus as he is continually modifying and refining his systematic linguistic knowledge. Widdowson (1990:119) describes the role of the learner following the mediation view as being engaged in "activities designed to achieve purposeful outcomes by **means** of language. The activities here will be typically **tasks** for problem solving".

3.3.4 Four Types of Consciousness-Raising in Language Learning

Sharwood Smith (1981:161) describes the discovery of grammatical rules by the learner as dependent on self-discovery. The role of formal instruction is defined as the extent to which that discovery is guided by the teacher. The various types of consciousness-raising in language learning are illustrated in Figure 1 taken from Sharwood Smith (1981:161). A hypothetical 10-point scale is used; the types are represented within the four cells.

Figure 1 : Consciousness-Raising in Language Learning



On the hypothetical 10-point scale, Type D represents a highly overt form of consciousness-raising which may be found in the standard school grammar and is characterised by "fairly concise prescriptions couched in a metalanguage that is supposedly within the grasp of the teacher and learner alike" (Sharwood Smith, 1981:161). These grammar rules can, needless to say, become a source of endless frustration to the teacher and the learner if they are not explained clearly and in a suitable context. Type C consists of brief, indirect "clues" which may give the learner a greater sense of self-discovery. Sharwood Smith remarks that it can be easily incorporated into some naturalistic exercise, provided that the rules to be discovered are relatively simple. The use of Type B (cf. Appendix G) is recommended to ensure that insight is gained, for example, in English aspect. Type B consists of elaborate and explicit guidance. Type A contains less explicit versions of elaborated guidance such as substitute symbolic devices that serve as memories and "summarisers" of what was previously explained in full and explicit terms.

The above discussion emphasises the complexity of grammar which demands a flexible learning and teaching style to facilitate SLA. Formal instruction, then, has a varied role to play in the Communicative Approach as it "can be accomplished in a great number of ways

ranging from covert clues 'hidden' in the input organised for the learner to abstract statements and varying also in the time and space devoted to drawing attention to the structures in question" (Sharwood Smith, 1981:162).

Rutherford (1987) and Sharwood Smith's (1981) description of conscious learning are but two explanations of how language learning could be facilitated. Van der Walt (1993:22-27) also discusses the relevance of two types of consciousness to the conscious learning of a second language, namely consciousness as "knowledge" and consciousness as "awareness". Consciousness as knowledge is further defined by Anderson (1983) as declarative knowledge "knowing that" and as procedural knowledge "knowing how". Schmidt (1990) distinguishes three levels of consciousness as awareness which are crucial to SLA, namely perception, noticing (focal awareness) and understanding.

Common to all the above explanations of how conscious learning could facilitate the acquisition of grammatical competence, lies the assumption that a thorough knowledge of grammar is important to the acquisition of communicative competence in SLA. The peripheral role assigned to the learning of grammar in the Natural Approach is examined in the next section.

3.4 Krashen's Monitor Model in the Natural Approach

Ellis (1990:56) refers to the Monitor Model as undoubtedly the best known theory of SLA which has been popularised in a number of articles in various journals, and in four books (Krashen, 1981; 1982; 1985; Krashen and Terrell, 1984). Yet, unlike proponents of CLT,

Krashen's theory of language learning does not have a well-defined, underlying theory of language, which is one of the main criticisms lodged against his theory of SLA. Ellis (1985), Gregg (1984), Lightbown (1985) and McLaughlin (1987) are some of the researchers in the field of SLA who question the validity of Krashen's Monitor Model because his attempt to formulate a comprehensive theory for SLA lacks the specification of a linguistic theory, as well as the evidence from empirically based data. However, Krashen's Monitor Model will be discussed essentially as a theory of learning underlying the Natural Approach which has various implications for second-language teaching. Ellis (1990:58) accordingly maintains that the "Monitor Model was constructed with the classroom in mind".

3.4.1 Krashen's Monitor Model

Krashen's Monitor Model consists of five hypotheses, namely the Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis and the Affective Filter Hypothesis. Each hypothesis will be discussed separately, although the five hypotheses are interrelated in forming the Monitor Model. A brief review of Krashen's hypotheses is provided here as his theory is relevant for the purpose of investigating the role of natural learning, which is central to the code-communication dilemma (cf. 1.1).

3.4.1.1 The Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis

The distinction between acquisition and learning in Krashen's Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis is based on Krashen's (1982:10) claim that "adults have two distinct and independent ways of developing competence in a second language". According to Krashen

(1981:1) language *acquisition* "is very similar to the process children use in acquiring first and second languages. It requires meaningful interaction in the target language - natural communication -in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding."

Learning, on the other hand, is defined as "conscious knowledge of a second language, knowing the rules, being aware of them and being able to talk about them" (Krashen, 1982:10).

Krashen's definitions of language acquisition and language learning draw a definite distinction between subconscious and conscious mental processes in language learning, as well as subconscious and conscious knowledge of a second language. Although conscious attention paid to language rules plays the most important role in distinguishing language acquisition from language learning, a clear description of conscious learning and subconscious acquisition is not provided. Krashen has, however, attempted to "operationally identify conscious learning with judgements of grammaticality based on 'rule' and subconscious acquisition with judgements based on 'feel'" (McLaughlin, 1987:21). Ellis (1985:264) does not only question the empirical validity of such a subjective criticism, but declares it to be unacceptable. The emphasis on subconscious acquisition in the acquisition/learning distinction down-plays the importance of conscious learning.

3.4.1.2 The Monitor Hypothesis

Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis (1982:15) claims that learning "has only one function, and that

is as a Monitor or editor" (cf. 3.2). The role assigned to the conscious learning of the target language rules has therefore been scaled down drastically. Acquisition naturally plays a far more important role in the Monitor Hypothesis because it initiates the speaker's utterances and is responsible for fluency.

The following implications of the Monitor Hypothesis are of considerable importance to language teaching and learning. Firstly, the focus of language teaching should not be rule-learning, but communication, because Krashen maintains that conscious knowledge of rules does not help acquisition, but only enables the learner to "polish up" what has been acquired through communication. Thus, the Natural Approach does not pay deliberate attention to grammatical structures requiring "explicit analysis or attention by the language teacher, by the language learner, or in language teaching materials" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:131).

Secondly, the Monitor Hypothesis claims that "learning" is available only for use in production, not in comprehension. Apart from the fact that Gregg (1984:82-83) opposes Krashen's claim by quoting an example from his own experience of learning Japanese, where learning could indeed be used in comprehension, the emphasis on production does not further the communicative interaction so highly prized by Krashen. The emphasis on production and syntax in Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis also reflects a structuralist view of language. The efficacy of the monitor is reduced to such an extent by the three limiting conditions of sufficient time, focus on form and knowledge of rules that McLaughlin's (1987:27) question seems quite justifiable: "If learning occurs only under such rarified conditions, what role can it possibly have in gaining competence in a second language?" The limited use of the monitor therefore assigns a peripheral role to the learning and teaching of grammar in the

Natural Approach.

3.4.1.3 The Natural Order Hypothesis

The Natural Order Hypothesis states "that we acquire the rules of language in a predictable order, some rules tending to come early and others late. The order does not appear to be determined solely by formal simplicity and there is evidence that it is independent of the order in which rules are taught in language classes" (Krashen, 1985:1).

Krashen (1982:12) claims that the approximate systems of second language learners at the same stage of proficiency roughly coincide. Van der Walt (1988:103) points out that SLA follows a natural and predictable sequence of development. Although the order of development may vary in detail, Ellis (1986:73) affirms that there are natural sequences which all second language learners follow in internalising the second language system.

A study of the order of acquisition of grammatical morphemes in English by five-to-eight-year-old children learning English as a second language, published by Dulay and Burt in 1974, provide the principal source of evidence for Krashen's Natural Order Hypothesis. Despite McLaughlin's (1987:32) criticisms that the study did not measure acquisition sequence but rather accuracy of use; that children with different amounts of exposure to the second language were used; and that it was not a longitudinal study, the focus on sequences in acquisition holds the important implication for course design that learners "cannot acquire a structure that they are not ready to acquire" (Van der Walt, 1988:103).

Underlying the implication of the Natural Order Hypothesis that learners cannot acquire a structure that they are not ready to acquire, is the tacit assumption that successful language acquisition is equivalent to "the cumulative mastery of sequentially introduced ... units" (Rutherford, 1982:232). According to the "accumulation of entities" view of language learning and teaching, language consists of entities such as "the familiar bound morphemes, parts of speech, verb tense, clausal units, sentence types, and so forth" (Rutherford, 1982:232). Apart from grammatical structures, entities also include units of communicative functions and notions, which are conveniently structured to suit second language learners' needs and levels of development in syllabuses and textbooks abundantly used in CLT.

3.4.1.4 The Input Hypothesis

Krashen's Input Hypothesis explicates his interpretation of how language is acquired. The hypothesis postulates that "humans acquire language in only one way - by understanding messages, or by receiving 'comprehensible input'.... We move from i , our current level, to $i + 1$, the next level along the natural order, by understanding input containing $i + 1$ " (Krashen, 1985:2).

According to Krashen (1985:2), two corollaries of the Input Hypothesis are :

- "(1) Speaking is a result of acquisition and not its cause. Speech cannot be taught directly but 'emerges' on its own as a result of building competence via comprehensible input.
- (2) If input is understood, and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided. The language teachers need not attempt deliberately to teach the next structure along the natural order — it will be provided in just the right quantities and automatically

reviewed if the student receives a sufficient amount of comprehensible input."

The term "comprehensible input" is rather vaguely explained by Krashen's statement that input is comprehensible when it is meaningful to, and understood by, the hearer. According to McLaughlin (1987:39), the term has attempted to be more explicit by arguing that the only effective input (intake or comprehensible input) is input that contains structures just beyond the syntactic complexity of those found in the current grammar of the acquirer.

The Input Hypothesis exemplifies to a large extent a medium perspective of communication where learner activity "will be directed at increasing receptivity" (Widdowson, 1990:119). Krashen's (1985:2) description of the acquisition process as the learners' effort to understand and successfully receive messages of increasing syntactic complexity corresponds to the medium view of language which sees learners as receiving specified and ordered linguistic units presented as "packages of meaning" (Widdowson, 1990:119).

In the medium view of communication, methodology is seen as subservient, serving only to facilitate the internalization process. Krashen therefore sees no need for the language teacher to teach the next structure along the natural order. There is, however, a need for text control as successful acquisition depends, according to the Input Hypothesis, on material providing a sufficient amount of comprehensible input at the appropriate level. Widdowson (1990:120) describes the text control of the medium view as "a language filtering process, with the learner as recipient".

3.4.1.5 The Affective Filter Hypothesis

The Affective Filter Hypothesis claims that there is an affective filter which has "affective variables acting to impede or facilitate the delivery of input to the language acquisition device" (Krashen, 1982:32). According to this description, the emphasis is on the learner as a recipient of messages transmitted through the semantic medium of language.

An important implication of the Affective Filter Hypothesis for second language teaching and learning is that a positive, relaxed atmosphere should prevail if natural acquisition were to be successful. When the affective filter is "up" or operating, no acquisition will take place as the LAD is blocked by negative affective factors. The learner is stressed, self-conscious and unmotivated when the affective filter is "up". On the other hand, when the filter is "down", the acquirer is not anxious and is motivated to become a member of the group speaking the target language. Lightbown and Spada (1993:29) point out that successful acquisition in itself may contribute to more positive motivation or, as Krashen puts it, to a "lowered affective filter".

The Affective Filter Hypothesis seems to have immediate implications for classroom practice as it provides an explanation why "some learners, given the same opportunity to learn, may be successful while others are not" (Lightbown and Spada, 1993:28). Unsuccessful language learning may, on the contrary, be attributed to stress experienced by learners who might feel uncomfortable in a tense environment. Much damage has been caused in the past by teachers who adopted a rigid approach to language teaching by insisting, for example, on role-learning of dialogues and rules without any consideration for the learners' particular needs and their

creativity.

3.5 Conclusion

The investigation in this chapter of the changed role of grammar in second language learning from central to peripheral, has firstly revealed that the central concern of second language learning, whether conscious or natural, is the acquisition of communicative competence.

Secondly, it has become apparent that a conscious focus on grammar by means of formal instruction can assume a variety of forms which depends on different interpretations of language and language learning. It has also become apparent that the prominence given to acquisition in the Monitor Model minimizes the role of learning in the Natural Approach.

Thirdly, an exploration of the peripheral role of grammar has defined the interrelations between formal instruction, the Natural Approach and the Communicative Approach more clearly. In view of the fact that these three concepts are key-concepts in the present study, the similarities and differences between the concepts are briefly outlined according to their interpretation in the present study.

Formal instruction is interpreted as the conscious learning of grammar by means of various consciousness-raising techniques in CLT (cf. 3.3.3 and 3.3.4) to develop pupils' grammatical competence in their acquisition of communicative competence. The concept "communicative" is used rather vaguely in the Communicative Approach and in CLT (cf.3.3.3) due to the absence of an influential language learning theory. However, the

absence of a powerful language learning theory which could give clear definition to the Communicative Approach as a method, need not necessarily be interpreted as a weakness. On the contrary, Stern (1983:473) identifies a "relatively fixed combination of language teaching beliefs", as well as "the over-emphasis on single aspects as the central issue of teaching and learning" as weaknesses in a clearly defined method. The Communicative Approach is therefore interpreted in the present study more inclusively than the methods examined in chapter 2.

The Natural Approach, however, differs from the Communicative Approach because it is based on a powerful language learning theory which clearly defines natural learning as acquisition which depends on a subconscious language learning process and not on conscious learning. Although the term "approach" is used in the Natural Approach, this approach seems to display an over-emphasis on acquisition as the central issue of teaching and learning. This tendency, as well as a seeming lack of flexibility, rather typifies the Natural Approach as an exclusive method.

Yet, the Natural Approach is viewed as compatible with CLT because of the inclusive nature of the Communicative Approach. The Natural Approach focuses on teaching communicative abilities and is therefore compatible with the Communicative Approach, as Richards and Rodgers' (1986:76) explain: "The range of exercise types and activities compatible with a communicative approach is unlimited, provided that such exercises enable learners to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage learners in communication and require the use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction". However, the inclusive nature of the Communicative Approach

which allows for individual interpretation and variation, also has its disadvantages. The confusion caused in language teaching methodology by the rudimentary nature of the Communicative Approach has resulted in the code-communication dilemma (cf. 1.1), to name but one problematic issue.

The above discussion has only been attempted to clarify the interrelations between formal instruction, the Natural Approach and the Communicative Approach as interpreted in this study. However, the code-communication dilemma still needs to be addressed. Chapter 4 examines the role of formal instruction in the code-communication dilemma from a perspective of instructed second language acquisition research (ISLA-research).

CHAPTER 4

INSTRUCTED SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION RESEARCH ON FORMAL INSTRUCTION

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to examine the role of formal instruction from the perspective of applied linguists and teachers who have conducted classroom-research in the field of SLA during the last two decades. Needless to say, the confusion caused by the major shift of emphasis in the teaching of grammar from central to peripheral, as described in the previous two chapters, has become a major stimulus for instructed second language acquisition research (ISLA-research).

The role of formal instruction, defined in the previous chapter (cf. 3.3.4) as various forms of consciousness-raising used to draw learners' attention to the formal properties of language, is discussed critically by examining an overview of published studies. Firstly, the effect of formal instruction on the rate and proficiency-level of SLA is considered. Secondly, an assessment of the effect of formal instruction on SLA, based on a survey of experimental studies, is presented.

The critical discussion of formal instruction in ISLA-research is then followed by a description of recent studies which address the controversial interpretation of the role of formal instruction in the code-communication dilemma.

4.2 The Effect of Formal Instruction on the Rate and Level of SLA

The facilitating role of formal instruction in producing more rapid or higher levels of learning is examined in this section. A brief review of the studies is presented before a critical discussion of the studies is offered.

4.2.1 A Review of the Studies

Ellis (1990:130-131) cites a review of Long (1983b) which covers eleven studies that examined the effect of formal instruction on the rate/success of second language acquisition. Six of these studies clearly showed faster development in children and adults receiving formal second language teaching. The findings of two studies (Fathman, 1976; Hale and Budar, 1970) were ambiguous, yet, according to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:312), "arguably in the same direction". However, Ellis (1990:134) considers the results to be doubtful. Three studies showed minor or no effects of instruction. All the studies used designs involving comparisons between learners receiving instruction and those experiencing natural exposure or combinations of the two. A summary of the studies and their results appear in Figure 2 taken from Ellis (1990:134). Also included in Figure 2 are four relevant studies (Ellis, 1984c; Weslander and Stephany, 1983; Ellis and Rathbone, 1987; Spada, 1986) which have appeared since Long's original review article.

Figure 2 : Empirical studies of the effects of instruction on the rate/success of L2 acquisition

STUDY	TYPE OF CLASSROOM	SUBJECTS	PROFICIENCY	DATA	RESULTS
Carroll (1967)	Foreign language learning in United States (exposure abroad)	Adults - first language English	All proficiency levels	Integrative test	Both instruction and exposure help, but exposure helps most.
Chihara and Oller (1978)	EFL in Japan	Adults - first language Japanese	All proficiency levels	1 Discrete point test 2 Integrative test	Instruction helps, but exposure does not.
Krashen, Seliger and Hartnett (1974)	ESL in United States	Adults - mixed first languages	All proficiency levels	Discrete point test	Instruction helps, but exposure does not.
Briere (1978)	Spanish as a second language in Mexico	Children - local Indian language is first language	Beginners	Discrete point test	Both instruction and exposure help, but instruction helps most.
Krashen and Seliger (1976)	ESL in United States	Adults - mixed first languages	Intermediate and advanced	Integrative test	Instruction helps, but exposure does not.
Krashen et al. (1978)	ESL in United States	Adults - mixed first languages	All proficiency levels	1 Discrete point test 2 Integrative test	Both instruction and exposure help, but instruction helps most.
Hale and Budar (1970)	ESL in United States	Adolescents - mixed first languages	All proficiency levels	1 Discrete point test 2 Integrative test	Exposure helps but instruction does not - results doubtful, however.
Fathman (1976)	ESL in United States	Children - mixed first languages	All proficiency levels	Integrative test	Exposure helps but instruction does not - results doubtful, however.
Upshur (1968)	ESL in United States	Adults - mixed first languages	Intermediate and advanced	Discrete point test	Instruction does not help.
Mason (1971)	ESL in United States	Adults - mixed first languages	Intermediate and advanced	1 Discrete point test 2 Integrative test	Instruction does not help.
Fathman (1975)	ESL in United States	Children - mixed first languages	All proficiency levels	Integrative test	Instruction does not help.
Ellis (1984c)	ESL in Britain	Children - mixed first languages	Post-beginner level	Spontaneous speech from picture task	Instruction had no overall effect on production of WH questions - individual development not related to instructional opportunities.

STUDY	TYPE OF CLASSROOM	SUBJECTS	PROFICIENCY	DATA	RESULTS
Weslander and Stephany (1983)	ESL in United States	Mixed children and adolescents - Grades 2 to 10	Mixed levels of proficiency	Bilingual Syntax Measure	Instruction helps - particularly at lower proficiency levels
Ellis and Rathbone (1987)	German as FL in UK	Adults in higher education	Complete and false beginners	1 Spontaneous speech task 2 Discrete point test	Learners who attended most showed greatest gains on 1 and 2
Spada (1986)	ESL in Canada	Adults in short intensive course	Intermediate	Various tests of communicative competence	Positive effect for instruction, but this worked best in learners who also had plenty of exposure.

Whereas the findings of Ellis' (1984c) study indicate that instruction had no overall effect on the production of WH questions, the results of Weslander and Stephany's (1983) study suggest a positive effect for formal instruction on children with limited English proficiency in Grades 2 to 10 in public schools in Iowa. Ellis (1990:131) points out that the positive effects for instruction were strongest at lower levels of proficiency in the first year of schooling and diminished in subsequent years. The findings of this study contrast with the results obtained by Hale and Budar (1970) included in Long's review. The results of Hale and Budar's study suggested a negative effect for formal instruction as the study indicated that learners who spent two or three periods each day in special Teaching English as a Second or Other Language (TESOL) classes were being harmed rather than helped. However, the results obtained by Ellis and Rathbone (1987) also suggest a positive effect for instruction. The effects of class attendance on the levels of learning achieved by adult learners of L2 German were examined.

Spada's (1986) study provides new insights in the investigation of the effect of formal instruction on the rate and level of SLA. Whereas the studies examined by Long in his

review compared the effects of instruction with the effects of exposure, Spada set out to investigate whether there was any interaction between type of contact and type of instruction. The effects of instruction and exposure in 48 adult learners enrolled in an intensive six-week ESL course in Canada were examined. She concluded that contact was a less powerful predictor of differences in learners' second language abilities than instruction. Spada also found that instruction based on direct intervention in grammar and literacy worked better than instruction based on indirect intervention when the learners had opportunity for plentiful informal contact outside the classroom. An important implication of this study is that learners require both formal instruction and informal exposure, and that a combination of the two works better than either the one or the other.

4.2.2 A Critical Discussion of the Studies

Although Long's (1983b) review has been widely cited to demonstrate that formal instruction has a positive effect on SLA, Ellis (1990:132-133) offers the following points of critique. He firstly criticizes many of the studies for failing to control for overall amount of combined contact and instruction. The results obtained by some studies which show that instruction was more important for learning than contact, might reflect greater overall opportunity for acquisition inside and outside of the classroom. If such studies are excluded on the grounds of this design flaw, the number of studies in Long's original review which unambiguously show that instruction has a positive effect on SLA, is reduced to two.

Secondly, an intervening variable not considered by Long, but by Krashen, Jones, Zelinski and Usprich (1978), is the learners' motivation. Students who are highly motivated to learn

are likely to enrol for classes. The positive effect found for instruction may therefore simply reflect stronger motivation on the part of the classroom learners. Thirdly, a serious point of critique raised by Ellis (1990:133) concerns the assumption made by the authors of all the studies reviewed by Long that the amount of formal instruction experienced by learners can be equated with the number of years spent in the classroom. None of the studies obtained any data about the nature of the classroom processes which took place in the name of instruction. It can, therefore, not be taken for granted that instruction was actually form-focused.

It is also not clear whether formal instruction was considered as direct intervention in interlanguage development or as "interaction". Ellis (1990:133) explains this point of critique as follows: "the positive effects of instruction derived not from the fact that learners were focusing on form but from the communicative properties of the interactions which occurred".

Long, being aware of the problem, seeks to immunize against it by arguing that there is evidence which suggests that instruction is beneficial even in settings where the learners have ample opportunity for negotiation of meaning outside the classroom, i.e. in acquisition-rich environments. This indicates that the instruction worked, not because it provided comprehensible input, but because it required learners to focus on form. However, counter-arguments to this claim are that the so-called acquisition rich environments were not so rich after all and that learners were able to "let in" more input in a classroom context because they felt more secure and more relaxed than in face-to-face interaction with native speakers in naturalistic settings.

Despite these points of critique, it can be assumed that formal instruction promotes rapid and higher levels of acquisition. Long's review and the subsequent studies quoted in this discussion provide tentative support to this claim. It has also been suggested that formal instruction may work best when there are also opportunities for informal language use.

However, no information has been provided about the effects of formal instruction on the process of classroom language learning. The next section will concentrate on experimental studies of the effects of formal instruction, as the studies are particularly relevant to the present study, especially in their design and purpose.

4.3 Experimental Studies of the Effect of Instruction

4.3.1 A Review of the Studies

Experimental studies share a common design, although they may investigate different aspects of formal instruction. All of these studies examine whether explicit instruction directed at feature *X* results in *X* being acquired. Ellis (1990:146) describes the pattern followed in the design of these studies. The learners' existing second language knowledge is measured by means of a pretest. The "treatment" follows in the form of instruction focusing on one or more specific linguistic features. This usually takes place in the learners' normal classroom setting. A posttest is then administered to determine what gains in knowledge have taken place. In some studies, a further posttest is administered some time later in order to establish whether any gains identified by the first posttest are durable.

The experimental studies are classified by Ellis (1990:146) into three groups, namely accuracy studies to determine whether formal instruction facilitates the acquisition process; acquisition sequence studies to determine how formal instruction facilitates the acquisition process; and "projection" studies which seek to establish whether instruction in feature *x* not only results in the acquisition of *x*, but also triggers the acquisition of features *y...n*.

One study in each group of experimental studies namely : accuracy, acquisition and "projection" studies is described in the following sections. The limited scope of this study does not allow for a detailed discussion of each study, instead, a summary of the experimental studies taken from Ellis (1990:147-149) is provided in Figure 3 :

Figure 3 : Experimental studies of the effect of instruction on L2 acquisition

STUDY	TYPE OF CLASSROOM	SUBJECTS	PROFICIENCY LEVEL	DATA	RESULTS
Schumann (1978)	ESL in United States (one-to-one instruction)	One adult learner	'Fossilized', i.e. no development taking place	Spontaneous speech + imitation test	Instruction had no effect on negatives in spontaneous speech, but improvement in imitation scores occurred.
Kadia (1988)	ESL in Canadian university	One adult learner	'Fossilized', i.e. no development taking place	Spontaneous speech, substitution test + grammaticality judgement test	Instruction had no effect on spontaneous language use Performance on grammaticality-judgement test declined but performance in substitution test improved after instruction.

Lightbown et al. (1980)	ESL in Canadian schools	Children and adolescents (Grades 6, 8 and 10)	Mixed ability levels	Grammaticality-judgement test	Instruction resulted in increased accuracy in use of -s morphemes, 'be' and locative prepositions, but accuracy deteriorated in test administered 5 months later.
Ellis (1984b)	ESL in Britain	13 children and adolescents (10 to 15 years)	Mixed ability levels	Game designed to elicit unmonitored interrogatives	Instruction had no significant effect on accuracy of production of interrogatives for group as a whole, but individual learners showed marked gains.
Pienemann (1984)	German as a L2	10 children (aged 7 to 9 years)	Mixed ability levels	Oral interviews and hidden recordings	Inversion rule acquired by one learner who was developmentally ready, but not acquired by another learner who was not developmentally ready; accuracy in use of copula increased, but had decreased some 9 months later; instruction in inversion led to one learner abandoning already acquired rule.
Gass (1979)	ESL in the USA - intensive university course	Adults	Intermediate	Grammaticality-judgements and sentence joining tasks	Group that received instruction on marked relative pronoun function showed improvement on this function and on unmarked functions; group that received instruction on unmarked relative pronoun function showed improvement only on this function.

Eckman et al. (1988)	ESL in the USA - intensive university course	Adults	Low intermediate and intermediate	Sentence-joining task	Generalization of learning occurred from marked to unmarked structures rather than vice versa (i.e. results as those obtained by Gass).
Zobl (1985)	ESL by French speakers in Canada	Adults	Low level	Oral questions based on pictures designed to elicit noun phrases with possessive adjectives	Group that received practice in marked feature (human-possessed entities) showed gains in this feature and in unmarked feature; group that received practice in unmarked feature (nonhuman-possessed entities) showed no greater gains in this feature and no gains in marked feature. Type of errors made by two groups also differed.
Henry (1986)	Chinese as a L2	Adults	Low level	Translation of sentences into Chinese	Students avoided positioning relative clauses after head noun even though they had no instruction in this feature.

4.3.1.1 An Accuracy Study

Kadia's (1988) study reported in Ellis (1990:151) examined whether formal instruction was successful in helping a Chinese student at the University of Toronto to avoid errors in the placement of pronominal direct objects (e.g. "Last time I show Beth it"/"He told me that he will call up me this evening"). The pretest consisted of a substitution task and a grammaticality judgement task. Forty minutes of formal instruction, which consisted of formal explanation and drill, was provided. The subject was observed in informal contexts for nine weeks following the instruction. A posttest, similar to the pretest, was administered

two months after the instruction. Kadia found that the instruction had no real effect on the subject's spontaneous language production, but there was some evidence that her controlled production in the substitution task was aided.

4.3.1.2 An Acquisition Sequence Study

The classroom research carried out by Pienemann (1984) was designed to discover whether formal instruction is sufficiently powerful to disrupt the sequence of acquisition. Ellis (1990:152) observes that the major strength of Pienemann's research is that it is based on a well-defined theory of SLA, the Multidimensional Model, which has enabled him and fellow researchers to test specific hypotheses.

Pienemann (1984) set out to investigate the four hypotheses of the Multidimensional Model.

The four hypotheses are:

1. Instruction will not enable learners to acquire any developmental feature out of sequence.
2. Instruction will enable learners to acquire a developmental feature providing that the processing operations required to produce those features that precede it in the acquisitional sequence have already been mastered.
3. Instruction directed at developmental features for which the learner is not ready may interfere with the natural process of acquisition.
4. Instruction will help learners to acquire variational features.

(Ellis, 1990:154-155.)

The subjects of the study were 10 Italian children, aged 7 to 9, who received two weeks of classroom instruction (including both linguistically focused and communicative exercises) in

subject-verb inversion in German and copula, a variational feature. Data were collected on two occasions, before and after the period of instruction, by means of interviews between pairs of subjects and between each learner and a student interviewer. Additional data were also collected by means of hidden recordings in the children's playing environment.

Results of inversion were given for only two of the children. Teresa failed to acquire inversion. Pienemann provides evidence to show that prior to the instruction she had not acquired the particle, nor the word-order rule associated with the processing operations of the previous stage. However, some of Teresa's utterances did manifest inversion when she followed the instruction, although Pienemann claims that these were all rote-memorized patterns present in the classroom dialogues. She thus provided no evidence of being able to use the rule productively. Giovanni, however, did acquire inversion. He had already acquired the particle before the instruction took place, therefore Giovanni, following the instruction, was able to apply inversion in a wide range of linguistic contexts. Ellis points out that these results provide support for the first and second hypotheses of the Multidimensional Model.

The second part of this study set out to examine the effects of instruction on the use of the copula, a variable feature. The frequency of copula omission in the five subjects for whom results are provided decreased considerably after the instruction. In addition, acquisition of this feature appeared to proceed independently of acquisition of the developmental feature (inversion). The fourth hypothesis was therefore supported. However, Ellis (1990:156) draws attention to the fact that data obtained some nine months later from one of these subjects indicated that the rate of copula omission had risen markedly. Ellis therefore

suggests the possibility that the effects of instruction on the acquisition of variable features is short-lived for at least some learners, by referring to the results reported by Lightbown, Spada and Wallace (1980) in support of the results of Pienemann's study.

The third hypothesis is also supported by Pienemann's study. The results indicate that the use of the adverb-preposing rule actually fell away for two of the learners as a result of the instruction on the use of inversion. Pienemann suggests that these two learners discovered through formal instruction, that when they used adverb preposing they should apply inversion. They were, however, not able to do this, because they were not developmentally ready. They therefore knew that their utterances containing a preposed adverb were incorrect, which led them to withdraw the use of this rule in order to avoid producing incorrect sentences.

Pienemann's interpretation of these findings is that students can only learn from instruction when they are psycholinguistically "ready" for it, which accounts for the learnability hypothesis. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:307) explain that the "learnability of a structure in turn constrains the effectiveness of instruction - the **teachability hypothesis**". Pienemann's (1985:37) teachability hypothesis states that "instruction can only promote language acquisition if the interlanguage is close to the point when the structure to be taught is acquired in the natural setting (so that sufficient processing prerequisites are developed)". Ellis (1990:158) comments that although the hypothesis rules out the possibility that instruction can help the learner to beat the natural order of developmental features, it does allow a clear role for formal instruction.

4.3.1.3 A "Projection" Study

Researchers of "projection" studies have researched the question whether instruction can activate the projection device. Ellis explains that the learner is credited with a projection device that enables the acquisition of one rule to trigger the acquisition of all other rules that cluster with it. The projection device consequently explains "why learners are able to acquire a language quickly despite the immense complexity of the task and the relative poverty of the input they experience" (Ellis, 1990:159).

Zobl's (1985) study supports the projection hypothesis, as does Gass's (1979) study. Zobl investigated the effects of fifteen minutes of instruction on the acquisition of English possessive adjectives by approximately 40 French-speaking university students in Canada who were assigned randomly to two groups. Both groups received intensive oral practice consisting of question and answer, and teacher-correction. The first group received practice in using possessive adjectives with non-human entities (e.g. "his/her car"); the second group received practice in using possessive adjectives with human-possessed entities (e.g. "his/her sister"). Zobl claimed that these two features are implicationaly ordered so that acquisition of the latter (the marked form) would result automatically in the acquisition of the former (the unmarked form). The experiment supported this claim. The second group of learners showed gains in both features, while the first group showed gains in neither.

4.3.2 A Critical Discussion of the Experimental Studies

Ellis (1990:151) notes that the accuracy studies suggest the presence of constraints on the

effects that instruction can have on acquisition. The studies by Schumann (1978), Ellis (1984b) and Kadia (1988) indicate, for example, that spontaneous speech production may be impervious to instruction. Although three of the studies Schumann (1978), Lightbown et al. (1980), and Kadia (1988) lend support to the claim that instruction can improve accuracy in careful, planned speech production, this improvement may disappear over time as more "natural" processes take over.

The teachability hypothesis which results from research in the sequence of acquisition studies, has been appraised by Ellis (1990:158) as "the most powerful account we have of how formal instruction relates to learning". The clear role assigned to formal instruction is outlined as follows : firstly, instruction can facilitate natural language-acquisition processes if it coincides with when the learner is ready. This facilitation is evident in three different ways : increased speed of acquisition, increased frequency in rule-application, and application of the rule in a wider range of linguistic contexts. Secondly, the teachability hypothesis allows for the positive effect of formal instruction on the acquisition of variational features. Ellis emphasizes the important role of formal instruction in this respect, as it may help communicative-oriented learners to avoid early fossilization.

Despite the clear role defined for formal instruction in the teachability hypothesis, the model and the research that supports it have their limitations. The theoretical basis of the model has been criticized by Hulstijn (1987) for not setting quantitative or qualitative criteria to be used when judging whether a specific operation has been acquired. The empirical research upon which the hypothesis is based is also still very limited. Van der Walt (1993:43) argues that Pienemann's proposals require teachers to construct teaching programmes tailored to the

psycholinguistic needs of individual learners, something which is "completely unrealistic at this stage".

The "projection" studies indicate a complex relationship between formal instruction and acquisition. Ellis (1990:160-161) draws some tentative conclusions from the studies. Instruction can result in learners acquiring not only those features that have been taught, but also other features that are implicationally associated with them. Instruction in marked features may furthermore result in learners' simplifying their interlanguages, whereas instruction in marked features aids the process of complexification.

On the whole, the experimental studies provide convincing evidence that instruction can have a direct effect on the acquisition of specific linguistic features. The value of the research lies in suggestions made about the conditions that have to be met for formal instruction to be effective, as well as the conditions under which instruction will prove most effective. However, Ellis (1990:161) also draws attention to the evidence provided that the effects of formal instruction can wear off in time, and suggests that "although instruction may bypass natural processing mechanisms in the short term, these will eventually reassert themselves".

4.4 Recent Instructed Second Language Acquisition Research on Formal Instruction

Despite the above discussion which indicates that a positive effect has tentatively been identified for formal instruction in the experimental studies, there is still no consensus as to the interpretation of these studies. Krashen (1993:725) continues to interpret ISLA-research findings from a non-interface position where learnt competence does not become acquired

competence, as his following statement in a recent article testifies : "I remain unrepentant. In my view, the research says that the effects of direct instruction are typically short lasting and do not become part of acquired competence. The effects of grammar teaching still appear to be peripheral and fragile."

Krashen expresses this viewpoint in reaction to an article by Lightbown and Pienemann (1993:717-721). They view SLA from an interface position where learnt competence can become acquired competence because "'seepage' from one knowledge type to the other occurs" (Ellis, 1985:234). Following an interface position, Lightbown and Pienemann (1993:718) offer their hypothesis that "while comprehensible input is an essential part of the learning environment, it will not always be sufficient to bring about developmental change or increased accuracy, even when learners are in supportive environments". To reinforce this claim, they stress the value of form-focused instruction to bring about changes in interlanguage and in situations where learners might require focused instruction to further their language acquisition.

A case in point which illustrates the positive role emerging for formal instruction in recent studies is a description of two form-focused experimental studies in Lightbown and Spada (1993:99-100).

In the experimental studies, the effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback on two particular linguistic features were examined: adverb placement and question formulation. In the first study, White (1991) selected adverb placement for investigation because English and French differ with regard to the positions in which adverbs can be placed

in sentences. The hypothesis was that learners would persist in using adverb placement rules from French if they were not explicitly told how rules for adverb placement differ in English and French. Questions were selected for the second study because they have been extensively investigated in the literature and considerable comparison data are available, particularly with regard to acquisition sequences.

Both the experimental and comparison groups were tested before the experiment began (pretest) and both groups were tested again when the period of special instruction had ended (posttest). The experimental groups received approximately eight hours of instruction over a two-week period. This included explicit teaching of the grammatical rules associated with each structure as well as corrective feedback. The teachers of the experimental groups were provided with a package of teaching materials and a clear set of procedures to follow. The comparison group teachers were asked to teach a different structure, one which was not the focus of the experiment, so that the comparison group learners would be familiar with the tasks and activities that were used in the testing procedures. The studies included immediate, delayed, and long-term/follow-up posttests. For the adverb study the test tasks were written, and in the question formation study the tests included both written and oral tasks.

The results of the adverb study revealed that learners who received instruction on adverb placement dramatically outperformed the learners who did not receive instruction on adverbs. This was found to be the case on all tests in both the immediate and delayed posttests (immediately following instruction and six-weeks later). In the follow-up tests a year later, however, the gains made by the learners who had received the adverb instruction had disappeared and their performance on this structure was like that of uninstructed learners.

The results of the question formation study revealed that the instructed group made significantly greater gains than the uninstructed group on the written tasks immediately following instruction. Furthermore, it was found that the instructed learners maintained their level of knowledge on later testing (six weeks and six months after instruction). It was also found that a focus on form contributed to improvements in oral performance on questions.

Analysis of classroom language showed that adverbs are very, very rare in classroom speech, giving learners little opportunity to maintain their newly acquired knowledge through continued exposure and use. In contrast, there were hundreds of opportunities to hear and use questions every day in the classroom.

The findings of a recent experimental study by Doughty (1991) also show formal instruction to have a positive effect on the rate of acquisition of second language relativization. Doughty has set out to overcome some of the limitations in earlier experimental studies criticized by Krashen (1993:724) and Ellis (1990:161) while she conducted the experiment. The following shortcomings were addressed: inappropriate or inadequate research design; failure to operationalize or describe the instructional treatment; and the choice of second language assessment measures in order to make out a more substantiated, and therefore more convincing case for the effectiveness of second language instruction. Van der Walt (1993:44) regards her study as a successful attempt because it is a rigorous study which "considers experimental control and differentiation of exposure and instruction, operationalizes the instructional procedures and contains a principled materials development based on SLA theory".

The subjects of Doughty's (1991) experimental study were 20 international students (10 male, 10 female) studying English as a second language at the middle proficiency levels of an intensive English institute in Philadelphia. The primary criterion in selecting subjects was that they had little knowledge of English relativization. The design of the study included two experimental groups which were exposed to either relative clauses plus meaning oriented treatments or to relative clauses plus rule-oriented instructional treatments. A control group participated in the exposure-only control treatment.

The results in Doughty's (1991) study show that both instructed groups improved significantly more than the control group that also experienced some gain in relativization ability. The improvement in the experimental groups was attributed to the instructional techniques that brought the features of relativization into prominence. The meaning-oriented treatment was also shown to better facilitate comprehension than was the case in either the rule-oriented or control conditions. Doughty attributes this result to the apparently successful combination of a focus on meaning and a focus on form treatment. The overall conclusion of the study is summarized in the heading of Doughty's (1991:431) article : "Second-language instruction does make a difference". Her study demonstrates that formal instruction does not only make a difference, but a significant difference at that. Doughty's (1991) study furthermore serves as an example of recent studies which are methodologically more sound. The results of the study therefore give a more reliable indication of the role of formal instruction.

A recent, methodologically sound study by Allen (1992) investigates the relationship between actual instructional processes and the development of communicative competence. Allen's study is relevant to the present examination of the role of formal instruction in the

Communicative Approach. Very little research has, according to Allen (1992:1), been carried out in communicative language teaching (CLT). A major difficulty in systematic classroom-oriented research has been identified by Allen (1992:1) as "the rudimentary nature of communicative language teaching theory". Allen addressed this problem in his experimental study by using the term *analytic* to refer to a formal approach and the term *experiential* to refer to a functional approach.

Eight grade II core French classes were selected from the Metropolitan Toronto school boards. The average class size consisted of approximately 23 English speaking students. The classes were firstly ranked according to a Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme. Two classes were ranked in the experiential group (Type E) and six classes in the analytic group (Type A). On a weekly basis, all classes received two hundred minutes of instruction.

Some of the findings of Allen's (1992) extensive study which are particularly relevant to the empirical investigation in this study, are the differences found between Type A and Type E classrooms in the use of instructional features, and the most successful learning activities identified for the development of communicative competence. The following differences between Type A and Type E classrooms were reported by Allen (1992:7):

Type A classrooms made significantly more use than Type E classrooms of the following features (S = students):

- topic control by teacher
- minimal written text (S)
- minimal utterance in spoken interaction (S)
- reaction to code rather than message (S)
- restricted choice of linguistic item (S)

Type E classrooms made significantly more use than Type A classrooms of the following features (T = teacher, S = students):

- topic control by student
- extended written text (S)
- sustained speech in spoken interaction (S)
- reaction to message rather than code (T,S)
- topic expansion (S)
- use of student-made materials

The most successful activities in the core French classrooms appeared to include a mixture of analytic and experiential features. Although Allen's (1992) study indicates that French teachers need to devote more time to experiential activities, he holds that formal instruction should not be abandoned.

4.5 Conclusion

Different theoretical frameworks for the investigation and interpretation of SLA have offered different appraisals of the evidence provided by ISLA-research about the relation between formal instruction and SLA. Krashen, interpreting research evidence from a non-interface position, remains sceptic about the effect of formal instruction on SLA by allowing nothing but a peripheral role for conscious learning in his Monitor Model. Ellis (1985:244) clarifies the link between the code-communication controversy and the non-interface and interface position as follows: "Whereas the non-interface position emphasises the importance of communication and minimises the importance of the code, the interface position asserts the contribution of the code".

A more positive and complex role has, then, tentatively been awarded to the relation between formal instruction and SLA by researchers interpreting ISLA-research evidence from an

interface position. Research reviews of Ellis (1990), Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), Vander Walt (1993) and Lightbown (1985) have come to the overall conclusion that formal instruction does contribute to SLA.

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:321) conclude that formal instruction clearly has positive effects on the rate at which learners acquire the language and probably beneficial effects on their ultimate level of attainment. Ellis (1990:171) confirms their conclusion by reporting that learners "who receive formal instruction outperform those who do not by learning more rapidly and by reaching higher levels of ultimate achievement".

The need for greater rigour in conducting future ISLA-research has been emphasized by research reviewers and has been shown to be of central concern to researchers themselves, as illustrated in the study of Doughty (1991). Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:322) indicate the various conditions to be met for more precise scientific investigations of SLA. Subjects need to be carefully chosen; standard procedures in their (random) assignment to treatments should be followed; control-groups need to be employed; and aspects of the second-language which are "learnable" at the time instruction is provided, should be selected for teaching experiments.

Although more clarity has been obtained about the role of formal instruction in ISLA-research in some recent studies, the question whether formal instruction should be included in CLT remains a controversial issue among researchers and teachers. The code-communication dilemma therefore needs to be investigated empirically in chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

FORMAL INSTRUCTION IN THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH : AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

5.1 Introduction

The present investigation was conducted to determine whether the positive role identified for formal instruction in the foregoing survey of ISLA-research can be empirically confirmed within the particular framework of this study, namely the Communicative Approach. The method of research followed in the empirical investigation is described in this chapter and the next chapter offers an analysis and interpretation of the results of the investigation.

The method of research employed in the present study is discussed under six main headings: study population, variables, instrumentation, instructional treatments, data collection procedure, and design and analysis. The aim of this particular chapter is, therefore, to discuss:

- * the characteristics of the study population,
- * the measuring instrument that was used in the study,
- * the methodology followed in the instructional treatments,
- * the procedure followed in the collection of data, and
- * the design and statistical analysis techniques used in this study.

5.2 Study Population

The study population consisted of Afrikaans (native language) Std 9 pupils, who took English as a second-language on Higher Grade (HG) and on Standard Grade (SG) level in a typical Afrikaans high school.

The 40 subjects of the study population were selected from the four classes in the Std 9 group taught by the teacher/researcher. Ten pairs of pupils matched in their English proficiency level, which was correlated to their English promotion mark of the previous year, were selected. The proficiency level of both experimental groups were on par ($x_1 = 59,7$ and $x_2 = 59,95$). These two pairs of pupils consisting of an equal number of boys and girls and ranging in age from 15 to 17 years, were then randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups. The experimental group therefore consisted of 20 subjects in two classes and the 20 subjects of the control group also in two classes. The presence of the subjects in more than one class increased the reliability of the experiment by controlling for possible inconsistency in the teacher/researcher's performance.

5.3 Variables

The independent (predictor) variables are: Formal instruction in Group One and the Natural Approach in Group Two.

The dependant (criterion) variable in this study is proficiency in the use of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses.

5.4 Instrumentation

One paper-and-pencil instrument was used in this study:

A discrete point and integrative grammar test for determining proficiency in the use of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses.

In the following section the measuring instrument is described.

5.4.1 Grammar Test

5.4.1.1 Description

The grammar test on the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses is a test compiled by the teacher/researcher. The test (cf. Appendix D) consists of 4 questions based on 4 communicative situations which arise from the same theme. The first three questions are discrete-point tests at a fairly advanced level, testing pupils' knowledge of using (Question 1), and manipulating (Questions 2 and 3), the present and past perfect and present and past perfect continuous tenses in English. Question 4 is an integrative test which requires a logical sequencing of events by using the past perfect and past perfect continuous tenses in relating an incident. The pupils' proficiency in using these target grammatical structures for communicative purposes was therefore tested.

The total score of the test was 30 points and the time allocated for the completion of the test

was 25 minutes. The total mark for the test was used in the calculation of the data because the purpose of this study was not to test proficiency in the individual tenses, but overall proficiency in the perfect aspect. The reasons why these particular tenses were chosen as target grammatical structures is because pupils generally find it difficult to use the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses appropriately and accurately. Furthermore, the grammatical structures are not well-known. The effect of formal instruction can consequently be tested more reliably on the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses than, for example, on the simple present and simple past tenses which are used more frequently. The pupils are also, according to Pienemann's Teachability Hypothesis (cf. 4.3.1.2), developmentally ready to acquire these fairly complex grammatical structures because they are in the senior secondary phase.

The same grammar test was administered as a pilot test to Std 8 HG pupils at another Afrikaans high school at the end of the previous year. The purpose was to determine whether the questions were clearly formulated and whether sufficient time was allocated for the completion of the test.

The grammar test was based on a communicative situation because the experiment was conducted within the general framework of the Communicative Approach. The communicative acts which pupils had to perform were derived from a typical concern of teenagers, namely the problem of academic obligations which interfere with their sports activities. This is a fairly "real" situation about which the average teenager has to communicate quite frequently with his parents and peers (interpersonal communication), and with himself (intrapersonal communication). These types of communication were

incorporated in the questions which were also couched in a communicative style.

5.5 Instructional Treatments

Two instructional treatments were administered in this study. The subjects in the first experimental group received formal instruction and the subjects in the second experimental group followed the Natural Approach. Both groups, however, received instructional treatments within the general framework of the Communicative Approach (cf. 3.3). Before the procedures followed in each group are discussed, the purpose for using the same text-based materials as the major source of written input for both groups needs to be explained.

5.5.1 Text-based materials used in both groups

The successful administering of instructional treatments in a study conducted within the framework of the Communicative Approach depends to a large extent on the teacher/researcher's selection of instructional materials. Richards and Rodgers (1986:79) point out that "practitioners of Communicative Language Teaching view materials as a way of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use. Materials ... have the primary role of promoting communicative language use".

The teacher/researcher chose two short stories (cf. Appendix D and E) from the Std 9 pupils' prescribed collection of short stories (Anderson and Shepherd, 1990). Both short stories offered grammatically rich input for the intended instructional treatments. The first short story, "Shadows on the Wall" exemplified the functional use of the present and past perfect

tenses. The contrasts in tenses were also structurally significant to the short story as they provided the cyclic structure of the story. The second short story, "Masilo's Adventures", was chosen for the many examples of the past perfect and some examples of the past perfect continuous tense offered in the narrative style of the story.

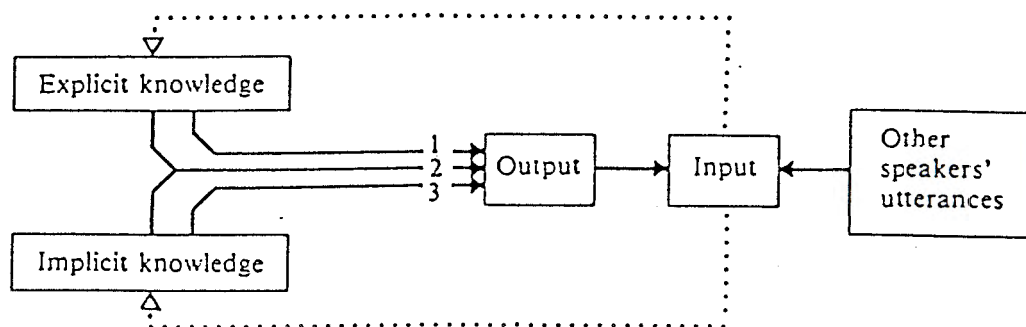
Thematically both stories deal with the topical and universal theme of communication between parents and children, a sensitive and problematic issue to many a teenager. The short stories were also chosen for the emphasis placed on the value of language as a vehicle of communication. The strong presence of the target grammatical structures in the text also afforded opportunities for the realization of a mediation and medium view of language within the teaching situation. The role of the teacher as educator in CLT comes to the fore in helping pupils to cope with sensitive relationships at home by providing examples from literature to serve as a springboard for further, often therapeutic discussions with their peers, or even with the teacher. The role of the teacher as educator in CLT is described by Van der Walt (1990:31) in the following way : "the teacher in a state school is an educator in the first place, and although his aim in teaching a second language may be the communicative competence of the learner, he must also bear in mind that the course is part of the learner's education and must contribute to his development in general".

5.5.2 Theoretical Bases of the Instructional Treatments

Two different theoretical perspectives were adopted by the teacher/researcher for the two kinds of instructional treatments followed respectively in Group One and in Group Two. The specific theoretical perspective adopted for Group One is an interface position to language

learning based on Sharwood Smith's (1981:166) full interface model (cf. Fig. 4).

Figure 4 : Sharwood Smith's Full Interface Model



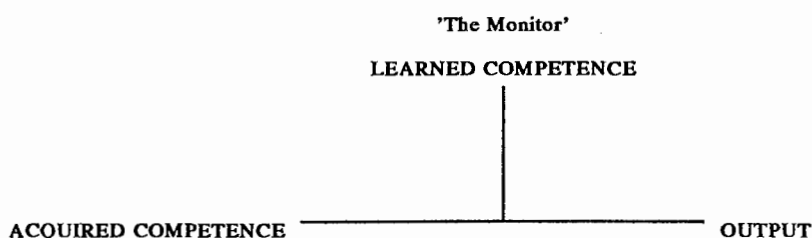
According to Ellis (1985:235) this model accounts for the role of formal instruction in SLA. Sharwood Smith (1981:166) holds that consciousness-raising can take place by means of formal instruction and that the resulting explicit knowledge is practised until it is automatized. In Sharwood Smith's model, the learner can produce L2 output in three different ways: (1) using only implicit knowledge, (2) using only explicit knowledge, and (3) using both explicit and implicit knowledge.

Ellis (1985:236) further describes Sharwood Smith's full interface model by explaining that the learner's own utterances constitute part of the input to the learner's language learning mechanisms. The other part of the input is made up by the other speaker's utterances. The total input provides information which can lead the learner to alter the composition of either his implicit or his explicit knowledge, or both.

The theoretical perspective adopted for the instructional treatment of Group Two is a non-

interface position based on Krashen's Monitor Model (cf. Fig. 5). Krashen's Monitor Model (1981:165), on which the second language learning theory underlying the Natural Approach is based, has already been discussed in detail in chapter 3 (cf. 3.4).

Figure 5 : Krashen's Non-Interface Monitor Model



5.5.3 Instructional Treatment in Group One

The instructional treatment was administered to the subjects in a quiet, well-lit classroom. Formal instruction was defined for the particular purpose of this instructional treatment, as a conscious focusing on the formal characteristics of specific grammatical features selected for the learner's attention.

The instructional treatment administered to Group One consisted of the formal instruction of the present and past perfect and present and past perfect continuous tenses.

In view of the various types of conscious learning (cf. 3.3.4), formal instruction includes the instruction that results from deductive methods such as the Cognitive Code Method and inductive methods such as the Audiolingual Method (cf. Appendix A). Notional/functional concepts were integrated in the formal instruction because the study was conducted within the

framework of the Communicative Approach. The instructional treatment was administered in 14 periods of 35 minutes each, spread over two weeks. A detailed summary of the learner activities followed in each period by Group One is included in Appendix C. However, a brief summary of the instructional treatment implemented by the teacher/researcher is offered in the present discussion for the sake of clarity.

The instructional treatment in Group One focused on the development of the pupils' grammatical competence. Pupils' attention was continuously drawn to the target grammatical structures through the implementation of various consciousness-raising techniques (cf. 3.3.5) by the teacher/researcher. Pupils had to identify, for example, the present and past perfect tenses in their first prescribed short story "Shadows on the Wall" (cf. Appendix E), after the rules had been explained to them and hand-outs (cf. Appendix G) of the rules were distributed to them. Pupils' attention was also focused on the target grammatical structures by writing dialogues in which the target structures featured prominently. Additional language exercises (cf. Appendix H) were also given to them to further rule internalization by means of practice. The dialogues containing the target grammatical structures were also memorized and performed orally in pupils' role play. Pupils' knowledge of the rules was reinforced when they had to correct their additional language exercises and edit their written output in letters and essays that contained the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses.

5.5.4 Instructional Treatment in Group Two

The instructional treatment was also administered to the subjects in a quiet, well-lit classroom. A summary of techniques implemented in the Natural Approach appear in

Appendix B. The emphasis in the instructional treatment of Group Two falls on natural communication. No attention was overtly drawn to the presence of the target grammatical structures present in the comprehensible input. In this sense Group Two served as a control group for Group One, although a particular approach was followed in the instructional treatment. The teacher/researcher intentionally used the target structures in her speech acts, especially in the formulation of questions to elicit spontaneous use of the target structures. The instructional treatment was also administered in 14 periods of 35 minutes each, spread over two weeks. A detailed summary of the learner activities followed in each period by Group Two is included in Appendix C. However, a brief summary of the instructional treatment implemented by the teacher/researcher is also offered in the present discussion for the sake of clarity.

The instructional treatment in the Natural Approach focused on the development of pupils' communicative competence. As mentioned earlier in this section, pupils' attention was not consciously drawn to the presence of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses in the comprehensible input provided to them. Pupils participated in activities in which mime, gesture and context were used to elicit questions and answers. Their attention was, for example, focused on the importance of the appropriate use of language to further communication in "life-line" telephone conversations that simulated real-life situations. This communicative skill was reinforced by letting pupils devise their own "life-line" conversations. Two plastic telephones were used as realia in the role play activities which followed. Pupils also participated in discussions about the similarities and differences between teenagers and their parents based on articles in magazines. Pupils participated in groupwork activities. They devised interviews and questionnaires. These activities

emphasized sharing information in order to complete a task. Pupils were only expected to monitor their written output at home for logic and for overall clarity of the messages.

5.6 Data collection procedure

Data collection was conducted by the teacher/researcher, with the co-operation of her two colleagues who also taught the Std 9's. They helped with the handing out of test material, with the maintenance of discipline and with the marking of their own classes' answer sheets. All the administrative requirements for the tests were met and the pupils were seated in different classrooms when the tests were written. The practice effect (cf. Brown, 1988:35) was controlled for by collecting the question papers, as well as the answer sheets, immediately after the pretest was written. The invigilators also refrained from giving any explanations of the questions. After the posttest was written, pupils were allowed to keep the test and the answers were discussed as a remedial exercise. A second posttest scheduled to take place six weeks after the first posttest could unfortunately not be written due to practical circumstances.

5.7 Design and Analysis

A before-after two-group comparative design was used in this study. The design of the study is quasi-experimental as the subjects belonged to intact groups. Brown (1988:155) identifies this research design as a typical design for "comparing the performances of students in naturally occurring classrooms".

In the discussion of the results in chapter 7 various statistical concepts are used. These concepts are the following:

The *alpha level* ($p < 0,05$) refers to the probability of chance occurrence. In the analysis of this study's results it would mean that the probability is less than 5% that the differences, if any, within or between groups occurred by chance alone. The alpha level is usually set at either $p < 0,05$ or at $p < 0,01$. For the purpose of the present study, the alpha level was set at $p < 0,01$.

A *t-test* for correlated means (cf. Brown, 1988:165) was used to compare the two mean scores within and between the two groups in order to determine if the mean scores differed reliably from each other.

Cohen's (1977:20-27) effect size d was used to determine if there were any practically significant differences in the subjects' proficiency in using the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses. Cohen's effect size d was firstly used to calculate the difference between the two mean scores of the pretest and posttest within Group One and within Group Two. Cohen uses the following scale for the d values:

Effect sizes within groups

Small effect d = 0,15

Medium effect d = 0,35

Large effect d = 0,60

Cohen's (1977:20-27) effect size d was secondly used to calculate the difference between the two mean scores of the pretest and posttest in the two experimental groups. Cohen uses the following scale for the d values:

Effect sizes between groups

Small effect d = 0,2

Medium effect d = 0,5

Large effect d = 0,8

Dreyer (1992:100) stresses the importance of using both statistical concepts in a study because "not only do these concepts give an indication of the significance of a particular relationship, or difference, but if researchers/teachers consider applying the findings of a particular study to the teaching in their classrooms, it would be important for them to know if the relationship, or difference, is also practically significant". If, for example, a practically significant relationship is found between formal instruction and proficiency in English in this study, then teachers might include formal instruction as a teaching method in the Communicative Approach. However, if the relationship is only statistically significant, the effort to include formal instruction might not be a rewarding exercise.

5.8 Conclusion

The method of research employed in the present study was discussed in some detail in an attempt to address some of the limitations in experimental studies (cf. 4.4), especially failure to describe the instructional treatment. The statistical techniques to be used in this study were

discussed briefly in order to facilitate the logical explanation of the results in chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

6.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present and discuss the analysed data of the quasi-experimental study. This chapter also attempts to address the research questions formulated in chapter 1:

- * Does formal instruction contribute statistically and practically significantly to ESL proficiency in the use of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses ?

- * What kind of instruction contributes statistically and practically significantly more to the acquisition of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses within the Communicative Approach, formal instruction or the Natural Approach ?

6.2 Description of Results within Groups

6.2.1 Results within Group One

The principal question in this section concerns the difference between the mean performances in the pretest and posttest of the group that received formal instruction as instructional treatment. It would seem as if there was an improvement in the pupils' mean performance (9,05 to 15,75) on the posttest when compared to the pretest (cf. Table 1).

Table 1 : Descriptive Data of Group One

GROUP	N	MEAN (\bar{X})	SD
Y1E ₁	20	9,05	3,41
Y2E ₁	20	15,75	3,46

Note : Y1E₁ = pretest
 Y2E₁ = posttest
 SD = Standard deviation

A t-test was conducted to determine if the difference in the mean performance of Group One's pretest and posttest was statistically significant (cf. Table 2). Cohen's effect size *d* (cf. 5.7) was used to determine if there was any practically significant difference between the mean performances on the pretest and posttest.

Table 2 : Difference between Pretest and Posttest : Group One

MEAN (\bar{X})	SD	t	p-value	d
6,7	3,04	9,8	0,0001***	1,94***

Statistical Significance

* $p < 0,05$
 ** $p < 0,01$
 *** $p < 0,001$
 **** $p < 0,0001$

Practical Significance

+ Small effect $d = 0,15$
 ++ Medium effect $d = 0,35$
 +++ Large effect $d = 0,6$

Note :

SD = Standard Deviation
 p-value = probability value
 t = t-test
 d = effect size

The difference in the mean performance between the pretest and posttest was firstly found to be statistically significant ($p < 0,001$). It therefore seems that the probability is less than

1% that the difference occurred by chance alone. Secondly, a significant practical difference ($d > 0,6$; cf. Table 2) was found in the comparison of the pretest and posttest of Group One who received formal instruction. It can, therefore, be assumed that formal instruction contributes statistically significantly and practically significantly to the acquisition of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses within the Communicative Approach, due to a marked improvement in the pupils' performance.

6.2.2 Results within Group Two

The results of Group Two who followed the Natural Approach seem to indicate at face value that there was a slight improvement in the pupils' mean performance (10,9 to 11,8) on the posttest when compared to their pretest results in Table 3.

Table 3 : Descriptive Data of Group Two

GROUP	N	MEAN (\bar{X})	SD
Y1E ₂	20	10,9	4,26
Y2E ₂	20	11,8	3,77

Note :

Y1E₂ = pretest
 Y2E₂ = posttest
 SD = standard deviation

A t-test was conducted to determine if the difference in the mean performance of Group Two's pretest and posttest was statistically and practically significant (cf. Table 4).

Table 4 : Difference between Pretest and Posttest : Group Two

MEAN (\bar{X})	SD	t	p-value	d
0,9	2,67	1,5	0,15	0,24 ⁺

Statistical Significance

- * p < 0,05
- ** p < 0,01
- *** p < 0,001
- **** p < 0,0001

Practical Significance

- + Small effect d = 0,15
- ++ Medium effect d = 0,35
- +++ Large effect d = 0,6

Note :

- SD = standard deviation
- t = t-test
- p-value = probability value
- d = effect size

The difference in the mean performance between the pretest and posttest of the experimental group that followed the Natural Approach was not statistically significant ($p = 0,15$), but practically significant ($d > 0,15$). It seems, then, that natural learning as practised in the Natural Approach contributes practically significantly to pupils' proficiency in the use of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses in English, due to a slight improvement in the pupils' performance.

6.3 Description of Results between Groups

This section is concerned with a comparison of two ways of language learning and teaching in the Communicative Approach, namely conscious or analytical learning (cf. 3.3.4), and natural or experiential learning in the Natural Approach (cf. 3.4). The second research question (cf. 6.1) addresses this matter. A t-test was conducted to determine if the differences in the mean performance of Group One that focused on conscious learning

through formal instruction, and Group Two, that focused on natural learning in the Natural Approach, were statistically significant. Cohen's effect size d was used to indicate if the difference in the mean performance was practically significant (cf. Table 5).

Table 5 : Mean Difference between Groups

GROUPS	MEAN (\bar{X})	SD	t	p-value	d
E ₁	6,7	3,04	9,8	0,0001***	1,94 ⁺⁺⁺
E ₂	0,9	2,67	1,5	0,15	0,24 ⁺
Diff.	5,8	3,65	7,10	0,0001***	1,9 ⁺⁺⁺

Statistical Significance

- * $p < 0,05$
- ** $p < 0,01$
- *** $p < 0,001$
- **** $p < 0,0001$

Practical Significance

- + Small effect $d = 0,2$
- ++ Medium effect $d = 0,5$
- +++ Large effect $d = 0,8$

Note :

- E₁ = Group One (formal instruction)
- E₂ = Group Two (Natural Approach)
- SD = standard deviation
- t = t-test
- p-value = probability value
- d = effect size
- Diff. = difference between groups

The results of this t-test indicate that the pupils' performance in Group One was statistically significant ($p < 0,001$), whereas the pupils' performance in Group Two was not statistically significant. A large effect size ($d > 0,8$), was also established for the pupils' performance in Group One. The difference between Group One and Group Two seems to have an important practical significance ($d = 1,9$)(cf. Table 5). It can, therefore, be assumed that formal instruction contributes statistically and practically significantly more than the Natural

Approach to the pupils' proficiency in using the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses in English. It can also be assumed that the positive role hypothesized for formal instruction (cf. 1.3) has been statistically confirmed.

6.4 Discussion of Results

The results of this study seem to indicate that a fairly high statistical significance ($p < 0,001$) was established for the role of formal instruction in the Communicative Approach to SLA. The large effect sizes established for the pupils' performance in Group One within the group ($d > 0,6$) and between groups ($d > 0,8$), seem to suggest that teachers might be well advised to incorporate formal instruction in their teaching of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses within the Communicative Approach. The small effect sizes established for the pupils' performance in Group Two within the group ($d > 0,15$) and between groups ($d > 0,2$) respectively, seem to indicate that teachers could incorporate the Natural Approach in their teaching of the target grammatical structures within the Communicative Approach, although not to the same extent as formal instruction. The emphasis in CLT, then, fall on formal instruction as a teaching strategy in the Communicative Approach to SLA.

However, the positive results identified for the role of formal instruction in the present study, may possibly have been influenced by the fact that this particular Std 9 group was highly motivated to perform well in all their subjects, including English. Conscious learning which also demands a considerable amount of effort from the pupil (cf. 5.5.3), would be considered a challenge to ambitious pupils. Practising target grammatical structures may become very

boring to less motivated pupils, even though these structures are presented in meaningful contexts. The pupils' proficiency in the use of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses in English may possibly be affected adversely. Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis (cf. 3.4.1.5) may, therefore, possibly have had an influence on the positive results of the study.

The longitudinal effect of formal instruction as a teaching technique within the Communicative Approach could not be established. As previously mentioned (cf. 5.6) no second posttest was administered due to practical circumstances. However, the results of the study seem to have established a positive short-term effect of formal instruction on pupils' proficiency in the use of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses in English.

6.5 Conclusion

Researchers have attempted to address the role of formal instruction in the code-communication dilemma (cf. 4.4) since the beginning of the 1970's. Although the controversies surrounding the peripheral role of grammar have not yet been resolved, a positive role for formal instruction has been identified in ISLA-research. The present empirical investigation of the role of formal instruction in the Communicative Approach has shown that formal instruction may possibly have an important, as well as significant, effect on the learner's proficiency in the use of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses in English.

With regard to the questions posed in chapter 1 and at the beginning of this chapter, the

results of the present study indicate the following:

- * a statistically significant as well as practically significant contribution of formal instruction to ESL proficiency in the use of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses,
- * that formal instruction contributes statistically and practically significantly more than the Natural Approach to the acquisition of these specific tenses within the Communicative Approach,
- * a minimal practically significant, but not statistically significant contribution of the Natural Approach to pupils' ESL proficiency in using the specific tenses.

The findings in this study cannot provide a clear-cut solution to the code-communication dilemma in SLA; instead, they point toward evidence that may help solve some of the controversies about the peripheral role of formal instruction in the Communicative Approach.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

7.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide some tentative conclusions about the role of formal instruction in SLA within the Communicative Approach. Some implications of the results for SLA and second-language teaching are also discussed. Recommendations for future research are then indicated.

7.2 Hypothesis

With regard to the hypothesis posed at the outset of this study (cf. 1.3) the following conclusions can be drawn:

The results indicate that the formal instruction of grammar contributes *statistically significantly* more ($p < 0,001$) than the Natural Approach ($p = 0,15$) to SLA within the Communicative Approach. The results furthermore indicate that the formal instruction of grammar contributes *practically significantly* more ($d > 0,8$) than the Natural Approach ($d > 0,2$) to SLA within the Communicative Approach. It is, then, possible to accept the hypothesis posed in section 3 of chapter 1.

7.3 Some Tentative Conclusions and Implications for Second Language Teaching

The findings of this study point toward evidence which identifies a highly significant role for the formal instruction of grammar in the development of the learner's grammatical competence. These findings seem to be in keeping with the positive role identified for formal instruction in ISLA-research, as the literary survey in chapter 4 has indicated.

However, the tentatively positive outcome of ISLA-research findings which have identified a significant role for the formal instruction of grammar in SLA, needs to be qualified. Firstly, the theoretical interpretation of second language learning determines whether formal instruction is allowed in practice to contribute towards proficiency in English. A non-interface position which underlies the Natural Approach assigns a peripheral role to formal instruction. The adoption of this position by teachers mostly seem to result in inadequate grammatical competence of the second language learner. On the other hand, the teacher who adopts an interface position allows formal instruction to contribute toward the development of the learner's grammatical competence.

Secondly, the survey of ISLA-research has also qualified the positive effects of formal instruction by concluding tentatively that formal instruction does not alter acquisition sequences, that it probably affects SLA processes positively, that it contributes to the rate of acquisition, and that it has beneficial effects on the second language learner's ultimate level of attainment. The results of this study confirm the positive contribution of formal instruction to the rate of acquisition as well as to the accuracy level of the second language learner's grammatical competence. Second language teachers could therefore possibly include formal

instruction as a teaching technique in the Communicative Approach for the benefit of their pupils (cf. 6.4), especially as far as the teaching of tenses is concerned.

The tentative conclusions drawn from this study have focused on the findings related to code in the code-communication dilemma. Tentative conclusions on the role of natural learning also need to be drawn in an attempt to offer some evidence which might contribute toward solving the code-communication dilemma in SLA. The results of this study seem to indicate a minimal practical significance for natural learning in the classroom through use in communication. This finding also seems to be in keeping with other findings in recent ISLA-research, such as Allen's (1992) study (cf. 4.4) which suggests the possibility that the analytic, or form-focus, and the experiential, or function-focus, may be complementary. Allen (1992:16) suggest that they provide essential support for one another in the classroom.

These tentative conclusions drawn from the results of the present study and the study of Allen (1992) also seem to be echoed in the conclusion reached by Widdowson on the amalgamation of the medium and mediation views of communication (cf. 3.3.2). Widdowson (1990:123) accordingly concludes that language is "a medium for the demonstration of meaning potential but this can only be realised by mediation".

A practical implication of the tentative conclusion drawn from a possible amalgamation of the medium and mediation views of communication, is the incorporation of diverse teaching techniques. These techniques could, for example, include the use of context-based pattern drill, explicit rule formulation, noticing, consciousness-raising, problem solving activities and role play.

7.4 Recommendations for Future Research

The following research questions could afford more insight in the tentative conclusions drawn about the roles of formal instruction and the Natural Approach in the Communicative Approach.

- * What are the roles of conscious and natural learning in the acquisition of communicative competence ?
- * What kinds of formal instruction are most effective in SLA ?
- * How could Grammatical CR contribute effectively toward SLA ?

7.5 Conclusion

Although the results of this study overall indicate that the formal instruction of grammar can make a positive contribution to SLA within the Communicative Approach, it is important to realise that the conclusions drawn from the results of this study are only tentative. The questions posed as recommendations for future research indicate that the present study has possibly raised more questions about the code-communication dilemma in SLA than suggested tentative solutions.

It would therefore seem appropriate to conclude this study by quoting Lightbown's (1985:183) following observation on the significance of language acquisition research to

teachers: "Language acquisition research can offer no formulas, no recipes, but it is an essential component of teacher education, because it can give teachers appropriate expectations for themselves and their students".

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SUMMARY

The role of grammar in second language teaching has changed drastically in the past fifty years. The central role of grammar as the organizing principle in the Grammar-Translation Method, the Audiolingual Method and the Cognitive Code Method, has changed to a peripheral role with the advent of the Communicative and the Natural Approaches. The amalgamation of the latter approaches has led to the claim of banning all formal grammar teaching from the curriculum. The introduction of natural learning in the second language classroom through use in communication was favoured instead. The confusion caused by changed perceptions of second language acquisition (SLA) is known as the code-communication dilemma.

A whole body of research was launched in the field of instructed second language acquisition (ISLA) to address the code-communication dilemma which has become a major concern to second language teachers in the past twenty years. However, very little research on the role of formal instruction in the Communicative Approach has been conducted at senior secondary level in English second language classrooms in South Africa.

Therefore, this study offers an empirical investigation of the role of formal instruction in the development of pupils' proficiency in the use of the present and past perfect and perfect continuous tenses in English. A review of literature which deals with the teaching of grammar in major methods and approaches, as well as a survey of ISLA-research on the role of formal instruction, precedes the empirical investigation.

The results of the study seem to indicate a significant role for formal instruction. English second language teachers who follow the Communicative Approach may, then, find it worth their while to implement formal instruction to develop their pupils' proficiency in the use of tenses in English.

OPSOMMING

Die rol van grammatika in tweedetaalonderrig het drasties verander in die afgelope vyftig jaar. Die sentrale rol van grammatika as die bepalende faktor in die Grammatika-Vertalingsmetode, die Audiolinguietiese Metode en die Kognitiewe Kode Metode, het periferaal geword met die verskyning van die Kommunikatiewe en die Natuurlike Benaderings. Die samesmelting van laasgenoemde twee benaderings het gelei tot die bewering dat alle formele onderrig van grammatika uit die kurrikulum verban moes word. Die daarstelling van 'n natuurlike leermetode in die tweedetaal klaskamer met behulp van kommunikasie het voorkeur geniet. Die verwarring wat ontstaan het as gevolg van veranderde persepsies oor tweedetaalverwerwing, staan bekend as die kode-kommunikasie dilemma.

'n Hele navorsingsaksie is in die veld van onderrigte tweedetaalverwerwing geloods om die kode-kommunikasie dilemma wat in die afgelope twintig jaar besonder kommerwekkend vir tweedetaal onderwysers geword het, aan te spreek. Baie min navorsing oor die rol van formele onderrig binne die Kommunikatiewe Benadering is reeds op senior sekondêre vlak in Engelse tweedetaal klaskamers in Suid-Afrika gedoen.

Dus bied die huidige studie 'n empiriese ondersoek na die rol van formele onderrig in die ontwikkeling van die leerlinge se taalgebruiksvermoë in bepaalde teenwoordige en verlede tye in Engels. 'n Bespreking van die literatuur wat handel oor die onderrig van grammatika in die belangrikste metodes en benaderings, asook 'n oorsig van die rol van formele onderrig in onderrigte tweedetaalverwerwing, gaan die empiriese ondersoek vooraf.

Die resultaat van die studie identifiseer 'n positiewe rol vir formele onderrig. Tweedetaal onderwysers in Engels wat die Kommunikatiewe Benadering volg, mag dit dus nuttig vind om formele onderrig toe te pas ten einde hulle leerlinge se begrip en gebruik van tye in Engels te bevorder.

METHODS AND TECHNIQUES APPLIED IN FORMAL INSTRUCTION

- **DEDUCTIVE METHOD : COGNITIVE CODE**
 - **Learner**
 - * A conscious attempt of the learner to make explicit the underlying grammatical rules of the language structures. This attempt was aided by the teacher during the final stages of rule-formulation in order to ensure accurate rule-internalization.
 - **Teacher**
 - * A conscious focusing on the selection of materials allowing for the meaningful and graded practice and use of language.

- **INDUCTIVE METHOD : AUDIOLINGUALISM**
 - **Dialogues**
 - * Rule explanation and formula memorization of the model dialogue.
 - **Pattern Drill**
 - * Formula memorization and guided manipulation of the structures, transformations.
 - **Substitution Drill**
 - * Guided use of the structures done orally and then in writing.
 - **Contextualization**
 - * Use of the structures in writing : SG guided use; HG used freely.

- **INTEGRATION OF NOTIONAL/FUNCTIONAL CONCEPTS AND THE FORMAL INSTRUCTION OF SELECTED GRAMMATICAL FEATURES**
 - **Model Dialogue**
 - * The emphasis was not only on the structure as such, but was also related to the learner's probable community experience - discussion of the function and situation - people, roles, setting, topic and register (formality and informality).
 - **Pattern Drill**
 - * The focus was on interaction : pairwork; interaction between teacher and pupils; interaction between half-class and groups. Repetition of the structures was alternated to avoid boredom. Transformations were practised.
 - * Development into questions and answers was based on the model dialogue and situation itself, e.g. inverted wh, or or questions.
 - * Development into questions and answers was related to the students' personal experiences, but centred on the dialogue theme, and focusing on the grammatical structures.
 - **Substitution Drill**
 - * The guided use of structures concentrating on using the correct form of the structures in the appropriate register.
 - **Noticing and Understanding**
 - * The recognition and discussion of grammatical structures.
 - **Oral Production Activities**
 - * Proceeding from guided to freer communication activities, in which the grammatical structures were implemented.

- **Contextualization**

- * The written implementation of grammatical structures in communicative activities, e.g. the letter writing of an informal letter to a friend complaining about the lack of communication between the teenager and his parents.

- **Editing**

- * Done orally and in writing by the teacher and the students in their groups and in pairs.

- **TECHNIQUES APPLIED IN FOLLOWING THE NATURAL APPROACH**
 - **Comprehensible Input**
 - * Presentation of comprehensible input in the target language at $x + i$ level by the teacher/researcher maintaining a constant flow of information containing the target grammatical structures to be acquired. However, no conscious attention was paid to grammatical features.
 - Command based activities from Total Physical Response (TPR).
 - Direct method activities in which mime, gesture and context were used to elicit questions and answers.
 - Group-work activities emphasizing sharing information in order to complete a task, e.g. the completion of a questionnaire.
 - **Role Play**
 - * Interviews were held between counsellors and teenagers, famous film stars, etc.
 - **Monitoring**
 - * Pupils were only expected to monitor their written output.
 - **Discussions**
 - * Oral production activities.
 - **Articles**
 - * Additional texts were discussed to provide acquisition-rich input. The teacher deliberately used the target grammatical structures frequently in her output.
 - **Creative Production**
 - * Writing a story; compiling a questionnaire; compiling an interview.

LEARNER ACTIVITIES IN THIS STUDY

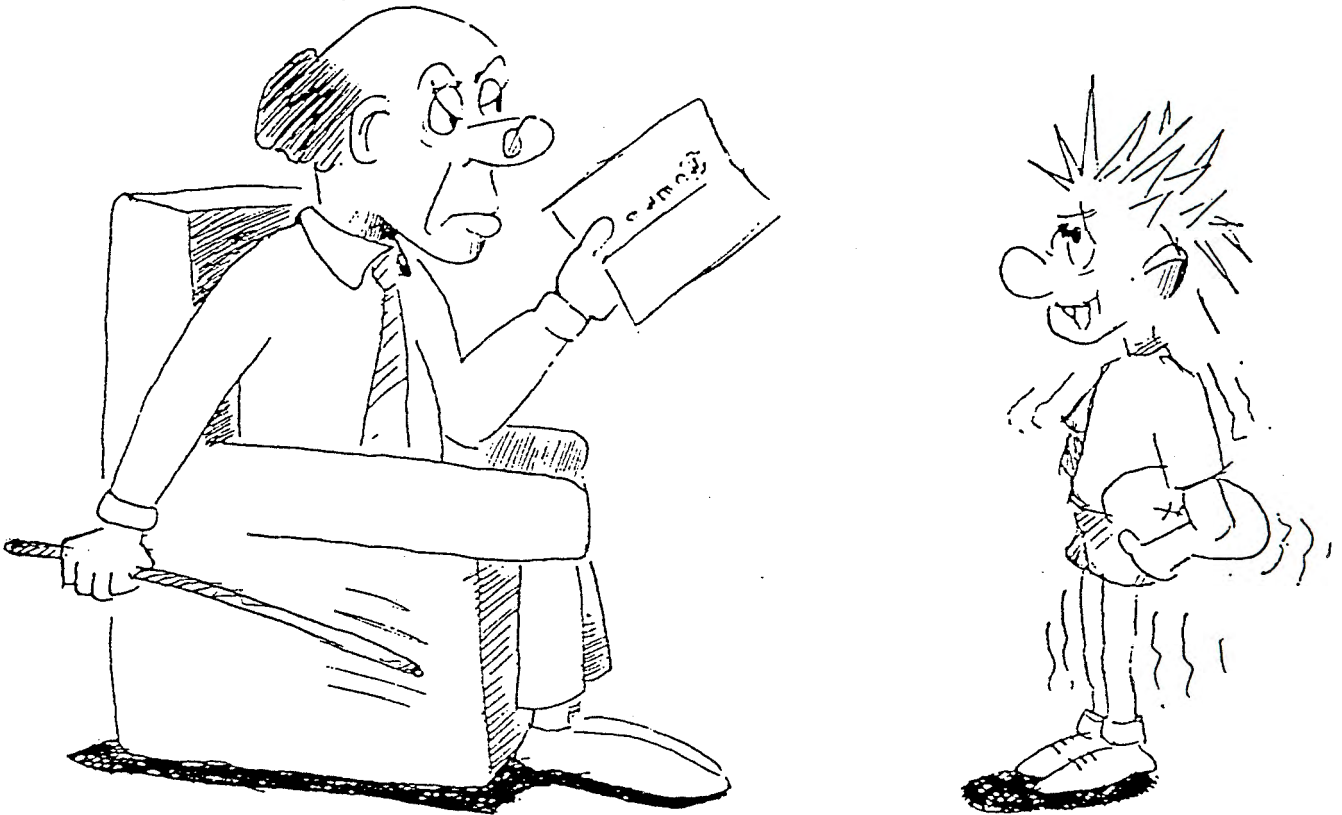
AIM: To acquire the present and past perfect, and present and past perfect continuous tenses.

PERIOD	FORMAL INSTRUCTION	NATURAL APPROACH
I	<p>Pupils listened to recorded reading of first five paragraphs "Shadows on the Wall". Discussion of situation: lack of communication between father and son. Pupils had to comment on: "He has tried five times to talk to me but I don't know what he wants". Explored significance, grammatical and situational, of e.g. <u>he has tried</u> in relation to <u>I don't know</u>.</p> <p>Consciousness - raising to present perfect tense.</p> <p>Handouts containing rules distributed to pupils.</p>	<p>Distance emphasized between father and son; body language and TPR: Demonstrated to the class where and how far apart they were sitting in hut. Demonstrated to class how you would indicate to your mother or father that they <u>hadn't been treating</u> you well lately. Led to free discussion. Teacher used perfect and perfect continuous tenses intentionally in questions.</p>
II	<p>Pupils asked to comment on the following grammatical and thematic key sentences after having read the story at home: "Next day I <u>found</u> the nestlings dead in their nest. Somewhere out in the bush or in the yellow ripe unharvested fields, someone <u>had shot</u> their mother in midflight home". They were asked to identify and list past perfect tenses in the story. Pair work. They then compared present and past tenses and formulated rules themselves. Rule-formation by teacher, if necessary. Rule internalization. Pupils practiced use of tenses by doing exercises distributed to them for homework.</p>	<p>Pupils were asked to show pictures illustrating lack of communication between teenagers and parents. They had to explain why they chose pictures and then related pictures to story which they had to read at home. They had to point out the similarities and differences between fictional situations. Only target language could be used as part of Direct Method. Important influence of past events on present relationship emphasized without drawing attention to grammatical features.</p>
III	<p>Model dialogue containing perfect and perfect continuous tenses relating to situation: Communication gap between teenager and parent apparent in dialogue. Formula memorization done by class as a whole. Pair work: Substitution - reverse situation, i.e. good communication. Implementation of grammatical rules internalized. Implementation: pupils wrote own dialogues in class. Correct exercises done for homework. Memorized dialogues for role play and did selected language exercises for homework.</p>	<p>Aural stimulus: Pupils listened to taped telephone conversation. Conversation simulated real-life situation by presenting "life-line". Teenager desperately in need of help phoned "life-line" and sketched lack of communication at home. Contained target structures. Counsellor gave advice. Perfect and perfect continuous tenses used in conversation, but no explicit reference made to tenses in discussion following tape. Pupils worked in pairs devising their own telephone conversation. SG provided with key words. Pupils monitored their written parts for telephone conversation at home.</p>
IV	<p>Dialogues performed by pupils, class had to listen for correct use of perfect and perfect continuous tenses. Best dialogue HG and best dialogue SG were chosen. Pupils copied best dialogues on chalkboard. Corrected previous exercises and received language exercises for homework.</p>	<p>Dialogues performed by pupils, class evaluated dialogues according to pupils' natural language proficiency and communicative abilities. Pupils copied best dialogues, one HG and one SG, on chalkboard.</p>
V	<p>Class pretended that they were eavesdropping. Reported what they had heard to partners. Teacher selected three pairs to report conversation in front of class. Pupils had to listen for accurate use of perfect and perfect continuous structures in reported speech, after teacher had focused their attention on rules written on chalkboard. Pupils then corrected their own reported speeches in pairs. Edited for incorrect use of target structures. Answers to language exercises corrected.</p>	<p>Class pretended to be eavesdropping. Reported what they heard to partners. Teacher selected three pairs to report conversation in front of class. Pupils had to listen for accurate conveyance of message as a whole, tone and register had to be conveyed accurately as well. Pupils' attention was therefore focused on message. Language errors were not pointed out. No error-correction done except when communication was seriously impaired.</p>

PERIOD	FORMAL INSTRUCTION	NATURAL APPROACH
VI	Reinforcement of perfect and perfect continuous tenses by writing an informal letter. Composition of model letter by means of group-work. Various groups were responsible for various paragraphs. Work sheets containing time words such as 'for', 'lately', 'after' and 'since' distributed among groups. Editing: emphasis on accurate use of perfect and perfect continuous tenses. Letter written by a class as a whole, language errors corrected by teacher. Letter copied onto chalkboard, pupils copied letter into their books.	Emphasis on appropriate style used when writing an informal letter. Letters from previous year's pupils read aloud to class. Pupils had to listen attentively and had to evaluate appropriateness of style. Discussion focused on style in free conversation. Pupils suggested topics concerning generation gap about which they would like to write. Pupils wrote letters individually in class. No attention was drawn to perfect and perfect continuous tenses. Use of language monitored at home.
VII	Editing of own letters written at home. Pupils corrected errors. Reinforcement of perfect and perfect continuous tenses. Conscious focus on rules, especially on conjunctions.	Monitoring of letters in groups. Weaker pupils aided by group leaders. Concentrated on use of informal style and appropriate use of vocabulary. Clarity of message also very important. Incidental questions on accuracy of language use in general explained.
VIII	Three pupils were asked to read first two pages of "Masilo's Adventures". Pupils followed in their books. Pupils were asked to recognise and jot down examples of the perfect and perfect continuous tenses. Brief revision of rules. Comparison of function, grammatical and thematic, of perfect and perfect continuous tenses in this story to "Shadows on the Wall". Language exercises containing target structures given for homework.	Three pupils were asked to read first two pages of "Masilo's Adventures". Pupils followed in their books. Pupils were asked to mime communication between parent and child as portrayed in "Masilo's Adventures". A "director" was chosen for each scene. He/she had to explain the significance of body language etc. to class.
IX	Pattern drill and substitution drill. Pupils checked list of perfect and perfect continuous tenses made while reading rest of story at home. Did pattern drill by reading sentences on chalkboard. Suggested sentences in contrasting tense by applying internalized rules. Worked in pairs - compiled own substitution table with teacher's help in supplying examples of various forms e.g. Wh questions, negatives, question tags, various pronouns. Classwork followed by practising transformation of structures in exercises selected for homework.	Teacher initiated discussion "Like father, like son", by referring to film stars or sport heroes whose children take after them. Teacher referred to appearance, characteristics, etc. Magazine articles were used. Teacher used perfect and perfect continuous tenses in discussion. Pupils worked in pairs telling each other how they had recently met a friend and had noticed how much the friend's personality/appearance had come to resemble his/her mother's/father's.
X	Reinforcement of perfect and perfect continuous tenses. Pupils read their substitution tables to class. Immediate, oral correction by teacher and rule explanation, when necessary. Most accurate and situation - related substitution chosen by class and entered into language books. Answers to exercises also corrected.	Interview: Pupils listened to tape of interview held by a reporter from SABC with a famous filmstar's daughter/son. Pupils worked in groups of four. Role play: they had to stage the interviews in front of "TV cameras". Body language, as well as language, focusing on effective communication.
XI	Conscious focus on sequence of tenses - perfect and perfect continuous tenses as structural aids in composition of short story. Pupils constructed their own stories by using time words written on chalkboard: "Before", "After", "When", "Since", "For", etc. Story <u>had to be</u> short, follow a linear pattern and had to contain a fairy-tale element. Pupils drafted their essays at home and edited drafts for correct use of target structures.	Actual performance of interviews. Evaluation informal and focused on communicative skills. Evaluation done by class as a whole.
XII	Pupils read their individually written stories to class, concentrating on reading technique and emphasizing use of perfect and perfect continuous structures, especially as linking devices. Class evaluated pupils' compositions by assessing use of grammatical structures in a creative framework. Best story chosen and copied onto poster for class decoration. Groupwork.	Pupils watched teacher/researcher telling a story containing several examples of present and past perfect aspect. They had to concentrate on story-telling technique, dramatization, etc. Prepared their own stories at home, concentrating on clarity of message and on creativity. Monitor used for clarity in language use, syntax, concord, etc.

PERIOD	FORMAL INSTRUCTION	NATURAL APPROACH
XIII	<p><u>Editing</u>: Pupils edited one another's stories in groups. Group leaders corrected weaker pupils' grammatical errors, concentrating on perfect and perfect continuous tenses after conscious repetition and explanation of rules by teacher. Entered essays into books, underlined tenses and time-words.</p>	<p>Pupils told stories to class, concentrating on communicative skills, such as clarity, fluency, dramatization, etc. Best story recorded on tape and stored in media centre for future reference. Pupils entered stories into books at home, use of Monitor to edit their stories before entering them into books.</p>
XIV	<p><u>Questionnaires</u>: Personalisation: Pupils compiled their own questionnaires in pairs, consciously using grammatical structures to set questions. Perfect and perfect continuous tenses incorporated in questions provided as guidelines. Responses <u>had to</u> contain the same tenses. Pupils edited for tense errors. Conscious focusing on grammatical structures. Oral error-correction done by class when pupils read answers to questionnaires in class.</p>	<p><u>Questionnaires</u>: Personalisation: Pupils compiled own questionnaires in pairs. Although guiding questions contained perfect and perfect continuous tenses answers did <u>not</u> need to reflect tenses as attention was not drawn to grammatical structures. Answers could be fictitious so as not to influence affective filter negatively. Answers to questionnaires: read aloud to class. Responses evaluated by class according to aptness and creativity of answers.</p>

ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE
COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AND LANGUAGE USAGE

STD 9 HGTIME: 25 minutesDATE:TOTAL: 30QUESTION 1.

The above situation may seem rather familiar to you. Let the following conversation sound familiar too by writing down the correct form of each word printed in bold. You only need to write down the correct form of the word next to the corresponding number on your answer sheet.

2.

- Father: I 1. study your report for quite a while, but I still can't understand why your average 2. drop so much since last term. That's why I called you.
- Son: As you've noticed Dad, I 3. not miss a single day at school since the beginning of this term. You must admit I 4. try very hard so far. 5
- Father: Yes, so I 5. notice, then tell me what on earth 6. you do at school for the last couple of weeks?
- Son: I guess I 7. not pay as much attention in class as I should have. We 8. practise hard for rugby lately and I was too tired to concentrate on what the teacher was saying. 10
- Father: That is no excuse! How many times I 9. tell you that life is not a game. As from today you will simply have to take your work as seriously as you 10. take your rugby up to now, or else you will have to quit playing rugby. 15
- Son: Please, Dad. Don't do that to me! I know I 11. not exactly pull my weight for the last week or two, but I promise I will show you a better report next time.
- Father: You 12. have better!

(12)

QUESTION 2

You are upset because your father doesn't seem to understand how important rugby is to you. You decide to call one of your team-mates, who is also your best friend. You complain about the lack of communication between you and your father. Report to him what your father had told you about the possibility of your having to quit playing rugby. (11. 12-15). Begin your report as follows: My dad didn't want to accept any excuses. He wanted to know how many times he

(8)

QUESTION 3

The telephone call to your friend has not really made you feel any better - he also complained about his father's lack of understanding. You finally decide to be honest with yourself and you enter the following conclusions in your diary. Jot down the questions you have asked yourself to reach the conclusions.

- 1 I have been blaming my dad for my weak results.
- 2 I haven't been serious about my work.
- 3 Since I started practising rugby, I haven't spent any time with dad.
- 4 I have decided to try my very best at school and to tell dad whenever I am really upset about something.

(5)

QUESTION 4

The next morning you feel like telling your mother about what has happened the previous day. Inform her in not more than four sentences, starting with "Yesterday", and using after and as soon as in your story.

(5)

ANSWER SHEET

QUESTION I.

1 _____	7 _____
2 _____	8 _____
3 _____	9 _____
4 _____	10 _____
5 _____	11 _____
6 _____	12 _____

(12)

QUESTION II.

My dad didn't want to accept any excuses. He wanted to know how many times he _____

(8)

QUESTION III

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

4 _____

(5)

QUESTION IV

Yesterday _____

(5)

[30]

Shadows on the Wall

Charles Mungoshi

Father is sitting just inside the hut near the door and I am sitting far across the hut near the opposite wall, playing with the shadows on the wall. Bright sunlight comes in through the doorway now and father, who blocks most of it, is reproduced in caricature on the floor and half-way up the wall. The wall and floor are bare, so he looks like a black scarecrow in a deserted field after the harvest.

Outside, the sun drops lower and other shadows start creeping into the hut. Father's shadow grows vaguer and climbs further up the wall like a ghost going up to heaven. His shadow moves behind sharper wriggling shadows like the presence of a tired old woman in a room full of young people, or like that creepy nameless feeling in a house of mourning.

He has tried five times to talk to me but I don't know what he wants. Now he talks about his other wife. He wants me to call her 'mother' but I can't because something in me cries each time I say it. She isn't my mother and my real mother is not dead. This other woman has run away. It is now the fourth time she has run away and tomorrow he is going to cycle fifty miles to her home to collect her. This will be the fourth time he has had to cycle after her. He is talking. I am not listening. He gives up.

Now the sun shines brilliantly before going down. The shadows of bushes and grass at the edge of the yard look as if they are on fire and father's features are cut more sharply and exaggerated. His nose becomes longer each time he nods because now he is sleeping while sitting, tired of the silence.

Father dozes, wakes up; dozes, wakes up and the sun goes down. His shadow expands and fades. Now it seems all over the wall, behind the other shadows, moving silently like a cold wind in a bare field. I look at him. There is still enough light for me to see the grey stubble sticking up untidily all over his face. His stubble, I know, is as still as a porcupine's, but as the light wanes now, it looks fleecy and soft like the down on a dove's nestling.

I was in the bush, long ago, and I came upon two dove nestlings.

They were still clumsy and blind, with soft pink vulnerable flesh planted with short scattered grey feathers, their mouths open, waiting for their mother. I wished I had corn to give them. As it was, I consoled myself with the thought that their mother was somewhere nearby, coming home through the bush in the falling dark with food in her mouth for her children.

Next day I found the nestlings dead in their nest. Somewhere out in the bush or in the yellow ripe unharvested fields, someone had shot their mother in mid-flight home.

Not long after that, I was on my father's shoulders coming home from the fields at dusk. Mother was still with us then, and father carried me because she had asked him to. I had a sore foot and couldn't walk and mother couldn't

carry me because she was carrying a basket of meals for our supper on her head and pieces of firewood in her arms. At first father grumbled. He didn't like to carry me and he didn't like receiving orders from mother: she was there to listen to him always, he said. He carried me all the same although he didn't like to, and worse, I didn't like him to carry me. His hands were hard and pinchy and his arms felt as rough and barky as logs. I preferred mother's soft warm back. He knew, too, that I didn't want him to carry me because I made my body stiff and didn't relax when he rubbed his hard chin against my cheek. His breath was harsh and foul. He wore his battered hat and stank of dirt, sweat and soil. He was trying to talk to me but I was not listening to him. That was when I noticed that his stubble looked as vulnerable as the unprotected feathers on a dove's nestling. Tears filled my eyes then and I tried to respond to his teasing, but I gave it up because he immediately began picking on mother and made her tense and tight and this tension I could feel in me also.

After this he always wanted me to be near him and he made me ignore mother. He taught me to avoid mother. It was hard for me but he had a terrible way of making mother look despicable and mean. She noticed this and fought hard to make me cheerful, but I always saw father's threatening shadow hunched hawkishly over me. Instead of talking to either of them I became silent. I was no longer happy in either's presence. And this was when I began to notice the shadows on the wall of our hut.

One day the eternal quarrel between mother and father flared up to an unbelievable blaze. Mother went away to her people. After an unsuccessful night full of nightmares with father in the hut, he had to follow her. There had been a hailstorm in the night and everything looked sad in the dripping chill of the next day. The small mealie plants in the yard had been destroyed by the storm; all the leaves torn off except the small hard piths which now stood about in the puddles like nails in a skull. Father went away without a word and I was alone.

I lay under the blankets for a long time with the door of the hut open. One by one, our chickens began to come in out of the cold.

There is something in a cold chicken's voice that asks for something you don't know how to give, something more than corn.

I watched them come into the hut and I felt sorry for them. Their feathers were still wet and they looked smaller and sicklier than normal. I couldn't shoo them out. They came and crowded by the fire, their little bird voices scarcely rising above the merest whisper. My eyes left them and wandered up and down the walls.

At first I couldn't see them but when one chicken made a slight move I noticed that there were shadows on the wall.

These shadows fascinated me. There were hundreds of them. I spent the whole day trying to separate them, to isolate them, but they were as elusive and liquid as water in a jar. After a long time looking at them, I felt that they were talking to me. I held my breath and heard their words distinctly, a lullaby in harmony: sleep, sleep, you are all alone, sleep and don't wake up, ever again.

I must have fallen asleep because I remember seeing later on that the sky had turned all dark and a thin chilly drizzle was falling. The chickens, which must have gone out feeling hungry, were coming in again, wet, their forlorn voices hardly audible above the sound of the rain. I knew by the multitude of shadows on the wall that night was falling. I felt too weak to wake up and for a long time watched the shadows multiply and fade, multiply, mingle and fade, and listened to their talk. Again I must have fallen asleep because when I woke up I was well tucked in and warm. The shadows were now brilliant and clear on the wall because there was a fire on the hearth.

Mother and father had come in and they were silent. Seeing them, I felt as if I were coming from a long journey in a strange country.

Mother noticed that I was awake and said,

'How do you feel?'

'He's just lazy,' father said.

'He is ill,' mother said. 'His body is all on fire.' She felt me.

'Lies. He is a man and you want to turn him into a woman.'

After this I realized how ill I was. I couldn't eat anything: there was no appetite and I wasn't hungry.

I don't know how many days I was in bed. There seemed to be nothing. No light, no sun, to show it was day or darkness to show it was night. Mother was constantly in but I couldn't recognize her as a person. There were only shadows, the voices of the shadows, the lonely cries of the dripping wet fowls shaking the cold out of their feathers by the hearth, and the vague warm shadow that must have been mother. She spoke to me often but I don't remember if I answered anything. I was afraid to answer because I was alone on a solitary plain with the dark crashing of thunder and lightning always in my ears, and there was a big frightening shadow hovering above me so that I couldn't answer her without its hearing me. That must have been father.

They might have had quarrels – I am sure they had lots of them – but I didn't hear them. Everything had been flattened to a dim depthless grey landscape and the only movement on it was of the singing shadows. I could see the shadows and hear them speak to me, so I wasn't dead. If mother talked to me at all, her voice got lost in the vast expanse of emptiness between me and the shadows. Later, when I was beginning to be aware of the change of night into day, her voice was the soft pink intrusion like cream on the hard darkness of the wall. This turned later into a clear urgent sound like the lapping of water against boulders in the morning before sunrise. I noticed too that she was often alone with me. Father was away and must have been coming in late after I had fallen asleep.

The day I saw father, a chill set in the hut.

There was another hailstorm and a big quarrel that night. It was the last quarrel.

When I could wake up again mother was gone and a strange woman had taken her place in the house.

This woman had a shrill strident voice like a cicada's that jarred my nerves.

She did all the talking and father became silent and morose. Instead of the frightful silences and sudden bursts of anger I used to know, he now tried to talk softly to me. He preferred to talk to me rather than to his new wife.

But he was too late. He had taught me silence and in that long journey between mother's time and this other woman's, I had given myself to the shadows.

So today he sits just inside the hut with the sun playing with him: cartooning him on the bare cold floor and the bare dark walls of the hut, and me watching and listening to the images on the wall. He cannot talk to me because I don't know how to answer him, his language is too difficult for me. All I can think of, the nearest I can come to him, is when I see that his tough grey stubble looks like the soft unprotected feathers on a dove's nestling; and when I remember that the next morning the nestlings were dead in their nest because somebody had unknowingly killed their mother in the bush on her way home, I feel the tears in my eyes.

It is all – all that I feel for my father; but I cannot talk to him. I don't know how I should talk to him. He has denied me the gift of language.

Masilo's Adventures

Matšabeho a leeto la Masilo

Bob Leshoai

Long, long ago – so long ago that it is really impossible to say exactly when – there lived a very, very poor woman whose name was Mosili. She had only one child, a boy, who was called Masilo. Masilo and his mother lived in a very small but neat hut. Though they were very poor and did not have many belongings they did not let the cares of life worry them. The villagers loved and respected them and brought them food and other necessities of life whenever Mosili and Masilo needed them. Mosili, like all mothers do, wished for the good things for her son. He in turn, like a good child, wished to make life easier and better for his family. Although he worked hard as a herdboyc and sometimes as a hunter, like so many other children he spent a great deal of his time day-dreaming. Many of his dreams were caused by the deep desire to see his and his mother's life change for the better one day. It must be said, straightaway, that he never thought of increasing his small earnings by cheating other people. No, he was an honest boy from an honest home!

One day a heavy hail-storm swooped down suddenly on the village like a hawk, lashing and beating men, beasts and crops and finally leaving the whole countryside roaring with destructive lively streams. When it had passed. Masilo went out to see what damage the hail had done to his maize and pumpkin field behind their hut. The black clouds were rapidly drifting away in the strong breeze, and the sun, which had broken through the clouds, was shining brightly. For a while he stood at the door of the hut and listened to the many sounds that come after a hail-storm. The half-naked little boys and girls, wearing only their *litšha** and *lithethana*** , played in the muddy puddles, shouting and screaming.

The cattle and sheep bellowed and bleated with relief. The men and women gathered in loud-voiced groups, viewing and discussing the results of the storm. The birds circled in the sky or sang in the trees. Numerous babbling and chattering streams chased down the hillside into the valley below. He called his mother to join him in enjoying the richness and pleasantness of the air that always refreshes the countryside after a rain. The sky was soon very clear, as they say, 'clear even at the dog's in-laws', and across the western sky there was a beautiful rainbow which looked like a girl's large necklace.

The gods are always kind to the poor and needy! When Masilo and his

* *litšha*: loin cloths or skins worn by boys

** *lithethana*: short beaded aprons worn at the front and back by girls

to find that no great damage had been caused by the storm. Like all the other people, they hailed the passers-by and asked questions about what damage it had or had not done to so-and-so's fields.

When the excitement had died down and people had gone back to their daily routines, Masilo sat by his mother and watched her prepare the evening meal. The sun was rapidly sinking in the west. When the food was ready they sat outside on a low mud wall and talked about the moon and the stars and the night noises. And it was his last conversation that made Masilo ask, 'But tell me, mother, where does the rainbow begin and where does it end?'

'My child, you ask very difficult questions,' she said in good humour. In the dark night her white teeth gleamed from the glow of the red logs.

'But yes, mother, you always say a man must ask questions. Isn't that what you always tell me?' he asked, putting his arm affectionately on her shoulders.

She did not answer him, for her mind had suddenly drifted into the distant, silent past. His eager questions and his tender touch had reminded her of his long-dead father. He had always asked questions when the men met either to work or sing or play or drink, until he was nick-named Ralipotso, 'the one who asks questions'. After a short silence she chuckled and said, 'Yes, Masilo, I'm afraid you are fast following in your father's footsteps.' And then seriously – so seriously that Masilo sat up and listened with pricked ears, 'It was he who told me the answer to your first question.'

'And what did he tell you, mother?' he asked, gently turning her towards him until their noses almost touched. She chuckled lovingly before she taunted him with a tickling finger on his chin as she said, 'The too-curious always get hurt.'

'Oh, please mother, stop your playing, please,' he pleaded, getting up from the low wall and kneeling before her with her hands in his and his eyes burning with the desire to know the answer.

She became grave again and said to him, 'Your father once told me that nobody knew where the rainbow started and where it ended. But he did say that it started in a pot of gold and ended also in a pot of gold.'

He almost pulled her off the low wall with excitement as he jumped to his feet and eagerly asked, 'Is this really true, mother?'

She answered firmly but tenderly, 'My child, Masilo, we never question the dead, my child. The spirits of the dead are always around to hear us if we abuse them; so be careful my child, be careful.'

These words subdued him and he sank onto the mat at his mother's feet and pleaded, 'Forgiveness, mother, forgiveness.' He saw her nod her head and sit for a moment like a statue with her hands clasped.

'It's time to sleep now, my child,' she said. She picked up the eating things and he picked up the mat while she led the way into the house. He lingered outside for a while, rolling up the mat, and then wetted his index finger with spittle, flipped it with determination and swore, 'By the gods, the next time I see the rainbow, I shall walk to where it begins or ends!' And, of course, a Mosotho boy never swears vainly in this fashion.

the rains just come, and it can be dangerous, especially in the mountain regions, when there is lightning and thunder. In the afternoons, especially on very hot days, thick black clouds usually roll up like dense smoke over the mountains. Before long the winds howl, carrying dense clouds of blinding and stinging red dust. Soon after, the black clouds rumble with loud thunderous noises and the lightning draws vicious snake-like flashes across the heavens. Sometimes like a flaming pillar, the lightning strikes the mountain-tops, dislodging huge rocks which tumble down and crush anything in their path. It is at such times that witchcraft is always feared, for people or families who are quarrelling are believed to employ evil witches who make the lightning strike across the skies, causing death to innocent people.

So it was then that soon afterwards the rains came again and Masilo saw the beautiful rainbow. He had known it would not be long before the rainbow re-appeared, so he had packed his few clothes days before and had discussed his proposed journey with his mother. Though she feared for his life, she could not refuse him permission to go because she believed what his father had told her. Masilo put on his grass hat and took his stick, to which he had tied his small bundle of clothes, and left his mother watching him with tearful eyes from the door of their hut. She felt proud as he strode manfully away, looking very much like his father. As he disappeared in the distance without having once looked back, she sent after him a silent prayer for his safety from deep down in her heart.

Masilo walked that whole day without meeting any problems; but in the afternoon of the following day, at just about the time the cattle leave the grazing fields, he came to a deep and broad river. Although he was a strong swimmer he knew it was a dangerous thing to cross a river far from a drinking place. Animals are very wise and they never drink where there may be crocodiles. Masilo therefore followed the course of the river, trying to find a drinking place. He found one shortly after sunset and was preparing to cross when he heard a very feeble voice call his name. He swung round with his stick, ready for action. His heart was beating fast as he looked here and there and over there for the voice that had called him. Something began to move under a nearby bush and called feebly, 'Masilo my child, come near.' It was a very weak and trembling voice. Masilo approached slowly and carefully, stopping frequently to examine what now appeared to be a human being. When he was very near, the thing moved and called again; and with the agility of a leopard he leapt backwards, brandishing his *molamu*-stick threateningly and saying, 'Hey you thing, I'll finish you if you are not careful.' The voice came back, sadder and more pitiful, 'Please, child of my child, help an old and powerless woman, my child.' He approached, for even the cruellest man would have been touched by the sad voice. When he was near enough he bent down on his knees and by the light of the moon saw that it was an old – very old – and wrinkled, but not sickly, woman. She was just very, very old.

His strong young heart melted in the gaze of her dim and watery eyes and

'Carry me across the wide river, Masilo, to the other bank where I have urgent business to do,' was her quick reply.

'But grandmother, how did you know my name? I've never seen you, neither have you seen me.'

'My child, ask no questions, for my business is urgent.'

But Masilo was determined to ask more questions, so he said, 'And what is this urgent business, grandmother?' because he was still very suspicious of the old woman.

Her voice came back, feebly but with determination. 'You prattling child, do as I have asked. I'm not in the habit of being questioned like this by suckling boys who still smell of their mother's milk.'

Masilo was moved by both pity and fear, and so he took her gently onto his back and half-waded, half-swam across the wide river, hardly feeling the load on his back. She clung to him like a bush monkey. As he waded through the last few feet of water she spoke feebly but gently. 'Accept my thanks, child of my elder brother. May the ancestors always be with you.' He began to climb the sandy banks of the river, and as he landed, with a last great effort, she sighed with much relief and loosened her grip on his shoulders. The water dripping from his body, he mopped his wet brow. She spoke again:

'Now carry me to that bush there nearer the ant-hill and leave me there.'

His relief was too great for him to ask any questions so he walked to the bush and gently laid her down on a patch of green grass. 'Accept my thanks again, child of my brother. Go well, and may the ancestors look after you.'

'I thank you, my grandmother,' he said and vanished into the night.

But he didn't go very far, as the bush was dense and he was afraid of wild beasts. He climbed up a tall tree and spent the night in its safe branches. Next morning he gathered wild roots and fruits and ate them on his long journey. He was still quite certain of the direction in which one of the ends of the rainbow had been, so he walked in that way. Secretly he hoped that he didn't have to walk for many days. He walked during the day and slept at night; and soon he began to feel very tired because he had now reached rough and hilly ground. Because of his fatigue he completely forgot his strange meeting with the old woman. He also began to have two hearts about whether he should return to his poor mother or continue the journey. When his bad heart told him to return, he would remember how he had sworn by the fireside that night. This would, therefore, give him courage to continue. He was also worried now because there were no roots to eat and no sign of any animals. Only threatening vultures and eagles circled and glided above and around him and followed him till sunset each day.

At the end of one rather long, hungry and thirsty day's march he saw a distant light in the semi-darkness. His heart leapt for joy and his legs felt stronger and his spirits rose so that he began to hum a low marching song. As the darkness grew, the light became more distinct and seemed to come nearer. Many thoughts troubled his mind, but later he thought it might be

as he doubted his own thoughts. 'Isn't it true that boys only go to the meadows in the winter when the grazing lands are empty and dry?' he asked himself aloud. And his voice and the muffled sound of his feet echoed into the night around him. He broke into a steady trot, his mouth watering with anticipation. Slowly he drew nearer and nearer the light. It was now quite clear it was the light of a home fire, for hadn't he come home several times at night guided by the friendliness of a home fire? His fear gave way to more pleasant thoughts of a kindly and welcoming woman, or of laughing and eating mountain herdboys. 'Yes,' he murmured to himself. 'I can now smell the aroma of meat grilled on the bare coals.' And he sniffed the clean mountain air. He was soon standing at the gaping mouth of a huge cave through which came the inviting smell of the roasting meat. The fire was made of large logs and crackled loudly, sending the sparks in all directions; but there was no sound or sign of life inside the cave. All that he could hear was the crackling of the fire and his own heavy breathing.

He took a few steps into the cave and coughed. The sound travelled down its length and died in the distance, while he stood and listened for voices or movement. The deathly silence chilled his blood: his curly hair stood upright, his skin tingled and his ears buzzed. He shook his head and spoke emphatically: 'By my mother who bore me, this is a strange place! Travel shows us many things, indeed.' His voice echoed down the empty cave and left him colder than before. He was now resolved to hail the silent inhabitants of the cave so he cupped his hands and called 'I greet you, young men of the meadows!'

At each shout his voice quivered down the hollow cave and died in its dark and mysterious depths.

'Friends! Accept my greetings! I'm no enemy! Do you hear me?'

He stopped and listened, but the only sound was the echo of his voice down the empty cave.

'In truth this is strange,' he sighed softly. 'This must be the home of zombies!' he half-screamed with desperation. Then he tried again.

'I greet you, respectable ones of this cave. Greetings to you inside there, respectable ones!'

Then just as he thought, 'Perhaps this is where the rainbow begins or ends and where all the gold is,' he heard the shuffling sound of what seemed to be very big feet. He had such a shock when the owner of the feet did appear that he yelled 'Mother!' and dropped his stick.

It was a tall woman whose body was twice the size of that of ordinary human beings. The severe look in her face rooted him to the ground; and he looked at her with bulging eyes. She approached rapidly and spoke urgently, 'Child, this is Limo's place and I'm his wife. No one who ever enters here goes out. You should never have come.'

He wanted to answer but his tongue was heavy. She saw the fear in his eyes and took pity on him, catching hold of his hand as though to rush him away to a place of safety. Instantly both were frozen like statues by the gruff and

'Wife,' he called out, 'my traps were empty today, but it does appear that the game has brought itself to the hunter.' And so saying, he laughed and his laughter echoed and re-echoed down the dark depths of the cave. Masilo swerved round and fell at Limo's feet, pleading for his life; but Limo merely lifted him up with his two fingers and dropped him into his hunting sack, tied it securely and put it in a special room where he also kept his treasure of gold locked in a huge steel box.

Now Limo was very tired, for he had walked all day in search of game without any success. After his wife had fed him a huge dish of porridge and half a buck he went to sleep, determined to boil Masilo next day in a huge pot. Before long he was snoring loudly and sleeping soundly.

His wife, who was filled with pity for Masilo, crept into Limo's bedroom and took from him the keys to the special room. Then she went into the room and quickly released Masilo, loading him with many pieces of rich gold and sending him on his way with instructions to run all night and never look back. She put a huge stone into the sack, tied it as before, replaced the keys where she had found them and went to sleep. Once Masilo was outside the cave he ran like a hare without once looking back. As he ran he thought of how his and his mother's life would be changed if he got home with all the gold. He had also now completely forgotten about reaching the place where the rainbow ends or begins. At about day-break he reached the ant-hill where he had left the old woman, days ago. His heart sank when he saw again the small bundle under the bush and heard its voice calling him.

He was now no longer afraid of the old woman so he went over to her and took her on his back, carrying her across the river to leave her, as she asked, where he had first found her. She thanked him and gave him three tiny pebbles, and told him that whenever he was in trouble he should throw one to the ground and wish anything and it would happen. He thanked her for the pebbles and began his long walk with his heavy load, back to his native village where his mother was waiting for him. By the time the cattle went out to their grazing he was very, very far from Limo's cave. Limo was now up, boiling water in the big pot to cook Masilo. His wife went about her work as though nothing were wrong. The greedy and sourfaced Limo was waiting for the water to boil, and while he waited he sat next to the fire chewing bones to sharpen his teeth. He was a very nasty and untidy monster who kept on spitting chewed bones into his flaming fire. His wife did not like him, for he was cruel to her. He starved her and never allowed her to see the gold he had hoarded in the cave. At times he would eat a whole buck in her presence without even offering her the tripe, which is what women like best. As for his habit of eating human flesh - oh! how she hated the monster!

When the morning dews began to disappear from the grasses the water in the pot boiled and Limo rose from his seat to fetch his 'venison,' as he always referred to humans. He lifted up the sack and found it heavy. He grinned and exclaimed, 'What fat venison! I shall eat till the fat drips off my finger.' His

wife heard him and she thought to herself, 'Well, fine venison indeed you shall have today!'

Limo unlaced his hunting sack and had it ready to empty the contents into the steaming water. He stood towering over the boiling pot and shook into it the contents of his sack. There was a great splash followed by a loud crash and the pot split into numerous fragments. The boiling water burnt his face and body and feet and he ran out like a madman.

When he discovered how his wife had cheated him, he threatened her with a big spiked stick but she pleaded for mercy. Limo would have beaten her, but he had no time, as he was determined to recapture Masilo. Limo could run very fast!

He quickly took up his sack and followed Masilo, guided by his nostrils, like a dog. He strode over the mountains as though they were small ant-hills and soon saw Masilo. He went even faster. Masilo heard the sound of his running and loud breathing and he thought of the pebbles the old woman had given him. He did not look back, but took out one of the pebbles and threw it to the ground and wished that it turned into a tall tree with a trunk so big that it would block Limo's way. The tree instantly appeared and Masilo climbed high up into its branches. A slippery moss grew on the trunk and made it impossible for Limo to climb; so he ran home to fetch his great axe. This gave Masilo time to climb down and run again.

He could now see the smoke from the fires at his village rise like lazy serpents into the still hot afternoon air. Soon Limo was back with his axe and a few hefty strokes toppled the tree. Masilo heard its loud noise as it fell. Now Limo raced towards his quarry like a greyhound after a hare. Again Masilo heard his steps and his loud breathing close behind, so he took out the second pebble and threw it to the ground, wishing it to turn into a high, high mountain. Instantly the mountain was there, with Masilo on the other side. Limo realised he could not cross the mountain so he ran back to his cave and brought back with him a sharp hoe. Masilo could now see the people of the village moving about like tiny insects, and he regained courage. He began to call his mother's name, hoping that he might be heard by them, but his voice could not reach so far. He heard Limo furiously dig a path through the mountain. His knees felt weak but he ran and never looked back. A few whacks with the hoe opened a wide path and Limo started to chase Masilo again like a wild stallion chasing a mare. His feet sounded like the hooves of a horse. Masilo could feel his hot breath all around his ears; so he threw down another stone and wished that it would turn into a broad, deep, and swift river.

Such a river immediately separated Masilo from Limo, whose eyes were now red like burning coals. His nostrils looked like open pits. He was grinding his teeth and shouting insults at Masilo. Masilo did not look back; he just ran and ran. The furious Limo was back at his cave like a flash of lightning. He snatched a huge bucket and before you could count five he was back at the river scooping up buckets full of water. The water flowed as though it had rained, but the river remained full. Limo's whole body was dripping with

sweat. When he saw that Masilo was near his village he worked even harder. He leaped into the air; he shook his fists, he danced like a crazy top, but nothing frightened Masilo. He just ran and ran and ran and never looked back. And the river flowed furiously and its waters rose like the waters of the sea when there is a strong wind.

Masilo was now within shouting distance of the village and his shouts attracted the people, as did Limo's mad noises and the sound of the mighty river. When Limo realised that Masilo was on the outskirts of the village he dived into the roaring stream in desperation. But he was already so worn out that he was soon carried away in the strong current and drowned in the deep seas far away.

Masilo's mother and the villagers were happy to see him alive. He built his mother a beautiful house and bought her many cattle and sheep and he was respected and loved by all the people for his courage and sacrifices for his mother's sake. Months later he rode with young men of the village on beautiful horses to bring Limo's wife to live with them in the village. She was happy to live a new and virtuous life, and with her cruel husband's treasure, helped all the people of the village to build beautiful houses and to buy fat cattle and sheep.

As for the old woman, Masilo never found out what happened to her, and what her urgent business was across the river.

And thus ends the story!

Language Tool- box

I Present Perfect Tense

A. When to use it: 1. For past events with results in the present time. Past → Present

Examples

He has tried five times to talk to me, but I (still) don't know what he wants. 'Shadows on the Wall'

It follows that when we use the present perfect, there is a connection with the present:

- I 've lost my key (= I haven't got it now)
- Jim has gone to Canada (= He is in Canada or on his way there now.)
- Oh dear, I 've forgotten her name (= I can't remember it now.)
- Have you washed your hair? (= Is it clean now?)

We often use the present perfect to give new information or to announce a recent happening:

- I 've lost my key. Can you help me look for it?
- Do you know about Jim? He 's gone to Canada
- Ow! I 've burnt myself.

Language Tool- box

I. Present Perfect Tense: A. When to use it: 1. (Continued)

You can use the present perfect with just (= a short time ago):

'Would you like something to eat?' 'No, thanks. I've just had lunch.'

Hallo, have you just arrived?

You can use the present perfect with already to say that something has happened sooner than expected:

'Don't forget to post the letter, will you?' 'I've already posted it.'

'When is Tom going to start his new job?' 'He has already started.'

② For indefinite events in a period leading up to the present time. Past ----- Present →

Examples

How many times has Masilo searched for the end of the rainbow? (He is still searching.)

— How many times have you been to the United States?

— How many times have I told you not to gossip!

— Sam has lived in Belfast all his life. (or Sam has always lived in Belfast.)

UNIT 20 Exercises PRESENT PERFECT OR SIMPLE PAST ?

1 In this exercise you have to read the situation and then write a sentence. Use the verbs given in brackets. Read the example carefully first.

Example: Ten minutes ago Tom lost his key. Now he has it in his hand.

(lose / find) Tom ~~lost his key but now he has found it.~~

- 1 I lost a lot of weight but now I am too heavy again.
(lose weight / put on weight) I but now I
- 2 She went to Australia but now she is back in Britain again.
(go / come back) She but now
- 3 Last year Kevin bought a car. Now it belongs to someone else.
(buy / sell)
- 4 The police arrested the man but now he is at home again.
(arrest / release)
- 5 Bill cut his hair. Now it is long again.
(cut / grow)
- 6 The prisoner escaped from the prison. Now he is back in prison.
(escape / be caught)

2 Are the underlined parts of these sentences right or wrong? Correct the ones which are wrong.

Examples: Have you heard? Suzanne has got married!

RIGHT.....

The Chinese have invented printing.

WRONG.- invented

- 1 Who has written the play *Hamlet*?
- 2 Aristotle has been a Greek philosopher.
- 3 Ow! I've cut my finger. It's bleeding.
- 4 Look at George! He had a haircut.
- 5 My grandparents got married in London.
- 6 Einstein was the physicist who has developed the theory of relativity.

3 In this exercise you have to put the verb into the correct form.

Example: A: Look! Somebody has spilt (spill) milk on the carpet.

B: Well, it wasn't (not/be) me. I didn't do (not/do) it.

A: I wonder who it was (be) then.

- 1 A: Your hair looks different. (you/have) a haircut?
B: Yes.
A: (you/cut) it yourself?
B: No, Ann (cut) it for me.
- 2 A: Did you hear about Ben? He (break) his leg.
B: Really? How (that/happen)?
A: He (fall) off a ladder.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
COLT	Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching
CR	Consciousness-raising
ESL	English Second Language
FLES	Foreign Language in the Elementary School
HG	Higher Grade
ISLA	Instructed Second Language Acquisition
SG	Standard Grade
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TESOL	Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages
TGG	Transformational
UG	Universal Grammar