Investigating the effect of enhanced input on the use of English passive in Afrikaans-speaking adolescent learners of English as L2

Karin Nell

Thesis presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Linguistics for the Language Professions at Stellenbosch University

Supervisor: Dr Frenette Southwood
Co-supervisor Dr Simone Conradie

December 2011

Declaration

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained herein is my own, original work, that I am the owner of the copyright thereof and that I have not previously, in its entirety or in part, submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Date: 31 August 2011

Abstract

When English as a second language (L2) is learnt via classroom instruction, the extent to which learners become proficient depends, in part, on the education system in place and, more specifically, on the methods of instruction. This study set out to compare the efficacy of two focus-on-form methods of L2 instruction, namely enhanced input and traditional teacher-centred instruction, in teaching one typically problematic aspect of English grammar for L2 learners, namely the use of the passive form. The participants comprised two groups of grade 11 Afrikaans-speaking learners in a secondary, Afrikaans-English parallel medium school in the southern region of Gauteng, South Africa.

One day before the onset of instruction on the English passive, all potential participants completed a pre-test to assess their existing knowledge of the English passive, in order to allow the members of one group to be paired with the members of the other group. Eight pairs could be found; a total of 16 learners thus participated in the study. Both groups then received 14 lessons (7 hours in total) on the English passive: The Enhanced group received (written) input enhancement in groups, whereas the Traditional group as a whole did copying exercises and received explanations on the formation of the passive structure. Participants wrote a post-test immediately after the end of the instruction period and a delayed post-test nine weeks later.

The results of the immediate and delayed post-tests did not indicate a significant difference between the two groups; neither did the learners' scores improve significantly from the pre-test to the post-tests. Reasons for this lack of improvement are suggested. Classroom observation indicated that learners in the Enhanced group enthusiastically participated in the activities, whereas the Traditional group appeared to be bored after a few lessons.

The study also set out to ascertain whether different methods of assessment on the English passive lead to different test marks. It seemed that assessment tasks requiring little writing (such as multiple choice questions) result in higher marks than tasks requiring learners to formulate answers on their own.

Although this was a small-scale study, the results suggest that under better circumstances (e.g., more time for instruction and a larger group of participants) it might be useful to conduct similar types of studies to test the effects of enhanced input and/or assessment methods when South African schools change from Outcomes Based Education to the new Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement system in 2012.

Opsomming

Wanneer Engels as tweede taal (T2) deur middel van die klaskameronderrig aangeleer word, hang die vaardigheid wat die leerder verwerf gedeeltelik af van die opvoedkundige sisteem waarbinne T2-onderrig geskied en, meer spesifiek, van die metodes van onderrig wat gebruik word. Die doel van hierdie studie was om die effektiwiteit van twee fokus-op-vorm-metodes van T2-onderrig met mekaar te vergelyk, naamlik verrykte toevoer en tradisionele onderwysergesentreerde onderrig, in die onderrig van een tipies problematiese aspek van die Engelse grammatika, naamlik die gebruik van die passiefvorm. Die deelnemers het bestaan uit twee groepe Afrikaanssprekende graad 11-leerders in 'n sekondêre, Afrikaans-Engels parallel-medium skool in Suid-Gauteng.

Alle deelnemers het een dag voor die aanvang van die onderrig oor Engelse passiefvorme 'n voortoets afgelê sodat hul bestaande kennis aangaande sulke vorme gemeet kon word. Op grond van hul toetsresultate is die lede van die een groep daarna met die lede van die ander groepe afgepaar. Agt pare is geïdentifiseer; in totaal was daar dus 16 deelnemers. Beide groepe het 14 klasse (7 ure in totaal) se onderrig oor die Engelse passiefkonstruksie ontvang: Die Verrykte groep het geskrewe toevoer in groepsverband ontvang, terwyl die Tradisionele groep verduidelikings oor die vorming van die passief asook afskryf-oefeninge ontvang het. Deelnemers het onmiddellik ná die 14 klasse 'n na-toets geskryf en nege weke ná instruksie 'n uitgestelde na-toets.

Die resultate van die onmiddellike en uitgestelde na-toets het nie beduidende verskille tussen die groepe aangedui nie. Die leerders se uitslae het ook nie beduidende verskille tussen die onmiddellike- en uitgestelde na-toets getoon nie. Redes vir die gebrek aan meetbare vordering word aangevoer. Klaskamer-observasie het egter getoon dat leerders wat die verrykte toevoer ontvang het, meer entoesiasties aan klaskameraktiwiteite deelgeneem het teenoor die groep wat tradisioneel onderrig is en verveeld voorgekom het.

Die studie het ook gepoog om te bepaal of verskillende assesseringsmetodes vir Engelse passiewe lei tot verskillende toetsuitslae. Dit het voorgekom asof assesseringstake wat minimale skryfwerk vereis het (bv. veelvuldige keuse-vrae) tot beter resultate gelei het as die vrae wat van leerders verwag het om self antwoorde te formuleer.

Alhoewel die studie van beperkte omvang was, is daar aanduidings dat dit – onder meer geskikte toestande (bv. meer tyd vir instruksie en groter deelnemergroepe) – nuttig sal wees om soortgelyke studies oor verrykte toevoer en/of verskillende assesseringsmetodes uit te voer, veral wanneer Suid-Afrikaanse skole in 2012 van Uitkomsgebaseerde Onderrig na die *Assessment Policy Statement*-sisteem toe verander.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1   Introduction

English is one of South Africa's eleven official languages. Despite being the home language of only 8.2% of the population (Statistics South Africa 2003:17), it is widely used as a lingua franca due to its important role, economically, socially and politically. Whereas many English L2 users in South Africa aspire to achieve ultimate proficiency, reaching such proficiency depends in part on the education system in place and, within that system, on the teaching method used for English as a L2. Although South Africa's schooling system is presently Outcomes Based, it is my observation that there is a tendency amongst teachers to make use of the 'old', formal manner of teaching: they often rely on traditional teaching methods where they write lists of rules and examples on the blackboard and require their learners to copy these into their books. In my experience, there is a resistance towards Outcomes Based Education (OBE) among teachers, which could be due to teachers not having received proper training within this system and therefore falling back on more traditional methods of teaching rather than experimenting with those associated with OBE.

Lightbown and Spada (2006:137) state that the way to promote language learning in the classroom is through research that specifically investigates relationships between teaching and learning. Lightbown and Spada (2006:107) also beg the question whether the L2 classroom should or can lead to the 'natural' learning of the L2. The reality is unfortunately that the L2 classroom in South Africa is often regarded as a boring, intimidating and hostile environment where learners of English as L2 do not feel comfortable to express themselves in English. The teachers are also generally not trained to cope with vast numbers of multilingual speakers of English in one classroom. Inclusive teaching presents the challenge of catering for the very different needs of multi-cultured and multilingual learners, and teachers often struggle to find solutions in the form of effective teaching methods that will bring relief to the system. It is therefore understandable that many South African teachers of English as a L2 are still relying on the old and so-called "tested" methods of traditional teaching. Due to large class sizes,

inadequate training in OBE teaching methods, heavy workloads and syllabi that are perceived as daunting, teachers do not find the time to experiment with different methods of teaching English to L2 learners. Ineffective language teaching methods then often result in learners who are either underachieving or disheartened.

In light of the above, and against the background of the age-old debate on whether grammar should be the primary focus in language instruction, whether grammar instruction should be eliminated entirely and make way for purely meaning-focused instruction, this study investigates the efficacy of two methods of teaching in the South African L2 classroom, namely the traditional versus the enhanced Focus-on-form methods of teaching English grammar. Much research over the past decades has concentrated on the need (or otherwise) for grammar teaching. This particular focus (grammar teaching versus no grammar teaching) has been motivated by debates in the field of cognitive psychology on the role of explicit versus implicit language learning and whether such learning occurs through the conscious manipulation of aspects taught or through unconscious cognitive processes when learners are exposed to linguistic input (Bialystok 1990; N. Ellis 1994). In this study, I focused on the role of consciously manipulated linguistic input (i.e., enhanced input) as method of instruction for the English passive construction; in the course of my work as an English L2 high school teacher, I have observed passive constructions to be particularly difficult for learners to master, hence my decision to focus on this aspect of the grammar. My **first research question** was whether enhanced input improved adolescent L2 learners' knowledge of English passives to a greater extent than did formal explanation of the rules for forming English passive constructions. My **hypothesis**, which was confirmed by the data, was that enhanced input will be more successful than traditional chalk-and-board methods of instruction in teaching learners the English passive construction. A **second research question** pertained to the manner in which knowledge of grammar is assessed: Does assessment of knowledge of English passives via questions that require little writing on the part of the learner render better results than questions that require self-formulated answers from the learner? The latter question was included because I wanted to address the problem of students not attempting to answer certain questions. As a high school teacher, I find it frustrating when learners leave questions completely unanswered, as such a practice does not offer the teacher the opportunity to establish exactly which aspects of the question learners found difficult.

The aim of enhanced input is to make certain aspects of the grammar of a language more noticeable to learners through, for instance, highlighting, underlining or colour-coding. According to Ellis (1998), acquisition occurs when learners attend to the new structure in input rather than when they produce it. This implies that the learners must notice and pay attention to the new aspect of language in order for the information to become part of the learner's interlanguage. In this study, one group of participants was given the opportunity for comprehension of the new aspect (in this case, the passive construction in English) to become intake of said aspect: learners notice and understand the rule for forming English passives, and commit it to their short-term memory. With time and practice, the aspect can be carried into the long-term memory and become part of the learners' interlanguage. This group received no formal instruction on the English passive; rather, learners were provided with learning materials containing information on structuring the English passive, which they needed to put together in a logical manner according to the colour coding provided. From this 'putting together' of the rule for forming English passives, learners were required to inductively formulate the rule for forming passives in English. Thereafter, they were required to apply the rule for forming English passives within a group context by constructing active sentences and converting these sentences into the passive voice. Teacher talk was limited to the minimum and learners were thus 'forced' to discover this difficult aspect of English as L2 by themselves. With this group of learners, I thus made use of implicitly teaching the English passive, which also involved the implicit (rather than explicit) correction of errors. Such implicit correction involved, for example, repeating the learner's error in a questioning manner, as an extension of enhanced input as method of teaching. The question-like manner of repeating the incorrect utterance had the aim of motivating the learner to seek other options for correction, which leads to the learner focusing on what is possible and what not in the L2.

A second group of learners received traditional explicit formal instruction on the rule for forming passive constructions, including explicit feedback and explicit error correction. From my observation of the two groups, the enhanced input method proved more engaging and interesting to learners than copying rules from the board and learning them. Preparing enhanced input lessons takes more effort and time than does preparing traditional lessons; the results of my study indicate that this might be time and effort well spent, as more learning took place in the group receiving enhanced input than in the group receiving traditional instruction.

The South African high school classroom has seen much change after 1994, and it is necessary to investigate language teaching strategies that complement the new multilingual and integrated learning environment if we are to reach the desired ultimate learning outcomes set by the Department of Education. This study aimed to contribute, in a limited way, to assessing the efficacy of different language teaching methods and by doing so to inform best practice in language teaching classrooms.

1.2   Structure of the thesis

The thesis is structured as follows: In Chapter 2, I give an exposition of instructed second language acquisition (SLA), defining and discussing the different types of input available to the L2 learner, the phenomenon of noticing (briefly referred to above), and two main approaches to L2 teaching, namely focus-on-meaning instruction (FonM) and form-focused instruction (FFI). In Chapter 3, I discuss some of the core studies done on formal (or traditional) input vs. enhanced input as L2 teaching methods. Here, I refer to work of scholars such as Stephen Krashen, Lydia White, Rod Ellis, Catherine Doughty, Patsy Lightbown and Nina Spada.

Because my second research question deals with matters pertaining to language assessment, I include a chapter (Chapter 4) on the assessment of SLA. In this chapter, I discuss characteristics of an "ideal" test, traditional vs. OBE approaches to assessment and also alternative approaches to the assessment of language.

The ways in which I selected participants, gave instruction and tested whether learning took place are set out in Chapter 5, where I discuss my research methodology. In Chapter 6, I present the results of the study, and, in Chapter 7, I discuss these results, address the two research questions, and summarise the effect of enhanced input on method of instruction vs. the traditional method of instruction.

1.3   Definition of core terms

Below, I provide a definition of the core terms as used in this thesis:

Second Language: The term "second language" is often used as a cover term for "second language" **and** "foreign language". "Foreign language" is distinguished from "second language" in that the latter refers to any language other than one's native language that is used for special purposes, for example, in education or government, whereas the former refers to any language other than one's native language that is not used for special purposes or that does not have special status (Crystal 1991:194). However, Crystal (1991:194) states that this distinction between second language and foreign language is not universally recognised. In the case of my participants, I would be able to refer to second language learning instead of foreign language learning, since these learners are taught English in a (partially) English-speaking country and require it for purposes of education.

Form-Focused instruction (FFI): "FFI" is a term used to refer to any instructional activity (planned or otherwise) that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form. According to Ellis (2001:1-2) it serves as a cover term for a number of other terms found in the literature on L2 teaching: "analytic teaching", "focus-on-form", "focus-on-forms", "corrective feedback", "error correction", and "negotiation of form". Ellis (2001:1) states that FFI includes both traditional teaching approaches and more communicative approaches, where attention to form arises out of activities that are primarily meaning-focused.

Focus-on-Meaning (FonM): A focus on meaning approach to language teaching excludes deliberate (or otherwise) attention to the formal linguistic features of the language and aims to have the student concentrate solely on understanding the message that is being conveyed and on conveying understandable messages (even if the latter is conveyed via ungrammatical utterances) (Richards and Schmidt 2010).

Enhanced Input: Enhanced input is a term used for (mostly written) input that has been altered typologically to enhance the saliency of target forms. Such typological means may

include italicisation, bold print, underlining, shading, the use of different font types and sizes, and capitalisation (Leow 2001:179).

Noticing: Noticing is the mechanism by which learners, after sensitisation to a particular structure, "spot" such structure (or its absence) in subsequent natural input. Noticing is seen as a prerequisite for language processing, the latter leading to the eventual acquisition of the noticed structure (Fotos 1993:386).

Positive evidence: Positive evidence is evidence that a structure can occur in the L2. For example, the utterance *Most people feed their pets daily* will serve as positive evidence that English permits Subject-Verb-Object-Adverb (SVOA) word order (Richards and Schmidt 2010).

Negative evidence: Negative evidence is evidence that a structure cannot occur in the L2 or that a structure cannot be interpreted in the same way in the L2 as in the L1. An example would be where an Afrikaans learner of L2 English needs evidence that *Debbie washes her* can only be interpreted as "Debbie washes another female entity" and never as "Debbie washes herself", whereas the equivalent Afrikaans structure (*Debbie was haar*) can have both interpretations. Negative evidence requires explicit instruction and corrective feedback (Schwartz 1993:147-148).

Interlanguage: Selinker (1972) coined the term "interlanguage"; it is used to refer to the linguistic system of a L2 learner who is not yet fully proficient in the L2. This linguistic system has some features of the learner's L1 (these features are said to be present due to so-called "L1 transfer"), some features of the L2 (where the L2 is often called the "target language" in this sense) as well as some idiosyncratic features.

CHAPTER 2

Approaches to Instructed Second Language Acquisition

In this chapter, I will give an overview of the two main approaches to second language (L2) teaching in the classroom, namely focus-on-meaning instruction (FonM) and form-focused instruction (FFI). Before discussing these approaches, it is, however, necessary to briefly distinguish between the different types of input that are available to L2 learners (section 2.1) and to clarify the concept of 'noticing' (section 2.2), which is central to both the FonM and the FFI approach. The two approaches are then discussed in section 2.3. Finally, in section 2.4, I will describe three different positions encountered in the literature on the relationship between the knowledge gained by means of different types of input, namely the non-interface, strong interface and weak interface positions.

2.1   Different types of input available to the L2 learner

L2 learners are exposed to different types of input. A distinction is drawn between positive evidence and negative evidence. Positive evidence is defined as the L2 utterances to which the learner of the L2 is exposed and which provide the learner with evidence of what is grammatical in the specific language. For example, based on exposure to simple declarative English sentences, a learner of English will receive evidence of the SVO structure of such sentences and will come to know that in English one says *My dog eats fish*, for instance, and not *My dog fish eats.* By contrast, negative evidence refers to that which is ungrammatical in the L2 and requires explicit instruction and corrective feedback (Schwartz 1993:147-148). All L2 learners require and indeed receive exposure to positive evidence. In the classroom context, L2 learners are also exposed to negative evidence to a greater or lesser degree, depending on the teacher's approach to L2 teaching. However, mere exposure to evidence, whether positive or negative, is not sufficient for language acquisition to take place; so-called 'noticing' first needs to take place. Before turning to the different L2 teaching approaches in section 2.3, the central concept of 'noticing' is discussed in section 2.2 below.

2.2   Noticing

During the 1990s, there was a shift in focus toward FonF, and the notion of 'noticing' was increasingly seen as relevant in SLA. In this regard, Corder (1981:9-11; cf. also Sharwood Smith 1994:23-25) defines *intake* as "that part of input which has actually been processed by the learner and turned into knowledge of some kind", whereas *input*, in turn, is defined as "potentially processible language data made available to the learner" (Sharwood Smith 1994:8; for a detailed discussion, see Sharwood Smith 1994:8-10). Simply put, the noticing hypothesis as posited by Schmidt (1990) holds that nothing can be learned unless it has first been noticed. Schmidt regards noticing as the point of departure when learning a language, but states that noticing in itself does not result in actual language acquisition (Lightbown and Spada 2006:44).

Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1994, 1995) states that L2 learning involves selecting and encoding information available in the environment. Thus, paying attention[1] to input received is regarded as paramount to noticing certain aspects of the target language, and therefore noticing becomes necessary for converting input into intake. Consciously paying attention to certain linguistic aspects of the L2 is thus required in order for learning to take place and for that which has been learned to be stored in the long-term memory (Schmidt 1995:14). Two levels of awareness are advocated by Schmidt, namely (i) awareness at the level of noticing and (ii) awareness at the level of understanding. Understanding is regarded as a higher level activity than noticing and involves a deeper level of processing information, such as pattern recognition or recognition of rules of a grammar (Schmidt 1990).

Tomlin and Villa (1994:90) also claim that learners must be ready to process information before alertness (which is their term for "noticing") can occur, and that this processing of information can contribute significantly to SLA (cf. Robinson 1996:58). This implies that a teacher of a L2 must consider, that, in order for a learner to benefit from noticing, the learner must be able to process that which was noticed. For example, for a learner to process the English passive form, the learner needs to, first, notice this form in the input and, second, have knowledge of the word order of English in active, declarative sentences.

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[1] "Noticing" and "paying attention" are often used interchangeably in literature on SLA.

Robinson summarises the importance of noticing in SLA as follows:

(i)   Noticing is consistent with the consciousness hypothesis of Schmidt (1990) which claims there is no learning without awareness at the level of noticing.

(ii) Noticing is consistent with one interpretation of claims by Reber (1989) and Krashen (1981, 1982), namely that learning is the result of both explicit and implicit information processing; this is, explicit and implicit information processing require conscious attention to form at input, but implicit information processing is data-driven and results in the accumulation of instances, whereas explicit information processing is conceptually driven, involving access to schemata in long-term memory.

What noticing then requires from the L2 teacher is to realise that input and the intention of the learner to pay attention to the specific input are the keys to probable successful intake, which can subsequently lead to a higher proficiency in the L2. It is evident that short-term memory capacity does not serve as sufficient capacity for noticed forms and that repeated, enhanced input will eventually seem to lead to the accessing of the long-term memory capacity. An example would be the following: a L2 learner is accidentally exposed once to the use of the English future tense form, but since it is not presented in a context in which its meaning and import are clear to the learner, it does not attract the learner's attention and cannot serve as intake should the learner be tested on the English future tense form. Had the form been presented in context and, for example, highlighted and repeated through different tasks, the form would have been explicitly instructed and therefore would have had the opportunity to become noticed and later to become part of the long-term memory of the L2 learner. This form would then have been more accessible to the learner when confronted with it in future. It is therefore important to understand that the learner must be offered several opportunities for noticing a specific form, and thus for input to become intake and to lead to acquisition.

2.3   Approaches to L2 teaching

Schmidt's (1990) noticing hypothesis – which, as stated above, holds that there is no intake without conscious attention – has lead to an array of pedagogically oriented other

hypotheses, such as the frequently cited ones on input enhancement (Sharwood Smith 1991), processing instruction (VanPatten 2000) and focus-on-form (FonF) (Long 1991). The entire focus of these proposals is on the L2 learner selecting certain aspects – for example, the correct English passive form – from the input. However, input does not necessarily lead to increased language proficiency, because input may be processed for meaning alone. When input is processed for meaning alone, changes to L2 learners' interlanguage will not necessarily occur when such learners are exposed to grammatical constructions. For example, when negative constructions like *I must not do it* occur in the input but are processed for meaning only, learners might continue to use the ungrammatical form *I no must do it* (Sharwood Smith 1994:9). This could occur due to the learner only having noticed the meaning of the negative construction ('must not'), but not noticing, and therefore not learning, the distinct structure of the negative construction. In such instances, the input has thus not become intake.

Given that input may or may not become intake, it is necessary to investigate the vast array of approaches to L2 instruction if the teacher is to find an approach suitable for a specific group of L2 learners, particularly in the multilingual South African context. Teachers are interested in how they can help to increase the chances of input becoming intake, and thereby increase their learners' L2 proficiency. Two of the main approaches, namely FonM and FFI, are discussed below.

2.3.1   Focus-on-meaning instruction

The FonM approach to L2 teaching involves exposure of the L2 learner to rich input and meaningful use of the L2 in context, which is aimed at implicit or incidental learning of the L2 (Norris and Ortega 2001:160). According to Ollerhead and Oosthuizen (2005:59-84), FonM is widely used as method of L2 instruction in contemporary English Language classrooms. Meaning in the L2 context might, however, be influenced by the L1-based conceptual system of the L2 learner, which means that the acquisition of an additional language (second, third, etc.) may be incomplete. In this regard, Slobin (1996:89) states that every native language "trains" its users to respond to events and experiences around them in specific ways when referring to them. This training is instilled in every L1 user during childhood and is exceptionally resistant to restructuring during L2 acquisition, especially after the onset of puberty (Slobin 1996:89). Slobin's statement relates to the

Chomskyan notion of Universal Grammar (UG) (cf. Cook and Newson 2007:2-26), which refers to a mental faculty that is part of human beings' genetic endowment and that makes it possible for children to acquire the grammar of their L1 on the basis of exposure to the language. (See also section 3.3 for a discussion of an argument underlying Chomsky's proposal for UG.)

It is, in other words, possible that any additional language may never be acquired completely, meaning that L2 learners may experience problems in expressing themselves in a grammatical and clear manner in their L2 – for instance, omitting obligatory determiners in English which could lead to ambiguity, such as saying *Man cannot plan well* (unintentionally referring to humankind as a whole) instead of *A man cannot plan well* (meaning that women generally plan better than men). The omission of obligatory determiners in English also holds that learners of the L2 have certain meanings attached to certain concepts in their L1 (such as having one word only for the concepts 'night' and 'dark'), which may then be carried over into the L2 and eventually incorrectly influence the meaning of concepts in the L2, such as where the learners in question will say *I saw him last dark* instead of *I saw him last night.* In this example, the learner's L1 may only have one word (the equivalent of the English *dark*) for the two related concepts 'night' and 'dark' (meaning that *night* is always used in the sense of *darkness* in the L1), and that this is then incorrectly assumed to be the case for the L2 learned as well.

Researchers who believe that there is a critical period for L2 acquisition and that UG is no longer available to L2 learners after the critical period, claim that this period ends around puberty (Johnson and Newport 1991). If this is indeed the case, then there is a possible explanation why so many L2 learners in secondary school who are only introduced to English as L2 from the age of 13 onwards, experience difficulty in achieving proficiency in English. Furthermore, language teachers who are required to function in multilingual classrooms are limited in the sense that they often only have insight into grammatical errors made by speakers of the language with which the teachers are also familiar. Hence, if a L2 learner of English transfers certain grammatical aspects of her L1 (e.g., the lack of articles in her L1 isiXhosa) into English, the teacher who has no knowledge of isiXhosa might not understand where the problem originates. In my own experience as an English-Afrikaans bilingual teacher in multilingual language classrooms, my lack of knowledge of other languages makes it difficult for me to assist learners in emphasizing the difference

between certain aspects of their L1 and English.

2.3.2   Form-focused instruction (FFI)

Ellis (2001:2) defines *form-focused instruction* (FFI) as "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form". According to Ollerhead and Oosthuizen (2005), FFI serves as a generic term for "analytic teaching", "focus on form", "focus on forms", "corrective feedback / error correction" and "negotiation of form"; it is further referred to as an approach to L2 teaching where attention to form arises from activities that are primarily meaning-focused. FFI has its origins in two approaches to L2 teaching, namely (i) approaches based on artificial syllabi ("artificial" here means that school syllabi are meticulously planned and therefore not natural, as opposed to contexts in which a communicative approach to teaching is applied) and (ii) other, more communicative approaches (cf. Long and Robinson 1998). FFI in L2 teaching comprises two subcategories, namely focus-on-**form** (FonF) and focus-on-**formS** (FonFS) instruction. Each of these will be discussed below.

2.3.2.1 Focus-on-Form instruction (FonF)

FonF is described by Norris and Ortega (2001:167) as the instruction of language structures subject to the following criteria:

(i)   that learners engage with the meaning of a structure before attention is paid to its form through activities that ensure that target forms are crucial to the successful completion of such activities;

(ii)   that learner needs are analysed firstly and then addressed in the instruction of a particular form; and

(iii)   that learners' attention is drawn to a specific form in a brief but noticeable manner, resulting in the achievement of a balance between unobtrusiveness and salience.[2]

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[2] Here, it appears that the balance referred to should not be disturbed by using overly forceful ways of attracting attention to grammatical structures. For example, forming negative constructions in English should not be overly corrected by the teacher, but rather be subtly stressed in a communicative situation, where the learner is exposed to the correct negative form in a natural manner, as in a conversation-like activity with the teacher. Salience may be described as the ease with which a linguistic form is perceived by a learner, meaning that the order in which linguistic forms are learned depends on the accessibility of that form to the learner at the time of exposure to the form in question. For instance, the learner needs to understand the SVO rule for forming active sentences in English before an aspect such as passives can be accessible and can be fully understood and acquired. It would then hold that if the balance between obtrusion

FFI involves strategies that include making clear the meaning of the target structure in context; for example, a learner must understand that negation is used when one does not or does not want to do something, otherwise teaching negation would hold no meaning in the real world for the L2 learner. This would then require a particular teaching strategy from the teacher, which may involve the use of real-life-like modeling (during role-play, for instance) of negation to learners of the L2. Only after the meaning of negation in context is grasped by learners, can the L2 teaching start focusing on the correct application of negation (such as in the correct context) through various other strategies applicable to FFI, such as input enhancement.

Ellis (2001:20-23) distinguishes between planned FonF and incidental FonF. He describes planned FonF as the repetitive attending to a specific target form through strategies involving

(i)   input flooding, defined by Sharwood Smith (1993; cf. also De Graaff 1997:18-19) as the enrichment of input by supplying numerous examples of the target form without overtly drawing attention to it, and

(ii)   input enhancement where the target form is explicitly highlighted in order to draw learners' attention to it.

Planned FonF is primarily focused on meaning, and learners are taught how to use the intended form meaningfully and in context in the real world. Activities around enriched input should therefore still be communicative in nature and the language should be kept useful and natural for when the learner needs to start actively employing the target structure in real-life situations. For example, a command of negation is necessary in real-life situations, and therefore the learner should receive the opportunity to use negative constructions in a natural and appropriate manner in several situations. The teacher should therefore expose the learner to negative constructions in several real-life-like situations.

Incidental FonF, on the other hand, occurs when a communication breakdown develops between interlocutors and they are not able to understand each other or when learners want to focus on a form used in natural communication. Ellis (2001:22) states that incidental

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and salience is broken, the learner would not be able to grasp the intended form. Consequently, it is important that the teacher analyses the learners' needs before a new form is introduced.

FonF can be pre-emptive or reactive, depending on the situation that emerges first in the teaching environment. Pre-emptive FonF occurs when a teacher, or sometimes a learner, brings to attention a possibly difficult form, for example, when the teacher is busy introducing a verb in the present tense and mentions that it will undergo change in the past tense form. This will then indicate to the learner that there is a possible difficulty ahead and may either lead to more attentive focusing on the target form or draw attention away from the intended target form. The latter could occur if the learner is now preoccupied with the possible future problem. Reactive FonF occurs when a teacher responds to a learner's perceived or actual error with negative feedback implicitly by refraining from negatively judging an error and instead, for example, repeating the incorrect utterance with exaggerated intonation; *I **runned** fast yesterday?* The purpose of repeating the learner's error with added emphasis is to draw attention to the error in the hope that the learner will recognise the exaggerated utterance as erroneous and that this will lead the learner to self-correct. Alternatively, recasting as proposed by Lightbown and Spada (2001:720) can be used to rectify incorrect utterances. This is done when the teacher correctly reformulates all or part of the incorrect utterance, e.g. *Well done! I am happy to hear that you **ran** so fast yesterday. Who else **ran** fast yesterday? Do your parents know you **ran** fast yesterday?* Here the teacher responds to an incorrect utterance by using the correct form repeatedly in order for the student to "pick up" the correct form of the structure.

Ellis (2001) posits that planned FonF can take one of three possible forms, namely

(i)   explicit correction, where the teacher provides overt correction of errors,

(ii)   metalinguistic feedback, where the teacher provides information about the correctness of a learner's utterance, and

(iii) elicitation, where the teacher attempts to draw the correct form from learners' already existing linguistic knowledge.[3]

Ollerhead and Oosthuizen (2005:65) emphasise the importance of the distinction between

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[3] Based on the TEFL training I have undergone, elicitation enjoyed prominence in the preparation of lessons on new forms to be introduced to L2 learners. All activities in elicitation as planned FonF are focused on drawing on the learners' already existing knowledge of the L2 in order to enable self-discovering of a rule pertaining to a new form, such as self-discovering how English passive forms are derived from the active forms. As will be discussed in later chapters, I have used elicitation as a form of enhanced input and planned FonF in this research project, in an attempt to establish whether this very laborious method of instruction promotes better understanding of the passive form in English.

incidental and planned FonF, discussed above. They argue that with incidental FonF, various linguistic forms, such as grammatical, lexical, phonological and pragmatic forms, compete for learner attention simultaneously, whereas in the case of planned FonF, the teacher is able to select a specific form and draw attention to only one form at a time. In my opinion, planned FonF offers teachers the advantage of dealing with one possibly problematic form at a time; it provides an opportunity to deal with all problems pertaining to one particular form instead of trying to cope with various linguistic forms simultaneously. Given that in the South African schooling context, one teacher often instructs 30 to 50 learners at any given time, planned FonF allows teachers to simplify their teaching task by dealing with forms in succession rather than simultaneously. I am of the opinion that incidental FonF has a place in the classroom. It is useful when, for example, dealing with literary discussions in class. Incidental FonF affords the teacher the opportunity to expose learners to a variety of interlocutory activities, which often leads to enrichment of lexical forms, speech production and pragmatics. Ellis (2001:16) does, however, emphasise the importance of choosing the right strategy, meaning, that is, deciding on a particular strategy such as enhanced input to teach a specific aspect of the grammar (e.g. passives) to L2 learners, since it has important implications for the effectiveness of the way the L2 is taught in the classroom.

2.3.2.2 Focus-on FormS instruction (FonFS)

FonFS refers to the traditional teaching of grammar based on artificially reproduced syllabi instead of using so-called organic instruction methods, which means that in FonFS there is nothing natural to the manner of instructing the specific linguistic aspect of a grammar. Ellis (2001:14) refers to FonFS as a teaching strategy where the language is treated as an object of study and the teaching thereof as the practising of repeated activities.[4] According to Ellis (2001:14), FonFS also sees learners of the L2 as students of the language rather than as users of it. Doughty and Williams (1998:4) also contrast FonF and the other two options Long (1988, 1991) poses, namely FonM and FonFS, by arguing that

> focus on formS and focus on form are *not* polar opposites in the way that
> "form" and "meaning" have often been considered to be. Rather, a focus on

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[4] Repeated instruction is also referred to as 'drilling', which means that certain discrete parts of grammar are literally repeated by the individual or group of learners until they are, for example, pronounced and written correctly. The phrase *I am going to* may initially be pronounced and hence written as *ama gonna*, which through repetition of the correct form is practised until it is correctly and productively applied orally and in written form by the learner(s).

form *entails* a focus on formal elements of language, whereas focus on forms is *limited* to such a focus, and focus on meaning excludes it. Most important, it should be kept in mind that the fundamental assumption of focus-on-form is that meaning and use must already be evident to the learner at the time that attention is drawn to the linguistic apparatus needed to get the meaning across.

(Doughty and Williams 1998:4)

2.4   Positions on the interface between different types of L2 knowledge

In this section, I will discuss three positions that are held regarding the relationship between different types of L2 knowledge, i.e., knowledge gained on the basis of the different types of input referred to in section 2.1. These three positions are the non-interface, the strong interface and the weak interface positions.

2.4.1   The non-interface position

It is generally accepted that implicit knowledge about language, i.e., intuitive, tacit knowledge that can be accessed with little effort and that resulted from little attention being paid to the formS involved, is the basis of language proficiency and fluency (Bialystok 1978, 1991; Anderson 1982; Krashen 1982; Chomsky 1986; Gass 1988; McLaughlin 1990; Schmidt 1990; Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991; Ellis 1994). De Graaff (1997:5) refers to Jordens (1996:435) who states, however, that different opinions exist on the relationship between knowledge of language and knowledge about language. He further explains that since implicit and explicit knowledge are fundamentally different, the two types of knowledge are not transferable, a position held by Krashen since at least 1982. This forms the basis of what Ellis (1993) calls the "non-interface" position.

Krashen (1985:1-3) claims that there could be no interface (thus no transfer) between (i) explicit, or consciously learned, knowledge and (ii) implicit, or unconsciously acquired, knowledge (i.e., knowledge acquired via what he calls "comprehensible input"). The non-interface position therefore holds that implicit knowledge cannot be acquired on the basis of explicit instruction, for example, through the explanation of a specific aspect of grammar such as passive constructions in English (cf. De Graaff 1997:9). The only way to

obtain implicit linguistic knowledge is through exposure to comprehensible input. This does not mean that there is no role for explicit instruction in L2 learning. The claim is merely that explicit instruction leads to explicit knowledge and that such learned/explicit knowledge can never become acquired/implicit knowledge and therefore cannot add to fluent and automatic linguistic performance (Krashen 1982).

Schwartz (1993) develops Krashen's ideas within the framework of UG and proposes that positive evidence is processed by UG and leads to linguistic competence. Negative evidence, on the other hand, cannot be processed by UG and is instead processed by a different module of the brain and leads to what Schwartz terms "learned linguistic knowledge" (LLK). Schwartz's "linguistic competence" can thus be equated with Krashen's "acquired/implicit knowledge", and her "LLK" can be equated with Krashen's "learned/explicit knowledge". Importantly, Schwartz agrees with Krashen's proposal that the one type of knowledge cannot be converted into the other. In this way, Schwartz supports the non-interface position.

From the above discussion, it should be clear that the non-interface position is consistent with Fodor's (1983) proposals regarding the modularity of the human mind. According to Fodor's theory

> the mind's central processing systems are content-specific modules or input systems. The language module can only handle primary linguistic data [referred to in section 2.1 as "positive evidence" – KN], which is why other information about language, such as explicit or negative data [referred to in section 2.1 as "negative evidence" – KN], is unavailable for feeding into the language system.

> (De Graaff 1997:9)

2.4.2   The strong interface position

The strong interface position holds that explicit knowledge can be converted into implicit knowledge through repeated practice. Shiffrin and Schneider (1977) claim that through repeated practice, the processing and recall of information can become more automatic. This may occur with or without awareness, where "awareness" is taken to refer to conscious learning of specific linguistic aspects, for example, forming negative

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constructions in English. In other words, the more a L2 learner is exposed to a specific aspect of the language, whether it be on a conscious or unconscious level, the more salient this linguistic aspect becomes for the L2 learner, consequently leading to more fluent L2 use.

Anderson (1995:378) states that

> mastery of any complex skill involves an enormous investment of time in which the various rules of that skill are mastered one by one. Language is no exception to this principle. It may, however, be the most complex rule system that people have to learn.

<div align="right">(cited in De Graaff 1997:10)</div>

Anderson's theory has been widely applied by various linguists (e.g. McLaughlin, Rossman and Mcleod 1983; McLaughlin 1990; O'Malley and Chamot 1990; De Keyser 1993), but not without reservation about exactly how this conversion of explicit knowledge into implicit knowledge takes place. De Keyser (1993) specifically claims that FFI leads to significantly larger gains in the process of L2 learning than implicit instruction. He argues against the idea of immediate automatisation of explicitly instructed structures through repeated practice. De Keyser distinguishes between procedural knowledge and declarative knowledge, and claims that one can only practice procedural knowledge and not declarative knowledge,[5] which means that we need to have an unconscious knowledge of something before we can develop conscious knowledge thereof (for instance, one needs to know unconsciously how to swim in order to be able to consciously learn how to actually swim, meaning one has to know that the arms and legs are necessary limbs used in a particular manner when swimming to keep the body from sinking). De Graaff (1997:10-11) poses that L2 acquisition relies mostly on drills which facilitate the proceduralisation of L2 knowledge only once declarative knowledge has been established.

From the above discussion, it is evident that FFI is informed by a strong interface view, meaning that we have to consider L1 knowledge when teaching a L2, since it may influence the learning of the L2, for example, the L1 rule for sentence construction that

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[5] Declarative knowledge is also known as "factual knowledge". One can for instance have declarative or factual knowledge of the set of rules for forming future tense constructions in English. Procedural knowledge is different from declarative knowledge in the sense that the former is unconscious, is acquired gradually through practice and underlies the learning of skills such as the example of swimming used below.

may be transferred to the L2, leading to errors.

2.4.3   The weak interface position

De Graaff (1997:11-14) explains, as stated in the previous section, that declarative knowledge can become automatic procedural knowledge through practice when learning a L2. It is, however, not clear whether this type of procedural knowledge enhances linguistic fluency, and proponents of the non-interface position argue that it does not, since explicit linguistic knowledge is fundamentally different from implicit knowledge. VanPatten (1996) and VanPatten and Cardierno (1993) agree that FonF in the right kind of input activities helps to establish form-meaning connections, which are essential for acquisition to take place. Ellis (1993) argues for an in-between interface position – one between the non-interface and strong interface positions – which can accommodate explicit knowledge as a facilitator for acquisition. This position entails the view that any explicit knowledge (obtained through instruction or enhanced input techniques) will help learners to raise their consciousness (Sharwood Smith 1981, 1985) – in other words, to raise their awareness of crucial properties of the input (Schmidt 1990, 1995; Tomlin and Villa 1994), which subsequently facilitates the process of intake (Corder 1967; Chaudron 1985) and the eventual acquisition of implicit knowledge. Proponents of this in-between position, known as the "weak interface" position, propose placing L2 material within a meaningful context and in an inconspicuous manner, although sufficiently salient for further processing (Norris and Ortega 2001:159), which may lead L2 learners to notice the form of the target language structure, and to subsequently acquire it (Ollerhead and Oosthuizen 2005:61).

Sharwood Smith (1991) describes consciousness raising, now referred to as "input enhancement" (Sharwood Smith 1993), and argues that for acquisition to take place, learners of a L2 need to consciously notice forms and the meanings they represent in the input. This holds that enhancing the input (viz. highlighting aspects of the L2 grammar) will most likely increase the noticing of the relevant aspects, which will subsequently lead to correct use of such aspects by the L2 learner. In this thesis, I investigate the viability of input enhancement to establish whether it will increase Afrikaans-speaking learners' correct use of English passive constructions. Before turning to my own study in chapter 4, though, I provide an overview in chapter 3 of previous research which has been conducted on the effect of different types of instruction on L2 proficiency.

CHAPTER 3

Core Studies on Formal (Traditional) Input vs. Enhanced Input as L2 Teaching Methods

3.1   Krashen's (1982) Input Hypothesis

According to Lightbown and Spada (2006:36-38), Chomsky's (1957) theory of first language acquisition influenced Krashen's theory of second language acquisition, which Krashen named the Monitor Model (1982). Krashen described the Monitor Model in terms of five hypotheses: the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis and the Affective Filter Hypothesis.

In the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, Krashen (1985:1) distinguishes between 'acquisition' and 'learning'. He posits that language acquisition occurs when L2 learners are naturalistically exposed to the target L2 during meaningful interaction, when they are not paying conscious attention to language form. During acquisition, L2 learners "pick up" the language they are exposed to in much the same way as young children do when acquiring their L1. Language learning, on the other hand, takes place when L2 learners are paying conscious attention to form and to the rules of the specific language, as is the case during L2 instruction. Whereas the result of acquisition is acquired / implicit / unconscious knowledge of the target L2, the result of learning is learned / explicit / conscious knowledge about the target L2. (See section 2.4 regarding the different types of knowledge and positions on the interface between them.)[6]

According to the Monitor Hypothesis, the L2 learner's acquired knowledge generates an utterance and his/her learned knowledge then acts as a monitor, "editing" the utterance before it is produced (in speech or writing). For monitoring to take place, it is required that the learner has ample time, has the need to produce correct language and has learned the appropriate and relevant rules of the L2 (Krashen 1985:1-2).

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[6] Unless the distinction is directly at issue, the two terms, *acquisition* and *learning*, will be used interchangeably in this thesis, as is the case in most research on L2 acquisition/learning within the framework of generative grammar.

The Natural Order Hypothesis holds that L2 acquisition follows the same path as L1 acquisition, meaning that aspects of the target L2 will be acquired in the same order as they would be during L1 acquisition even when they are presented in a different order in the L2 classroom. In other words, we acquire rules of a grammar in a predictable order, where some rules tend to be acquired earlier than others. The hypothesis posits that those aspects of a language that are seemingly the easiest to acquire, and which seem to be acquired first – for example, adding *–s* to third person singular verbs in English present tense – are easy to state (that is, are easy for L2 learners to explain), but become problematic for the same user to apply. This means that even if a L2 learner knows the correct application of the English rule for concord, when in spontaneous conversation, they might apply the rule incorrectly – saying, for example, *The cat **want** food* instead of *The cat **wants** food*. This can occur in the language use of even advanced L2 learners (Krashen 1985:1).

The Input Hypothesis holds that language acquisition occurs only when the learner is exposed to comprehensible input at the level *i* + 1, where *i* represents the learner's current level of development "+ 1" represents the next level (Krashen 1985: 1-2) . Input at the *i* + 1 level will include words, grammatical forms and pronunciations which are slightly beyond the learner's current level of development. Krashen (1985:2-3) further maintains that we are able to understand input at this level with the help of context, which he defines as including extra-linguistic information, our knowledge of the world and previously acquired linguistic competence. He further posits that language production is the result of acquisition and not its cause. In other words, production follows the build-up of competence through comprehensible input and cannot be taught directly. Krashen (1985:2) states that if input is understood, and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically acquired as the learner picks up the next structure in the natural order of L2 learning.

Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis accounts for the fact that L2 learners who are exposed to large quantities of comprehensible input, do not necessarily acquire the L2 completely. The affective filter is a metaphorical barrier that is said to be "up" when learners are anxious, demotivated or bored and "down" when they are relaxed, motivated and interested. When a learner's affective filter is up, a smaller percentage of input becomes intake (Lightbown and Spada 2006:36-37).

Returning to the Input Hypothesis: According to Krashen (1985:14), it can account for a wide variety of phenomena. He argues that it predicts the delayed acquisition of language in cases where comprehensible input was withheld. Long (1983) has reviewed research on such cases and found that, for example, in cases of hearing children of deaf parents where there is little comprehensible input available to the children (except via, for example, the television), the acquisition of language was severely delayed. Such children, however, caught up with other children as soon as they were exposed to sufficient comprehensible input (Krashen 1985:14). [7]

Krashen further argues that research on different language teaching methods has revealed no significant difference between grammar-based and drill-based methods. It is claimed that no comprehensible input was provided to learners in either of the methods.

Krashen (1985:16) refers to the highly successful Canadian language immersion programmes, claiming that this provides additional evidence for the Input Hypothesis. He posits that immersion is successful because it provides L2 learners with considerable amounts of comprehensible input, since the absence of native speakers of the target L2 in the classroom ensures that teacher talk is comprehensible to the learner. Furthermore, subject materials, such as text books, are adapted and supplemented according to learner needs. Krashen (1985:16-17) states that immersion has taught us that

> comprehensible subject-matter teaching *is* language teaching – the subject-matter class is a language class if it is made comprehensible. In fact, the subject-matter class may even be better than the language class for language acquisition. In language classes operating according to the principle of comprehensible input, teachers always face the problem of what to talk about.

In immersion, the topic is automatically provided – it is the subject matter. Moreover, since students are tested on the subject matter, not the language, a constant focus on the message and not the form is ensured (Krashen 1985:16-17).

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[7] Lightbown and Spada (2006) cite Lenneberg (1967) who claims that such children are indeed able to "catch up" when receiving sufficient exposure to language before the end of the so-called critical period, but children who do not receive sufficient exposure to a language before the end of the critical period, fail to acquire any language completely, even if they receive large amounts of exposure and intensive training after the critical period.

It is further noted that the Input Hypothesis accounts for the success of several other bilingual education programmes and for the failure of others. Krashen (1985) states that successful bilingual programmes teaching English as L2 provided solid subject-matter teaching in the L1 together with comprehensible input in the L2 (English). This, he claims, provides the learner with cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) in addition to basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) (cf. Cummins 1983a, b). Cummins (1983a, b) has provided further evidence for the success of educational programmes relying on the Input Hypothesis through studies on bilingual teaching programmes with English as L2.

It should be noted that Krashen's hypotheses about SLA have been criticised by a number of researchers. McLaughlin (1978), for example, questions whether the five hypotheses of Krashen' Monitor Model could be tested by empirical research. McLaughlin further posits that the distinction between acquired knowledge and learned knowledge may prove to be a circular definition (if it is acquired, it is fluent and if it is fluent, it is acquired) (Lightbown and Spada 2006:38). White levels extensive criticism against specifically the Input Hypothesis; this criticism is set out below. Despite the criticism against them, Krashen's ideas have led to communicative language teaching, immersion programmes and content-based instruction being widely implemented with considerable success. Lightbown and Spada (2006) further state that classroom research has confirmed that learners progress greatly in SLA through exposure to comprehensible input without direct (explicit) teaching.

3.1.1   White's (1987) criticism against the Input Hypothesis

White (1987) argues against Krashen's Input Hypothesis, claiming that (i) by concentrating on context and meaning, Krashen misses the fact that much L2 grammar acquisition is internally driven and does not rely on context or meaning, (ii) Krashen overestimates the role of simplified input, and (iii) we can never be sure what input is relevant to what stage of L2 development. According to White (1987: 95), this is due to the imprecision of his theory because, she argues, only once a detailed theory of language has been incorporated, is it possible to create a theory which will identify the precise aspects of input which will trigger language development. White also notes that referring to "$i + 1$" as comprehensible input is not accurate; instead "$i + 1$" refers to the L2 learner's

next level of competence, and comprehensible input can be defined as input which is relevant to the level $i + 1$.

White argues that the Input Hypothesis is essentially correct, but in its present form is contestable on the three issues mentioned above. She continues to argue that since we cannot know what constitutes the current knowledge of the L2 learner, it is not possible to know how the new input interacts with the existing interlanguage grammar to bring about change. It is not possible to know whether the learner is ready, for example, to learn English passives when we do not know whether the learner has sufficient knowledge of the language's canonical SVO (subject-verb-object) word order.

White (1987:96) further states that only the learner knows his or her current level of linguistic competence, which makes it very difficult for any teacher to provide comprehensible input. Here I would argue that few learners are aware of their precise level of linguistic knowledge, at least in a way that can positively help the L2 teacher to determine the learner's correct $i+1$. This then holds that the teacher cannot rely on the learner's help to determine which type of input is required to progress in acquiring the L2.

As already stated, Krashen's Input Hypothesis states that the driving force behind change in the linguistic competence of a learner is the understanding of structures slightly beyond the learner's current level of development. This creates a paradox, according to White, since it is not clear how we can understand structures not yet acquired at all. She posits that one can only account for the acquisition of such input (+1 type input) with reference to filtering of the new input by the learner, but the filter referred to here differs from Krashen's (1982) affective filter in the sense that it relies on the learner's linguistic competence rather than psychological factors such as motivation. That is, the learner, when confronted with new grammatical L2 information, will immediately recognise this information as unknown because it has not been dealt with before. This implies, then, that the learner 'filters' the new information by comparing it to already existing knowledge, but not by showing some type of mental barrier as in the case of Krashen's affective filter that may prohibit the learning of the L2.

White is also concerned about the question of simplified input as proposed by the Input Hypothesis. Whereas Krashen sees simplified input as necessary for linguistic

development,[8] White argues that this is not the case at all, and explains that the grammar directed at L2 learners cannot be over-simplified if it has the purpose of stimulating linguistic development. I agree with White in this regard: a grammatical aspect (say, the English passive construction) is complex in itself and can be 'simplified' by using enhanced input as method of instruction, but the complexity of the aspect in itself cannot be simplified – i.e., the grammatical aspect is what it is and cannot be changed, but the method instructing it can change. White (1987:101) provides examples of research where oversimplified input proved detrimental to L2 learners. In one such case, exposure to simplified but non-target-like L2 English led Spanish-speaking learners of L2 English to persist with the incorrect omission of subject pronouns, a property transferred from the learners' L1 Spanish (Cancino, Rosansky and Schumann 1975; Butterworth and Hatch 1978; White 1985).

Of further concern is the fact that Krashen indiscriminately refers to comprehensible input as intake:

> 'Intake' is simply, where language acquisition comes from, that subset of linguistic input that helps the acquirer acquire language. It appears to be the case to me now that *the major function of the second language classroom is to provide intake for acquisition* .... 'Caretaker' speech, language addressed to young children acquiring their first language, contain(s) a high proportion of *intake.*

> (Krashen 1981:101-2; italics in original)

White (1987:102) points out that this is not the accepted definition of "intake" proposed by Corder (1967), since, according to White, Corder's definition does not hold that intake is determined by the L2 learner and that L2 classrooms provide deliberate intake. According to White, deliberately modified input does not change the interlanguage grammar of L2 learners, but rather deprives them of the input necessary to increase their linguistic competence. She notes that Krashen's Input Hypothesis implicitly rests on the assumption that language acquisition takes place by simply adding rules to a grammar, but this assumption is problematic in cases where the learner needs to perform tasks other than just adding a new rule to the existing interlanguage grammar. White (1987:108) concludes by stating that Krashen has succeeded in drawing attention to input and learner involvement in language acquisition and that it would be beneficial to aim at more precise

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[8] Krashen (1985) later also admitted that the notion of (over)simplifying input is problematic.

descriptions of the interaction between input and learner. White (1987:96) states that the Input Hypothesis should not be discarded but does need to be tightened – in other words, it should not be ignored, but structured into a more comprehensible and clearly defined hypothesis.

3.2   White's (1989) argument for a logical problem of L2 acquisition

Chomsky (1986) first argued for what is now known as the logical problem of L1 acquisition, noting that the child cannot possibly come to know all that he does about his language on the basis of the input alone. His argument is known as the poverty of the stimulus argument and refers to three specific "problems" with the input. Firstly, the input that the child receives *underdetermines* the grammar that he acquires to a significant extent: The knowledge that a child acquires of his L1 comprises a grammar which reaches far beyond the actual sentences the learner is exposed to; for many of the quite complex and abstract rules that a child comes to know for his language, there seems to be no clear evidence in the input. Secondly, the input that the child is exposed to is *degenerate* in that it includes mistakes, hesitations, slips of the tongue and false starts. Finally, although it is clear that children learn what is grammatical in their L1 by receiving positive evidence in the form of the utterances that they are exposed to, it is not at all clear how children acquire *knowledge of what is ungrammatical* in their L1. They cannot assume that every utterance that they have not encountered is ungrammatical, since there are an infinite number of possible utterances in any language and there will thus inevitably always be grammatical utterances to which the child has not been exposed. Adults might try to provide their children with negative evidence in the form of explicit teaching or correction but it has been shown that adults do not often correct their children's utterances and when they do, they usually correct pronunciation or facts, rather than grammar. And in those rare cases that adults do try to correct their children's grammatical errors, the children do not seem to be able to make use of this negative evidence (Marcus 1993).

On the basis of these problems with the input, Chomsky concludes that it is impossible that the grammar that children acquire for their L1 can be derived from input alone and that one can only account for L1 acquisition by assuming that children are born with a

mental faculty that assists them in processing the input that they are exposed to in order to arrive at the grammar of their L1. It is this mental faculty that has become known as UG.

There is an ongoing debate as to whether or not L2 learners can also make use of UG to process the L2 input in order to acquire the grammar of the target L2. White (1989) argues that the same three problems that Chomsky identified for input in L1 acquisition hold for input in L2 acquisition. Firstly, even though many L2 learners never acquire the target L2 to a level of native speaker proficiency, the interlanguage grammar that they acquire is complex, abstract and systematic so that the L2 input *underdetermines* the interlanguage grammar that L2 learners end up acquiring. Secondly, the input that the L2 learner is exposed to is definitely also *degenerate*; in fact, in addition to the mistakes which are made by native speakers of the target L2 in their spontaneous language use, L2 learners are often also exposed to the non-target-like L2 use of fellow learners and, in some cases, their teachers (since many teachers are themselves L2 speakers of the language which they are teaching). Finally, it has been shown that L2 learners have *knowledge of what is ungrammatical* in the target L2. White argues that because the poverty of the stimulus argument holds for L2 acquisition as well, there is also a logical problem of *L2* acquisition and the most straightforward solution for this problem is to propose that something like UG is also operative in L2 acquisition, mediating the input for L2 learners.

The logical problem of L1 and L2 acquisition can be depicted as in Figure 1.1 (from White 1989:4, 37), where it is not clear how it is possible for learners to acquire a complex, abstract grammar on the basis of input alone.

L1/L2 Input   →   L1/L2 Grammar
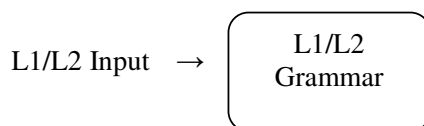
Figure 1.1 The logical problem of L1 and L2 acquisition

Figure 1.2 (from White 1989:5, 37) depicts UG as the solution to the logical problem of L1 *and* L2 acquisition, showing how UG mediates the input and accounts for the fact that L1 and L2 learners derive a complex, abstract grammar from the utterances that they are exposed to.

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L1/L2 Input → | **UG** | → | L1/L2 Grammar |

Figure 1.2. UG as a solution to the logical problem of L1 and L2 acquisition

White (1989:43) does, however, emphasise that one of the most important differences between L1 and L2 acquisition is that L2 learners already have knowledge of at least one other language, namely their L1. For L2 learners, their L1 grammar should thus actually also feature in a figure such as Figure 1.2, showing that the way in which L2 learners process L2 input is not only mediated by UG but also by their L1 grammar.

3.3   Towards a theory of instructed L2 acquisition

Ellis (1994:79) states that any theory of instructed language learning needs to meet all the requirements for any L2 acquisition theory in general. He refers to Gass (1988) who identified three criteria which a model of L2 acquisition must satisfy. Firstly, the model should be interactive rather than linear, i.e., it should show the input the learner is exposed to, the input that is processed and allowed into the learners' interlanguage grammar (i.e., the intake) and the output of this learning process in the form of receptive and/or productive skills. Secondly, the model has to be able to account for all the variables known to play a significant role in SLA (e.g. L1, quantity and quality of input, age of the L2 learner, motivation and learner personality). Finally, the model must account for the fact that not all input becomes intake (compare Krashen's Affective Filter hypothesis – cf. section 3.1) but that the learner's internal grammar (i.e., his/her interlanguage grammar) often goes beyond the actual input (compare White's argument for the involvement of something like UG – cf. section 3.3).

Ellis (1994:79) proposes that two additional requirements need to be met by a theory of *instructed* L2 acquisition. Firstly, the theory has to explicitly address the role played by formal study of the L2, since this is the factor that distinguishes instructed from naturalistic L2 acquisition – instruction involves direct intervention into the L2 acquisition process. Secondly, the theory must be relevant to language pedagogy; specifically, the manner in which acquisition is perceived by L2 learners must correspond with the teacher's understanding of what they are trying to achieve (Ellis 1994:79-80).

According to Ellis (1994:79-81), an important question is which aspects of language a theory of instructed L2 acquisition should address. He states that most teachers set out to develop the learner's capacity to use pragmatic and linguistic knowledge and, for this reason, any instructed L2 acquisition theory has to address the manner in which such competence is developed. He adds that theories that restrict themselves to a mere explanation of how knowledge is obtained, but do not address the question of how this knowledge is actually used in real communication, will prove to be unsatisfactory. Consequently, it is necessary for a theory of instructed L2 acquisition to address proficiency instead of merely focusing on the input. Ellis (1994:82) emphasises that L2 acquisition is a highly complex process and, therefore, a general theory of L2 acquisition has to account for the type of learner (e.g. L1, age, personality), the level of proficiency obtained, the specific L2 being learned, and the conditions in which acquisition takes place.

The input which learners receive in a classroom setting is, of course, dictated by the type of instruction taking place (cf. section 2.3). At certain stages of instruction, teachers might also start to artificially increase the occurrence of a particular aspect of the target L2 – see, for example, Lightbown's (1983) observation below during research undertaken in grade 5 and 6 ESL classes in Canada:

> The verb-*ing* form, for instance, was largely missing from the initial input, but suddenly became very frequent once it was introduced in the text book towards the end of grade 5, resulting in apparent overuse of the form sometime later in grade 6. Later its frequency declined.
>
> (Ellis 1994:82)

Ellis (1994:82) goes on to say that "it is reasonable to suppose that frequent forms are more noticed and, therefore, potentially more learnable than infrequent forms". Lightbown and Spada (1990) argue that other aspects of formal instruction, for instance, how the teacher corrects learners' errors, may increase the salience of certain aspects of grammar, which should lead to enhanced noticing and learning of such aspects.

Ellis (1994:82-88) further claims that code-oriented instruction (i.e., the type of instruction – for example, enhanced input – that is used to teach aspects of grammar) may also provide the learner with different kinds of input, for instance, explicit information on how

certain grammatical constructions are formed. Sharwood Smith (1981) states that deductive language teaching (so-called consciousness raising) may vary according to the degree of explicit input and the measure of elaboration provided on the specific linguistic aspect. He defines explicitness as the extent of metalanguage used by the teacher, i.e., the teacher may drop hints using only examples or provide a complete statement of the rule in question. Elaboration refers to the amount of time spent on presenting a new rule to L2 learners. Important, though, is to take into account the source of explanation, i.e., whether the teacher provides the information, the students have to deduce the rule themselves or a text book is used to provide the information.

It has been hypothesised that the comprehensible input arising from modified input, especially from an interactive approach, enhances SLA (Ellis 1994:83). Negotiation for meaning when communication problems arise also promotes SLA, according to Long (1983). Taking into account then that L2 classrooms are not typically 'acquisition-rich' settings (in the sense that it very often is an environment where teacher-talk dominates in an effort to elicit predetermined responses), it makes sense that researchers (Pica and Doughty 1985) argue for small-group activities in which negotiation for gaps in negotiation for meaning can freely take place. Stated differently, having large groups of learners (such as those found in many South African classrooms) is not conducive to L2 learning.

Two remarks will be made in closing this subsection. Firstly, Ellis (1994:83-85) regards the theory proposed (i.e., that interactive L2 teaching enhances L2 learning) as accounting for a number of different variables influencing L2 acquisition and, importantly, for the fact that that not all input becomes intake. The theory holds relevance for language pedagogy in the sense that it accounts for explicit knowledge and how learners use this knowledge to promote L2 proficiency. Ellis (1994:107-110) states that formal instruction contributes primarily to explicit knowledge, which can facilitate later development of implicit knowledge (but see section 2.4). In other words, formal instruction will often have a delayed rather than an immediate effect.

Secondly, Ellis (1994:107-110) addresses the so-called fluency-accuracy discrepancy: learners' fluency in their L2 use often seems to continue increasing even when their accuracy has reached a plateau (i.e., even after fossilisation has occurred, where

"fossilisation" refers to the phenomenon where a learner's interlanguage grammar ceases to develop any further despite continued exposure to the target L2). It is also posited that learners who consciously concentrate on automatising their existing knowledge (but, again, see section 2.4) may run into problems with internalising any new linguistic knowledge, because the psycholinguistic mechanisms employed for L2 use differ from those employed for L2 acquisition (R. Ellis 1990). L2 learners may thus reach a point in SLA where they will have to choose between increasing their fluency and increasing their accuracy as it becomes cumbersome to simultaneously monitor one's output *and* concentrate on the input.

3.4   The effect of instruction on SLA

Doughty (2003: chapter 9) states that SLA theorists are in disagreement when it comes to the potential value of instructed intervention (or input) in L2 learning. Some researchers claim that instruction has no effect beyond the provision of comprehensible input or triggering input – in other words, the teacher's role is to provide the correct information about aspects of the L2 grammar, but he/she cannot cover all the possible applications of the aspect in all the possible contexts in which it can be used, and it would then be up to the learner to practise this aspect to develop L2 proficiency. Doughty further states that other theorists claim that appropriate and relevant instruction is effective only when it is necessary, i.e., the L2 teacher need not provide extra or unnecessary information when certain grammatical aspects are taught, since it may become confusing to L2 learners, thus the rule of thumb is that too much too soon does not promote L2 learning. Doughty considers the question of whether or not adult SLA – which is relevant to this thesis, since the participants were adolescent (17-18 year old) learners – relies on implicit or explicit language processing and whether the most effective instruction in this case would be implicit or explicit in nature to facilitate the establishment of form-meaning connections in SLA.

Doughty (2003:199) argues that the case for explicit instruction has been overstated given that only 30% of instructional studies have investigated implicit pedagogic techniques and that outcome measures of such studies have been biased towards language manipulation and the assessment of declarative knowledge. She posits that the advantages of implicit

instruction have thus been understated, and under such biased conditions the results of explicit instruction would indeed look remarkable. The so-called noninterventionist argument is summarised by Doughty (2003:181) as follows:

1. [L2 learning – KN] under classroom conditions seems to partially follow the same set of natural processes that characterise other types of language acquisition ... there seems to be a universal and common set of principles which are flexible enough and adaptable to the large number of conditions under which language learning may take place.

2. The only contribution that classroom instruction can make is to provide comprehensible input that might not otherwise be available outside the classroom (Krashen 1985: 33-34, and passim).

These statements, according to Doughty, show that proponents of the noninterventionist position assume that (i) instruction is entirely or greatly unnecessary for making form-meaning connections, based on the assumption that SLA is driven by the same UG that guides L1 acquisition, and (ii) SLA, just like L1 acquisition, happens incidentally. Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1982, 1985) is considered noninterventionist in nature and states explicitly that learned knowledge cannot become acquired knowledge (cf. section 2.4.1), since form-meaning connections which are consciously learned are distinctly different from those which are unconsciously acquired in terms of the way in which they are represented in memory.

In response to these claims, Doughty (2003) states that one should take into account that there is a vast difference between the manner in which children acquire language and the manner in which adult L2 learners acquire language. Adult SLA is never complete, relatively unsuccessful and varies within and across individuals to the point that L2 learners are easily recognised as such. Doughty and Williams (1998, in Doughty 2003:183) argue as follows:

We do not consider leaving learners to their own devices to be the best plan. Does this mean that practitioners should take up the opposite position that [instruction - KN] is appropriate ... for all learners all the time? We think not, and that, between the two poles, there are many ensuing pedagogic decisions to

be made. At the outset, it must be said that it is not the case that adult second language acquisition cannot take place in the absence of instruction...; for many learners, clearly much of it can. However, our interest is not limited to what is merely possible, but extends to a determination of what would comprise the most *effective* and *efficient* instructional plan given the normal constraints of acquiring a second language in the classroom.

Long (1983) claims that L2 instruction does make a difference, based on empirical studies that directly tested Krashen's learning-acquisition distinction. However, he notes that such studies encountered three methodological problems, namely (i) the comparisons between instruction and exposure were too wide, meaning that it was difficult to identify whether instruction or exposure to the L2 only, was enough to promote L2 proficiency; (ii) no control groups were used in the studies, and subsequent comparisons between instruction and exposure as method of L2 acquisition could not be made; and (iii) no type of instruction or specific aspect of SLA were operationalised[9] in the study variables, meaning that no proper conclusions were possible due to mismatched instruction. Long (1988) reviewed the question of whether instruction makes a difference, referring to the four domains of L2 learning, namely (i) L2 learning processes, (ii) L2 learning sequences, (iii) rate of L2 learning, and (iv) the level of ultimate L2 attainment – see Doughty 2003 for a full description of the different domains. Doughty (2003:184-200) claims that research within the four SLA domains has shown that the right kind of L2 instruction is indeed effective, and that more recently researchers within the field of instructed L2 learning have been investigating the question of which *type* of instruction will best facilitate and support SLA.

Doughty (2003) makes six proposals for future research on instructed SLA:

(i)   The number of SLA studies which investigate processes involved in the establishment of form-meaning connections should be increased;

(ii)   Operationalisation of processes must occur systematically and draw on SLA theories;

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[9] According to the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (2010), "operationalise" refers to defining a concept in terms that can be observed and measured, for instance, terms such as competence must be operationalised in linguistic studies when preparing objectives of test items.

(iii)   Coding procedures should include examination of the instructional methods implemented as well as the evaluation of pedagogic procedures in terms of the underlying SLA theories;

(iv)   The proportion of SLA studies which investigate implicit approaches to L2 teaching should be increased;

(v)   Studies that operationalise instruction in a decontextualised manner and only promote language manipulation should be excluded from the category of explicit instruction; and

(vi)   Research protocols regarding biased favouring of explicit or metalinguistic instructional and measurement procedures must be brought into existence.

Doughty (2003) concludes that an overview of empirical research on instructed SLA does shed light on the ultimate attainment of L2 learners receiving instruction, but that much is still to be discovered about the processes involved in the establishment of form-meaning connections in instructed settings. Short-term, explicitly focused instruction measurement on language manipulation tasks currently prove to be successful and effective, but more studies should include delayed post-testing in order to investigate the claim made by researchers such as Lightbown (1983), J. White (1998) and Lightbown and Spada (1993) that knowledge acquired via explicit instruction is, like most other memorised knowledge, quickly forgotten. These researchers claim that unless the specific aspect or feature of the target L2 is frequently repeated within a given period, it is indeed forgotten by the L2 learner shortly afterwards. In my experience, such short term retention is a common occurrence in the L2 classroom where I am frequently confronted with learners' inability to recall important aspects of grammar already taught, and it is often necessary to, for example, recapitulate on the SVO word order of English before moving on to passive forming in English.

3.5   Previous research on the effectiveness of enhanced input in SLA

Studies on input enhancement, corrective feedback and focus-on-form in a primarily communicative L2 acquisition programme done by Lightbown, Spada and Ranta (1991:417-432) indicate that instruction is beneficial in that L2 learners exposed to enhanced input and FonF, significantly outperformed uninstructed learners. Such results

are accepted as evidence that enhanced input brings about change in the interlanguage of L2 learners. On the subject of FonF and output,[10] Swain (1998) argues that studies such as those conducted by Kowal and Swain (1994, 1997), and Swain and Lapkin (1995, 1996) showed that learners noticing the gaps in their interlanguages were able to bridge such gaps when provided with linguistic information that they are able to understand and negotiate for finding a correct answer to a problem. For instance, should a L2 learner of English not know the meaning of the word *perhaps*, it may cause a breakdown in communication, but by providing the learner with clues to the meaning of the word, the learner may be able to deduce the proper use of the word. The ability of L2 learners to focus on such clues, which help them to work out a reasonable resolve for gaps in the interlanguage, has an impact on pedagogy, according to Swain (1998), in terms of the potential usefulness of collaborative (group) work in L2 teaching. This claim as to the usefulness of collaborative work is also investigated in the study reported in this thesis, since group work formed part of the enhanced input that Afrikaans-speaking adolescents received during instruction on English passives.

A study by Zhao and Bitchener (2007) showed that incidental FonF (cf. section 2.3.2.1) occurs frequently in classrooms where both teacher-learner (T-L) and learner-learner (L-L) interactions are present. Zhao and Bitchener hypothesise that frequent opportunities for discussing and negotiating correct answers lead to opportunities for L2 learning. They claim that their study indicated a higher rate of learners responding to each other's errors, just as would happen between teacher and learner. In other words, when L2 learners are reliant upon one another's in L2 learning, they also learn from each other, and this situation mimics the situation where the teacher and learner exchange linguistic knowledge. Zhao and Bitchener argue in favour of integrating L-L group activities into the classroom, given that learners seem to be more willing to negotiate shortcomings on a L-L basis than on a T-L basis.[11]

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[10] Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis concerns the importance of comprehensible output in addition to comprehensible input. Comprehensible output involves L2 learners being able to express themselves in a manner that can be understood by other (L1 and L2) speakers of the target L2 to such an extent that successful communication is established. It is further argued that learners who are required to make a conscious effort to communicate effectively, notice differences between their own speech production and those of more proficient speakers, which, in turn, enhances the L2 acquisition process.

[11] In my opinion, the emphasis placed on L-L interaction in the TEFL-based learning programme is valuable, since such interaction seems to create a more relaxed teaching environment. Learners, in my experience, do indeed seem to be more willing to participate in group activities than in T-L interactions. In my own experience with Afrikaans-speaking learners of L2 English, this is particularly obvious in cases where learners openly admit that they are unwilling to express themselves in English when feedback is required on

VanPatten (2000), VanPatten and Oikennon (1996), Benati (2004), Farley (2004), Sanz and Morgan-Short (2003), and Wong (2004) all agree that within a FonF classroom (also referred to as "overt intervention" in instructed SLA), structured input – i.e., any type of input, whether traditional or enhanced – alone is sufficient to cause a change in learners' interlanguage grammars (cf. VanPatten, Williams, Rott and Overstreet 2004:42-43). There is, however, a debate on whether output is as important as input, and VanPatten et al. (2004:42-45) conclude, based on studies reviewed by them, that it seems that the role of output in L2 fluency is under-researched in terms of becoming fluent and accurate in a L2. According to VanPatten et al., there should be more emphasis on L2 output, since the input that is provided to learners in L2 learning must eventually become output, which could be measured in terms of accuracy and fluency. For instance, the skill to write a dialogue in the L2 can be measured by the use of the correct format for dialogue writing. If a student is not able to produce the correct output (dialogue format) then the teacher knows to repeat the input until the required outcome (output) is achieved. Output skills would then seem to play an important role in building fluency and accuracy as part of successful SLA.

Sharwood Smith (1981) states that studies in which enhanced input are provided in order to facilitate noticing involve attempts to try and establish more precisely the effect of enhanced input in comparison to more traditional input, where "traditional input" refers to comprehensible input or explicit instruction. Han, Park, and Combs (2008) argue that the readiness of learners should be regarded *a priori* to intervention in the form of enhanced input, since this may affect the outcome of such intervention. Combs (see Han, Parks and Combs 2008:597-618) agree that a disregard for this variable (learner readiness) may be the reason for the limited effect of enhanced input reported in earlier studies. On the one hand, one might link the concept of 'learner readiness' to Krashen's Input Hypothesis: a learner is only ready for input at the level of *i* +1 when he has reached the level *i*. On the other hand, as White (1989) notes (cf. section 3.1.1), determining learners' current levels of competence are problematic (and the same can be said for learner readiness). In addition, teachers are usually faced with a class that includes learners with a range of levels of linguistic competence. When teaching groups of 30-50 learners (as is the case in

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any activity. In my classroom, I address this problem by allowing learners to write answers on the blackboard, which seems to be less intimidating to them than providing answers orally: it appears that they are not as worried about incorrect sentence constructions or spelling when writing on the board than when they have to verbalise an utterance.

many South African classrooms) who are all on different levels of *i*, it becomes impossible to determine what constitutes *i* +1 for the class as a whole and, hence, which input is appropriate for the class as a whole. For this reason, I propose that it is more sensible to compare the effect of different types of input, specifically, implicit vs. explicit instruction, on learners' L2 performance than to try and establish *i*, *i* + 1, and the precise nature of input appropriate to the level of *i* + 1 for a group of learners who are at different levels of L2 proficiency. Furthermore, comparing the effect of explicit vs. implicit instruction is a concrete exercise which could yield results with clear practical implications for L2 teaching, and this is what is needed currently, specifically for L2 English teaching in South African schools.

I will now turn the attention to core studies done on the effect of enhanced input. One such study was done by **Doughty and Williams** (1998:64-81) where several classroom-based experiments on the effect of FonF were carried out with the pedagogical intention of exploring ways of helping adolescent L2 learners of French in French immersion classes to achieve higher levels of accuracy and fluency in French. The participants comprised of two groups of grade 8 learners from an early French immersion programme in Canada. The learners were all on different levels of proficiency in French. In one experiment, learners had to listen to a story being read to them by their teacher, make notes on the story while hearing it, and then reconstruct the story with a classmate. The story contained grammatical aspects that the learners generally still struggled with. The experimental class received explanation on rules and clarification of terminology for the aspects at hand, but the control class did not. The results showed that learners were indeed able to notice the gap in their interlanguages, i.e., noticing the difference between what they want to say and what they are able to say, and that thorough preparation of students for task performance enhanced their collaborative working skills. Swain (1998:80) concluded that learners did learn new aspects of the grammar, although some learned it incorrectly and remembered it like that, but that the importance of collaborative work for L2 learners should not be underestimated.

Lydia White (1991:133-161) conducted a study that showed that instruction which includes FonF (thus input enhancement) is more effective than traditional input alone. She also focused on the effect of negative evidence in the study to teach French-speaking learners of English as L2 adverb placement in English. The participants were grade 5 and

6 French-speaking learners who participated in intensive L2 learning programmes. The learners had very little knowledge of English and minimal exposure to English outside the classroom. The learners were to be taught different aspects of English such as adverb placement and question formation; one group received specific instruction on adverb placement, while the other group did not receive instruction on adverb placement, but on question formation. A pre-test was followed by two weeks of intensive training on adverb placement for the one group and question formation for the other. The immediate post-test followed this period of training and the same tasks used for the pre-test were used to test their knowledge of adverb placement after instruction. The immediate post-test was also to determine whether there was any difference between the group who received instruction on adverb placement and the group who did not. A second post-test was administered after five weeks to see whether the results for the immediate post-test remained the same and to see whether the question group might have picked up on adverb placement through mere exposure. One year later, the learners in the adverb group were retested, but they had not received any further training on adverb placement during the period in between. The results showed that the beneficial effect of negative evidence was short-term, but that the prediction that positive evidence alone is insufficient for SLA was supported. White (1991:159-160) concludes by stating that the instruction of the ungrammaticality of the SVAO word order in English proved to be effective, whereas the question forming group did not have this precise same knowledge.

Another study, conducted by **Lightbown and Spada** (1993), sought to test the effect of FonF and negative evidence on French immersion learners with English as L2 when teaching them interrogatives. The participants comprised two groups of learners aged 10-12 years. The experimental group received intensive instruction (form-focused teaching and negative evidence) over a period of five weeks. The comparison group continued with the normal immersion programme during this period. The instruction allowed for both individual and group tasks. A pre-test and immediate post-test was done before/after the period of instruction, followed by a delayed post-test 5 months after instruction. Lightbown and Spada found a significant difference in forming interrogatives between the experimental group and the comparison group. The delayed post-testing also revealed that the comparison group maintained their level of knowledge or even progressed, outperforming the experimental group in all aspects, no matter how they were tested (Lightbown and Spada 1993:216-218). Lightbown and Spada explain the results by stating

that it may be the extended period of exposure to the instruction and corrective feedback from the teacher over a long period that led to the superior performance of the comparison group over the experimental group who were flooded with information in a short period. The results were unexpected, and the researchers suggest further investigation of the matter.

The last study to which I will refer here is that of **Joanna White** (cf. Doughty and Williams 1998:85-113). White set out to test the relationship between input in which a linguistic aspect has been enhanced and the acquisition of that linguistic aspect by learners who are known to experience problems acquiring it. The study involved the acquisition of possessive determiners in English by French-speaking learners. Three groups of grade 5 learners in an intensive L2 learning programme acted as participants. Each group received a different form of instruction over the same time period. Group E+ received a typographically enhanced input flood in addition to extensive reading and listening activities; Group E received only a typographically enhanced input flood; and Group U received a typographically unenhanced input flood.

Group E+ and Group E received materials in which all the third person singular pronouns were visually enhanced on the pages. They were also provided with tasks that required them to understand these forms in context, while Group U received the same set of activities, but without any form of enhancement. Pre-testing took place two weeks before the onset of the intensive training of 2 weeks. Immediate post-testing took place on the day after the 2-week training period and delayed post-testing took place 5 weeks thereafter.

The results indicated no significant difference in acquiring the possessive determiners in English as L2. White (cf. Doughty and Williams 1998:106) concludes that factors such as the features of the input, both enhanced and unenhanced, normal developmental processes leading to restructuring, and multiple tests may have influenced the outcome of the study. She further comments that although drawing attention to form did speed up acquisition of the aspect taught, it is not to say that it is enough to explain the differences between the L1 and L2 as far as the grammatical aspect at hand is concerned; learners may require more explicit instruction to make the difference clear.

From the above studies conducted on the effect of enhanced input (also known as FonF), it does not seem as though clear evidence exists that enhanced input is the ultimate solution to improved SLA. All the researchers share the view that more investigation is needed before firm conclusions on the matter can be made. It is then also the purpose of this study to test whether enhanced input will affect the acquisition of English passives in Afrikaans-speaking adolescents with English as L2.

Before reporting on the study in Chapters 5 to 7, it is necessary to consider issues related to the assessment of learners' L2 performance in the South African school system, as the second research question pertains to assessment methods. It is to these issues that we turn in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

Assessment of Second Language Learning

4.1   Introduction

In this chapter, I will discuss the practice of language testing (or language assessment). The South African Norms and Standards for Educators, as published in the *Government Gazette* No. 20844 (February 2000), clearly states that assessment is an essential part of the teaching and learning process and that teachers must have a proper understanding of the purposes, methods and effects of assessment. There are many reasons for assessing learners, including to (i) determine how well learners have achieved learning outcomes, (ii) encourage learners to put more effort into learning, (iii) determine which learners are ready to progress to a next level, (iv) diagnose learner difficulties, (v) provide positive feedback, (vi) report learner progress to parties involved, and (viii) develop improved teaching and learning strategies (Killen 2009:321). Killen (2009:367) states that teachers must design and manage formative and summative assessment procedures that are appropriate according to the accrediting bodies involved, and those teachers must furthermore be able to provide learners with proper post-assessment feedback. In order to do so, the teacher needs to understand the role and importance of assessment so that obtained results can be used to develop improved assessment programmes.

The question arises as to whether South African educators are indeed well enough equipped and have access to sufficient resources to devise and manage language testing procedures effectively. This question will be addressed later in this chapter. Before doing so, I discuss the characteristics of an ideal test. Then, the focus will turn to outcomes based education (OBE), and specifically its ideals and what it requires in terms of assessment. Reference will be made to Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of higher order thinking, i.e., the synthesis of human thinking skills put forward by Bloom (cf. Figure 4.1 in section 4.3 below), namely

(i)   knowledge, which concerns remembering or recalling appropriate and previously learned knowledge;

(ii)   comprehension, which refers to grasping and understanding information;

(iii)   application, which involves the ability to apply understood and previous knowledge to the correct context or to unfamiliar situations;

(iv)   analysis, which is necessary to understand and organise the breaking down of information learned;

(v)   synthesis, which refers to the ability of the learner to apply prior knowledge and skills to combine elements into clear patterns that were not clear before; and

(vi)   evaluation, which is the last step in high order thinking skills and refers to the judging or deciding to some set of criteria what is right or wrong.

The OBE method of assessment will then be contrasted to the so-called traditional (in the South African context, pre-OBE) method of assessment. The chapter concludes with notes on alternative (i.e., non-OBE and non-traditional) methods of assessment in the L2 classroom.

4.2   Some characteristics of an ideal test

The ideal test for assessing language proficiency would be measuring accurately and be unbiased and free of error, according to Spaan (2000:34). Such a test should also always be used exclusively for its originally intended purpose and should be easy to interpret (Spaan 2000:35). The ideal test should furthermore be fair and equitable. According to Spaan (2000), there are three elements to fair and equitable language testing, namely validity, reliability and practicality. These elements promote synergy between language tests developers and users of the tests. Each of these elements will now briefly be discussed.

Tests should always be addressing relevant aspects of the subject matter – for instance, a language test should test comprehension of texts, grammar knowledge and certain writing and reading skills of learners. A sensible test, on my interpretation, should test learners on aspects of the subject matter already instructed to them. It would seem pointless to test aspects not dealt with, since it may influence learners negatively. One should, however, bear in mind that tests are constructed by humans, which means that a test is subjected to the limited scope and (limited) knowledge of the examiner setting up the test. Killen

(2009:323-324) states that no matter what teachers do, there will always be errors in the form of measurement of testing.

As regards reliability, the characteristics of a reliable test include the following (Killen 2009:323-324):

(i)   Reliable tests comprise a fair amount of questions on the aspect(s) tested, as more questions provide a wider sample from which understanding of the aspect (or not) can become clear.

(ii)   The difficulty of questions ranges between relatively easy (in order to encourage learners) and more difficult (in order to challenge them). In a reliable test, questions are not too difficult, as (a) it may discourage learners to answer some of the questions and (b) it may also limit opportunities for learners to show what they have actually learned. Most difficult questions are placed towards the end of the test to prevent students from being discouraged.

(iii)   In reliable tests, questions discriminate clearly between the levels of knowledge of learners, i.e., questions reflect whether a learner with proper understanding of an aspect answers them correctly and a learner with less/no understanding answers incorrectly.

(iv)   Reliable tests avoid or include few true/false questions, as such questions are regarded as 'guessing questions'. The more opportunity the learner has to guess an answer, the less reliable the test becomes.

(v)   Questions are worded properly and instructions are clear and easy to understand.

(vi)   Reliable tests include no or few questions which can be interpreted subjectively. Teacher interpretation of learners' answers vary between objectivity and subjectivity, depending on the type of question – for instance, multiple choice questions are objective and essay-type questions are highly subjective. The more subjective the interpretation, the less reliable the result.

We now turn to practicality: As will be discussed in the next section, teachers often do not find the OBE method of testing practical and therefore make use of what they do find practical, namely individually completed paper-and-pen assessment tasks that are completed by the whole class at the same time.

Another aspect that could be seen as an characteristic of an ideal test, is that both examiners and examinees are involved in the process of test development in terms of whether appropriate aspects of knowledge were addressed, whether appropriate tasks that learners would be expected to perform were selected, and whether the test was engaging and appropriately elicited information from the learner (cf. Spaan 2000). In my experience, in our current South African educational system, there is a lack of feedback both on tests constructed either by teachers in the classroom and on papers set by the Department of Education. One possible reason for this is that, in reality, teachers are rarely instructed on modern methods of test setting. South African teachers are exposed to *Bloom's Taxonomy* (and often there will be a poster of this taxonomy against the classroom wall), but are not trained in how to apply the taxonomy during test setting. Learners are also not made aware of how this taxonomy (or others) is implemented; such an awareness could enhance individual study methods towards achieving better results. In my opinion, learners should be able to distinguish between high-order and low-order questions – just like the constructor of the test should; this should not be privileged knowledge, as the better the learner understands the levels of testing involved in a test, the better s/he will understand how to prepare for testing.

4.3   Traditional vs. OBE approaches to assessment

The conventional (or traditional) approach holds that teaching and testing are teacher-centred, whereas OBE aims to involve the learner more actively in the lesson (including in testing), but requires a new mindset from the learner and teacher. Conley, De Beer, Dunbar, Krige, Du Plessis, Gravett, Osmond, Merckel, November, Petersen, Robinson and Van der Merwe (2010:101-113) state that there are different views on assessment and that these views often depend on the assessment model in place. Their view is that teachers assess according to what is best known to them and according what they believe teaching and learning is all about. They identify two basic contrasting beliefs, namely (i) learners are required to know what teachers have taught and can be assessed by measuring the degree of what was taught (this is called "traditional assessment") and (ii) learners are required to show competence in a learning activity against a given set of criteria (in essence, OBE). Traditional assessment requires and focuses on finding one, correct answer, which according to Merckel and Van der Merwe (in Conley et al. 2010:101-113)

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leads to issues such as grades, standardisation and measurement becoming vitally important. This also holds that the tests require utmost validity and reliability to ensure fair assessment.

The OBE system of learner assessment holds that learners are tested more holistically, since the assessment is done against an accepted set of outcomes to measure how well the learners have managed to grasp the aspects measured (Merckyl and Van der Merwe, cited in Conley et al. 2010:108). The National Curriculum Statement of September 2005 (Orientation Manual 2005:19) states that the traditional system requires teachers to decide what should be learned, focuses on knowledge and facts mostly, develops intellect by memorising a body of facts and emphasises individual learning more than paying attention to social needs. It further states that OBE, by contrast, enhances learner involvement in terms of allowing learners to choose some topics for discussion, and values the development of intellect through an emphasis on problem-solving and creativity. OBE further encourages a variety of learning styles instead of only verbal tuition. In OBE, a focus from the individual to the social nature of learning is achieved through cooperation, group work and peer assessment.

The traditional approach makes provision for assessment through summative assessment whereas OBE focuses on continuous assessment. Learners are also exposed to integrated knowledge from other subject fields in OBE, which broadens horizons. OBE requires that assessment criteria be clear and transparent at all times. For example, teachers need to explain the marking rubric and providing each learner with a copy of such rubric when writing an essay (Gauteng Department of Education 2005).

From the above, it is clear that in outcomes based teaching there is a shift towards the collective involvement of a whole group as opposed to focus on the individual grasping of prescribed knowledge. As regards OBE assessment, it is formally formulated according to Bloom's Taxonomy (cf. Figure 4.1 below), which also helps the teacher to construct activities according to the Progression Principle, which is central to the National Curriculum Statement in South Africa. The Progression Principle holds that the learner only progresses from one level of knowledge to the next after mastering the current level, as illustrated by Bloom's Taxonomy in Figure 4.1 below. This would then mean that learners progress from one body of knowledge to another at their own pace, which may

raise the question whether this principle is conducive to learning if current large learner numbers per class is taken into account. It is quite possible that such an approach could interfere with the fast progressing learner's level of development and only consider and accommodate the slower progressing learner in the process of developing higher order thinking skills. In other words, the learner must deal at his/her own pace with the different levels of Bloom's taxonomy in order to progress to the ultimate level of high order thinking, namely self-evaluation of reasoning. Bloom's taxonomy defines the different levels of competence and skills demonstrated on six levels of complexity. Note that coping at a given level requires the mastery of lower levels in the taxonomy, e.g. Level 2 (Comprehension) requires knowledge (Level 1), and being able to analyse (Level 4), requires mastery of Levels 1-3 (Gauteng Department of Education 2005:78-90)
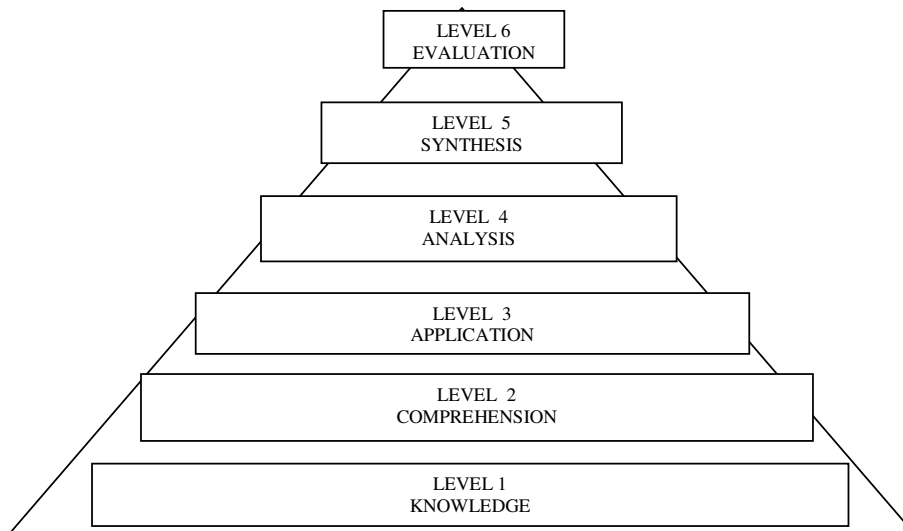
Figure 4.1. Bloom's taxonomy

Level 1 and Level 2 should (combined) comprise 40% of test questions
Level 3 and Level 4 should (combined) comprise 30% of test questions
Level 5 should comprise 20% of test questions
Level 6 should comprise 10% of test questions

The above margins should provide a balanced test if adhered to.

Textbox 4.1. Guidelines for creating a balanced test using Bloom's taxonomy

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The guidelines in Textbox 4.1 are provided by *The National Curriculum Statement/Orientation* (2005:77-80) regarding the creation of balanced tests, and clearly draw on Bloom's taxonomy.

OBE assessment is currently done by using rubrics for assessing summaries, essays, transactional texts and oral tasks. These rubrics are not always standardised and teachers are allowed to create and adapt rubrics according to personal preference, which holds that assessment criteria are adaptable. Despite these rubrics, answer interpretation could differ from one teacher to the next, and two teachers may furthermore interpret learner outcomes differently (cf. Killen 2009:322-323). For example, it is not clear what separates a good essay from an excellent essay, and one teacher's 'partially achieved' could be another's 'not achieved'.

In the remainder of this section, I will refer to OBE teaching more so than to OBE assessment. The reason for this is that the aims for OBE are more clearly defined and that in OBE the assessment is supposed to be an outflow of the teaching so that much of what is said on OBE teaching directly applies to OBE assessment as well. Where possible, I will apply the discussion to OBE assessment in SLA, specifically.

Dykstra (2005:57) refers to the process of learning in terms of elicitation, comparison, resolution and application of learned knowledge. In OBE, all of the above activities should take place in the context of group or paired work sessions, but it is my experience that in South African classrooms teachers generally do **not** adhere to this requirement due to large numbers of learners, lack of discipline and impracticality of hosting several groups in small spaces. When they do attempt group work, teachers frequently become frustrated when learners engage in irrelevant intra-group activities (such as personal discussions) instead of focusing on the subject matter at hand. It is common practice for teachers to simply refuse to do group work and to rely on the traditional classroom setup where learners are seated in rows instead of more informal groups. Teachers' preference for the traditional approach to teaching and assessment could be related to classroom discipline, which was recently discussed over a three-day international conference in Potchefstroom (South Africa). A'eysha Kassiem in an online article (http://www.iol.co.za/news/south-africa/discipline-is-a-challenge-for-most-teachers-1.321523) reported that pupils' misbehaviour and rudeness were the leading reason for teacher resignations. Kassiem

concludes the article by reporting that the punitive measures in place are not conducive to appropriate school settings. From this information, one may say that classroom discipline refers to the level of cooperation the teacher can rely on when teaching, but that large numbers (40 to 60) of learners per class do not contribute to positive learning behaviour. Merckel and Van der Merwe (Conley et al. 2010:109) attribute a decline in classroom discipline to the increasing demands on teachers having to cope with large classes and the further requirement of continuous assessment leading to the use of more superficial assessment methods to help them cope with current classroom management.

Managing group work successfully often requires training that most teachers in the South African school system did not receive. Traditional teaching methods are generally more acceptable to teachers, in particular where learners are required to copy work from the blackboard or repeat after the teacher, thus "forcing" them to focus on the academic material at hand.[12] In such classrooms, learner communication is often limited to formal assessment tasks such as prepared speech and unprepared reading. In order not to compromise classroom discipline, no room is left for open group discussion. This limits the number of opportunities the learners have to practice their spoken language skills. Teachers who have a traditional rather than an OBE approach to teaching often have the same approach to assessment: Learners are tested individually (either one-by-one for reading and speaking or as a class for written tasks) and not in group context, which can lead to unwillingness on the part of the learners to respond to questions from the teacher.

My informal discussions with colleagues at several high schools revealed that many teachers are of the opinion that it is simply easier to teach in the traditional manner, as the class is then quiet and occupied. The OBE method of teaching and assessing is seen as requiring more creativity on the part of the teacher when preparing lessons, because lessons now need to cater for different learners in terms of the fact that not all learners learn the same thing at the same time in the same manner. The question arises as to whether the aims of OBE can be achieved without group or paired work sessions. An answer to this question falls outside the scope of this study, but is nevertheless important.

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[12] A consequence of employing such methods in the language learning classroom is that learners do not have the opportunity to learn from classmates; rather, learners are exposed only to the teacher's perception of what is allowed in the language. This reduces input sources.

OBE as method of instruction is frequently criticised – see, for example, the Mail & Guardian online article (www.thoughtleader.co.za/bertolivier/2009/09/05/why-obe-has-not-worked-in-south-africa) in which Bert Olivier refers to Mamphela Ramphele, previous vice-chancellor of the University of Cape Town, openly declaring OBE inefficient, based on the fact that OBE expected teachers to teach like "machines", meaning that teachers are expected to prepare, deliver and assess lessons and the outcomes (which differ from teacher to teacher) in a certain time frame, in a "mechanically perfect" manner. OBE has, according to Olivier, lost sight of the fact that teachers and learners are only human and cannot perform like machines. On top of the time-consuming teaching method, the OBE system leads to teachers being kept too busy keeping files up to date, trying to cope with the large amount of record keeping of every little aspect taught and assessed. In short, the OBE system in South Africa has become too tedious to cope with, given the large number of learners in our classes. Olivier further states that teachers should be able to teach on short notice, without any carefully planned and written out plan, since their subject knowledge forms part of their expected memory and intelligence. I am of the opinion, though, that OBE was not properly implemented and that support from the Department of Education failed teachers to the point where the traditional methods of teaching proved easier and more reliable to teachers. Most textbooks on OBE were written for the American classroom structure which caters for no more than fifteen learners, and allows an assistant teacher if this number be exceeded. It could be said that the workload of South African language teachers simply does not allow for the implementation of such a method of instruction without proper training and support from the government. For this reason, teachers are still making use of traditional teaching and assessment methods in language learning classrooms in South Africa.

In order for the assessment employed during the course of this study to have pedagogical validity (i.e., to approximate the real-life type of testing employed in South African L2 classrooms), I made use of individual paper-and-pen type tasks rather than of a more OBE approach to assessment. A discussion of the content of the tasks employed in this study is given below, embedded in a more general discussion on alternative assessment approaches.

4.4   Alternative assessment approaches

According to Purpura (2004:260 -270), there has been a gradual shift in SLA classrooms from assessing grammatical accuracy towards assessing effective communicative abilities in the L2. This holds that, although grammatical aspects are still deemed important and grammar is still an integral part of the syllabus, when grammar is tested, it is integrated into texts for comprehension, texts for visual literacy and texts for analysis like cartoons and advertisements. Grammar is not tested using a direct question/answer format, but in a broader, contextualised manner.

However, Purpura (2004:264-266) claims that test designers should aspire to accomplish the testing of both grammatical ability and grammatical performance. He states that teachers in general find this challenging, and that they are often confused as to how they should test for grammar and communicative competence at the same time. A study done by Rea-Dickins (2001; cited in Purpura 2004:260-270) has shown that most teachers (61 out of 70) resorted to explicit grammar testing rather than assessing grammar through indirect methods.[13]

Purpura (2004:265) also suggests that it is important for assessors to decide what linguistic aspect it is they want to test and then to construct a test suitable to their specific needs. In FonF instruction, tests which focus on a particular aspect of the L2 still favour the traditional right/wrong, cloze or gap-filling tasks (Purpura 2004:252-255). For the purposes of this study, I have made use of such right/wrong questions to assess knowledge of the English passive. However, in an attempt to use more accommodating (from the learners' perspective) assessment methods, I have also included multiple choice and choose-the-correct form types of questions in the delayed post-test. This was done in order to ascertain whether it is indeed possible to test knowledge of English passives while providing learners with possible answers. In my opinion, L2 learners are at times

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[13] In my experience, high school learners find it more satisfactory to master and successfully pass explicit tests of, for instance, negation, before being expected to use it for assessment purposes in a wider context, such as in writing a dialogue. Explicitly testing on the aspect at hand provides more opportunity for the teacher to highlight errors and for correcting errors in the early stages of SLA. When learners are expected early on to use certain grammar structures correctly in production tasks such as the writing of a 400 word essay, it becomes difficult to focus on the selected problematic grammar structure, as the essay is in general error ridden, with many other structures also requiring feedback and correction. In such circumstances, I have observed learners to become despondent, as they are not able to focus on multiple errors and setting them right in the time allowed in a classroom.

"intimidated" by self-formulating right/wrong questions and answers when their knowledge of grammar is tested. However, when given a choice, learners seem less stressed during assessment when they know that the correct answer is one of those in front of them, and that they only need to "recognise" the correct answer by applying their acquired knowledge. I view a more relaxed type of testing grammatical proficiency, especially in the early stages of L2 acquisition, as important, since I believe the learner to respond more positively to a less intimidating self-formulating test. I wanted to establish whether this is indeed the case.

Purpura (2004:273-274) states that despite claims from the 1970s and 1980s that explicit grammar testing has no effect on language learning, most teachers of languages have not given up on grammar teaching and explicit testing. It has rather led to a dramatic increase in empirical studies in SLA, resulting in compelling cases for both explicit and implicit grammar teaching and assessment.

Purpura states that the existing empirical studies can only help and motivate teachers to find and develop useful grammar assessments in support of their grammar teaching. Given the resistance of most South African teachers to group and purely communicative types of language assessment and also the practicalities of the South African classroom, language teachers in general find it most useful to employ explicit testing.

In this study, I have therefore employed this latter type of testing, and have included several forms of it to establish whether reliable results can be obtained by means of tasks other than right/wrong questions. In the next chapter, I describe the methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER 5

Research Methodology

5.1   Research questions

This study investigates the influence of enhanced input on the knowledge that Afrikaans-speaking learners of English as L2 have of English passive constructions. It furthermore investigates whether different methods of assessing knowledge of passives rendered different results. The following two research questions were posed in Chapter 1 (repeated here for the sake of convenience):

Research question 1: Does enhanced input as method of instruction for English improve adolescent L2 learners' knowledge of English passives to a greater extent than does formal explanation of the rules for forming English passive constructions?

Research question 2: Does assessment of knowledge of English passives via questions that require little writing on the part of the learner render better results than questions that require self-formulated answers from the learner?

My hypotheses are that enhanced input will indeed be a more successful method of instruction than will formal explanation of rules and that less-writing assessment tasks will render comparable marks to those rendered by tasks requiring self-formulation of answers.

5.2   General research protocol

The head teacher of the Afrikaans-English dual-medium secondary school where I teach in a city on the East Rand of Gauteng in South Africa was approached for permission to perform the study in the school. After receiving the principal's permission, permission was also obtained from the Gauteng Department of Education. Such permission was granted on condition that the school carries no financial burden, that the teaching that the learners receive is in no manner compromised in terms of the prescribed syllabus and that the study would not interfere with the June examinations.

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Once permission had been granted, a questionnaire was compiled to obtain information on the linguistic background of the participants (cf. Appendix A). A meeting with the participants (two groups of grade 11 Afrikaans-speaking learners, each group comprising one class) was held during which they were informed about the nature of the study. It was emphasised that what will be taught during the study forms part of the prescribed syllabus and that learners can therefore not decide not to attend classes; they could however decide whether or not they wanted to give me permission to use the results of the questionnaires and tests when reporting the outcome of the study. Learners were also told that the study was to take place during normal school hours, that they would not be disadvantaged financially or time-wise, and that refusal or consent to participate will not have any consequences.

The learners were then handed consent forms for interested parents to sign (cf. Appendix B). Three parents did not consent to their children's participation in the study, one of a learner from the Traditional group and two of learners from the Enhanced group. Learners whose parents granted consent were asked to sign letters of assent (cf. Appendix C) should they be willing to have test results disclosed (anonymously) for the purpose of this study. Participants were informed that the study will involve the same subject matter for both classes and that, for obvious reasons, the aspect researched could not be revealed. They were asked to minimise absenteeism for the following fourteen lessons, which would form the instruction phase of the study, in order not to compromise the study. It was also brought to participants' attention that the study would in no manner (dis)advantage them and that the research-related assessment would not influence their year marks.

Once assent was given, participants completed a language background questionnaire (cf. section 5.3) one period before a pre-test was performed. The purpose of the pre-test was to measure existing knowledge of the English passive (cf. section 5.4.1). Hereafter, both classes received 14 lessons on the English passive, the one group via enhanced input and the other via traditional instruction methods (cf. section 5.5). An intermediate test was administered directly after the completion of the 14 lessons (cf. section 5.4.2), and a delayed post-test 9 weeks later (cf. section 5.4.3).

5.3   The participants

Parental consent and individual assent were obtained from 51 learners, 24 in the class that received enhanced input (henceforth: "the Enhanced group") and 27 in the class that received explicit explanation of rules (henceforth: "the Traditional group"). Of those in the Traditional group, only 16 were present on all three test occasions; for the Enhanced group, this number was 18. These 34 learners formed the pool of potential participants. The intention was to select 32 participants from this pool by matching 16 of the 18 learners in the Enhanced pool to each of the 16 learners in the Traditional pool in terms of their pre-test results. However, this was not possible. Complete or near matches could only be found for 12 learners in the Traditional pool. The participants thus consisted of 24 learners in total: 12 in the class that received traditional instruction and 12 in the class that received enhanced input. The mean age for the Traditional group was 17 years 5 months. This group consisted on 3 males and 9 females. For the Enhanced group, the mean age was 18 years 2 months. In this group there were 4 male and 8 female participants.

As mentioned above, learners completed a short background questionnaire. The purpose was to obtain information from the learners on their mother tongue (they were all – by choice – in the Afrikaans as opposed to the English stream of the school and thus received all their tuition – apart from their English L2 lessons – in Afrikaans, but I wanted to ascertain what they viewed as their mother tongue); the extent of their use of English outside of school hours; and their self-rated proficiency in English. Each participant completed the questionnaire by himself/herself and participants were asked not to communicate with each other during questionnaire completion.

As shown in Figure 5.1, the mother tongue of the majority of the participants in both groups was Afrikaans (11 of the 12): One participant in the Traditional group reported to have English as mother tongue (despite voluntarily choosing Afrikaans as language of teaching, even though classes are also available in English as language of teaching). In the Traditional group, there was one learner who reported to have Italian as mother tongue. In this thesis, I consistently refer to the learners being Afrikaans-speaking (despite these two learners indicating that they have a language other than Afrikaans as their home language). The reason for my decision to view them as Afrikaans is that I had been teaching these

learners seven times per week for three months at the time of initial data collection and am well informed as to their Afrikaans proficiency (seeing that they prefer to speak Afrikaans in the English L2 classroom). In short, these two learners present as native speakers of Afrikaans.
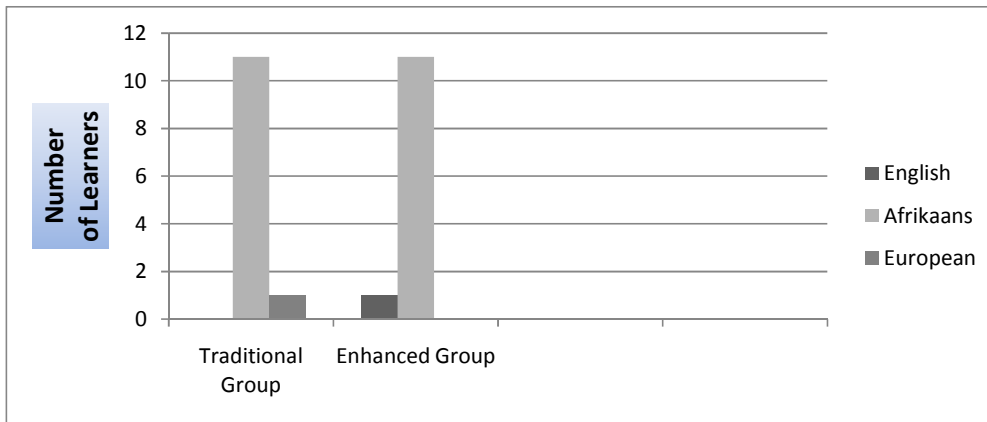
Figure 5.1. Mother tongue (L1) of participants

The language questionnaire also asked for the number of hours spent communicating in English outside of the classroom for social purposes such as, for instance, conversing with parents or friends. The results are given in Figure 5.2 below; as can be seen, most participants reported speaking English for 11 to 20 hours weekly outside the language classroom.
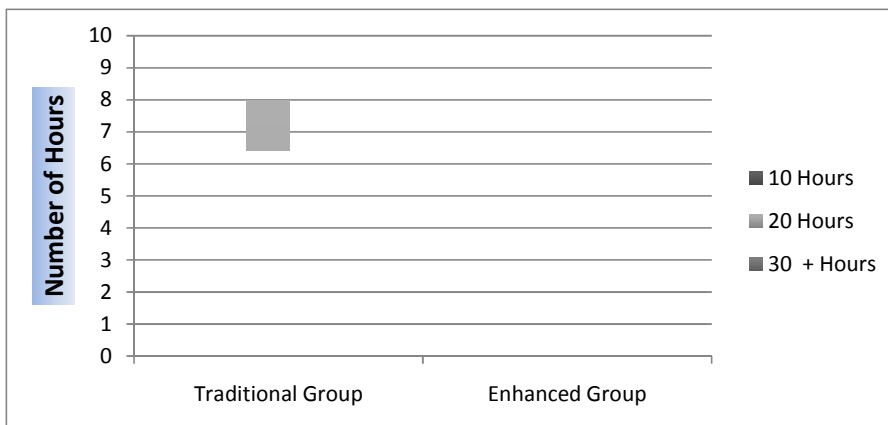
Figure 5.2. Communicative use of English per week (outside of school hours)

The questionnaire also revealed that only two participants per group engaged in extra activities for educational purposes to enhance their English language skills, for instance, taking extra English classes after school at a private institution. Lastly, the questionnaire had the purpose of establishing how the participants rated their individual mastery of English as L2, which is indicated in Figure 5.3 below. Note that the self-rating of the Traditional group was better than that of the Enhanced group, despite the fact that the groups were comparable in terms of the extent to which they speak English for social purposes.
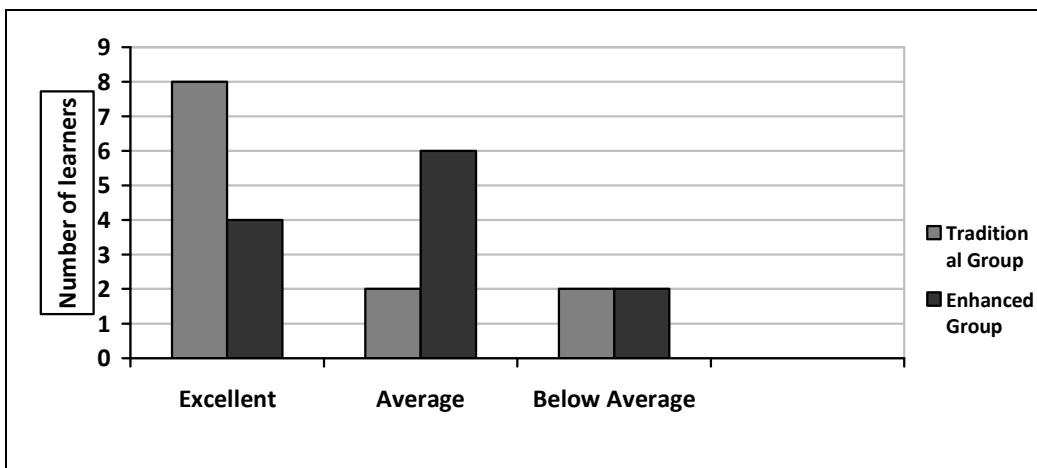
Figure 5.3 Self-rating of English Competence

Comment [KN1]: Hierdie grafiek is nou reg. Dit lyk net of die Y-axis se label half is, maar dit print wel voluit. Weet nie hoekom???? Dit verteenwoordig nou 24 leerders.

5.4   The pre-test and post-tests

The study consisted of five parts, namely the language questionnaire (cf. Appendix A), the pre-test (cf. Appendix D), the instruction phase, the immediate post-test (cf. Appendix E), and the delayed post-test (cf. Appendix F). The tests are discussed in this section and the method of instruction in the one to follow.

5.4.1   The pre-test

Although the focus of the study was on passive constructions, questions not relating to passives were also included in the pre-test in an attempt to conceal this focus from the participants (so as to avoid any participant doing any self-study on passives in an attempt to improve his/her marks). The pre-test included questions on different aspects of parts of

speech and general grammar rules and an exercise in converting active sentences into the passive voice and vice versa. Neither the participants nor the rest of the learners in their classes were aware that the pre-test set out to determine existing knowledge on English active and passive voice. The tests for both groups were exactly the same in all respects.

5.4.2   The immediate post-test

The immediate test had the same format as the pre-test, but with different content questions. The immediate test was written at the end of the fourteenth period. Learners were not aware that a test would be written and could thus not prepare for it.

5.4.3   The delayed post-test

After the completion of the immediate post-test, learners of the Traditional group moved on to new aspects of the syllabus, without specific reference to passives during lessons. Although never stated, learners were likely to infer from the content of subsequent lessons that instruction on passives had been concluded and that they would only encounter this aspect of grammar again in the June examination. The learners were thus not aware that they were to write a delayed post-test on English passives and actives, which was originally scheduled for twelve weeks after the immediate post-test.

The Enhanced group also moved on to new aspects of the syllabus, but I referred back to passive forms, when accidentally encountered in, for instance, a scientific text read for comprehension purposes. Lesson material was however not chosen for their use of passives. Participants in this group thus often considered the use for passives and its role in English texts: for instance, when learners were taught how to write summaries of texts and had to write their own newspaper headlines, they saw that the passive form is useful for these purposes. Like the Traditional group, the Enhanced group was not informed of the writing of the delayed post-test and could thus not prepare for it.

The delayed post-test was constructed in the same manner as the pre-test and the immediate post-test, but in order to test the hypothesis that learners do not necessarily guess the correct answers when given multiple choice questions, especially when confronted with more difficult aspects of English grammar such as passives, it was

decided to add an extra two questions to the delayed post-test. These questions comprised multiple choice-type and choose-the-correct-option type questions to test the knowledge of passives and actives of the two groups. The delayed post-test took place nine weeks after the immediate post-test (three weeks earlier than originally planned) in order to fit it in before the commencement of the mid-year examinations.

5.5   The two methods of instruction

Each class had 14 lessons of 30 minutes each during the second term of their grade 11 year. The fourteen lessons on forming the English active and passive voice occurred between the pre-test and the immediate post-test. The first part of the first lesson and the last part of the fourteenth lesson were taken up by the pre-test and intermediate test, respectively.

For the grade 11 class that was instructed according to the **traditional, more formal method of instruction,** I made use of the text book currently used by the school, namely Lutrin and Pincus' (2002) *English Handbook and Study Guide. A Comprehensive English Reference Book*. I followed the traditional board-and-chalk method of teaching by writing the rules for forming English active and passive sentences on the board, explained the rules in terms of the SVO rule for English sentence structure, after which learners copied the work down into their workbooks. This was followed by written activities to practise forming passive sentences. Learners copied active sentences into their workbooks and converted them into passives and vice versa. These activities relied on individual pen-and-paper work done by the learners, after which peer assessment was done where learners swapped books and I provided the correct answers, upon which corrections were made in the books and workbooks handed back to their owners. A discussion of possible problems followed such sessions, and learners were provided the opportunity to ask questions, which I then answered by talking while writing explanations on the blackboard, using an example sentence and emphasising the rules for changing active sentences into passive sentences or vice versa.

The learners were not allowed to communicate with one another during the 14 lessons; all activities had to be completed individually, although learners were allowed to ask me

questions if they encountered difficulties. Passive constructions were at first taught at a basic level which entailed distinguishing between what is necessary (in the English Simple Sentence) to be able to apply the rule of SVO → OVS for forming passives in English where S is the subject, V is the verb and O is the object.

The level of complexity was raised as soon as it seemed that the group understood the previous level. Lastly, the group was instructed on converting passives back into actives. Not much mention was made of passives found in real-world situations, except that we often encounter passives in newspaper headings. The Traditional group seemed to participate in the activities without much enthusiasm and appeared to do only what was required from them. The lessons were mostly conducted in teacher-learner mode; not much learner-teacher interaction took place. In the latter half of the seven hours (lesson 3 onwards), lessons became a repetition of writing down grammar rules, doing an activity and reviewing the answers. Participants showed little interest in knowing what errors were made and even less in understanding why what they did constitute an error; in fact, they seemed merely interested in receiving the correct answer from me. It was my experience that learners in this group showed minimal interest in how English passives were formed or used in the wider context of the language.

When preparing the lesson plans for teaching English passive constructions to the **Enhanced group** (see Appendix G for an example of a lesson plan), I referred to the formal and traditional format of teaching active and passive voice as set out in the Lutrin and Pincus textbook (the book out of which the Traditional group was taught). I then developed a TEFL-based lesson for each aspect of the rule. All lessons were learner-centred: At the start of each lesson, the learners were handed files containing the lesson and its accompanying activities. Teacher talk during most of the lesson was limited to nodding or telling participants to ask group members for assistance. It took three lessons for the learners to realise that they had to discover the rules for English passives within the group (rather than by asking me what the rule was). They were guided by means of printed instruction sheets (on which I used colour coding to emphasise the rule for forming English passives) on how to progress from one level of complexity to another (see Appendix G for an example). The lessons were constructed in stages of complexity: I first introduced only simple sentences which were to be changed from the active to the passive voice (e.g., *I eat an apple → An apple is eaten by me*) and then progressed to more

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complex sentences (like *The bird in the tree ate an apple at noon→ An apple was eaten by the bird in the tree at noon*) as the learners mastered the basic form and its proper application first. This made it easier to anticipate when the group had dealt with one aspect and was ready to move on. I made use of an alarm clock to indicate the time restrictions for those activities that had such restrictions. Sharing of rules and answers with the greater class was done (i) by individual learners randomly selected by their respective groups to write answers on the blackboard and (ii) by me discussing the answers with the whole class, leading learners to reason out answers and corrections (where the latter was indicated). This means that the rule for forming active sentences from passive sentences and vice versa was elicited from the learners themselves, which is also known in TEFL as "inductive instruction". It is seen as important for enhanced learning that learners should "discover" the grammar rule by making educated guesses from the information received. In this case, the information was provided to learners on worksheets prepared by me, which required them to use their already existing knowledge of English active and passive forms to deduce the correct rules from the information on the sheets.

My role as instructor was limited almost exclusively to overseeing and regulating the flow of activities. Self-correcting of errors was integral to the lessons and for this purpose self-correcting sheets were handed to learners on printed answer sheets which had to be requested by each group once they had completed an activity. The groups were only allowed to check answers against the answer sheet once they had completed all the activities on the instruction sheet. At times it was, however, necessary for me to explicitly explain, for instance, the SVO→VSO rule for English passive formation.

I found the learners to be enthusiastic to discover new aspects every period. They were responsive and interactive within their respective groups. Surprise activities, such as *When done with the activity, send a delegate to fetch lollies for each learner in the group*, led to much excitement in the class. The 14 lessons with the Enhanced group offered just enough time for teaching Active and Passive voice in English comprehensively.

In the next chapter, I present and discuss the results of the three test occasions. I compare the results of the Enhanced group to those of the Traditional group,and I also compare different manners of assessing knowledge of passive constructions.

CHAPTER 6

Results

6.1 Traditional instruction vs. enhanced input

In order to answer the first research question of this study – namely whether enhanced input as method of instruction for English improves adolescent L2 learners' knowledge of English passives to a greater extent than does formal explanation of the rules for forming English passive constructions – I compared the test results of the two groups of learners. Below, for each test occasion, I give the two groups' ability to convert active sentences into passives **and** vice versa. The results are summarised in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1. Comparison of results for Traditional and Enhanced groups on three test occasions

		Pre-test	Immediate post-test	Delayed post-test
Traditional group	**Composite score**	122 / 312	138 / 312	119 / 312
	Mean score	10.2 / 26	11.5 / 26	9.9 / 26
Enhanced group	**Composite score**	143 / 312	170 / 312	143 / 312
	Mean score	11.9 / 26	14.2 / 26	11.9 / 26

6.1.1 The pre-test results

Both the Traditional group and the Enhanced group were presented with a pre-test to establish the existing knowledge of the group on the grammatical aspect of English passives before any instruction took place. For the pre-test as a whole, the Traditional group obtained an average of 10.2 out of a possible 26 marks whereas the Enhanced group obtained 11.9, indicating that the two groups were comparable in terms of their existing knowledge of the English passive construction prior to the instruction phase (cf. Table 6.2).

Table 6.2. Pre-test results for Traditional and Enhanced groups

		Test as a whole	Converting active to passive	Converting passive to active
Traditional group	**Composite score**	122 / 312	107 / 264	15 / 48
	Mean score	10.2 / 26	9 / 22	1.25 / 4
	Range	6 / 26 to 15 / 26	6 / 22 to 14/22	0/4 to 3/4
Enhanced group	**Composite score**	143 / 312	132 / 264	11 / 48
	Mean score	11.9 / 26	11 / 22	0.92 / 4
	Range	6 / 26 to 14 / 26	6 /22 to 13/22	0/4 to 2/4

When one considers their ability to convert active sentences into passives separately from their ability to convert passive sentences into active sentences, there were some differences between the two groups. The learners in the Traditional group achieved an average of 9 out of a possible 22 marks and the Enhanced group 11 for converting sentences from the active voice into the passive. From the onset of the study, it thus seemed as though the Enhanced group had more existing knowledge of converting active into passive in English. By contrast, for the task which required learners to convert passive constructions into active ones, the Traditional group showed a higher level of knowledge: 15 out of a possible 48 marks versus 11. However, as both groups obtained a mean of 50% or less, the difference was not taken to be large enough to result in the groups being viewed as mismatched; the marks were deemed low enough to allow for tracking their progress in a sensible manner.

A secondary concern which the study set out to address was the number of questions that are not attempted by learners when they think the question is too complex rather than to attempt a partial answer in an attempt to at least gain some of the marks. The pre-test revealed that the Traditional group left 4% of the questions totally unanswered, whereas the Enhanced group did not attempt an answer for 2% of the questions.

6.1.2 The immediate post-test's results

The Traditional group and the Enhanced group each received 14 lessons on forming English passives. Recall that the Traditional group was instructed using traditional teaching methods (teacher explanation and drilling) as opposed to the Enhanced group that received enhanced input as method of instruction, i.e., colour-coding and highlighting of certain aspects of the grammatical concept at hand. After the 14 lessons, the groups were presented with a post-test. Table 6.3 provides the results of the immediate post-test.

Table 6.3. Immediate post-test's results for Traditional and Enhanced groups

		Test as a whole	Converting active to passive	Converting passive to active
Traditional group	**Composite score**	138 / 312	115 / 264	23 / 48
	Mean score	11.5 / 26	9.6 / 22	1.92 / 4
	Range	5 / 26 to 20 / 26	5 / 22 to 16 / 22	0/4 to 4/4
Enhanced group	**Composite score**	170 / 312	146 / 264	24 / 48
	Mean score	14.2 / 26	12.2 / 22	2.0 / 4
	Range	5 / 26 to 20 / 26	5 / 22 to 18 / 22	0/4 to 4/4

Both groups attempted 100% of the questions after the period of instruction. During this period, both groups were instructed to always attempt all questions, not only to possibly improve their marks but also to give their teacher an opportunity to see what types of errors they are making and where they need further assistance in acquiring the relevant aspect of grammar.

6.1.3 The delayed post-test's results

On the delayed post-test, written 9 weeks after the immediate post-test, the two groups obtained comparable marks for converting passive sentences into active sentences, but the Enhanced group obtained higher marks for converting active sentences into passive sentences. The results of this post-test are given in Table 6.4.

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Table 6.4. Delayed post-test's results for Traditional and Enhanced groups

		Test as a whole	Converting active to passive	Converting passive to active
Traditional group	**Composite score**	119 / 312	96 / 264	23 / 48
	Mean score	9.9 / 26	8.0 / 22	1.92 / 4
	Range	2 / 26 to 20 / 26	2 / 22 to 17 / 22	0/4 to 4/4
Enhanced group	**Composite score**	143 / 312	121 / 264	22 / 48
	Mean score	11.9 / 26	10.1 / 22	1.83 / 4
	Range	4 / 26 to 18 / 26	4 / 22 to 14 / 22	0/4 to ¾

During the delayed post-test, the Traditional group did not attempt 6 of the questions, which made up 9% of the total marks, whereas the Enhanced group left unanswered only 3 questions, totalling 3% of the post-test's marks.

6.2 Assessment tasks: Minimal writing vs. self-formulated answers

The second research question pertained to the effect of two different assessment tasks on the test marks received by the two groups of learners. As mentioned in Chapter 5, the delayed post-test had the same format as the pre-test and immediate post-test, apart from the addition of a set of questions that required no self-formulated answers from the participants. This extra set of questions consisted of multiple choice and choose-the-correct-answer type of questions. This was done to test the effect of assessment methods requiring minimal writing from the learner versus the right/wrong written-out questions and answers currently used by many language teachers.

The Traditional group achieved 41 out of the possible 60 marks (68%) on the extra set of questions, compared to the 119 out of 312 (38%) for the self-formulated answers. The Enhanced group obtained 40 out of 60 marks (67%) on the questions requiring minimal writing, compared to 143 out of 312 marks (46%) on the tasks requiring self-formulation of answers.

CHAPTER 7

Discussion and Conclusion

7.1   Enhanced input as method of instruction vs. the traditional method of instruction

Although the Enhanced and Traditional groups both made gains in their knowledge of the English passive construction between the pre-test and the immediate post-test, such gains were lost by the time the delayed post-test was written 9 weeks after the instruction period had ended. The nature of the increase and decrease in marks are briefly discussed below.

Concerning the conversion of active sentences into passives, the Traditional group's marks increased by 3% between the pre-test and the immediate post-test, whereas the Enhanced group's marks increased by 5%. Should one consider only the marks for these two tests, it could appear that enhanced input was marginally more successful than traditional instruction in increasing Afrikaans-speaking learners' knowledge of the English passive construction. Two further observations can however be made here. Firstly, despite this increase, both groups still obtained scores of 55% or less, so even after the increase, the marks are still unsatisfactory. Secondly, a decrease of 8% occurred between the immediate and delayed post-tests for the Traditional group; for the Enhanced group, the decrease was 9%. In other words, both groups fared worse after intervention than before receiving any instruction on converting active English sentences into passives, with the best-performing group (the Enhanced group) obtaining only 46%.

As regards the marks for tasks requiring learners to turn passive sentences into the active voice, the following pattern was observed: Both groups obtained low marks on the task during the pre-test (31% and 23% for the Traditional and Enhanced groups, respectively); both groups showed an increase between the pre-test and the immediate post-test (23% for the Traditional group and 27% for the Enhanced group); and both groups managed to maintain these gains (completely in the case of the Traditional group and to a large extent in the case of the Enhanced group) in the period between the two post-tests. However, as

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in the case of the tasks requiring learners to convert active sentences into passives, despite gains, the two groups still obtained low scores (50% or less on all test occasions).

From the above, one can conclude that the answer to **research question 1** is "no": Enhanced input as method of instruction for English does not improve adolescent L2 learners' knowledge of English passives to a greater extent than does formal explanation of the rules for forming English passive constructions. Recall that the Enhanced group was constantly reminded of the use and occurrence of passives in English in lessons on other grammatical aspects following the instruction for the study. The Traditional group were not made aware of the passive form in following grammar lessons between the immediate and the delayed post-test. It could be said that English passives were dealt with and treated as an independent aspect of the grammar for the Traditional group, i.e., there was no effort on my part to contextualise the use English passive constructions. For this reason, the obtained result was unexpected. That said, there are other studies that found no positive effect for enhanced input as method of instruction in the L2 classroom. Among these are J. White (1998) and Izumi (2002) who found that input enhancement did not lead to the expected noticing of the target aspect in their studies (cf. Tragant and Munoz 2004:206).

Other scholars did find a positive effect for input enhancement, an effect that could not be shown in this study. Sa-ngiamwibool (2007) showed that enhanced input had a significant positive effect on the language skills of Thai learners of English as L2, and more specifically on their writing skills. Similarly, Rashtchi and Gharanli (2010) found that input enhancement led to significant improvements in the use of English conditionals by Iranian female students (compared to a control group that did not receive input enhancement as method of instruction). Benati (2001) studied Italian learners of English as L2 and found that the group that received enhanced input outperformed the traditionally taught group, also on the delayed post-test. VanPatten and Wong (2003) found that a group of French L2 learners who received enhanced input were able to transfer their knowledge into new concepts of the grammar, but that the group that received traditional instruction was only able to master the aspect set out to achieve.

Not only did specifically enhanced input not lead to improved knowledge of English passives in this study, the practice of FonF (which occurred in both the Traditional and Enhanced groups) proved unsuccessful if one considers the results of the delayed post-test.

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This is contrary to what was found by Zhao and Bitchener (2007) for (incidental) FonF. On their observations, data for over ten hours of instruction indicated that through FonF instruction high incidences of teacher-learner and learner-learner interaction occurred and that these interactions facilitated the immediate intake of input, which resulted in more opportunities for SLA. Zhao and Bitchener therefore claim that interaction between learners should be encouraged through FonF, since they work together as a collective body acting as source of knowledge for each other. Although the Enhanced group in my study did exclusively group work during their 14 lessons on English passives, there was no measureable, longer term uptake of the input.

As regards negative feedback, which was given in a consistent manner to the Traditional group, Iwashita (2003) and Leeman (2003) found it to be beneficial to SLA. Mackey, Oliver and Leeman (2003) also noted that up to 47% of feedback in their study led to modified output following negative feedback as instruction method. Russell and Spada (2006) also found corrective feedback effective in SLA, but were uncertain about which method to use for ultimate results.

One needs to consider why neither enhanced input nor traditional (explicit) instruction led to improved marks in my study. There are at least two possible reasons. Firstly, it could be that 14 lessons are not enough time for any method of instruction to be successful in teaching English passives. From experience, this is a problematic structure for the L2 learners of English whom I teach. They possibly require more than 14 lessons to master this structure. Secondly, they could have made gains that I was not able to capture with my measuring instruments; there is a possibility that my tests were not sensitive enough to detect changes in learner knowledge. Whereas it is disappointing that the effort that went into lesson preparation for the Enhanced group did not render the expected result in terms of test marks, it is possible that using enhanced input as method of instruction has been beneficial in the sense of it leading to a more positive attitude of the L2 learners towards their English lessons (which they appeared to enjoy), improved teacher-learner rapport, and improved interpersonal or groupwork skills.

7.2   Minimal writing vs. self-formulated answers

Research question 2 was whether assessment of knowledge of English passives via questions that require little writing on the part of the learner renders better results than questions that require self-formulated answers from the learner. Based on the performance of the learners in both groups on the two types of questions found in the delayed post-test, the answer to this question is "yes", as I predicted it would be. This means that students were better at identifying a correct answer (i.e., the relevant passive or active construction) than they were at formulating their own passive or active constructions. This result is not surprising, as multiple choice type questions could be seen to rely on comprehension (i.e., on grasping and understanding information; Bloom's taxonomy level 2), where a correct answer must merely be understood and recognised, whereas changing an active sentence into a passive or vice versa could be seen to require application (i.e., the ability to apply understood and previous knowledge to unfamiliar situations; level 3). Multiple choice and choose-the-correct option types of questions are rarely used during grammar assessment; I would advocate for their inclusion into such assessment, for the following reasons: Being expected to answer questions that tap application shortly after receiving instruction on a particular aspect of grammar could demotivate L2 learners rather than promote L2 learning. In some cases, learners might find it overwhelming to formulate their own passive constructions (or to convert a passive construction into an active one), to such an extent that they do not attempt to answer a question requiring that of them. If learners do not attempt any answer, the teacher has nothing to work with, that is, the teacher has no indication of what exactly about the aspect the learner finds difficult. Such an indication can be found in answers to multiple choice questions. Learners are less likely to omit an answer to a multiple choice task. Their answers to such a task, while not necessarily giving the teacher a direct indication of their ability to use the English passive construction, will give the teacher an indication of the types of problems they are likely to have when attempting to use English passives. I therefore advocate using questions requiring minimal writing together with questions requiring self-formulated answers, especially for those aspects of grammar that L2 learners generally find challenging.

7.3 Limitations of this study

This study was done within a limited time span, which may have influenced the results positively or negatively. I would have liked to have done the delayed post-test 12 weeks instead of nine weeks after the immediate test, but the school programme did not allow more time for the project. Within the extra three weeks, I could have emphasised the use of passives even more in the Enhanced group, which may have led to them obtaining significantly better results than the Traditional group. Alternatively, an extra three weeks might have led to learners faring even worse than they did, seeing that they could forget more aspects of passive formation. Instruction time was also limited; as mentioned above, 14 lessons might have been insufficient for learners to acquire any grammar structure, regardless of the method of instruction employed.

The pre-test also revealed that learners from the two groups were not equal in terms of their pre-intervention knowledge of certain basic grammatical structures, such as the SVO rule for forming English sentences. Here I should mention that I anticipated all learners to have equal grammatical knowledge of English as L2, considering that they are mostly of the same age, all in grade 11, had the same English teacher the previous year, and were all taught English by me in the year in which the study was conducted. This meant that I constantly had to first explain other concepts of the language, which to my mind the learners should have mastered in grade 9. I therefore experienced problems with determining the $i +1$ of the learners in both groups, which led to spending unnecessary time (sometimes, whole periods) on teaching other, necessary aspects of English before I could move on to the aspect at hand, namely, passives.

The small number of participants means that the results have limited generalisability. Although 51 learners and their parents consented to participate in this study, absenteeism caused the pool of possible participants to be reduced to 34, of which 10 had to be eliminated seeing that no pre-test match could be found for them in the other class. Note however, that all learners in the class, whether or not they participated in this study, had to be instructed on passives, this topic forms part of the grade 11 curriculum. Absenteeism thus not only reduced the size of the pool of potential participants, but also led to lost lesson time, as learners who were absent during the previous lesson first had to be

informed on what they missed during the previous lessons (although their test results were to be discarded from the final results). I did consider repeating the experiment in two other grade 11 classes, but due to timetable constrains I would not have been able to do the teaching there myself, which would have meant adding another variable to the study (namely the teacher concerned).

7.4   Conclusion

White (1991) states that prominent current theories of language acquisition, especially those of L1 acquisition, claim that L1 acquisition proceeds mainly on the basis of exposure to positive evidence; in the field of SLA, one often reads that negative evidence is most important for successful SLA. White (1991) also comments that negative evidence (i.e., information on what is ungrammatical) is often disregarded by others for the minor role they believe it plays in SLA. She continues to state that SLA is more complex than L1 acquisition, because of transfer occurring from the learner's L1 to his/her L2. I often observe such transfer from Afrikaans to L2 English in my learners, and it is this underachievement in attaining an acceptable level of L2 (English) proficiency that led me to investigate the different types of methods of L2 instruction available, and more specifically to test my hypothesis that enhanced input as a method of instruction will make a difference to teaching English passives to Afrikaans speaking learners. I wanted to test the commonly employed, traditional chalk-and-board method against the more creative enhanced input method of instruction.

Enhanced input as a method of instruction in language classrooms seems highly compatible with the ideals of the OBE system which is currently supposed to be in place in South African schools. OBE is, however, widely believed to have failed, and the new Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) system will be introduced as from January 2012. Teachers have not yet mastered the OBE system and will start training for the CAPS system in December 2011 (by means of a one-day workshop, which begs the question of whether teachers will be properly prepared for implementing the teaching and assessment strategies of CAPS). Although not much information is available currently, indications are that CAPS will constitute a return to the more traditional method of teaching and will include methods such as drilling and repetition of grammar rules. One of

the often cited reasons for the failure of OBE is the large number of learners per class that South African teachers face; it remains to be seen whether CAPS will be a more suitable approach in the South African context. Despite a turn away from OBE (which is compatible with enhanced input) and towards CAPS (which is said to make use of drilling and repetition), I would advocate for continued research on enhanced input as method of language instruction, as there should be room for experimenting with different methods of teaching within every educational system, since the art of teaching, according to me, lies in the adaptability of the teacher and the learner to overcome learning challenges such as large numbers of students, multilingual classrooms and having a language of teaching and learning which is not the mother tongue of the teacher and/or learner.

Before concluding, I would like to return briefly to the notion of negative evidence (or corrective feedback). Lightbown and Spada (1993:206) state that form-focused instruction and corrective feedback had been said to bring only temporary changes to L2 learners' language proficiency even though it may appear as if such changes are permanent. This is what was observed in this study: for a short while (between the pre-test and the immediate post-test), the learners remembered that the SVO English word order changes to OVS for passives, but after a period of time they fell back on the incorrect use of the passive form, for example, changing the tense of the verb in the passive construction. The change only occurred temporarily; more and consistent exposure to the aspect of passive is required for real change to take place in the interlanguage. Krashen (cf. Lightbown and Spada 1993:206) also stated that such temporary changes in the interlanguage of L2 learners occur simply because they are exposed to rich comprehensive input environment in the L2 classroom. Krashen furthermore claimed that it is not the content of the lesson, but the fact that the learners are exposed to meaningful and comprehensible input, that ultimately leads to progress in SLA. Lightbown and Spada state that some L2 learners, according to some researchers, would actually benefit from traditional teaching of grammatical aspects, especially when the learners are not exposed to the L2 outside the school situation (Lightbown and Spada 1993:207).

From the above, it appears then that the method of instruction might not be as important as the language used (thus the language input given) during the lesson. It is clear from the study that much more effort went into preparation of the enhanced input lessons than for the more traditional type lessons, which may cause teachers to be negative toward the

former kind of instruction. I would argue though that teachers need to assess their responsibility and convictions toward their learners. Even if the teaching method does not matter (and only the input does), teachers may still find the increased effort of preparing enhanced input lessons more rewarding[14] than trying to remedy a traditional SLA teaching system that is not rendering the desired results.

In conclusion: According to Lightbown and Spada (1993:208), studies such as the one conducted for this thesis often only set out to measure or test certain grammatical aspects, which are then intensively taught (as was the case for English passive in this study), but few studies investigate whether and how instruction (in any form) contributes to the underlying developmental system of the L2 learner. Thus, one should not lose sight of the improvement involved in achieving L2 proficiency due to focus-on-form as method of instruction, although it be short-lived in many instances as shown by several studies reviewed in this thesis, and therefore should act as motivation to further explore the possibilities of investigating different types of instruction. The results of the study did not show significant merit in enhanced input as method of instruction (or in FFI in general for that matter), but circumstances more conducive to empirical research than what I have encountered in this study might produce different results. Any method of instruction, though, requires of teachers to be properly trained in using it for the method to be successful. For this reason, I am of the opinion that becoming more educated in general in the field of SLA will enable teachers to achieve better results with their L2 learners.

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[14] That is, rewarding in terms of more learner involvement and interactivity and less (tiring) teacher-talk. The response from the learners in the Enhanced group was consistently positive and they showed an interest in the "new" way of teaching. They took to the instruction sheets easily and quickly learned to rely on corroborative work from group members instead of on their teacher. There was a visible spontaneity in their discussion and negotiation during group sessions of what is possible and what not. The learners in the Enhanced group seemed more relaxed than those in the Traditional group, which to me is an indication that if not enhanced input, attention should at least be paid to making grammar lessons more interesting for L2 learners.

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Appendix A
Questionnaire on linguistic background of participants

Subject Number: _____

NB: All information on this questionnaire will remain confidential

A.   Personal Information

Surname: _____ First name: _____

Telephone number: _____ Best time to contact: _____

Address: _____

_____

E-mail: _____

Sex: ○ Male   ○ Female

Year of birth: _____

Place of birth: City _____ Country _____

If you were not born in South Africa, how long have you been living here? _____

B.   First Language (Mother Tongue)

1. What is your first language? _____

2. What is the first language of: your mother? _____ your father? _____

3. Which language(s) did you speak at home as a child? _____

4. Is your first language the language with which you are the most comfortable? ○ Yes ○ No

4.1 If you answered 'No' to the question above, please explain:

_____

_____

C.   Education and Language Use

1.   Which language(s) were you formally educated in? Where (city and country)?

	Languages	Where
Primary / Elementary school		
Secondary / High school		

2. Which language(s) do you use:

at home	
in social situations	
at school	

D.   Second Languages: English

1. For how long have you been exposed to English? _____

2. For how long have you been receiving instruction in English as an additional language?
_____

3. Approximately how many hours a week do you use English outside the classroom?
_____

4. Approximately how many hours a week are you exposed to English outside the classroom?
_____

5. Are you using any other means for learning English (for example grammar books, educational video or audio tapes, television)? If yes, please specify:

_____

_____

_____

6. Please rate your linguistic ability in English and any other languages you know (please specify these), **excluding** your mother tongue.

Use the following abbreviations:

*   L = low

*   I = intermediate

*   A = advanced

*   NN = near native

	English			
Reading				
Writing				
Speaking				
Listening				
Overall Competence				

Thank you for your time!

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Appendix B
Content of letter requesting parental consent for participation

Dear parent(s)/ guardian

We ask your permission for your grade 11 child to participate in a research project during school hours. The details are as follows:

1. The project is run by **Mrs Karin Nell**, your child's English teacher. She is currently enrolled for a Master's degree in Second Language Studies at Stellenbosch University. Her research focuses on two different methods of instructing English grammar. In this regard, she has devised a two-week instruction program, to be implemented in her classes.
2. **Ethical clearance** for the project was given by the Ethics Committee of Stellenbosch University, and **permission** to conduct the research was obtained from The Department of Education and the **principal, Mrs du Toit**. Mrs du Toit supports Mrs Nell's efforts to investigate improved teaching methods, since these may prove valuable to learners now and in the future.
3. Participation in the project entails that **learners receive instruction** on a certain grammar structure (which forms part of the current curriculum) during their usual English periods. Some learners will be taught using a traditional instruction method and others using a method commonly employed in studies on second language learning but not yet employed in South African schools.
4. Please be assured that:
   4.1. the research will in no manner influence the **normal teaching schedule** of English.
   4.2. the research is to be conducted during normal class hours and will **not require any extra time or** effort on the part of your child.
   4.3. your child will at all times be **closely monitored** by means of short written tests before and after the two-week teaching period. These tests, however, will not influence any existing, formal assessment guidelines prescribed by The Department of Education and will only be used to establish the effectiveness of the two methods of instruction.
   4.4 regardless of the method of instruction used with your child, the teaching will be of a **high quality**.
5. Participation is **voluntary**. If you do not consent to your child's participation, your child will still receive instruction on the grammar structure in question; we will just omit your child's results when reporting on the study. If you do consent, all information on your child and his/her performance will be treated as strictly confidential: We will only use the results for academic purposes and all results will be reported in such a manner that your child will not be identifiable.

We herewith request your permission for your child to participate in this study, which will commence during the second term. You are welcome to contact the school, Mrs Nell or Dr Southwood (the thesis supervisor), should you require any further information. We hope that you see the necessity of such a study, and that you will contribute to the search for better methods of language instruction.

Yours sincerely,

Dr F. Southwood (programme supervisor)   and   **Mrs K. Nell**
(University of Stellenbosch) 021 808 2052   (Teacher) 011 827 2499

I,……………………………… (name of parent/guardian) grant permission for …………………… (child's name) to participate in the research project described above. I understand the nature of the study (that my child will not undergo any physical procedures; that my child will receive instruction in English as a second language using one of two methods of instruction; that me child will write short tests on English grammar before and after receiving instruction). I furthermore understand that the results of the study are confidential and agree that all written tests done by my child may be used for data without revealing the personal details of my child.

…………………………   ……………………………..
Signature   Date

Appendix C-1

Letter requesting participant assent

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Dear parent(s)/guardian

Your permission is requested for your grade 11 child to participate in a research project during school hours. The project is run by **Mrs Karin Nell** (BA Languages), a student of the Department of General Linguistics at Stellenbosch University. The study is to form the basis of her thesis that will be submitted in partial fulfillment of the degree MA in Linguistics for the Language Professions. Mrs Nell is currently teaching your child English and has devised a two-week instruction program early March 2011 for which two groups of grade 11 Afrikaans-speaking learners are needed.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to determine whether traditional methods of instruction or other methods of instruction commonly used in second language acquisition (the latter methods not yet employed in South African schools) lead to a better understanding of certain **grammatical structures** (which form part of the current curriculum).

2. PROCEDURES

If you consent to your child's participation in this study, we would ask your child to do the following things:

  (a) complete a language background questionnaire
  (b) attend English classes as usual
  (c) write short tests before, during and after the two-week teaching period

The language background questionnaire will be completed in class as a normal curricular activity. It should take about 15 minutes to complete. The pre-test will then take place and should take 30 minutes to complete. Neither this test not the post-tests will require any preparation on your child's part. Short tests may be required to do during the two-week instruction period to monitor progress. The post-testing will take place some time after the two-week instruction period to establish the effects of the different instruction methods. **No extra time or effort** will be required from your child.

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2.1   Please be assured that:

2.1.1   the research will in **no manner** influence the normal teaching schedule.

2.1.2   the tests will in **no manner** influence the existing formal assessment programme prescribed by The Department of Education, and results will only be used to establish the effectiveness of the different methods of instruction.

2.1.3   the principal of the school, **Mrs R. du Toit,** supports this study, which investigates improved teaching methods.

2.1.4   if you do not consent to your child's participation in this programme, your child will still receive instruction on the grammar structure in question; we will just omit your child's results when reporting on the study.

3.   POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

The participants will not experience or be exposed to any potential risks or discomfort by participating in this study.

4.   POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

The results of the study will contribute to a better understanding of different methods of instructions for Afrikaans-speaking learners of English as second language. More importantly, it might contribute to improved instruction on certain grammatical aspects of English, which are currently experienced as problematic by such learners.

5.   PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

Participants will not receive payment for participation in the study.

6.   CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with your child will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by storing data in hard copy form as well as electronically, with only the researcher and her supervisors having access thereto.

Participants who want to view test results will be allowed to see only their own results. The results of the study will be documented in the final thesis that is to be submitted in partial fulfillment of the degree MA in Linguistics for the Language Professions. No names of any participants will be mentioned in the final document. In the event of there being reference to individual results, participant numbers will be used, which will not allow anyone except the researcher and her supervisors to determine the identity of the participant.

7.   PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your child may choose to participate in the study or not. Withdrawal from the study may take place at any time without consequences. The investigator may withdraw any participant from the study should the situation be warranted. Be assured that such withdrawal will in no way influence the quality of the teaching given to your child.

8.   IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact the principal investigator, Mrs Karin Nell (011 8278299), or her supervisors, Dr F. Southwood (021 8082052) and Dr S. Conradie (021 8082135).

9.   RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

The information above was described to me by Karin Nell in English and I am in command of this language. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to my child's participation in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

_____
      Name of Subject/Participant

_____   _____
      Signature of Parent(s)/Guardian
      Date

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____ [*name of the subject]. [H*e/she] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This explanation was given in English*.

_____   _____
Signature of Investigator   **Date**

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Appendix C-2

Information letter for potential participants

APPENDIX D

LETTER OF ASSSENT: Research programme (2011)

Dear grade 11 learner

I wish to conduct a two-week research project during the course of the second term (2011) that will involve the teaching of certain grammar structures in English as second language, using different methods of instruction. The purpose of the research is to establish which method of instruction is most effective. Your participation in this programme will be greatly appreciated.

Please note:
1. No extra time or effort will be expected from you, since the study will commence during normal school hours, for two weeks (14 lessons) in the second term.
2. The structures taught form part of the current curriculum.
3. You will receive instruction during your usual English periods. At times during these periods, you will also write short tests, but such tests will not influence your formal assessment marks as prescribed by the curriculum.
4. You are not under obligation to participate and should be informed that only data from learners who attended all 14 classes can be used. If you do not wish to participate, you will still be receiving the instruction and writing the test (as the work forms part of our prescribed curriculum); I will just not be able to include your results when I write my report.
5. All information is regarded confidential. You are welcome to see your own results. When I write my report on these results, I will do so in such a manner that no-one will be able to identify you.
6. There will be no consequences (neither negative nor positive) for you if you choose not to participate. I will not tell anybody who in the class is and who is not taking part in the study.

I wish to thank you for your co-operation and hope that you will have fun while you are contributing valuable information towards creating better teaching methods!

Kind regards

h. Nell

....
Mrs. K. Nell
English teacher
(011 827 2425)

I, ..., fully understand the conditions of participating in the research project. I understand that participation involves no risks for me and that I will be taught using one of two different methods of instruction during a period of two weeks. I commit to fully participate in the study by attending all 14 lessons (where possible) and by giving my best when writing the tests. I understand that my test results will be used as data, but that all results are confidential. I am aware that the study will not interfere with the curriculum, but will rather support it.

Appendix D
The pre-test and its memorandum

Grade 11 First Additional Language

Examiner: K. Nell
Moderator: Dr. F. Southwood
Date: 11 April 2011
Time: 30 minutes
Marks: 35

****

Question 1

In the box you will find a selection of words. They all belong to different parts of speech and you are required to:
- (a)   circle all the adjectives
- (b)   underline all the adverbs
- (c)   cross (X) out all the verbs

---

rude   bread   neatly   leap   knock

sea   artistically   soft   hamburger

---

[3]

Question 2

Are the following grammatical rules TRUE or FALSE? Circle the correct option for each statement

1. Every sentence has at least one verb.   TRUE / FALSE
2. Verbs never tell us when something happened.   TRUE / FALSE
3. Apostrophes indicate possession.   TRUE / FALSE
4. Words with similar meanings are called *synonyms.*   TRUE / FALSE   [2]

Question 3

Write down the opposite of each word in the space next to the word

1. light   ....
2. friendly   ....
3. male   ....
4. positive   ....   [4]

Question 4

Change the following sentences into the passive voice.
Example: I eat an apple.   *An apple is eaten by me.*

1. Someone visited the moon.

....

2. Thomas will deliver the wine for the party.

....

3. Susan donated sugar, flour and eggs for the pancakes.

....

4. While SAVE SUPERMARKET was delivering the meat yesterday at three o'
   clock, the chefs were preparing the platters for the next day.

....
....

5. Sarah bakes cakes daily, which Abraham then delivers to the clients.

....
....
[22]

Question 5

Change the following sentences into the active voice.
Example: Peter is chased by Wendy.   *Wendy chases Peter.*

1. Brad was seen by Angelina.

....

2. My phone cannot be used by you because it was stolen.

....
[4]

GRAND TOTAL [35]

Memorandum: Pre – test
Grade 11 First Additional Language

QUESTION 1 (allocate half marks**)**

rude   bread <u>neatly</u> ~~leap~~ ~~knock~~

sea   <u>artistically</u> **soft** hamburger

[3]

QUESTION 2 (allocate half marks**)**

1. TRUE
2. FALSE
3. TRUE
4. TRUE

[2]

QUESTION 3 (allocate half marks**)**

1. dark
2. unfriendly
3. female
4. negative

[4]

QUESTION 4

1. The moon <u>was</u> <u>visited.</u>   (2)
2. The wine for the party <u>will</u> <u>be</u> <u>delivered</u> <u>by Thomas</u>.   (4)
3. Sugar, flour and eggs <u>were</u> <u>donated</u> for the pancakes <u>by Susan.</u>   (3)
4. While the meat <u>was</u> <u>being</u> <u>delivered</u> <u>by SAVE SUPERMARKET</u> yesterday at three o' clock, the platters for the next day <u>were</u> <u>being</u> <u>prepared</u> <u>by the chefs.</u>   (8)
5. Cakes <u>are</u> <u>baked</u> daily <u>by Sarah</u>, which are then <u>delivered</u> to the clients <u>by Abraham</u>.   (5)
[22]

QUESTION 5

1. Angelina <u>saw</u> Brad.
2. You <u>cannot use</u> my phone because <u>someone</u> <u>stole</u> it.   [4]
[4]
GRAND TOTAL [35   ]

Appendix E
The immediate post-test and its memorandum

Grade 11 First Additional Language

Examiner: K. Nell
Moderator: Dr. F. Southwood
Date: 2011
Time: **30 minutes**
Marks: **35**

****

Question 1

In the box you will find a selection of words. They all belong to different parts of speech and you are required to:
(a) circle all the adjectives
(b) underline all the adverbs
(c) cross (X) out all the verbs

---

angry   moon   explicitly   focus   prepare

mother   diligently   red   gun

---

[3]

Question 2

Are the following grammatical rules TRUE or FALSE? Circle the correct option for each statement

1.   Verbs can be transitive.   TRUE / FALSE
2.   Adjectives qualify nouns.   TRUE / FALSE
3.   Adverbs are pronouns.   TRUE / FALSE
4.   Words with opposite meanings are called *homonyms*. TRUE / FALSE   [2]

Question 3

Write down the opposite of each word in the space next to the word

1.   empower   ....
2.   loyal   ....
3.   honest   ....
4.   whole   ....   [4]

Question 4

Change the following sentences into the passive voice.
Example: I eat an apple.   *An apple is eaten by me.*

1. Someone ate my ice cream.

....

2. Mary will type the invitations for the function.

....

3.   Adam brought plastic and paper for recycling.

....

4. While Sharon was doing homework the previous day at noon, her friends were dancing in the hall until dusk.

....
....

5. My mother cooks dinner every day, which Susan, Mike and Renette then enjoy thoroughly.

....
....

[22]

Question 5

Change the following sentences into the active voice.
Example: Peter is chased by Wendy.   *Wendy chases Peter.*

1. Magnus was punished by Mrs Nell.

....

2. His newspaper cannot be read by her because it was trampled on.
....

[4]

GRAND TOTAL [35]

Memorandum: Immediate post-test
Grade 11 First Additional Language

QUESTION 1 (allocate half marks**)**

angry   moon   <u>explicitly</u>   ~~focus~~   ~~prepare~~

mother   <u>diligently</u>   **red**   gun

[3]

QUESTION 2 (allocate half marks**)**

1. TRUE
2. TRUE
3. FALSE
4. FALSE

[2]

QUESTION 3

1. disempower
2. disloyal
3. dishonest
4. broken

[4]

QUESTION 4

1. My ice cream <u>was</u> <u>eaten</u>.   (2)
2. The invitations for the function <u>will</u> <u>be typed</u> <u>by Mary</u>.   (4)
3. Plastic bags and paper remnants <u>were</u> <u>brought</u> for recycling <u>by Adam</u>. (3)
4. While homework <u>was</u> <u>being</u> <u>done</u> <u>by Susan</u> the previous day at noon, dancing <u>was</u> <u>being</u> <u>done</u> <u>by her friends</u> in the hall until dusk. (8)
5. Dinner <u>is</u> <u>cooked</u> every day <u>by my mother</u>, which <u>is</u> then thoroughly <u>enjoyed</u> <u>by Susan Mike and Renette</u>.   (5)

[22]

QUESTION 5

1. Mrs Nell <u>punished</u> Magnus.   (1)
2. <u>She</u> cannot <u>read his</u> newspaper because <u>someone trampled</u> on it.   (3)

[4]

GRAND TOTAL [35   ]

Appendix F

The delayed post-test and its memorandum

Grade 11 First Additional Language

Examiner: K. Nell
Moderator: Dr. F. Southwood
Date: 2011
Time: 35 minutes
Marks: 40

****

Question 1

In the box you will find a selection of words. They all belong to different parts of speech and you are required to:

(a) Circle all the adjectives
(b) underline all the adverbs
(c) cross (X) out all the verbs

pink   book   occasionally   shoots   perspires
pot   quickly   foolish   window

[3]

Question 2

Are the following grammatical rules TRUE or FALSE? Circle the correct option for each statement

1. Verbs can be intransitive.   TRUE / FALSE
2. Adjectives qualify verbs.   TRUE / FALSE
3. Adverbs modify verbs.   TRUE / FALSE
4. Words with similar meanings are called *synonyms*. TRUE / FALSE   [2]

Question 3

Write down the opposite of each word in the space next to the word

1. untidy   ....
2. dishonest   ....
3. unreal   ....
4. misunderstand   ....   [4]

Question 4

Change the following sentences into the passive voice.
Example: I eat an apple.   *An apple is eaten by me.*

    1. Someone takes my doll.

....

    2. Mary will invite her best friend to the party.

....

    3.   Mother brought candles and marshmallows for toasting.

....

    4. While Jamie did dishes the previous day at noon, her brothers were playing
       soccer on the grass until late.

....

....

    5. My father eats breakfast occasionally, during which I bring him the milk.

....

....[22]

Question 5

Change the following sentences into the active voice.
Example: Peter is chased by Wendy.   *Wendy chases Peter.*

    1. Trevor was called by the principal.

....

    2. His car cannot be driven by her because someone crashed into it.

....
                                           [4]

Question 6

**Choose the correct option from the multiple choice answers for each
sentence below. Just underline the correct option.**

    1. I am doing homework.

        a) Homework <u>is done</u> <u>by me</u>.
        b) Homework <u>was done</u> <u>by me</u>.
        c) Homework <u>is</u> <u>being</u> <u>done</u> <u>by me</u>.

    2. I saw my friend when she kissed a boy in the mall, last night.

a) My friend <u>was</u> <u>seen</u> <u>by me</u> when <u>a boy</u> <u>was</u> <u>kissed by her,</u> last night.
b) My friend <u>was being seen</u> last night when <u>kissing</u> a boy.
c) A boy <u>was seen</u> last night at the mall <u>being kissed</u> <u>by my friend</u>. [2]

Question 7

Underline the correct form of the active verb in brackets

1. Jean is kicked by JJ.

> J.J. (kicks/kicked) Jean.

2. Her scarf cannot be worn by Susan because it was torn by the cat.

> Susan cannot (wear/wore) her scarf because the cat (has torn/tore) it.
> [3]

GRAND TOTAL [40]

Memorandum: Delayed Post Test
Grade 11 First Additional Language

QUESTION 1 (allocate half marks**)**

pink   moon   <u>occasionally</u>   ~~shoots~~   ~~perspires~~

pot   <u>quickly</u>   **foolish**   window

[3]

QUESTION 2 (allocate half marks**)**

1. TRUE
2. FALSE
3. TRUE
4. TRUE

[2]

QUESTION 3

1. tidy / neat
2. honest
3. real
4. understand

[4]

QUESTION 4

1. My doll <u>is</u> <u>taken.</u>   (2)
2. <u>Her</u> best friend <u>will be</u> <u>invited</u> to the party <u>by Mary</u>.   (4)
3. Candles and marshmallows <u>were</u> <u>brought</u> for toasting <u>by Mother</u>.   (3)
4. While dishes <u>were</u> <u>done</u> <u>by Jamie</u>, the previous day at noon, soccer <u>was</u>
   <u>being</u> <u>played</u> on the grass <u>by her brothers</u> until late.   (8)
5. Breakfast <u>is</u> <u>eaten</u> occasionally <u>by my father</u>, during which milk <u>is</u> <u>brought</u>
   to him <u>by</u> <u>me.</u>   (5)

[22]

QUESTION 5

2. The principal <u>called</u> Trevor.   (1)
2. <u>She</u> cannot <u>drive his</u> car because it <u>was crashed</u> into.   (3)

[4]

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QUESTION 6

1. c   (1)
2. a   (1)

QUESTION 7

1. kicks   (1)
2. wear / tore   (2)
                                                                                     [5]

GRAND TOTAL [40]

Appendix G

Example lesson plan for Enhanced group

ACTIVITY 2b

FORMULATE A RULE
FORMULATE A RULE

1. Assemble the active/passive column in your group. (3min)

2. Call on the teacher to check for errors.

3. The group must now formulate a rule on how to form the passive voice. Write it down on paper. (10 min)

4. One group member per group will read the rule out loud.

5. Write the column down in your own work book. Make sure it is the correct column.

6. Teacher will provide the correct rule, which you must also write down in your work book.

7. Create 3 simple active sentences and change them into the passive voice. Ask a group member if you experience a problem. Only approach the teacher if you are REALLY stuck!!!

8. You are GREAT students. Come and collect lollipops for each member of your group.

9. Pack away the charts and sheets neatly.