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Investigation into the differences and similarities between English first language and English foreign language teachers’ attitudes towards the explicit teaching of grammar in their classrooms.

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Abstract

The purpose of the project was to investigate the attitudes of English teachers towards grammar with regard to the explicit teaching of grammar among the differing predominant forms of English language teaching, namely English first language teaching (L1), English second language teaching (ESL) and English foreign language teaching (EFL). This research investigates what is being practiced in regard to teaching grammar, if and why it is taught by experienced teachers in these fields.

The methodology used included semi-structured interviews with teachers, questionnaires, and collection of materials, worksheets as well as tests pertaining to the curriculum. This case study, being a form of qualitative research has sought to be a complete, detailed description of the findings as well as the surrounding circumstances that have contributed to those findings.

Findings indicated that grammar is fundamental to EFL teaching in that it gives learners a structure or a logical system on which the syllabus can be built and by which EFL learners can progress through the language, whereas the data shows that the L1 teachers thought of grammar as being complementary to their teaching and therefore an enhancive tool enabling the L1 learner to better appreciate the finer details of the language and how they affect the tone, register and subtle meanings of a text.
Declaration

I declare that this research is my own, unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Arts in the University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university.

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1.1 Context

In my research I have chosen to compare the attitudes of English teachers towards grammar with regard to the explicit teaching of grammar among the differing predominant forms of English language teaching, namely English first language teaching (L1), English second language teaching (ESL) and English foreign language teaching (EFL).

1.1.1 Spectrum of English Language Teaching

Traditionally, there are three predominant kinds of English language learner. The L1 learner uses English as his or her mother tongue. In other words the learner has spoken the language in question from a young child. Next along this spectrum of English language learners is the ESL learner who learns English as their second language while having that language spoken in society...
around them for example in previously colonized countries. These learners may be more familiar with the language in question as they have grown up with the language around them. Lastly, EFL learners to whom English is literally foreign to them and who do not hear English around them in their day to day life.

- **Definitions of EFL, ESL and L1 teaching:**

  **EFL:** Refers to learners for whom English is not their mother tongue and they are learning the language as learners who do not live in a region where English is an official language. EFL can however, at times, take place in English speaking regions for example in language schools or on language camps but is usually taught in the learners home country which is not an English speaking country. For example a Taiwanese learner learning English in Taiwan, where English is not an official language, would be considered an EFL learner. This learner may travel to the USA (where English is an official language) to learn English for a period of time, however this learner would still be considered an EFL learner.

  **ESL:** Refers to learners learning English as their second language in a region where English is spoken for example by immigrants in Canada, the US and UK. This category also includes regions
where English is an official language even if it is not spoken as a mother tongue by a majority people, as in the case of South Africa. (Please be aware that the more current term for the above is EAL or English as an additional language. I have chosen to stay with the more traditional usage of ESL as much of the literature on the subject still uses this term).

**L1:** Refers to those learners that have English as their mother tongue, first or native language.

1.1.2 Finding the right Schools

When I first started out in my research I felt that it was best, in order to achieve a strong contrast, to compare EFL on one side of the spectrum with English first language learning on the opposite end. I felt that this strong contrast would lead me to more definitive answers regarding my question as to the differences in attitudes and the resulting tasks set by differing English language teachers. I then went in search of South African schools that offered the kinds of learners needed for this study and comparison.

1.1.2.1 English Foreign Language Schools

Finding two EFL schools was not difficult as there are in fact a number of private EFL institutions that specialize in teaching anyone who
wants to learn English as a foreign language in Johannesburg. Most, if not all, of the students at these institutions were from abroad.

EFL School A focused on the African market, i.e. most of their learners were from outside of South Africa but within Africa for example, Mozambique, Ghana, Cameroon, Ethiopia etc.

EFL School B consisted of a world wide student base with learners from around the globe for example, Brazil, Taiwan, China, Korea, Turkey, Russia as well as a few African learners.

1.1.2.2 English First Language Schools

However, finding L1 schools proved to be slightly more difficult as the new South Africa emerged after the apartheid era schools across the country were transformed to better reflect the constitution of the South African population. This meant that it would be difficult for me to find two schools where English classes consisted of only L1 speakers. I made an effort to find schools in areas where English was spoken at home whether these learners happened to be African language speakers or English first language speakers. I also focused my efforts, on finding two such schools, by looking mainly at private schools as possible candidates as there was a greater chance that these schools had a majority of English first language speakers.
Finally, I found two suitable schools, in areas where I was most likely to find learners who were English first language speakers. L1 School B matched my expectations with classes being comprised of mostly English L1 speakers. These were learners from an upper middle class socioeconomic background and who spoke English at home from birth.

However at L1 School A, I found that a majority of the learners were black South Africans that grew up with other languages as their first language which effectively placed them in the category of English second language learners.

* Black South Africans speak any of eleven official South African languages as their home language whereas white South Africans usually speak either English or Afrikaans. In the Northern suburb schools of Johannesburg however, English is the predominant language whether South Africans are black or white.
1.1.3 Adapting my Research to a new context

Accordingly, the contrast I was hoping to find did not materialize but I feel that this is probably best as this mix in the scope between EFL, ESL and L1 is a reality in South Africa and indeed around the world. This line between EFL and ESL is not only indistinct in L1 school A as discussed above but also in EFL School A were some African learners also come from regions where English would be considered a second language.

1.2 Research Aim

This is an investigation into the differences and similarities between English first language and English foreign language teacher’s attitudes towards grammar with regard to the explicit teaching of grammar in their classrooms.

1.3 Research Questions

Are there similarities between the attitudes and practices of English first language (L1) and English foreign language (EFL) teachers with regard to the teaching of grammar? If so, what are these?

Are there differences between the attitudes and practices of English first language and English foreign language teachers with regard to the teaching of grammar? If so, what are these?
What are the reasons for these similarities and differences?

And what insight does that give us into the questions of why and when to teach grammar?

1.4 Rationale

1.4.1 My Background

The question of how much emphasis to place on teaching grammar has perplexed me since I started teaching English. Through my career in EFL teaching in Taiwan, I have noticed a great deal of emphasis placed on grammar teaching in public schools. However, the communicative ability of these Asian learners after the EFL courses is often not of a very high standard. This has truly made me question whether grammar is useful at all in teaching English as a foreign language.

1.4.2 A Shift Away From Grammar Based Pedagogies

Much of the recent theory in L1 teaching suggests that less emphasis on grammar and more emphasis on communicative activities lead to a higher degree of communicative competence in a language.
Research (See page 28, Andrews et al, 2006) indicates that knowledge of grammar in the first language classroom will not necessarily improve reading and writing skills or accuracy and there has been a swing away from grammar in the past two decades. However, more recently there are many who advocate the teaching of alternative forms of grammar in the first language classroom.

1.4.2 A Similar Shift in EFL

In theory, foreign language teaching has had a similar shift away from grammar-based approaches. However, I wanted to investigate what is being practiced in regard to teaching grammar, how it is taught and why it is taught by experienced teachers in both these two fields.

1.4.3 Still Undecided

However this shift away from grammar in both English first language teaching, as well as, English foreign language teaching is a controversial one. In fact, this question of whether to teach grammar explicitly or not has been a contentious one for over two decades now. That is rather a long time to be undecided or unclear on a question which seems to be so integral to language learning. In an effort to find some clarity on this issue on a personal as well as a professional level I have chosen to conduct research in this area. By making a comparison between the attitudes to grammar of English first language teachers as compared to English foreign language teachers I hope to gain insight into these questions of why and when to teach grammar.
1.4.4 My Investigation

My questions are therefore: Are there any similarities or differences between L1 (first language) and EFL (English foreign language) instruction with regard to attitudes to grammar adopted and pedagogies used to teach grammar?

In my research I investigated what is actually happening in classrooms with regard to explicit grammar teaching in the fields of L1 teaching, as well as, foreign language teaching in an effort to gain insight into both of these disciplines. What are the practices and pedagogies forming and being used in these different settings in response to the differing needs of these groups and why? What do those on the frontlines of these fields actually practice and what are their reasons for this? Having understood this from the differing points of view of the teachers in these institutions I have endeavoured to relate these findings to the current theoretical framework in these fields and endeavoured to gain further insight into the questions of why and when to teach grammar.
Chapter 2: Literature Review and Theoretical Framework for English First Language Acquisition

2.1 Grammar and English First Language Learning

2.1.1 Scientific Grammar

- 2.1.1.1 Generative Grammar
- 2.1.1.2 Functional grammar

2.1.2 Pedagogical Grammar

- 2.1.2.1 Prescriptive grammars
- 2.1.2.2 Descriptive grammars
- 2.1.2.3 Reactions to grammar, both prescriptive and descriptive grammar
- 2.1.2.3.1 New Voices

2.2 Grammar and English Foreign Language Learning

- 2.2.1 Prescriptive grammar-based approaches
- 2.2.2 The Audiolingual Approach
- 2.2.3 The Cognitive Code Approach
- 2.2.4 The Comprehension Approach
- 2.2.5 An Integrated Approach
- 2.2.6 New Voices

2.1 Grammar and English First Language Learning

Much of the literature distinguishes between: scientific grammar and pedagogical grammar.

2.1.1 Scientific Grammar

Scientific grammar attempts to analyze and describe a language and there are a variety of ways that have been devised by linguists for doing this.
2.1.1.1 Generative Grammar

Many of these scientific grammars are generative grammars that linguists use to gain insights into human language. A generative grammar is simply a set of symbols (words) and rules to combine these symbols (Thomas, 1965), or to be more specific it is a set of phrase structure rules. Chomsky (1957) suggested that a grammar should describe a native speaker's intuitive understanding of the rules of the language he or she uses. It was recognized that young learners began to make up certain common rules for the language they were speaking through the logical processes of deduction and induction. This was an attempt by Chomsky to explain how language users naturally created and understood grammatical structures as they started to recognize patterns within the language they were learning from a young age. He established a set of transformational rules that explained a first language speaker’s competence with language from a young age. This was termed transformational or generative grammar.

In the 1960s and 1970s there was great optimism that generative grammar would greatly influence the type of grammar taught and the way it is taught in classrooms (Weaver, 1996). This grammar showed how deep grammatical structures generated the surface structures we use for everyday speech and written language. Transformational or generative grammar showed how these deep grammatical structures
which first language speakers learn naturally from a young age may be adapted according to the style or tone that one chooses to speak or write in. Bateman and Zidonis (1966) found that a group of learners studying transformational grammar used more mature sentences than the control group. This seemed to indicate that knowledge of these structures rather than traditional grammar would enable one to speak and write better. However, this is criticized by others who claimed that the differences shown between the two groups was largely due to four predominant learners (one fifth of the group) and was not statistically significant enough to show that teaching generative grammar in the classroom was effective or useful (Weaver, 1996).

2.1.1.2 Functional grammar

Generative grammars should be distinguished from functional grammars. Functional grammars are that range of functionally-based approaches to the scientific study of language that are also classed as scientific grammars, for example Hallidayan grammar. Functional grammar simply places its primary focus on the function of language and the function of language is ultimately to communicate. Therefore functional grammar is focused on grammar as it relates to communication and social interaction. Functional grammar is concerned with the ways in which grammar forms the differing genres used within a language. Understanding this function of grammar and
having a knowledge of how grammar is used to form certain genres gives one the tools to gain access to these genres. Dik (1989) characterises functional grammar as follows:

In the functional paradigm a language is in the first place conceptualized as an instrument of social interaction among human beings, used with the intention of establishing communicative relationships. Within this paradigm one attempts to reveal the instrumentality of language with respect to what people do and achieve with it in social interaction. A natural language, in other words, is seen as an integrated part of the communicative competence of the natural language user. (Wikipedia, 2006)

Functional grammars such as Hallidayan grammar, often used for discourse analysis, have found their way into classrooms, particularly in Australia, in the form of genre theory. Genre theory (Maybin 2000), deals with the ways in which a work may be considered to belong to a class of related works. Genre theory is concerned with how people, texts and activities interact with each other in order to produce meaning. Generally speaking, the concept of genre covers the patterns and characteristics of a text that differentiate it (verbal or written) from other kinds of texts. Genres help us differentiate between the many alternate kinds of communication, because in recognizing a text type
we recognize many things about the social setting from which that text was born from. It gives us insight into the roles of the writer and reader, and the expected content of the document. Some theorists believe that studying grammar from the more functional perspective can impact students’ ability to construct these differing texts which may be specific to a certain language and its accompanying culture. As Janet Maybin (2000) puts it:

“The genre approach developed from the work of Michael Halliday and draws heavily on his theory of functional linguistics. Halliday argues that we have developed very specific ways of using language in relation to how certain things are accomplished within our culture, and that different contexts and language purposes are associated with different registers, or genres of language. Genres encode knowledge and relationships in particular ways through the use of different language structures.”

It is suggested that through teaching a range of predominant genres of language, as well as the grammatical structures typical of those genres, learners may gain access to the environments in which that language operates.
2.1.2 Pedagogical Grammar

The grammars most commonly found in the language classroom can be divided into descriptive grammars and prescriptive grammars.

2.1.2.1 Prescriptive grammars

Prescriptive grammars establish a “proper” way in which to speak or write. These prescriptive grammars generally borrow from the old Latin and Greek grammar systems.

“From ancient times until the present, “purists” have believed that language change is corruption and that there are certain “correct” forms that all educated people should use in speaking and writing.”

(Fromkin and Rodman, 1993)

Traditional grammars and many current school grammars are considered prescriptive and we may place the role of grammar in the language classroom in many areas of the world at present on a continuum starting from the practice of teaching prescriptive grammars in isolation, which emphasizes rules and labels, moving towards the absence of any direct instruction in grammar on the other side of the spectrum. When thinking of traditional grammar lessons, one tends to conjure images of a typical strict grammar teacher obsessed with correctness and accuracy with which his or her students can reproduce
the Queens English Standard in a society that harshly categorized people to be in a certain socioeconomic class according to the way in which they speak. (Krashen, 1983)

Traditional grammar is usually specific to a single language and does not attempt to cross over to other languages although it is usually an adaptation from Greek or Latin traditional grammar in the case of many Western languages. It attempts to analyse and clarify the constituents of a well-formed sentence. The focus of attention is on surface structure, not meaning. It is claimed, by those that support grammar teaching, that the main benefit of traditional grammar is that it gives learners a basic understanding of the building blocks of language, which can help in improving their writing skills.

### 2.1.2.2 Descriptive grammars

In the early twentieth century there was already some doubt as to whether direct and isolated prescriptive grammar instruction was helping learners to speak or write better and hence the continuing exploration for grammar that describes rather than prescribes the language. Descriptive grammars attempt to precisely describe the linguistic processes particular users employ. Unlike prescriptive grammar which attempts to fix a language in time, viewing any departure from this static grammar as incorrect, descriptive grammar
sees language as an evolving, organic entity that changes and adapts to its surroundings over time (Krashen, 1983). As globalization occurs throughout the world, English continues to accept new words and take on new ways and structures in which to say them. Many prescriptive forms of grammar are now considered by the mainstream population as outdated. Descriptive grammar does not tell the user how to speak or understand a language, it only attempts to derive rules from the language currently in use. In Descriptive Grammars there are no right or wrong ways to speak or write, they only attempt to explain how it is possible for you to speak.

“When linguists wish to describe a language, they attempt to describe the grammar of the language that exists in the minds of the speakers.” (Fromkin and Rodman, 1993)

Children by the ages of five or six are usually fluent in their language without knowing the parts of speech and other grammatical concepts. These grammatical concepts are learned through being constantly exposed to a language, this process allows children to develop an internal set of rules in relation to their mother tongue.

Prescriptivists feel that modern linguistics, which places emphasis on actual rather than ‘correct’ language usage, is responsible for the
decline in the standard of English speech and writing. Descriptivists, on the other hand, look at the way people are speaking and then try to create rules that account for the language usage, accepting alternative forms that are used regionally and are also open to forms used that traditional grammars would describe as an error.

Due to this descriptivist view of grammar, English first language teachers in many schools have come to relax their view of grammar and ‘correctness’ as they have become aware of how quickly the English language is changing.

This has also become necessary due to the diversity present in many classrooms in a new global world. Already there are more English second language speakers in the world than there are English first language speakers. As many English second language speakers are already disadvantaged as they are learning in a language that they sometimes have not yet fully mastered, teachers tend to place more emphasis on communicative abilities rather than correctness.

2.1.2.3 Reactions to grammar both prescriptive and descriptive

Although perceptions about the nature and role of grammar was changing considerably, English teaching pedagogies in the classroom were not. Most schools continued to employ prescriptive grammar as a
major part of their English language curriculum. However, in the nineteen seventies and eighties there was a major swing away from grammar in the classroom all together. Researchers such as Hillocks and Elley, Barham, Lamb and Wyllie (1975) from New Zealand reported on research they had done regarding the effectiveness of grammar in the English first language classroom.

“In 1986, Hillocks published a meta-analysis of experimental studies designed to improve the teaching of written composition. He analysed the experimental research between 1960 and 1982 and concluded that grammar instruction led to a statistically significant decline in student writing ability, the only instructional method of those examined not to produce gains in writing ability.”

(Andrews et al, 2006)

A study done by Elley, Barham, Lamb, and Wyllie (1975) in New Zealand found that English grammar instruction, whether it was traditional or transformational grammar, had no effect on the language skills of secondary school learners. This was one of the most influential of the grammar studies and one of the first to mention transformational grammar, which was beginning to find a place in the classroom as perhaps an alternative to prescriptive grammar instruction.
After these studies and others like them, many educational bodies in the United Kingdom as well as the United States began to reform their curriculum to exclude large amounts of time spent on grammar.

2.1.3. New Voices

In reaction to this call to move away from the use of prescriptive grammar in schools, many in recent years have sought to oppose this, not by calling for a return to prescriptive style, traditional grammar but rather by calling for new definitions of grammar.

In 2005, Hudson and Walmsley published a very influential article in which they described the downfall of grammar in classrooms along with the reasons for this downfall and some of the implications. Hudson and Walmsley (2005) also argue that linguists should be more aware of how their research affects the classroom curriculum.

Since this article by Hudson and Walmsley’s (2005) describing the downfall of grammar in classrooms, mainly from a British perspective, there have been a number of new voices that give good reason for grammar to be reintroduced to classrooms but in varying different forms.

Although, it is widely agreed that a pre-Chomskian prescriptive grammar taught in classrooms is not an option, the move away from grammar seems to
be coming to an end in that there is wide recognition from a number of new voices from across the globe brought together by Terry Locke (see below) that grammar, (other kinds of grammar) may have a role in the classroom for a multitude of reasons after all.

In the December, 2005, Volume 4, Number 3 issue of English Teaching: Practice and Critique Terry Locke brings together a number of new voices from across the globe, in the spirit of debate on the issues of grammar teaching, in a special edition named “Grammar Wars” – beyond a truce. In this special issue many of the authors speak to the Hudson and Walmsley article in an effort to debate this topic.

Craig Hancock (2005) along with Martha Kolln (2005) agree with Hudson and Walmsley’s (2005) article in so far as what they prescribe is not a return to the older prescriptive grammar but rather a return to the budding renaissance that structural grammar was making in the fifties and early sixties before the swing away from grammar had occurred. Martha Kolln and Graig Hancock provide an account of the current position and the positions of the past that grammar holds and has held in American classrooms specifically.

“The article describes a brief renaissance in the 50’s and 60’s, inspired largely by the structural grammar of C.C. Fries, and examines the combination of forces that undermined this beginning” (Locke, 2005)
Martha Kolln (1996) is also highly critical of the 1963 Braddock report. The Braddock report, published by the NCTE in 1963, concluded that teaching formal grammar has a harmful effect if it displaces practice in actual composition. The prevailing view of the influential National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), was that teaching traditional grammar was a waste of time. Soon after, teachers were advised to bring up punctuation, syntax and sentence variety only when students revise and edit their writing. This was a “grammar as needed” approach.

Martha Kolln (1996) stressed that students need to be consciously aware of their own grammatical knowledge and that this can be done through studying language structures and labelling them, but not necessarily in the ways that prescriptive grammar does. Martha Kolln writes:

“It's unfortunate that the loaded phrase "harmful effect" was a part of that famous, oft-quoted sentence in the Braddock report. (Without it, of course, the sentence would have sunk without a trace, as the rest of the report did long ago.) Harmful implies a threat of sorts--that students who understand grammar, the structure of their language, are somehow at risk, that having no conscious knowledge of grammar is somehow safer than having learned it in a formal way. I also blame that phrase for having cut off the discussion that was going on at the time and for starting grammar's free fall.”

(Kolln, 1996)
The discussion that Kolln (1996) refers to, is the discussion as to how the teaching of grammar may be adapted to better suit current times, Kolln calls for a return to this discussion and suggests that grammar should be taught in ways which make learners more aware of the language and the choices available to them when writing or speaking and the resulting tone of such choices. She also stresses that this need not and should not be a reintroduction of prescriptive grammar and that new labels may be derived for the purpose of making learners more conscious as she describes.

In the UK, a similar sentiment is felt and described by Urzula Clark (2005) who, like Kolln (2005) and Hancock (2005) shows how politically motivated factionalism undermines the real debate about the place of grammar in English language teaching.

She argues for the introduction of a contemporary recontextualisation of grammar, a grammar that can be integrated with other parts of the curriculum. She also is in favour of this new grammar to include modern theories of language such as Hallidayan grammar and various genre approaches.

Clark (2005) also cautions that this contemporary grammar should not be derived from any single grammar. According to Clark it is important to:
“add, extend and reconfigure existing gradations and practices which take account of and build upon teacher’s knowledge base. Such a grammar… would go some way towards allowing pupils to understand the ways in which English and language actually structure, convey and position their experiences”

(Clark, 2005)

Such a grammar acknowledges the language practices which teachers as well as learners bring with them to the classroom. She proposes the incorporation of the linguistic terms to describe ‘patternings’ in texts. Such a grammar would provide students with insight into the linguistic structures of differing genres.

Elizabeth Gordon, (2005) from New Zealand also explains her decision to take an eclectic approach in developing her own contemporary “Grammar Toolbox” for primary and secondary teachers, which is in effect exactly what Clark recommends in her article (Locke, 2005). This tool box attempts to build on teacher’s existing knowledge base and expand upon it to include varying and contemporary theories of grammar. Gordon seeks to foster language knowledge in a multilingual context in ways that support multi-culturism avoiding the pit-falls of ‘standard’ English hegemonies.

Richard Andrews (2005), found that a grammar centred around “sentence-combining appears to have a more positive effect on writing quality and
accuracy”, and calls for more research to find exactly what form of grammar teaching would be most effective for learners. He also denies that simply giving learners a metalanguage will of itself improve learner’s writing in any way. (Locke, 2005) He does however suggest that:

“a teacher with a rich knowledge of grammatical constructions and a more general awareness of the forms and varieties of the language will be in a better position to help young writers”

(Andrews, 2005)

Debra Myhill, (2005) theorizes as to how grammar may inform learners with regard to their writing in particular. She asserts that:

“Knowledge about grammar might inform both learners’ and teachers’ understanding of writing, rather than looking more broadly and generally at knowledge about language”

(Myhill, 2005)

Myhill supports Hudson, (2004) in his claim that in England there has been a move towards an approach to grammar that emphasizes effectiveness, an awareness of differences between standard and non-standard English and most importantly an awareness of the choices oneself and others have when writing.

“Writers should be encouraged to see the various linguistic choices available to them as meaning making resources, ways of creating
relationships with their reader, and shaping and flexing language for particular effects.” (Myhill, 2005)

She attempts to move beyond the polarized debate of whether to teach grammar or not and calls for more research which is open-minded and objective. She also calls for policy initiatives which encourage engagement with pedagogical issues related to the teaching of grammar. (Locke, 2005)

Myhill’s (2005) focus on writing as a social practice and on making learners more aware of the choices they have when writing runs along the same lines as Hilary Janks’ (2005) article on “Language and the design of texts”. Janks draws on Hallidayan grammar and the writings of Norman Fairclough (1995) in devising a rubric for the critical analysis of text. (Locke, 2005)

Janks (2005) too is concerned with how knowledge of grammar can increase the awareness of learners about the language choices that writers make when writing and how these choices may let the reader know more about the underlying motives of such choices. This awareness in turn leads to an awareness of the choices they make in their own writing.

“When people use language they have to select from options available in the system – they have to make lexical, grammatical and sequencing choices in order to say what they want to say” (Janks, 2005)
Janks (2005) focuses on critical literacy and has devised this practical rubric as a tool for which learners may critically analyse a text. This critical analysis reveals much more about a text and its writer’s motives for writing it, as well as, providing a better understanding of their meaning. Janks argues for knowledge of a grammar system that enables learners to be more conscious and critical readers, writers and thinkers.

Rex, Brown, Denstaedt, Haniford and Schiller (2005) also speak of an expanded definition of grammar putting forward case studies and learner profiles in which it is evident how we all create our own grammars in order to function successfully in the particular circumstances we find ourselves in. Underpinning these case studies is the argument that:

“language study is more usefully thought of as a process inseparable from human social practices through which people create their own ‘grammars’ to operate successfully in the world. These grammars are successful because they are fluid, responsive and adaptive to the social and discursive conditions in which they are created”

(Rex et al, 2005)

Knowledge of these grammars can raise our awareness and perhaps help learners to understand the processes that we go through in adapting their writing to fit into differing genres.
2.2 Grammar and English Foreign Language Learning

The specific debate as to whether or not to teach grammar in the EFL classroom has been a topic of contention since the eighties. Unlike English first language teaching however, the result of this debate has manifested itself in EFL teaching as varying approaches and methods as to how best teach a foreign language. EFL has gone through, over the last century, a multitude of these approaches and methods which have all claimed, at one time or another, to be the ‘most effective’ way of learning a foreign language.

These approaches pay varying degrees of attention to grammar and they have most certainly been influenced by the debate in first language teaching as well as the theories of linguists, such as Chomsky and others, as to how much emphasis should placed on grammar (Krashen, 1983).

In the theory of EFL teaching and learning we can follow through these differing approaches as to how the teaching of grammar has played less and less of a part in EFL teaching. However, on the ground so to speak or, in practice, grammar has remained much a part of EFL teaching and learning. And we have not seen quite the same ‘policy shifts’ amongst the EFL community. It is interesting to ask why there is this difference between English first language teaching and EFL teaching practice, when it seems that
in the theory of language teaching both have made a shift away from grammar focused pedagogies. This key to my comparison of these two fields.

2.2.1 Prescriptive grammar-based approaches

From as far back as the 1700s till now, prescriptive grammar-based approaches have dominated in most foreign language classrooms around the world. However at the beginning of the 20th century, mostly as a reaction to prescriptive grammar based approaches there were a number of methods which can be termed as ‘traditional direct methods’ (Krashen, 1983).

All of these methods attempted to go back to more traditional ways of learning before the advent of the codifying of foreign languages into a set of Latin-based grammar rules. These methods sought to focus more on oral language in reaction to the dominant focus on written language in grammar based approaches. It seems that some felt, at the time, that learners were becoming fluent in a language at a slower pace than previous to the advent of language codification. This call for a return to traditional, oral methods of learning a language was however not accepted by most and these methods were, as a result, not widely adopted (Krashen, 1983).
2.2.2 The Audiolingual Approach

The first real effort to change the status quo of how English foreign language was taught came from U.S. structural linguists (e.g. Fries, 1945; Lado, 1964). It first became apparent that the language teaching profession was failing to teach authentic communication during the Second World War when soldiers in foreign language areas found themselves unprepared to deal with simple communication. The approach that grew from the effort by the US army to rectify this became known as the Audiolingual Approach (Krashen, 1983).

It was called the Audiolingual Approach because of its emphasis on listening and speaking. These linguists (e.g. Fries, 1945; Lado, 1964) arranged grammatical structures according to their complexity, (Celce-Murcia, 1991). This approach came to the fore in a time when behaviourism was the predominant school of thought in psychology and audiolinguilism placed a heavy emphasis on the repetition of these graded structured sentences (Celce-Murcia, 1991).

Memorization of these sentence patterns was required of learners and taught by extensive use of drilling activities. Grammar rules were learnt by presenting these sentence patterns in a number of examples and inducing the rule from these sentences. In this approach there is very
little tolerance for error in that error is seen to be a bad habit and should
be corrected as early as possible before any bad habits set.

This approach was criticized by those proponents of grammar-based
pedagogies for initially making no use of printed materials; for the fact
that habit formation simply didn’t happen fast enough and that students
repeated sentence patterns without understanding what they were
saying (Krashen, 1983).

2.2.3 The Cognitive Code Approach

The next approach to have a strong influence on foreign language
teaching was the cognitive code approach of which Jakobovits (1970)
was the key proponent, (Celce-Murcia, 1991). This approach was
strongly influenced by the work of Chomsky (1959) and other linguists
working on transformational generative grammar, (Celce-Murcia,
1991). Here, it was recognized that L1 speakers learn a set of grammar
rules internally and by the age of five or six are fully equipped to
generate a vast number of sentences never heard before. This approach
thus saw language learning as the process of cognitive rule acquisition
rather than mere habit formation and repetition. As a result of this view
of language learning, grammar was given a prominent role in the EFL
language classroom and was presented inductively. Exercises used in
this method could be the same as those of the audiolingual approach however the focus was on the conscious understanding of the grammar rule being practiced. Errors were seen as inevitable and natural in the process of solidifying rules and exceptions to the rule as the language was learnt, (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Correction of any errors was encouraged to be done by the learner him or her self or by fellow learners facilitated by the instructor.

However, the Pennsylvania Project by Philip Smith, between 1965 and 1969, which was an extensive two year project comparing the audiolingual and cognitive based methods, found that cognitive based learners only did slightly better in their reading and that both groups opinion of language instruction declined regardless of the method used (Krashen, 1983).

2.2.4 The Comprehension Approach

“The comprehension approach Winitz (1981) represents attempts by many language methodologists working in the US during the 1970s and 1980s to recreate the first acquisition experience for the second/foreign language learner.”

This approach had a strong theoretical influence but less so in practical classroom pedagogies. In this approach comprehension of what is being communicated either in spoken or written language is primary and any production of language should only be encouraged once a true understanding is acquired and internalized. This approach encourages non-verbal communication to signify comprehension before production. Sometimes grammar in this approach is presented inductively with arranged grammatical structures in order of complexity but others follow a curriculum based on meaning rather than form, claiming that knowledge of grammar is best used as a monitor to inform or make the learner aware of the forms they are using in their meaning making (Krashen, 1983).

2.2.4 The Communicative Approach

The next important approach, derived from linguists such as Hymes (1972) and Halliday (1973), was the communicative approach. Examples of the communicative approach are Asher’s Total Physical Response, Lozanov’s Suggestopedia and Curran’s Community Language Learning as well as Krashen’s Natural Approach (Krashen, 1983). Here, language is valued very much as for its main purpose, communication. As Krashen (1983) puts it: “All human beings can acquire additional languages, but they must have the desire or the need
to acquire the language and the opportunity to use the language they
study for real communicative purposes.” (Krashen, 1983). It was
recognized that in order to acquire the ability to communicate in a
foreign language a learner needs the opportunity to use that language in
a communicative situation. Needless to say, proponents of this
approach do not arrange their curriculum around grammar but rather
around subject matter and meaning. The role of the instructor is simply
to provide the means through activities for communication to take place
although providing feedback on errors made is also recognized as a
legitimate practice. However to what degree, when and how this error
correction is made is still debated (Celce-Murcia, 1991).

Krashen’s acquisition-learning hypothesis has also had a major
influence on foreign language learning. Krashen being a proponent of
communicative approaches suggests that language acquisition, which
is being able to use language in real communication, can not be helped
by formal teaching. Language learning is considered ‘knowing about’
a language and refers to what is usually learnt in more grammar based
approaches (Krashen, 1983).
2.2.5 An Integrated Approach

A review of the literature shows that many theories are distinguished by a dichotomy: ‘form focused’ versus ‘meaning focused’ instruction. Many of the theories to date have either emphasized form or meaning, though many have called it by different names. In form focused instruction student’s focus on specific properties of the linguistic code, where as meaning focused instruction is designed to promote authentic communication in class, (Ellis 1990).

Rod Ellis, (1992) however tries to integrate these two very much related aspects of language acquisition in his integrated model. Rod Ellis Ellis’s model integrates form-focused input and meaning-focused input and hypothesizes that these should be complementary and encourages both explicit and implicit knowledge. In this model both of these inputs lead to internalized, unconscious knowledge of the language. Explicit knowledge can help the learner to “notice the gap” between non-standard uses and target language forms. (This also falls in line with the idea of monitoring).

2.2.6 New Voices

Both the chapters from ‘Grammar’ by Batstone (1994) and the article ‘Something on Language Awareness: Should teachers learn to acquire
it?’ by Alex Tilbury (2004) focus on the question of whether to teach grammar in the classroom and if so, to what degree, and what kind of grammar should we be teaching?

Batstone uses the simile for viewing the grammar of language as being like viewing the ground from an airplane. At 30,000 feet the ground may look very well laid out and organized but the closer one gets to ground level, the less structure there seems to be. It is similar with language. We may be able to systematize the language for learners but when it comes to actually using the language the learner is now at ‘ground level’ so to speak and is exposed to the countless exceptions to the rule. Batstone argues that “The process of learning grammar will involve a progressive shift from more to less idealized notions of how grammar works: in other words, a gradual ‘decent’ from more to less idealization”. (Batstone, 1994).

Batstone, (1994) concludes that we should avoid being too pedantic by bogging learners down with an excess of distinctions in meaning but that we should also avoid over generalizing so that learners are confused when meeting the language’s practical use.

Tilbury (2004) refers to the Krashen dichotomy of learning contrasted with acquisition. He argues that these are not alternative routes to the
same goal but rather that acquisition, meaning effortless use of
language, is the goal by which learning may or may not help. If we
assume that learning does promote acquisition then it follows that we
should be interested in what should be learnt.

As Batstone (1994) does, Tilbury (2004) argues that many of the
grammatical rules we use in the classroom are overly complicated or
just plain wrong in some instances. Batstone warns against grammatical
rules being over generalized or too complicated for learners, however
Tilbury, argues that much of the material used by teachers from current
textbooks does in fact lean towards being too general, concrete but
inaccurate, and feels that teachers of ESL should understand these rules
but be informed of more abstract yet more accurate ways of presenting
the language to learners.

Both authors see the usefulness in teaching grammar and question what
kind of grammar should be taught. Factors such as age, previous
learning experience, level of English proficiency should be taken into
account. As teachers we should be aiming to give learners access to
deeper levels of understanding, to bring them ever closer to complete
acquisition of the language.
Chapter 3: Research Methodology

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3.1 Qualitative vs. Quantitative Research

Whereas the aim of quantitative research to classify features, count them, and construct statistical models in an attempt to explain what is observed, the aim of qualitative research is a complete, detailed description of ones findings as well as the surrounding circumstances that have contributed to those findings. Unlike quantitative research the qualitative researcher may only know roughly in advance what he or she is looking for and the design emerges as the study unfolds.

Another key difference between these two research methodologies is that qualitative research is objective and seeks precise measurement and analysis of target concepts, whereas qualitative research is subjective and individuals’ interpretation of events is important. Qualitative data is more 'rich', time consuming, and less able to be generalized and the researcher tends to become subjectively immersed in the subject matter.
As in much social sciences research, I have also chosen to pursue a qualitative approach and I have used one of the better know forms of qualitative research namely, the case study research method.

3.2 Research Method: Multiple Case Study

Case study is a method of conducting qualitative research and has evolved into a distinctive approach to scientific inquiry, partly as a reaction to perceived limitations of quantitative research. A case study can accommodate a variety of research designs and data collection techniques, each with its own standards of scholarship.

Researchers in the Behavioral and Social Sciences frequently use the case study method because the essence of these fields is the knowledge of human development, people interacting with each other in their natural settings. It is a very practical and is often used for educational research within the classroom.

3.2.1 Multiple Case Studies

Bill Gillham (2000) outlines the general characteristics of case study research. A case study is simply the study (or research) of a case. A case can be a single individual, or a group of some kind, for example a family, a class, a school, or a community. Case study research may also consist of multiple cases, for example the study of multiple individuals, multiple families, multiple classes, multiple schools etc. My research consists of multiple cases in that I have
examined multiple schools from differing and clearly definable fields, namely, two teachers from two EFL sites and two teachers from two ESL sites. By concentrating on these sites, this research has aimed to uncover any differences or similarities between the attitudes to grammar and practices of grammar teachers at these sites.

The case study method was chosen because it allows one to focus on holistic description and explanation and is an appropriate strategy for answering research questions which ask ‘how’ or ‘why’, and which do not require control over the events (Robson, 1993). Case study research being a form of descriptive research, Robson defines the purpose of it as the portrayal of an accurate profile of persons, events, or situations; this in turn requires extensive knowledge of the research topic in order to identify appropriate aspects on which to gather information.

A thick description of the areas researched involves recreating the situation and its context as much as possible, as well as, the meaning behind it. It is also important that descriptive case studies do not simply describe the case in question. The researcher has a responsibility to be selective in order to focus on answering the questions posed by the study, including the full, but realistic, range of topics, which structure an analysis of described events under investigation.
One of the frequently cited limitations of the case study method is that any assertions made are usually generalizations and therefore cannot always be true in all cases. The counter-argument is that generalizations made by case study findings are a legitimate outcome, based on understanding the context in which the case study was done. This cannot be a generalization from a sample to the universal but rather it is a matter of using single or multiple cases to illustrate or represent a case from which conservative generalizations can be articulated.

Case study research would be considered a naturalistic form of research with an emphasis on non-experimental methods. Subjectivity is accepted as inherent to the research rather than striving for objectivity and rather than testing hypothesis, naturalistic research seeks to formulate hypothesis (Robson, 1993). This means that the research design is not as strictly preordained as empirical research and may be altered as new evidence emerges.

Case study data collection usually employs a range of research instruments, for example interviews, classroom observation, transcription of lessons and documentation-based data. Multiple sources of these kinds of data are collected because no single source can in itself be trusted to provide a ‘full picture’. Rarely are the selected instruments used equally and one instrument is usually predominant, while the others provide supportive data. By using a
combination of data gathering instruments, the researcher is able to use
different data sources to validate and crosscheck ones insights.

3.3 Research Sites and Participants

The research sites selected, all in the Johannesburg area were renamed:

3.3.1 English First Language Sites:
L1 School A
L1 School B

3.3.2 English Foreign Language Sites:
EFL School A
EFL School B

3.3.3 General Information relating to both sites
In total, eight teachers (4 EFL teachers and 4 L1 teachers) were interviewed,
asked to complete a questionnaire, and asked for access to their worksheets or
other English language activities they have documented.

The teachers that I studied from both L1 sites are those that teach English to
classes at matric level, (ages 16-19 years of age). School A is a private school
of which many, if not the majority, of learners are black South Africans
(usually not English mother tongue speakers). Many of these learners would
be considered ESL learners but would usually have been immersed in English throughout their schooling.

School B is also a private institution and classes have a majority of learners who are English L1 speakers. The remaining portion of learners (ESL) have been immersed in English throughout their schooling career at this school.

The teachers from the EFL sites teach classes predominantly made up of learners from outside South Africa who have come to the country for the purpose of study and furthering their career by learning English. These learners will have a greater range of ages but predominantly ages between 18 and 25. Both of these sites are private institutions. Many of these learners may have had some experience of EFL learning in their own countries, however not to the extent that they presently require.

3.4 Research Instruments.

The research instruments selected for the purpose of data collection for this investigation include:

- Semi-structured interviews with teachers
- Questionnaires
- Collection of materials, worksheets and tests pertaining to the curriculum.
3.4.1. Semi-Structured Interviews with Teachers

These interviews were semi-structured in that I had the relevant questions prepared, but, if I felt that a point could be elaborated on to try get closer to the issues in question, I did so. I tried to create an encouraging, conversational style of interview to gain an understanding of the teachers views about the teaching of grammar and the way that they teach it. The interviews were recorded by audio tape and all relevant portions were transcribed for further analysis. This allowed me to interact freely during the interview itself so that I was able to follow questions up and ask for clarification or elaboration when needed. The data from the interviews was supplemented by the questionnaire I asked each teacher to fill out.

Interviews were conducted at four schools in total, two from each field. Two teachers were interviewed from each of these schools. In total I interviewed four EFL teachers and four L1 teachers. The names for schools and teachers I have used in this thesis are pseudonyms so as to keep their identity anonymous.

Relevant portions from these interviews were transcribed and results from these interviews were tabulated for easier analysis. Interviews were semi structured in that I did not stick strictly to the formatted questions. I did occasionally ask additional questions in order to draw out more direct answers to the questions being asked however the interview consisted of the following main questions and answers from the eight participants.
3.4.1.1 Interview Questions

1. How much emphasis do you place on grammar?

2. What are your reasons for teaching grammar?

3. Do you teach grammar as a matter of course or as the need arises?

4. Do you teach grammar inductively or deductively?

5. Do you teach grammar explicitly or implicitly?

6. What part do you feel grammar plays in L1/ EFL language teaching?
   Is it important? Why or why not?

7. Do you feel grammar plays a fundamental or complementary role?

3.4.2. Questionnaire

This questionnaire was designed to supplement the questions from the interview. It endeavoured to draw out all relevant details pertaining to the teacher’s reasons for teaching grammar, and how they go about teaching it. I chose to use a Likert-scale style questionnaire.

“Likert-scale items are most often used to investigate how respondents rate a series of statements by having them circle or otherwise mark numbered categories (for instance, 1 2 3 4 5). Likert-scale items are useful for gathering respondents' feelings, opinions, attitudes, etc. on any language-related topics. Typically, the numbered categories are on continuums like the following: very serious to not at all serious, very important to very unimportant, strongly like to strongly dislike, or strongly agree to strongly disagree. Two problems
commonly arise when trying to use Likert-scale items: (a) you may encounter those who prefer to "sit the fence" by always marking the most neutral possible answer, and (b) you may find it difficult to decide what kind of scale the data coming from such an item represents" (Brown, 2006).

In addition to the Likert-scale items, I also asked teachers to give brief descriptions of the reasons for some of their answers. The questionnaire was handed to participant teachers directly after the interview while they are still the mode of thinking about grammar and grammar pedagogies.

3.4.3. Collection of Materials and Documents

In the process of research the following artefacts and documents were collected:

- Teaching materials
- Activity sheets
- Tests/exams

Document based data was collected as a direct technique for research of the full year’s curriculum because of its non-reactive nature i.e. the nature of a document is not affected by the fact that it is being studied, therefore they stand as supporting research aids to back up statements made by these teachers. (Robson, 1993)

4.1. Overview of the Chapter

4.2. Preamble
4.2.1. EFL, ESL and L1 teaching
4.2.2. Multilingual Classrooms in South Africa
   4.2.2.1. Introduction
   4.2.2.2. EFL Schools
      4.2.2.2.1. EFL School A
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4.2.3. L1 Schools
   4.2.3.1. L1 School A
   4.2.3.2. L1 School B
   4.2.3.3. L1 school pedagogy
      4.2.3.3.1. Exam Questions
      4.2.3.3.2. The reasons why teachers from this school teach as if all learners were English first language learners are
4.2.4. Discussion
   4.2.4.1. EFL Schools
   4.2.4.2. L1 Schools

4.1. Overview of the Chapter

This chapter focuses on the research, analysis and interpretation of data collected with regard to the attitudes towards grammar of EFL, as well as, English first language teachers. This is an investigation into the differences and similarities between English first language and English foreign language teacher’s attitudes towards grammar and their practices with regard to the teaching of grammar in their classrooms.
4.2. Preamble

In this preamble I will remind the reader of the definitions of EFL, ESL and L1 teaching as well as describe the ways in which the strong contrast between EFL teachers and L1 teachers, I was hoping for, was not achieved as well as the ways in which it was. In other words I will show the existence of ESL learners in both EFL and L1 classrooms has affected this research as well as the ways in which it has not.

4.2.1. EFL, ESL and L1 teaching

Conventionally English Second Language (ESL) falls between EFL and L1 on a sliding scale where EFL represents that form of language most foreign to the learner and of course (L1) being the language that is most familiar to the learner.

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EFL</th>
<th>ESL</th>
<th>L1</th>
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<tr>
<td>Familiar</td>
<td>Least</td>
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<td>Most</td>
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4.2.2. Multilingual Classrooms in South Africa

4.2.2.1. Introduction

Since the ending of apartheid policies in the early 1990s, there has emerged a new era in South African educational history. Desegregation became the norm as state schools began, from 1991, to admit pupils from all races and therefore all languages. In 1995, there were a total of 20,780 primary and secondary
schools in South Africa, out of which 477 were private. Learners at both private and public schools now come from a multitude of language backgrounds. (Excerpts from: History of Education in South Africa www.about-south-africa.com)

The purpose of this research was to ascertain the differences and similarities between the attitudes towards grammar of English Foreign Language (EFL) as opposed to English First Language (L1) teachers.

I chose to contrast L1 teachers with EFL teachers so as to make this contrast as strong as possible, rather than contrast for example EFL teachers to ESL teachers. I therefore sought out specialist EFL schools and when choosing L1 schools I tried to choose schools which have a greater percentage of L1 speakers.

I was, however, unable to achieve this very strong contrast due to the multiplicity to be found in South African schools. In both EFL schools, as well as, L1 schools there were portions of learners who are considered ESL learners.

Below I will describe the ways in which this strong contrast between EFL teachers and L1 teachers was not achieved as well as the ways in which it did.
In other words I will show the existence of ESL learners has affected this research as well as the ways in which it has not.

4.2.2.2. EFL Schools

The teachers at both EFL schools teach classes made up of learners from outside South Africa who have come to the country for the purpose of study and furthering their career by learning English.

4.2.2.2.1. EFL School A

The first EFL school renamed for the purposes of this research: EFL School A, consists of mainly African learners from a multitude of African countries such as Cameroon, Kenya, The Democratic Republic of Congo etc.

These learners have come to South Africa to learn English as a foreign language. Many of these learners may have had some experience of EFL learning in their own countries however, not to the extent that they presently require.

Some of those learners may, however, come from countries where English is an official language like Zimbabwe for example. These
learners would not strictly speaking be considered EFL learners but rather ESL learners.

Unexpectedly, Jane (one of the two teachers interviewed at this school) pointed out during her interview that many of her learners are in fact South African learners who have come to the school in order to improve their business English language skills.

Jane states that she is teaching “a lot of” ESL learners. She also provided me with teaching materials, all of which were related to business English second language learners for example, how to write minutes or a report. It is evident that ESL teaching is dominant in Jane’s class composition and therefore many of her answers during the interview, questionnaire and document collection process are in fact informed by ESL rather than EFL teaching.

Jane states:

“I’m doing a lot of teaching of English as a second language with black South Africans whose spoken English is reasonably good but their written and reading English is weak...”

Jane’s pedagogies for teaching English to her learners are also different from the other three EFL teachers and very much cater to these ESL business English learners. Jane states:
“A lot of my teaching is genre based, the kind of core for these classes, you know... in a company, they need people to do the following genre and so I go in there to actually teach those skills, that genre, answering the telephone, writing a report, taking minutes, its very much skill based.”

The teaching material collected from Jane also confirm that Jane’s classes centre around differing business genres for speech for example the language of meetings or a presentation, as well as, genres of writing practices for example minute writing, report writing etc. An example of this genre based learning material can be seen in Fig. 1.3. Janet Maybin (2000) describes the genre based approach as:

“The genre approach developed from the work of Michael Halliday and draws heavily on his theory of functional linguistics. Halliday argues that we have developed very specific ways of using language in relation to how certain things are accomplished within our culture, and that different contexts and language purposes are associated with different registers, or genres of language. Genres encode knowledge and relationships in particular ways through the use of different language structures.”


In Jane, we have a significant divergence from the norm at these EFL schools as she is involved in classes that cater to strictly ESL learners.
Writing Minutes

Contents of Minutes
The most difficult part of taking minutes is not actually writing them, but deciding what information should be included and what left out!

You need to record in your notes:
- the aim of the meeting
- the topics discussed
- the actions that will be taken for each topic discussed and who will perform these action

Remember that you are reporting the decisions that were reached at a meeting. You don’t have to report on all the entire discussion – arguments, disagreements, general comments and so on. You only mention them if they have a measurable effect on the outcome of the meeting.

Look at the agenda before the meeting and make a note of the topics to be discussed as laid out here. Most of the discussion during the meeting can be put into the minutes under one of these topic headings. Every topic discussed at a meeting should have a separate heading and be numbered. If there are sub-topics they should be numbered accordingly.

Writing Style for Minutes
The spoken language in the meeting is usually quite informal, whereas the language of the minutes is generally much more formal.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spoken Language</th>
<th>Reported Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Get hold of Peter Smart, he’s the head of maintenance. His cell number is 082 111 2233.”</td>
<td>The name and telephone number of the head of maintenance was given to X.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“We’re still organizing the end of year party.”</td>
<td>The end of year party is still being organized.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“So, we all agree that the starting date must be changed? We’ll begin on the 10th of next month.”</td>
<td>It was agreed that the starting date of the project should be changed to the 10th January.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reporting Expressions
When you need to actually say what a particular person said, you need to use reporting verbs such as say, tell and ask.

Passive Voice
Minutes are generally written in the passive voice, not the active voice. Look at the Report Writing Part 1 – Language section of your notes for how to write the passive voice and why we use it.

Fig 1.3.
4.2.2.2. EFL School B

At the second EFL school, EFL School B, learners from many parts of the world attend classes. One of the classes I visited had learners from Brazil, Turkey, Russia, China, Taiwan, and the Congo. This diverse group of learners fall right into the EFL category of language teaching. In other words, most of the learners come from countries or regions where English is not recognized as an official language.

There is no mention from either of the two EFL teachers at this school that they are involved in teaching ESL and both of the teachers from this school use the same typically EFL course material in their classes.

The second EFL school visited can clearly be defined as an EFL school and the teachers interviewed therefore come from a strong EFL background in that teachers at this school are not involved in any way in teaching ESL to South African learners as EFL School A was.

The teaching materials collected from the EFL teachers at this school as well as from John, from EFL School A, are consistent with EFL teaching practices as can be seen from the contents page in fig. 1.4. the curriculum is set out with grammar principles playing an important role. This approach is consistent with the teaching practices of these teachers.
CONTENTS

UNIT | GRAMMAR | VOCABULARY | EVERYDAY ENGLISH
--- | --- | --- | ---
1 | It's a wonderful world! | Auxiliary verbs
| | do, be, have p7 | What's in a word?
| | Naming the tenses | Parts of speech and meaning
| | Present, Past, Present Perfect p7 | Spelling and pronunciation
| | Questions and negatives | Word formation
| | What did you do last night? | Words that go together
| | Cows don't eat meat. p7 | Keeping vocabulary records
| | Short answers | p12 |
| Yes, I did. p8 | Social expressions
| | | Never mind.
| | | Take care!
| | | You must be joking.
| | | p13

2 | Get happy! | Present tenses
| | Present Simple | Sport and leisure
| | Does she work in a bank? | play football
| | Present Continuous | go skiing
| | Is he working in France at the moment? | do aerobics p20
| | Simple or continuous? | Numbers and dates
| | She usually drives to work, but today | Money, fractions, decimals, percentages, dates, phone numbers
| | she isn't driving. She's walking. | p18
| | Present passive | p17
| | We are paid with the money people give. | p15
| | Children are being treated with a new | p18
| | kind of medicine. | p18

3 | Telling tales | Past tenses
| | Past Simple and Continuous | Art and literature
| | He danced and sang. | painter
| | He was laughing when he saw the baby. | poet p25
| | Past Simple and Past Perfect | Collocations
| | I didn't laugh at his joke. | paint a picture
| | Why? Had you heard it before? | read a poem p25
| | Past Passive | Giving opinions
| | A Farewell to Arms was written by | What did you think of the play?
| | Ernest Hemingway. | It was really busy.
| | | fell asleep during the first act. | p27
| | | p24

4 | Doing the right thing | Modal verbs (1) – obligation and permission
| | have (got) to, can be allowed to | Nationality words
| | Children have to go to school. | Japan the Japanese
| | I can stay at my friend's house. | Spain the Spanish
| | We're allowed to wear jeans. | Countries and adjectives
| | | p31 | France French
| | should, must | Italy Italians p36
| | We should take traveller's cheques. | p37
| | You must write to us every week. | p33

5 | On the move | Future forms
| | going to and will | The weather
| | I'm going to buy some. | It's sunny.
| | I'll get a loaf. | sunshine
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6 | I just love it! | Questions with like
| | What's she like? | Describing food, towns, and people
| | What does she look like? | fresh
| | What does she like doing? | polluted
| | Verb patterns | sophisticated p52
| | I enjoyed meeting your friends. | Collocations
| | I just wanted to say thank you. | fresh food
| | You made me feel welcome. | historic towns
| | | elderly people p52

Stop and Check 1 Teacher's Book

Stop and Check 2 Teacher's Book

Fig 1.4.
4.2.3. L1 Schools

The teachers that I studied from both L1 sites are those that teach English to classes at matric level. Both schools that I visited were private schools as I expected that these schools would consist of a greater percentage of English L1 speakers as many English L1 parents of the northern suburbs in Johannesburg, coming from an upper middle class socioeconomic background, have put their children in private schools.

4.2.3.1. L1 School A

The first L1 School that I visited, L1 School A, had predominantly black South African students. The movement of black South African learners to these, English first language speaking, private schools is due to the growing middleclass black South African community wanting a better education for their children than that which public schools are able to provide at present.

Some of these black learners will however, have spoken English in their homes and throughout their schooling career as their first language. (Many black South African parents have chosen to speak English in their homes especially those from this upper middle class socioeconomic region such as the Northern suburbs of Johannesburg)
Many of the black learners from these classes will have come from homes where parents have chosen to keep speaking their traditional language so that their children will grow up bilingual. These learners may be considered ESL learners as English is their first additional language.

However, since this is an English first language school, the teachers that I interviewed generally teach English as a first language as they would without these ESL learners in the class.

4.2.3.2. L1 School B

The second L1 school that I visited, L1 School B was similar to the first although there existed a greater percentage of white South Africans who come from English first language homes in these classes. This means that most likely a lower percentage of ESL learners were present and like the first L1 school visited, teachers from this school teach as if all learners were English first language learners.

4.2.3.3. L1 school pedagogy

In this section I will show how the L1 exams are designed for first language speakers (rather than for mixed ESL and L1 classes) which in turn shapes the curriculum to a large degree and secondly I will outline the reasons for this.
4.2.3.3.1. Exam Questions

In exam questions collected from L1 teachers, it was evident that grammar was tested in these exams in a way that is consistent with L1 teaching. These questions can be put into two categories:

The first category are questions about the ‘style’ of the text and how it relates to the message of that text as well as a portion of a learner’s writing mark being attributed to ‘style’.

‘Style’ relates to the overall correctness and appropriateness of grammar used by the learner in his essays and other written texts. See Fig. 1.1 for an example of a ‘style’ question related to a text.
QUESTION 1: STYLE

This question is based on the text below.

The following passage is the first couple of hundred words of an article by Hagen Engler, a satirical writer based in the Cape. The article continues in the same vein, with no paragraphing for a few hundred more words.

Is my Microphone on?

by Hagen Engler

I got nothing to say. I could say something about the way that we've been, but the tyranny of youth refuses. Angry young voices call and call and call for change, respect, Africanism and all the rest. But all that came, it's come and gone, if not implemented it'll all be along. Sommers nou-nou. But the tyrannical youth just don't wanna know. The time is now and what came before they all just ignore, though it was heavy, harsher, hectic, home, harder fought, but nought. You hear what they say – today gotta be the day. More guys are rhyming 'n' than ever before 'bout their wicked ways with words and with the girls. How many homes they have, what crew they move with, how the rhymes they drop are just so tight, a 'ight? But rhymes about rhymes and words about words have all been heard. The poets of the past weren't so into it 'ay. They had some things to say. Proper power protest points to make. Nowadays, tell me what's at stake? Gangster rap comes back, tell me where's the politics in that? Tell me what does society lack that its poets all got their booty back. What up, Black? I'm down with that. I got mine too, but what up with you? You got the lyrical gift and what-not, you got your way with the words, man, I heard what you got. But what? Pedal to the metal drop a letter for the better bit o' big-time broken-down telephone-style messaging you got so many rhymes I just can't scan those lines. How many times you can rhyme your name, MC? Respect for that. Maybe you been shot at. Ay, I've had that. Does that make me an MC? Li'l ole me? Lemme see ...

1.1 Who would you expect to use this style of language when speaking? (1)
1.2 What effect does the lack of paragraphing have on the tone and the way this article is read? (2)
1.3 Define the distinctive features of the style of this passage. Quote to substantiate your response. (5)
1.4 What satirical point is the writer making by writing his article in this style? (2)

Grammar is also tested in these exams by including questions related to textual editing. Textual editing questions require learners to correct portions of a text or explain the significance of using certain grammatical structures. Fig 1.2. is example of a typical textual editing question.
These teachers are trained to teach English as a first language and are trained to help their learners pass these exams which are typical of English first language exam questions. From an analysis of exam questions it is evident that these teachers do in fact represent an English first language learning perspective.
2. The reasons why teachers from this school teach as if all learners were English first language learners are:

1. These schools used to consist of predominantly white South African, English first language learners and has only slowly over time changed the racial constitution of its student body.

2. The parents of these black South Africans want their children to be taught in English as they see English as the language most useful for their children (English is considered by these parent as the language with the highest status in the country as well as being useful as an international language).

3. These teachers were trained to teach English as a first language to children who speak English as a first language.

4. As the teachers from these schools teach English towards the English First Language matric exam, they are required to prepare their learners for the English First Language matric paper regardless of their background and therefore teach as though their learners all have a first language background.
4.2.4. Discussion

4.2.4.1. EFL Schools

With regard to the EFL teachers, it is evident that three out of the four teachers from EFL backgrounds teach predominantly EFL learners. Although there may be a few ESL learners in the classes at the EFL school, these numbers will be too low to affect the way that teachers teach EFL to any significant degree.

In Jane, unlike the other EFL teachers, however, we have a significant divergence from the norm at these EFL schools as she is involved in classes that cater to strictly ESL learners (black South African business English learners). This divergence comes out in her interview, the questionnaire and the documents collected from Jane.

This development was a surprise to me in that I had planned to contrast strictly EFL with L1 language teachers. However, looking at the evidence obtained from Jane, I think the contribution of Jane’s ESL perspective has added a valuable layer to this research project and has given me more insight into the differing attitudes towards grammar in differing fields including ESL. This allows us to study these attitudes towards grammar between not only EFL and L1 teachers but also as it relates to ESL teaching to some extent. This surprise has become a valued asset to this project as a whole and has lead to a greater understanding of these differing attitudes towards grammar.
4.2.4.2. L1 Schools

Although there are ESL learners at the L1 schools I visited, it has had little impact on the way in which these teachers need to teach due to the existence of pressure placed on them for their learners to pass English first language exams, and due to these teachers English first language background and training. Thus their attitudes can be said to come from an L1 perspective and I am sufficiently convinced that these teachers fall close to the far right of the EFL/L1 spectrum.

This is evident from their interview, questionnaire and documents analysis as not once do these teachers mention the fact that some of their learners are ESL learners. In the teaching materials collected from all schools, it is also quite clear that these teachers are teaching towards their learners doing well in the English first language matric exam as these teaching materials centre around ‘style’ and textual editing questions as do the exam questions.
4.3. Theme 1 - The Role of Grammar in an EFL and L1 Context.

4.3.1. Introduction

Grammar has different connotations and even different meanings for teachers from different contexts. For example when asking John (an EFL teacher) and Tim (an L1 teacher): How much emphasis do you place on grammar?

John (EFL teacher) answered:

“*There’s a lot of emphasis put on grammar*”

While Tim (L1 teacher) answered:

“*Grammar is in everything*”

These two teachers answered the question above similarly, both placing importance on grammar. However, when referring to ‘grammar’, John the EFL teacher has a very different role of grammar in mind as compared with Tim the L1 teacher.

In this chapter, in order to better understand the differences between EFL teacher’s as contrasted to L1 teacher’s attitudes towards grammar, I will...
attempt to identify in each field the differences in the role that grammar has within the syllabi of EFL, ESL and L1 contexts.

4.3.2. Grammar’s role in an EFL/ESL Context

All the EFL teachers, from both schools (except Jane, ESL teacher), use the same brand of Headway textbooks which are graded from beginner’s level, to intermediate level, through to an advanced level.

I chose to examine a copy of the textbook (New Headway Published by Oxford University Press) at intermediate level so as to get an impression of what the role of grammar is for the average teacher working within an EFL context. I also chose to examine an advanced level copy because it allowed me to track the changes in the emphasis placed on grammar as the level changes within the EFL context.

The first thing evident when examining both the intermediate and the advanced Headway textbook is that they, both, centre completely around grammar. The text books progress through a number of units. Each of these units are built upon a certain grammar point. These Headway textbooks in turn form the basis of the EFL syllabus.
All the way through to advanced level, units are centred around a grammar point or multiple points, as well as, reviewing previous grammar points. For example Unit 3 of the intermediate Headway textbook focuses around ‘Past Tenses’ with subheadings of ‘Past Simple and Continuous’; ‘Past Simple and Past Perfect’ and ‘Past Passive’. (See the contents page of the intermediate Headway textbook in Figure 1.4.)

All the reading, writing, speaking and listening exercises that follow, centre around a given grammar point. For example in Unit eight of the intermediate Headway textbook learner’s are taught about ‘conditionals’. Throughout the unit there are, ‘grammar spots’ (Fig. 2.1.) which are denoted by being put in blue boxes. This focuses on the grammar point of the unit in question, in this unit the grammar focus is ‘conditionals’.

Fig. 2.1.
Although this ‘grammar spot’ is set out like an exercise, the answers to such an exercise will serve as examples for the learner as to how this grammar rule works. At the bottom of each grammar box is a ‘grammar reference’ directing learners to the back of the book where learners find the rule in question explicitly explained in detail. Refer to Fig 2.2.

All the other exercises and activities are based on this central grammar rule, for example in this unit on conditionals there are exercises which focus on different skills like this reading and speaking exercise illustrated below. (Fig 2.3.) which focuses on conditionals.
8.2 Time clauses

Conjunctions of time (when, as soon as, before, until, after) are not usually followed by will. We use a present tense even though the time reference is future.

I'll call you when I get home.
As soon as dinner is ready, I'll give you a call.
Can I have a word with you before I go?
Wait until I come back.

We can use the Present Perfect if it is important to show that the action in the time clause is finished.
When I've read the book, I'll lend it to you.
I'll go home after I've done the shopping.

8.3 Zero conditional

Zero conditional sentences refer to 'all time', not just the present or future. They express a situation that is always true. If means when or whenever.
If you spend over £50 at that supermarket, you get a five per cent discount.

8.4 Second conditional

Form
if + Past Simple + would

Positive
If I won some money, I'd go around the world.
My father would kill me if he could see me now.

Negative
I'd give up my job if I didn't like it.
If I saw a ghost, I wouldn't talk to it.

Question
What would you do if you saw someone shoplifting?
If you needed help, who would you ask?

Note that was can change to were in the condition clause.

If I were rich, I'd work.

Use
1. We use the second conditional to express an unreal situation and its probable result. The situation or condition is improbable, impossible, imaginary, or contrary to known facts.
   If I were the president of my country, I'd increase taxes. (But it's not very likely that I will ever be the president.)
   If my mother was still alive, she'd be very proud. (But she's dead.)
   If Ted needed money, I'd lend it to him. (But he doesn't need it.)

2. Other modal verbs are possible in the result clause.
   I could buy some new clothes if I had some money.
   If I saved a little every week, I might be able to save up for a car.
   If you wanted that job, you'd have to apply very soon.

3. If I were you, I'd ... is used to give advice.
   If I were you, I'd apologize to her.
   I'd take it easy for a while if I were you.

8.5 First or second conditional?

Both conditionals refer to the present and future. The difference is about probability, not time. It is usually clear which conditional to use. First conditional sentences are real and possible; second conditional sentences express situations that will probably never happen.

If I lose my job, I'll ... (My company is doing badly; there is a strong possibility of being made redundant.)
If I lost my job, I'd ... (I probably won't lose my job. I'm just speculating.)
If there is a nuclear war, we'll all ... (Said by a pessimist.)
If there was a nuclear war, ... (But I don't think it will happen.)

would

Notice the use of would in the following sentences:
She'd look better with shorter hair. (= If she cut her hair, she'd look better.)

would to express preference
I'd love a cup of coffee.
Where would you like to sit?
I'd rather have coffee. Please.
I'd rather not tell you, if that's all right.
What would you rather do, stay in or go out?

would to express a request
Would you open the door for me?
Would you mind lending me a hand?
READING AND SPEAKING

Who wants to be a millionaire?

1 T 8.6 Listen to the song 'Who Wants to Be a Millionaire?' What do/don’t the singers want to do?
Look at the transcript on p128. Listen again and check.

2 Look at the chart below. Do you think these are good (√) or bad (X) suggestions for people who win a lot of money? Write your opinions on the chart.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If you win a lot of money, ...</th>
<th>Your opinion</th>
<th>The article's opinion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 you should give up your job.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 you should buy a new house.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 you shouldn’t tell anyone.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 you should give money to everyone who asks for it.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 you should go on a spending spree.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 you should give lots of it away.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 Read the article. What does it say about the six suggestions in exercise 2? Put (√) or (X) in the chart.

4 Complete the article with the phrases below.
   a his unluckiest bet
   b to move to a bigger house
   c we feel at home
   d among all the members of her family
   e what the money would do to us
   f as soon as possible
   g most of their money will be spent
   h nothing but misery

5 Answer the questions.
   1 According to the article, is it a good thing or a bad thing to win a lot of money?
   2 How does winning a large amount of money affect our work? Our home? Our friends? Our relatives?
   3 In what way is our life like a jigsaw? How does a windfall smash the jigsaw?
   4 How can money be wasted?
   5 What are the two bad luck stories?
   6 What made Jim Taylor happy?
   7 How has Anita Cotton survived?

What do you think?

- How would you answer the questions in the last paragraph of the article?
- What advice would you give to someone who has won a lot of money?

Who wants to be a millionaire?

All over the world, lotteries create new millionaires every week. But what is it actually like to wake up one day with more money than you can imagine?

Nearly all of us have fantasized about winning the big prize in a lottery. We dream about what we would do with the money, but we rarely stop to think about (1) __________

For most of us, our way of life is closely linked to our economic circumstances. The different parts of our lives fit together like a jigsaw – work, home, friends, hobbies, and sports make up our world. This is where we belong and where (2) __________. A sudden huge windfall would dramatically change it all and smash the jigsaw.

For example, most people like the idea of not having to work, but winners have found that without work there is no purpose to their day and no reason to get up in the morning. It is tempting (3) __________ in a wealthy area, but if so doing, you leave old friends and routines behind.

Winners are usually advised not to publicize their address and phone number, but charity requests and begging letters still arrive. If they are not careful (4) __________ on solicitors’ fees to protect them from demanding relatives, guards to protect their homes and swimming pools, and psychiatrists to protect their sanity!

Winners who lost it all

There are many stories about people who couldn’t learn how to be rich. In 1999 Abby Wilson from Brentford, London, won £7 million on Thunderball, and it brought her (5) __________. She immediately went on a spending spree that lasted for four years and five marriages. She is now penniless and alone. ‘I’m a miserable person,’ she says, ‘Winning that money was the most awful thing that ever happened to me.’
Units are set out like this all the way through to advanced level. Grammar remains central to each unit and it is the grammar point that defines activities in the unit, even though they include interesting texts.

It is these text books which provide most of the activities and exercises that EFL teachers do with their learners. The syllabus set out by the text book in use at EFL schools suggest that the EFL teachers in this study, when asked questions about their attitude to grammar, have this very formal, structural, grammar in mind when they are answering.

The EFL teaching materials as documented above show how grammar in the EFL context is seen as central and fundamental to the teaching of EFL. These EFL teaching materials serve to confirm the following quotes indicating that grammar is emphasized at these EFL schools:

When asked the same question: “Do you teach grammar as a matter of course or as the need arises?” John answered:

“Our course books are all based on grammar, even those that say they aren’t, they really are. (They) have a grammar structure which is a very logical structure. And then of course as a matter of course, when you hear problems in the class or things that they should know and then you have to intervene so it does go both ways”
John from EFL School A, teaches EFL classes only. He teaches classes that range from beginner level through to intermediate and advanced levels. With regard to the syllabus John states that the course books, which he is required to follow as determined by the set syllabus at his school, are based on grammar and that grammar is taught as standard procedure.

John is required to follow a syllabus and that syllabus, which is defined by the course books, is grammar based. We can also see from many of Johns answers that John agrees with and conforms to this grammar based method of teaching EFL. In the first question John was asked: How much emphasis do you place on grammar? He answered that:

“Yes, a lot of emphasis put on grammar, as most of our students have to...um, because they’re learning the language as adults, they need to...., I think once they’ve reached an adult stage you can’t just acquire it, you have to learn it systematically maybe and the most logical way to do that really is detailed analysis of the grammar.”

This favouring of a grammar based approach is consistent with John’s responses throughout the interview. These remarks suggest that there is a convergence between John’s attitude towards grammar and those that form the basis for the syllabus.
Both Sally and Sophia teach at EFL School B. Both Sally and Sophia are EFL teachers like John and in fact use the same teaching material/text book set as John does i.e. Headway.

Sally, who teaches beginner to intermediate levels at EFL School B, when asked whether she taught grammar as the need arises or as a part of their syllabus: Sally responded:

“...we work on a syllabus... we do have a syllabus. Every unit has a grammar unit to it. And then... um, we focus on that, teach as the unit comes up but if there’s something else that arises I’ll put emphasis on it”.

“We actually have a syllabus where… today we’re doing countable and uncountable nouns, (or) today we’re doing the past simple, they’ve got to learn the verbs...”

Sally teaches grammar in blocks according to course materials. She adds that if the need arises after that, she will put emphasis on any grammar points that learners are struggling with. So, like John, Sally is constrained by the course book.

Sally also, similar to John, conforms to this process and her views of the role of grammar within a syllabus are consistent with the role that grammar plays in the syllabus as laid out by the EFL text book. As this syllabus is grammar based, Sally also feels that grammar is important.
Sophia, also from EFL School B, teaches mostly advanced level learners.

When asked whether she taught grammar as the need arises or as a part of their syllabus: Sophia responds:

“Probably both, (to follow the syllabus and as the need arises) because we are bound by the course books... but I certainly do leave a lot out because some of it is absolutely useless”.

This begins to indicate that Sophia does not adhere to the syllabus as closely as John and Sally do, even though she also uses the same course books as both John and Sally. She says that she leaves a lot out because it’s “absolutely useless”.

This view of grammar is confirmed by how Sophia answered when she was asked how important she felt grammar was?

“Important, but I certainly don’t emphasize it... but perhaps that’s because I teach at the higher levels”

Sophia, in saying that she doesn’t particularly emphasize grammar, not only in this question but throughout the interview indicates that Sophia does not employ a grammar based approach as much as John and Sally, for example:

“Normally I would teach it (grammar) when I correct. So if I’m correcting somebody or editing writing then I would say, it is this (way) because of this rule. But I think teaching the rules is an absolute waste of time.”
In Sophia we find a divergence from the other two EFL teachers but this is likely because she is teaching at higher levels and is employing some of the same attitudes towards grammar and methods for teaching it as would an L1 teacher. I will discuss this further in the next theme.

4.3. The Role of Grammar in an ESL (Jane’s) Context

The exception to the rule with regard to their syllabus in this section is Jane. Jane teaches at EFL School A, which caters mainly to EFL learners from around Africa. However, Jane teaches mostly business students of English as a second language (ESL). Her syllabus, as expected, is different from the other EFL teachers.

Jane uses a predominantly genre based syllabus (see page 64-65) with these learners, teaching them, for example, how to write minutes, memos and reports.

“*A lot of my teaching is genre based. The kind of core for these classes, you know in a company, they need people to do the following genre and I go in there to actually teach those skills, that genre, answering the telephone, writing a report, taking minutes...*” (Jane)

Jane’s grammar teaching is determined to some degree by the syllabus determined by the school she is teaching at. This syllabus caters to the needs of and covers the genres needed by South African companies. Jane may focus
on differing skills or genres for differing classes but these skills or genres are uniform for most companies.

The teaching material collected from Jane (ESL teacher) also shows how Jane’s ESL syllabus differs from the EFL syllabus of the other teachers and rather than centring around grammar, centres around differing business genres. An example of this genre based teaching material can be seen in Fig. 1.3.

It is evident from this material (See Fig 1.3) that Jane’s syllabus is not based on grammar but rather centres around particular genres. Jane states:

“I do not actually walk into a class and give a grammar lesson... when I walk into that kind of classroom I do not produce a grammar lesson”

The appropriate grammar is only taught in an effort to help the learner identify the characteristics of a particular genre. Jane gives us excellent example of the kind of ‘genre’ based teaching she employs:

“What I do is, as I am teaching, let’s say a particular writing skill, when the moment arrives I need to put in a grammar plug... And we now discuss, using...um, the passive voice in writing minutes for instance. And then I do overt grammar teaching. This is what the passive voice is, this is what it looks like, this is how you make it, how you construct it. And then we on to say, right when you’re doing your minutes you will need the passive voice
because of the following but its not as though I walk into the class and say right today folks we're going to do the passive voice.”

4.3.3. The Role of Grammar in an L1 Context

In this section, because the L1 syllabus is defined by national matriculation examinations that learners must face at their year end, I will show in what ways the grade 12, L1 syllabus includes grammar and what this reflects about the position of grammar in the syllabus for both L1 schools.

The documents collected from the L1 teachers can be divided into three categories. The first are those activities, tests or exams that are what I call ‘grammar in context’ exercises. This is where learners are given a text and asked how the grammar in that text affects and shapes that text.

In these exercises learners are often asked about the effect of sentence structure and punctuation of a passage from any number of sources ranging from newspaper articles passages from a book.

“It’s very much our school philosophy that we don’t go near a textbook, because it’s a little bit too prescriptive or not broad enough. So we will borrow from sources where ever... lots and lots of texts trying to be as topical as possible, so everyday newspaper articles, we find that very valuable.” (Tim)
Fig 2.4 (practice test paper for learners in grade 12)
PASSAGE A

1. My mate Gordon did this terrible thing to me in London. He had no idea what he was doing, but in the manner of one pouring a stiff tot of spook-and-diesel for an old Clyde, he slipped me a snippet of news which set me off: South Africa was going non-racial.

2. There was nothing I could do about it, I flew to Johannesburg pronto.

3. Colleen picks me up at Jan Smuts.

4. "Lock your door," she says, "and keep your window closed."

5. "Why?"


7. Dennis Beckett grudgingly installs burglar alarms, hanging for the good old days. Anne’s alarm rings all night, no-one responds, not the cops, not the neighbours, no-one. Krarfenkne take Carol’s BMW away from her in Roanstop in broad daylight. Sylvia is raped in her Santhome home, her life saved by the Azapu membership card they find in her purse. Pacifists wear guns strapped to their ankles. Law and order begins at home. Mad Max hangs out at the corner cafe.

8. At this point in time burglaries have reached epidemic proportions. Basically, car hijackings are up from 700 last year to 1200 in the first six months of 1990. Colleen was right. Lock the door. Close the windows. Better still, stay at home, shop by phone, sleep with one eye open, join the lift club to the local shooting range.

9. One night, so say the papers, 26 people were massacred on a suburban transit, sending a tremor measuring seven on the Richter Scale through the station. Well, who was it who said, "Where there’s chaos, there’s money to be made"? Within days, taxi-smart opportunists with their fingers on the pulse were running up and down the coaches shouting, "The Zulus are coming!" and making off with the parcels of those who kept out of the window. Ja, well, no fine.

PASSAGE B

1. Have no doubt it is fear in the land. For what can men do when so many have grown lawless? Who can enjoy the lovely land, who can enjoy the seventy years, and the sun that pours down on the earth, when there is fear in the heart? Who can walk quietly in the shadow of the jacarandas, when their beauty is grown to danger? Who can lie peacefully abide, while the darkness hides some secret? What lovers can lie sweetly under the stars, when maraace grows with the measure of their sensillation?

2. Who knows how we shall fashion such a land? For we fear not only the loss of our possessions, but the loss of our superiority and the loss of our whiteface. Some say it is true that crime is bad, but would this not be worse: is it not better to hold what we have, and to pay the price of it with fear? And others say, can such fear be endured?

3. We do not know, we do not know. We shall live from day to day, and put more locks on the doors, and get a fine fierce dog when the fine fierce bitch next door has pups, and hold on to our handfuls more tenaciously; and the beauty of the trees by night, and the raptures of lovers under the stars, these things we shall fergo.

4. Cry, the beloved country, for the unborn child that is the inheritor of our fear. Let him not love the earth too deeply. Let him not love too closely when the water runs through his fingers, nor stand too silent when the setting sun makes red the wild with fire. Let him not be too moved when the birds of his land are singing, nor give too much of his heart to a mountain or a valley. For fear will rob him of all if he gives too much.
In answering these kinds of ‘style’ questions learners must firstly recognize certain patterns in the grammar of the text and then have the metalanguage (language to talk about language) to discuss these patterns typically relating to diction, sentence structure, sentence rhythm and tone contribution. An example of the answer required for the activity in Fig 2.5 is pictured in Fig 2.6.

The word ‘style’ is often used to ask learners about the diction, sentence structure, sentence rhythm and tone contribution. Figure 2.4 and 2.5 show typical examples of ‘style’ questions.

**PASSAGE A**
The style of passage A is informal. The writer is making a serious comment about violence in South Africa in an amusing and entertaining way.

**Diction**
The vocabulary which the writer uses is casual and amusing. He uses a lot of colloquial and slang expressions such as "pronto", "spook and diesel" and "snippet of news". This casual approach, however, is deceptive as the writer also includes a number of shocking facts such as "hijackings are up from 700 last year to 1200". He also uses some highly emotive words such as "bloodthirsty", "massacred", etc. A South African flavour is achieved by the use of typical SA phrases - "Ja, well, no fine".

**Sentence structure**
The sentences are short, simple and to the point - e.g. "South Africa was going non-racial"; "White suburbia shutters in its sleep". This matter of fact style is quick and clever but also has a shock effect as the facts are presented starkly and quickly.

**Sentence rhythm**
The short sentences create a snappy, fast rhythm e.g. "Lock the door. Close the windows". This makes the passage dramatic and exciting to read.

**Tone**
A casual tone is achieved through the use of a colloquial, conversational style but there is an element of seriousness which threads through the lighthearted approach.

Fig 2.6 (Example answer for the activity in Fig 2.5)
The second category evident in these activities are those that teach learners how to edit texts and test them on how to edit texts. This is referred to as textual editing. For all except one teacher (Tina), I received markedly more in this category than the other two. Figure 2.7. is a typical example of such an exercise.
In these exercises, learners are expected to correct spelling, punctuation, sentence construction (syntax) and again ‘style’. For all these errors, with the exception of spelling, grammatical knowledge is tested and learners need to understand how grammar affects the text and have the metalanguage to discuss these errors.

I also received a number of handouts summarizing the key points of textual editing. Please see Fig 2.8. for an example of a ‘textual editing’ handout.

**Punctuation**

Please consult the Punctuation section (page 23) in order to familiarise yourself with the function of the basic punctuation marks.

**Comma**

A comma splice occurs when two main clauses are joined by a comma. This is a very basic error, and all students should work very hard at eliminating it. Look at this sentence:

I passed my English test yesterday, I studied very hard. ✗

This error can be avoided by:
• Adding a co-ordinating conjunction (and, but, yet): I studied very hard, and I passed my English test yesterday. ✓
• Adding a subordinating conjunction (after, because, since, etc): Because I studied very hard, I passed my English test yesterday. ✓
• Replacing the comma by a semi-colon: I passed my English test yesterday; I studied very hard. ✓
• Replacing the comma with a full stop: I passed my English test yesterday. I studied very hard. ✓

Notice that it sometimes helps to change the order of the clauses, as in the first two examples.

Other comma errors
• Defining clauses do not take commas. Remember that a defining clause adds indispensable information to a main clause.
  The river that separates South Africa from Zimbabwe is the Limpopo river. ✓
  A motor car service that does not adjust the points setting is useless. ✓
• Use a comma after a noun that is used to address someone at the beginning of a sentence.
  Thembu, please come here. ✓
• Remember to use a comma to separate introductory adverbial clauses, participial phrases and prepositional phrases from the rest of the sentence.
  Adverbial clauses: Although you learnt hard, your marks are disappointing. ✓
  Participial phrases: Walking rapidly down the road, John caught up with his friends. ✓
  Prepositional phrases: During the first part of the day, we managed to accomplish much. ✓

Apostrophe
• Plural words do not take an apostrophe:
  She bought tomato's and banana's at the greengrocer. ✗
• The possessive pronouns *is, hers, yours, theirs, ours* do not take apostrophes:
  The python swallowed it's prey. ✗ Please write it's ✓
  Her's is always the best mark in Geography. ✗ Please write Hers ✓
  Those bicycles are our's. ✗ Please write ours ✓
• An apostrophe must be used for contractions or letters omitted:
  We've received a lot of homework today ✓ (We have)
  You're not going to that party, are you? ✓ (You are)
  It's a fantastic stereo system. ✓ (It is)
• Possession is shown for plural nouns by an apostrophe after the s (s'):
  The girls' netball skirts were stolen. ✓
  The states' leaders attended a conference in Durban. ✓
• A noun already in the plural adds an apostrophe plus s.
  Women's rights are very important. ✓
Amount/number: *fewer* and *less*

Amount refers to things that cannot be counted.
- Examples: time, effort, money

Number refers to things that can be counted.
- Examples: mistakes, items, saucers

*Fewer* is used for numbers. It describes only plural nouns:
- Examples: fewer students, fewer coins, fewer animals

*Less* is used for amounts. It describes only singular nouns:
- Examples: less oil, less love, less food

Between/among

*Between* refers to two things or persons:
- Example: Between you and me, we shall find the solution.

*Among* refers to more than two things or persons:
- Example: There was great friendship among the Grade 12 students.

Style and register

Pay careful attention to these words or word combinations. Please don’t use them!
- *could of, should of, would of* ✗
  These words do not exist. Replace with *could have, should have, would have.* ✓
- *a lot* ✗
  This word does not exist. Replace with *a lot.* ✓
- *use to, suppose to* ✗
  These phrases do not exist. Replace with *used to, supposed to.* ✓
- *She didn’t owe me nothing.* ✗
  Do not use a double negative. Replace with: *She didn’t owe me anything.* ✓
- *The boy played good.* ✗
  *Carl Lewis runs quick.* ✗
  Do not use an adjective for an adverb when the verb is being described.
  Replace with: *The boy played well.* ✓
  *Carl Lewis runs quickly (or fast).* ✓
- *These kind of films do not attract me.* ✗
  I don’t like *those sort* of people. ✗
  Make sure that the adjective (this – these; that – those) agrees with the noun.
  Replace with: *These *kinds* of films do not attract me.* ✓
  I don’t like *that* sort of person. ✓
- *I’m gonna miss the bus.* ✗
  “Slang, except in direct speech and very informal writing situations, should be avoided. Replace with: *I will miss the bus.* ✓

Fig 2.8.
Under ‘Punctuation’ learners review how the comma and apostrophe are properly used.

Under ‘Syntax’ learners are taught about misrelated participles, sentence fragments and concord. Under concord learners are reminded of grammar rules related to verbs, and pronouns.

Lastly under the heading of ‘Style and Register’ learners are usually instructed as to which word combinations to use or not use. These all refer to grammatical rules in one way or another for example:

These worksheets confirm that grammar taught in these classes is contextualised in the ‘style’ related questions relating grammar to the register, tone and meaning of texts. These ‘style’ questions are tested in their reading/comprehension papers and a portion of learner’s writing mark is also given to ‘style’. It is evident from these exercises and activities collected that the L1 teachers in this study, when asked questions about their attitude to grammar, have this contextualised grammar in mind.

To a lesser extent grammar is taught for editing functions or more correctly put, for correcting functions. This correcting function however is allocated a very small percentage of L1 English learner’s exam mark. This kind of question is also a way to bring a form of prescriptivist grammar into the
classroom in the guise of contextualised text. Prescriptive grammars establish a “proper” way in which to speak or write. Prescriptive grammar emphasizes rules and labels and attempts, to analyse and clarify the constituents of a well-formed sentence. The focus of attention is on surface structure, not meaning. The main benefit of traditional grammar is that it gives learners a basic understanding of the building blocks of language, which can help in improving their writing skills.

Also, examples of practice matric exam questions (see p71-72), suggest that grammar is not emphasized at matric level English L1 teaching. Some of the teaching material I collected from the L1 schools were mid-year or practice examination papers in preparation for the matric exams. The practice exam papers collected show how grammar is tested, contextually as part of text analysis or as part of the ‘style’ component in learners writing as well as textual editing questions. Examples of these can be seen on pg71. The questions in these exam papers are very similar to the exercises and activities found in the above examples of L1 teaching material.

Together, the above mentioned exams, as well as, L1 teaching materials as documented above show how grammar at this level is seen as complementary in a L1 context. Students require grammar knowledge in order to answer questions in their exams:
• related to the ‘style’ of a text as previously discussed and

• score well in the *‘style’ portion of a learner’s grade for their written work.

• Related to textual editing (correcting)

These exams and teaching materials serve to confirm the following quotes indicating that grammar is not emphasized in the L1 matric syllabus:

1. “They do definitely need to know a certain amount of grammar…um, and are expected to have just some, I suppose, implicit knowledge of it (grammar) for their final exams.” (Tina)

This suggests that because this is an English first language school, learners are expected to have implicit knowledge (as a natural consequence of being a English mother tongue speaker) of grammar and are tested on just some grammar, a “certain amount”.

Tim comments on the amount of time spent on grammar in the course of the year’s syllabus:

2. “Usually a week to ten days with an emphasis on grade 11 and grade 12 grammar requirements from the syllabus, so it uh..., phases and clauses and sentence analysis.” (Tim)

This a small portion of the years syllabus to spend on grammar requirements.
*The word ‘style’ refers to the diction, sentence structure, sentence rhythm and tone contribution.

Figure 2.4 and 2.5 show typical examples of ‘style’ questions.

3. “You see grammar is really not a huge thing as soon as you’ve moved on from grade eight you’re integrating it the whole time in newspaper study in ‘style’, ... so that’s all implicit.” (Marcy)

4. “I don’t specifically set up a lesson that says gee today I’m doing that...because by then they’ve done it (completed the grammar aspect), really by the end of grade ten they’ve done most of their language and their grammar” (Marco)

5. “At grade eight level we do a lot of syllabus based teaching. We probably should do more at a senior level but the literature takes over and there are gaps there” (Marcy)

Teachers confirm that their learners learn grammar at an earlier level and by senior level are focusing more on literature. Marco, by saying that he doesn’t specifically plan for a certain grammar lesson confirms that he teaches grammar more implicitly as he is focused on literature at matric level.

4.3.3. Discussion

The fact that the EFL teachers and L1 teachers are viewing grammar from different perspectives is significant. As I examined the data collected I found that grammar meant different things to different teachers coming from different contexts. This reflects how broad the scope of grammar really is.
Grammar is central in an EFL context and each unit in the Headway text books used by the EFL teachers is based on a grammar point. The syllabus is set out by the text book in use at EFL schools. This suggests that the EFL teachers in this study, when asked questions about their attitude to grammar, have this very formal, structural, grammar in mind when they are answering interview questions. It is these text books which provide most of the activities and exercises that EFL teachers do with their learners.

In an ESL context the appropriate grammar is only taught in an effort to help the learner identify the characteristics of a particular genre. The teaching material collected from Jane (ESL teacher) indicate that Jane’s ESL syllabus rather than centering around grammar, centres around differing business genres.

And finally in a L1 context, the L1 teaching materials, as well as, grade 12 mid-term exams collected show how grammar at this level of L1 teaching is seen as complementary to L1 English learning. Grammar knowledge must be good to score well in the ‘style’ section of a learners writing exam as well as in text analysis questions which ask learners about diction, sentence structure, sentence rhythm and tone. There are also marks allocated to textual editing questions but this is a small percentage of learner’s overall mark. From the collection of teaching materials and exam questions as detailed above as well
as interviewing the L1 teachers it is apparent that grammar is not emphasized and plays a complementary role in the L1 context.
4.4. Theme 2 - Explicit vs. Implicit Teaching of Grammar

4.4.1. Introduction

One of the major themes emerging from the data collected is how the EFL and the L1 teachers are similar to one another with regard to using more explicit teaching of grammar at lower levels and more implicit methods at higher levels within their own field.

In this theme, when I discuss teaching grammar explicitly I mean to teach it separately or on its own as a grammar block or grammar ‘plug’. For example to write a grammar rule on the board or have grammar rules written in a textbook for learners. This would be considered explicit teaching of grammar.

To teach grammar implicitly is to teach it without specifically writing the rule down independently as a set lesson but rather by bringing learner’s attention to it as and when it comes up in the process of speaking, listening, reading or writing.
4.4.2. Explicit vs. Implicit Teaching of Grammar in an EFL

Context

When asked directly “Which students would you teach explicitly?” John is very clear in his answer:

“Lower levels generally, because they may not have seen it before at least not in English and they do need something to hold on to and as you get higher up (more advanced levels) you can start bringing it in quietly through the back door (implicitly) especially when…especially the higher levels and you know if you teach it explicitly they’re going to switch off because they’ve done it (learnt the rule explicitly before) so many times so you need to bring it in through the back door, sort of sneak it in.”

It is evident that John uses more explicit methods for lower levels because as he says “they need something to hold on to” (referring to grammar providing a structure on which to build the curriculum. This will be discussed in greater detail in the next theme).

John uses more implicit methods for higher level students implying that learners will get bored if you continue with grammar rules into the higher levels because they’ve learnt the more basic rules before.

Sally, who teaches lower levels (beginner to intermediate) at EFL School B answers the direct question of “Do you teach grammar explicitly or
implicitly?” by giving me some examples of an introduction to a typical lesson in her daily teaching:

“Usually in the mornings... Well we actually have a syllabus that today we’re doing countable and uncountable nouns... today we’re doing the past simple, they’ve got to learn the verbs in the past simple...”

The fact that Sally announces to her classes (as a result of the textbook layout) that they are a doing a certain grammar rule that day indicates that Sally teaches grammar explicitly. As Sally teaches the lower level learners, this is consistent with my hypothesis that lower levels are taught more explicitly in the sample that I have examined.

Sophia, also an EFL teacher at EFL School B, teaches EFL at higher levels (intermediate to advanced learners). Sophia’s answer is a little more complex in that she expresses how she consciously strives to teach implicitly, however her efforts to do this are sometimes frustrated by the fact that some of her international learners come from a very strong background of grammatical focus. Sophia asserts:

“...implicitly but sometimes it’s unavoidable ...because of their background because so many of them are from Asia, where grammar has been explicit ...they need the rule”
It is evident that there is a contrast between Sally and Sophia, whereby grammar is emphasized by Sally (who teaches lower levels) while Sophia (who teaches higher levels) consciously strives not to emphasize it. Yet Sophia seems to be in a position whereby some of her learners are reliant on these rules requiring her to fulfil the need for rule based instruction.

In the interview teachers were also asked the question “Do you teach grammar deductively or inductively?”

- To teach grammar deductively means to lay out the rule for the learner first, thereafter providing examples, activities and exercises to practice this rule.

- To teach grammar inductively means to give learners examples of sentences which all contain a certain rule and let learners come to their own conclusions, facilitated by the teacher, as to what the rule might be.

The answers to this question also provide evidence as to how explicit or implicit these teacher’s grammar teaching is. Teaching grammar deductively reflects a greater emphasis on the rules of language and is a more explicit method of teaching grammar while to teach grammar inductively may reflect
more emphasis on meaning rather than form and is a more implicit method of teaching grammar.

To this question John, consistent with his previous answers, answers that he teaches the lower levels deductively and teaches the higher levels inductively.

“At lower levels we’ll go through a PPP (*present, practice and produce approach). That’s more your elementaries, beginners, pre-intermediates... if you’re doing it through PPP then it’s deductive... so it depends on the class, it depends on their learning styles, it depends what level they are.”

The fact that John teaches lower levels using a PPP approach means that he is teaching deductively at those levels. This indicates that John places more emphasis on grammar and teaches more explicitly at lower levels than he does at higher levels.

*The PPP or present, practice and produce approach refers to the approach whereby an English teacher presents a grammar rule then practices this rule with learners in examples after which learners are asked to produce or do exercises related to the grammar rule in question.
At EFL School B, Sally, who teaches at the lower levels answers that she likes to teach the structure first and then move to ‘the output’:

“Generally, what I like to do is teach in the morning, and I like to teach the structure and then I want them to give me the output... I need to give them direction first. Because a lot of them come with nothing, no (grammar) knowledge, what so ever, so I teach and then I get the (output)”.

It is evident that Sally teaches grammar deductively therefore indicating a greater emphasis on grammar and a more explicit approach to grammar teaching. This confirms Sally’s previous answers that she teaches deductively.

Again, Sally teaching grammar more deductively and explicitly can be contrasted to Sophia who teaches at higher levels. Sophia answered this question, similarly indicating an inductive approach, by saying:

“I normally use group work... so I would give them the grammar exercise, they work it out between the group... and then I would look at basically teaching the rule.”

This is a very different approach from Sally also from School A. Sophia uses group work, a progressive technique for teaching and learning, to teach grammar inductively. Sophia teaches learners the rule only at the end of the exercise. This inductive approach, as well as, her methods of using group
work, indicates that she uses more implicit methods of teaching grammar at these higher levels.

### 4.4.3. Explicit vs. Implicit Teaching of Grammar in an L1 Context

At L1 School B, we find that both Marco and Marcy mostly teach grammar implicitly. As Marco says they try to ‘disguise’ the teaching of grammar within the listening, speaking, reading and writing that they do in their English class:

> “Implicitly..., we disguise the grammar for the seniors as part of what we’re doing”

By ‘disguise’ Marco means that instead of teaching a grammar rule up front, he will teach it implicitly, reviewing a rule with learners as it comes up in a text for example.

In Marcy’s interview, Marcy goes on to help us understand the policy at this school by saying:

> “You see grammar is really not a huge thing as soon as you’ve moved on from grade eight you’re integrating it the whole time in newspaper study in ‘style’, ... so that’s all implicit. When you’re doing the foundations it’s explicit...”

This school focuses on grammar at lower levels but after grade eight, learners focus more on literature as Marco mentioned earlier and on integrating
grammar through a focus on ‘style’ of writing, when reading and writing as Marcy has elaborated.

Tim’s answer suggests that he teaches grammar inductively through textual editing. Textual editing is a technique of using authentic texts and picking out examples of certain grammar rules from those texts or alternatively looking for exceptions to the rule or grammatical mistakes within the text.

“It’s very much our kind of Crawford philosophy that we don’t go near a textbook because it’s a little bit too prescriptive or not broad enough... (so we use) lots and lots of texts trying to be as topical as possible so um... everyday newspaper articles... particularly around some of the newspapers that aren’t so good at their prefect, they provide excellent opportunities for looking at faulty grammar”

This indicates that Tim may place more emphasis on meaning than form. He also adds that he does so through the use of authentic texts (contextualised grammar) showing how grammar may be used correctly or incorrectly to improve writing.

To this same question another L1 teacher, Marco, answers that:

“I don’t think you can teach using worksheets, its passive and the kids are very quick to get bored with it... you can’t do it in large chunks and this is why we do the ‘in context’ thing with the seniors.”
Similar to Tim from L1 School A, Marco from L1 School B likes to teach grammar at this level in context, and categorically states that his learners get bored when learning from worksheets (he is referring to explicit grammar worksheets with stated grammar rules). Marco refrains from using any worksheets at this level and so teaches ‘in context’ using predominantly inductive methods to recall the grammar that learners should know by this stage as they have focused on it at lower levels (up to grade 11 at L1 School A and up to Grade 8 at L1 School B).

Marcy, however, unlike the other three L1 teachers, will review a certain rule first and then see how learners apply it. After that she will ‘consolidate’ or revise what has been learnt. Marcy, therefore can be said to be using deductive methods for teaching grammar, which is not consistent with the other three L1 teachers but as Marcy hinted at earlier by saying

“At grade eight level we do a lot of curriculum based teaching. We probably should do more at a senior level but the literature takes over and there are gaps there”

This is inconsistent with the other three teachers which suggests that she believes that grammar should be more emphasized.
4.4.4. Discussion

The above data suggest that within each of these contexts there exists a correlation between the explicit grammar teaching and the level of proficiency of the learners.

In the EFL field there is a marked difference in the degree of explicit grammar teaching between Sally, who teaches EFL at beginner to intermediate levels and Sophia, who teaches EFL/ESL at higher levels. John also indicates that he teaches more implicitly as the level of English that he is teaching gets higher.

In the L1 context answers throughout the interview suggest that grammar is far less emphasized and taught less explicitly at matric level. At L1 School B learners stop learning grammar explicitly as early as grade 9 and at L1 School at grade 11.

What the data collected also suggests is the difference in the degree of implicit teaching of grammar between L1 and EFL contexts. The level of L1 learners is higher than of EFL learners as they have the advantage of growing up with the language as their mother tongue. And due to this higher level of English being taught at L1 schools, the grammar being taught is less explicit and more complementary nature. It plays a less fundamental role in an L1 context than it does in an EFL context. I will discuss in detail the role of grammar in an EFL
and L1 context as well as how these roles correspond with the ‘new voice’ in
the theory of EFL and L1 grammar teaching in the next theme: ‘Grammar
provides structure in an EFL context and fosters awareness of linguistic
choices available in an L1 context’
4.5. Theme 3 - Grammar provides structure in an EFL context and fosters awareness of linguistic choices available in an L1 context.

4.5.1. Introduction

This concluding theme describes the notable difference between the roles of grammar in an EFL as opposed to a L1 context. In this section I will present the evidence which suggests that:

- EFL teachers view grammar as a structure on which to base their syllabus and by which learners can progress through a new language

- L1 teachers on the other hand teach grammar towards reading and writing with greater awareness of linguistic choices available in an L1 context

4.5.2. Grammar in an EFL Context.

John, from EFL School A, states:

"Because they're learning the language as adults, they need to..., I think once you've reached an adult stage you can't just acquire it (a
Krashen’s, (1983) view illuminates the dichotomy of acquisition as opposed to learning, whereby ‘acquisition’ refers to actually being able to use a language in a communicative sense and ‘learning’ refers to ‘knowing about’ a language rather being able to use it. Krashen being a proponent of communicative approaches suggests that language acquisition, which is being able to use language in real communication, can not be helped by formal teaching. Language learning is considered ‘knowing about’ a language and refers to what is usually learnt in more grammar based approaches (Krashen, 1983).

Here John disagrees with Krashen’s theory that ‘learning’ is not helpful to language learners by saying that “they can’t just acquire it” and “they have to learn it systematically”.

John indicates that he believes learners must learn in order to acquire. John, like Tilbury (2004) assumes that learning does promote acquisition and we should therefore be interested in grammar as a means to an end. Tilbury refers to the Krashen dichotomy of learning contrasted to acquisition. He argues that these are not alternative routes to the same goal but rather that acquisition, meaning effortless use of language, is the goal by which learning may or may not help. If we assume that learning does promote acquisition then it follows that we should be interested in what should be learnt.
John indicates that he teaches grammar to his learners for the purpose of giving them structure or a logical system by which his learners can move through the language. From the data, it appears that John is primarily focused on grammar for the purpose of structure as it helps navigate the learner towards effective communication in the foreign language whether that be written or spoken.

Sally, from EFL School A, emphasizes grammar in her teaching and when questioned as to her reasons for teaching grammar, like John, answered that she felt it gave learners structure. This approach gave structure to the learning of a language. Sally says in reply to the question: “What are your reasons for teaching grammar?”

“Structure, I know that’s an obvious, but you know it’s a...I think what... It’s like a bit of a strange thing because if you don’t have grammar, what are you teaching? What is your role as a teacher?... if you don’t have something you can actually teach.”

The above statement suggests that Sally depends on grammar to provide her with something to teach. In other words she sees language teaching as being very much linked to grammar teaching. When asked: “What do you think grammar gives to learners?”

“Structure...I think it gives them structure, I think it gives them something to study, I think it gives them something to go home and
work alone, I think it gives them something that they are achieving. It’s an achievement on their behalf.”

Sally feels that grammar provides a structure or skeleton on which to base language teaching. For Sally, it provides a structured way for her learners to navigate through a foreign language.

Sophia, also from EFL School B, teaches learners of a higher level than Sally. To begin with Sophia surprisingly said in the first interview question that she certainly doesn’t emphasize grammar, going on to say she felt that teaching rules was an absolute waste of time. Sophia states:

“I would say that for me, grammar is important but I certainly don’t emphasize it in the classroom but perhaps that’s because I teach at the higher levels…

Later Sophia states:

“I think teaching the rules is an absolute waste of time”

This suggests that Sophia doesn’t believe that grammar is of much help to her learners but she does still however teach grammar in certain instances and gives reasons for this.

“But we are bound by the course books (EFL textbooks) so because it is progressive you do tend to teach the grammar points but I certainly do leave a lot out because some of it is absolutely useless. But
ya, certainly if the need arises I would cover that. So I revise it constantly, the important stuff.”

By ‘progressive’ Sophia means that, as is evident in Fig 1.4., each unit is centered around grammar and that these units follow on from each other progressively. For example, a unit may be centered around the past simple tense and then the following unit will be centered around the past perfect.

This suggests that Sophia does follow the structured layout of the EFL textbooks but it is also suggests that she is selective about the grammar rules that she teaches when she states that she leaves a lot out. But it is also evident that she does feel that some of it is ‘important’ and she says that she revises those rules constantly. This aligns with the views of John and Sally. However, later in the interview Sophia gives further instances when she would focus on grammar:

“\textit{I think explicit teaching of grammar is umm... Normally I would teach it when I correct. So if I’m correcting somebody or editing writing then I would say it is this (way) because of this rule... ”}

Sophia stated that she would use grammar instruction when she needed to in order to correct learner’s work. This fits more into an English first language paradigm, as Andrews, (2005) suggests:

“a teacher with a rich knowledge of grammatical constructions and a more general awareness of the forms and varieties of the language will be in a better position to help young writers” (Andrews, 2005)
And Debra Myhill, (2005) theorizes as to how grammar may inform learners with regard to their writing in particular. She suggests that:

“Knowledge about grammar might inform both learners’ and teachers’ understanding of writing, rather than looking more broadly and generally at knowledge about language”  (Myhill, 2005)

Marco from L1 School B also states how he believes that “teaching them rules is an absolute waste of time”. Marcy also from L1 School B refers to teaching grammar as “a tool for editing or correcting learner’s writing”. From these comments by teachers of English as a first language we can see how similar Sophia’s attitudes are to them in this regard.

Sophia teaches grammar much more towards fine tuning in the higher levels, joining first language English teachers in using grammar for textual editing rather than for structure as other EFL teachers do.

In Sophia’s case, I observed how the context in which she was teaching had shaped and moulded the way she was teaching and her attitudes towards grammar. Sophia was, at times, dismissive of grammar as were some L1 teachers. There is a surprising overlap here between Sophia as an EFL teacher and the L1 teachers in that Sophia, teaching at the higher levels of EFL, is starting to adopt similar attitudes towards grammar as the L1 teachers i.e. not
placing much emphasis on grammar and teaching grammar more implicitly for language awareness rather than for structure.

4.5.3. Grammar in an ESL Context.

Jane, as discussed in the preamble is an ESL teacher of black South African, ESL, business learners. When asked “how much emphasis do you place on grammar in your classroom?” Jane (as quoted earlier) explained that a lot of her teaching is genre based. Genre theory deals with the ways in which a work may be considered to belong to a class of related works. Genre theory is concerned with how people, texts and activities interact with each other in order to produce meaning. Generally speaking, the concept of genre covers the patterns and characteristics of a text that differentiate it (verbal or written) from other kinds of texts. Genres help us differentiate between the many alternate kinds of communication, because in recognizing a text type we recognize many things about the social setting from which that text was born. It gives us insight into the roles of the writer and reader, and the expected content of the document. Some theorists believe that studying grammar from the more functional perspective can impact students’ ability to construct these differing texts which may be specific to a certain language and its accompanying culture. As Janet Maybin (2000) puts it:

“The genre approach developed from the work of Michael Halliday and draws heavily on his theory of functional linguistics. Halliday argues that we have developed very specific ways of using language in
relation to how certain things are accomplished within our culture, and that different contexts and language purposes are associated with different registers, or genres of language. Genres encode knowledge and relationships in particular ways through the use of different language structures.”

It is suggested that through teaching a range of predominant genres of language, as well as the grammatical structures typical of those genres, learners may gain access to the environments in which that language operates.

From Jane’s answers, as well as teaching material collected from Jane (See Fig 1.3 for a typical example of her teaching material), we find that Jane incorporates grammar in her teaching of differing genres. She is concerned with giving her learners better access to the business world through better understanding business genres. In order to do this Jane will teach her learners certain grammatical structures that are typical in such genres. Jane states:

“Because we use particular grammatical constructions to convey certain attitudes or standpoints when we speak English and... especially in the business world it is difficult to write minutes in the correct genre of minutes if you don’t know how to make the passive voice for instance.”

This reflects the place of grammar within genre theory. Grammar in this genre based ESL setting is being used as a tool to gain access to a particular genre which in turn gives the learner access to language used within a certain field, in this case being business.
4.5.4. Grammar in an L1 Context

Teachers from both the L1 schools were in accord as to the role of grammar in their context. This accord is due to the fact that all these teacher’s learners need to pass the same English first language exam at the end of their matric year.

Firstly, it was evident from asking the L1 teachers whether they thought grammar was fundamental (necessary for communication) or complementary (of additional benefit) for their learners, the L1 teachers were in accord in saying that grammar was complementary for their learners.

Marco answers:

“I would think that that’s a complementary thing that’s happening there and I’m fine tuning and I’m getting them to do things that they haven’t understood why…(for example) when it comes to writing an essay and you’ve used a gerund as a verb, that’s when you say ok, what’s the point of having those definitions at my fingertips if I don’t know how they work and how they are effecting meaning”

Marcy, also from L1 School B, answers similarly:

“At a senior level, its complementary. They’re perfectly able to communicate functionally with slangy grammar and inconsistencies and whatever which is fine for 95% of their communication. I mean they’d sound daft with polished English most of the time, but because of
the academic nature of this school and the aspirations of these students
they have to understand how to... how to... you can’t understand how
to punctuate a sophisticated text if you don’t know how a colon and a
semi colon works for example..., that is the polish ”

Tina from L1 School A said that if she were not to teach grammar:

“I think they’d be alright, I don’t think they’d be exceptional and at the
moment I have a lot of exceptional students who are really above
average but I think because it’s kind of intrinsic and it’s first language
they would cope.”

Tim from L1 School A answers similarly:

“I think it would impact on their style of writing, not so much on their
style of speaking because I find that they can shift register orally quite
well but I think it would impact on their ability to express themselves in
terms of style.”

This already differs from the EFL teachers who considered grammar to be
fundamental for their learners because as discussed above it provides a
structure with which to build their lessons on. In a L1 context, L1 teachers
view grammar as being complementary to their teaching. In other words, their
learners would still do relatively well in their exams but knowing their
grammar well can enhance their English skills especially their reading and
writing skills (their awareness of the subtleties of the language when reading
and writing). In fact what is also evident from the L1 teachers response to this
question is that learners’ oral communication skills are not as reliant on grammar knowledge as their writing and reading skills are.

The data collected suggests that teachers from the L1 context teach grammar in order to bring about a greater awareness of the English language. For example: Tim, from L1 school A, answers the question of what are your reasons for teaching grammar by answering:

“(For a) greater appreciation of what the tools of the language can do and the implications of good grammatical knowledge”

Tim comments later that grammar is important because:

“of the impact that it can have on writing skills, on tone, on register, for the kids being able to shift between writing a structurally sound creative essay and writing an appropriate literature essay in terms of register and all the rest of it. If they’ve got their grammar skills in place they score better in the style section of the literature essays”

It is an awareness of the grammar of a language that provides the tools to alter the tone, register or more subtle meanings within a text and so having a better grammar knowledge enables learners to score better in their writing.

Marco from L1 School B speaks about grammar giving learners the tools to be more aware of the language and its subtleties when reading the literature that these learners are required to read as well as the writing aspect of the syllabus:
“I really think that um… when you come across a poet like Cummings and you’re doing ‘I Thank You God For This The Most Amazing Day’ and he starts using a noun as a verb and an adjective as an adverb… um, you know if you don’t teach grammar all that is going to be wasted and Shakespeare did it in different ways… So I think it’s basic to an understanding and an enjoyment of literature, poetry… um, if you want to write well you need to know what you can do with grammar and how you can manipulate words and punctuation to exploit those things.” (Marco)

Marcy, also from L1 school B, also makes reference to grammar helping with writing. Marcy says:

“They need to understand sentence structure. They need to understand how syntax works. They can’t correct or edit anything if they don’t understand grammar. So it’s essential to writing skills and to polish”

This seemed to echo Kolln (1996) who calls for grammar to be taught in ways which make learners more aware of the language and the choices available to them when writing or speaking and the resulting tone of such choices.

It can be deduced from the data collected that the L1 teachers are much more concerned with the higher functions of grammar as it relates to awareness of the subtleties of the language and how tone, register and meaning can be effected by those subtleties when reading and writing.
4.5.5. Discussion

4.5.5.1. Grammar in an EFL Context.

From the above data it is evident that there are significant differences in the roles of grammar in the above mentioned contexts. The teachers who teach within these differing contexts have as a result appropriately differing attitudes towards grammar accordingly.

While the EFL teachers feel it is fundamental to EFL teaching in that it gives learners a structure or a logical system by which his learners can move through the language. This is consistent with the cognitive code approach of which Jakobovits (1970) was the key proponent (Celce-Murcia, 1991). This approach was strongly influenced by the work of Chomsky (1959) and other linguists working on transformational generative grammar, (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Here, it was recognized that L1 speakers learn a set of grammar rules internally and by the age of five or six are fully equipped to generate a vast number of sentences never heard before.

This approach thus saw language learning as the process of cognitive rule acquisition rather than mere habit formation and repetition as in approaches like the *audio-lingual approach.
As a result of this view of language learning, grammar was given a prominent role in the EFL language classroom. Exercises used in this method could be the same as those of the audiolingual approach (see pg 39 and 40), however the focus was on the conscious understanding of the grammar rule being practiced.

It appears the motives for teaching grammar amongst the EFL teachers especially John and Sally (typical EFL teachers) are similar. They all indicate that it provides structure for teachers and learners to build a curriculum around or learn the language. This is not to say that these teachers believe teaching grammar alone will enable their learners to communicate in the foreign language.

Evidence suggests that none of the EFL teachers at the EFL schools were using an approach like the Communicative Approach. This approach was derived from linguists such as Hymes (1972) and Halliday (1973) and values communication as the main purpose for language learning. As Krashen (1983) puts it:

“All human beings can acquire additional languages, but they must have the desire or the need to acquire the language and the opportunity to use the language they study for real communicative purposes.” (Krashen, 1983).
It was recognized that in order to acquire the ability to communicate in a foreign language a learner needs the opportunity to use that language in a communicative situation. Needless to say, proponents of this approach do not arrange their curriculum around grammar but rather around subject matter and meaning. The role of the instructor is simply to provide the means through activities for communication to take place although providing feedback on errors made is also recognized as a legitimate practice. (Celce-Murcia, 1991).

Although there was little evidence of this kind of approach, a purely communicative approach, when asked whether grammar improved communication skills Sally replied:

“*You know it (grammar) improves it. (But) speaking the language improves communication skills. Actually being immersed, speaking, listening...So you can have a robot doing the grammar and if you’re not speaking it..., if you’re not immersed in it, it means absolutely nothing*”

Similarly, in talking about learners who have no communication experience Sophia comments that:

“*So you have people who are walking grammar books but when they speak or write it’s not happening so it obviously doesn’t work so you need to find a way round that to contextualise it*”

It is therefore evident that the EFL teachers are concerned with the communicative side of language teaching. This is consistent with the theory of
theorists such as Rod Ellis, (1992) who tries to integrate the two related aspects of language acquisition in his integrated model. Rod Ellis’s model integrates form-focused input and meaning-focused input and hypothesizes that these should be complementary and encourages both explicit and implicit knowledge. In this model both of these inputs lead to internalized, unconscious knowledge of the language. Explicit knowledge can help the learner to “notice the gap” between non-standard uses and target language forms. (This echoes the idea of monitoring put forward earlier by Krashen).

(Exploring this communicative side of the curriculum was however beyond the scope of this research project.)

I also observed the way in which Sophia has at times, a similar view of the role of grammar as the L1 teachers. There is a surprising overlap here between Sophia as an EFL teacher and the L1 teachers in that Sophia, teaching at the higher levels of EFL, is starting to adopt similar attitudes towards grammar as the L1 teachers and is teaching grammar more implicitly for language awareness rather than for structure.

4.5.5.2. Grammar in an ESL Context.

Jane’s view of what the role of grammar is within her ESL context is informed by the approach she uses to teach her business ESL learners. The genre approach she uses has evolved from functional grammar which simply places its primary focus on the function of language and the function of language is at
the end of the day to communicate. Therefore functional grammar is focused on grammar as it relates to communication and social interaction. Functional grammar is concerned with the ways in which grammar forms the differing genres used within a language. Understanding this function of grammar and having a knowledge of how grammar is used to form certain genres gives one the tools to gain access to these genres. Dik (1989) characterises functional grammar as follows:

In the functional paradigm a language is in the first place conceptualized as an instrument of social interaction among human beings, used with the intention of establishing communicative relationships. Within this paradigm one attempts to reveal the instrumentality of language with respect to what people do and achieve with it in social interaction. A natural language, in other words, is seen as an integrated part of the communicative competence of the natural language user.

(Wikipedia, 2006)

Genre theory deals with the ways in which a work may be considered to belong to a class of related works. Genre theory is concerned with how people, texts and activities interact with each other in order to produce meaning.

It is evident that Jane’s teaching is consistent with genre theory in that she is focused on helping her learners become competent in various genres rather than being focused on knowing any particular grammar rule for the sake of having structure on which to build her curriculum as the EFL teachers do. She
does teach her learners grammar rules, but this done for the purpose of providing insight into the ways in which these differing business genres are written or spoken.

4.5.5.3. Grammar in an L1 Context

The L1 teachers were much more concerned with the higher functions of grammar as it relates to awareness when writing and reading. The data shows that the L1 teachers thought of grammar as being complementary to their teaching and therefore an enhanceive tool enabling the L1 learner to better appreciate the finer details of the language and how they affect the tone, register and subtle meanings of a text.

While EFL teachers are seeing grammar as having a fundamental role to be counter balanced, L1 teachers are viewing it as an additional aspect of their curriculum which requires a deeper understanding of the language. This indicates how EFL and L1 teachers are seeing the teaching of grammar from different angles.

The focus on grammar as a complementary tool providing the tools to attain a greater awareness of language is consistent with such L1 theorists as Martha Kolln, (1996) who stressed that students need to be consciously aware of their own grammatical knowledge and that this can be done through studying language structures and labelling them, but not necessarily in the ways that prescriptive grammar does.
Kolln suggests that grammar should be taught in ways which make learners more aware of the language and the choices available to them when writing or speaking and the resulting tone of such choices. (Locke, 2005)

Debra Myhill, (2005) theorizes as to how grammar may inform learners with regard to their writing in particular. She asserts that:

“Knowledge about grammar might inform both learners’ and teachers’ understanding of writing, rather than looking more broadly and generally at knowledge about language” (Myhill, 2005)

“Writers should be encouraged to see the various linguistic choices available to them as meaning making resources, ways of creating relationships with their reader, and shaping and flexing language for particular effects.” (Myhill, 2005)

Myhill’s focus on writing as a social practice and on making learners more aware of the choices they have when writing runs along the same lines as Hilary Janks’ (2005) article on “Language and the design of texts”. Janks draws on Hallidayan grammar and the writings of Norman Fairclough (1995) in devising a rubric for the critical analysis of text. (Locke, 2005)

Janks too is concerned with how knowledge of grammar can increase the awareness of learners about the language choices that writers make when writing and how these choices may let the reader know more about the
underlying motives of such choices. This awareness in turn leads to an awareness of the choices they make in their own writing.

“When people use language they have to select from options available in the system – they have to make lexical, grammatical and sequencing choices in order to say what they want to say” (Janks, 2005)
Chapter 5 - Conclusions

5.1. The role of grammar in EFL, ESL and L1 contexts

It is significant that the EFL teachers and L1 teachers are viewing grammar from different perspectives. Grammar meant different things to the teachers coming from an EFL, ESL and L1 background. This reflects how broad the scope of grammar really is.

- In an EFL context grammar is central to each unit in the text books used by the EFL teachers and it is the grammar point that defines activities in the unit, even though they may include interesting texts. It is these text books which provide most of the activities and exercises that EFL teachers do with their learners. The syllabus set out by the text book in use at EFL schools suggest that the EFL teachers in this study, when asked questions about their attitude to grammar, have this very formal, structural, grammar in mind when they are answering interview questions.
• The teaching material collected from Jane (ESL teacher) indicate that
Jane’s ESL syllabus rather than centering around grammar, centres around
differing business genres. The appropriate grammar is only taught in an
effort to help the learner identify the characteristics of a particular genre.

• The L1 teaching materials, as well as, grade 12 mid-term exams collected
show how grammar at this level of L1 teaching is seen as complementary
to L1 English learning. Grammar knowledge must be good to score well in
the ‘style’ section of a learners writing exam as well as in text analysis
questions which ask learners about diction, sentence structure, sentence
rhythm and tone. There are also few marks allocated to particular grammar
questions in textual editing questions but this is allocated a small
percentage of learner’s overall mark. There are also usually questions
asked that require insight into the way certain grammatical structures have
effect ed a text.

5.2. The Convergence between EFL and L1 with regard to
transition from explicit to implicit teaching of grammar as the
level of English being taught rises.

It is evident from the above data that within each of these contexts there exists
a correlation between the movement from explicit to implicit grammar
teaching and the level of English that is being taught.
• In the EFL field there is a marked difference in the degree of explicit grammar teaching between Sally, who teaches EFL at beginner to intermediate levels and Sophia, who teaches EFL/ESL at higher levels. John also indicates that he teaches more implicitly as the level of English that he is teaching gets higher.

• In the L1 context it is clear from answers throughout the interview and questionnaire from all these L1 teachers that grammar is far less emphasized and less explicit at matric level.

Evidence also suggests that there is the difference in the degree of implicit teaching of grammar between the L1 and EFL contexts. A higher level of English is being taught at L1 schools than at EFL schools, and the grammar being taught is taught far less explicitly. It plays a less fundamental role in an L1 context as it does in an EFL context.
5.3. Grammar provides structure in an EFL context and fosters awareness of linguistic choices available in an L1 context.

5.3.1 Grammar in an EFL Context.

The EFL teachers feel grammar is fundamental to EFL teaching in that it gives learners a structure or a logical system on which the syllabus can be built and by which EFL learners can progress through the language.

This is consistent with the cognitive code approach in which language learning is seen as the process of cognitive rule acquisition. As a result of this view of language learning, grammar was given a prominent role in the EFL language classroom. Exercises used in this method focus on the conscious understanding of the grammar rule being practiced.

It appears the motives for teaching grammar amongst the EFL teachers especially John and Sally (typical EFL teachers) are similar. They all indicate that it provides structure for teachers and learners to build a curriculum around or learn the language.

From the grammar-based syllabus found at the EFL schools it is evident that none of the EFL teachers at the EFL schools were using an approach like the Communicative Approach which only values communication as the main
purpose for language learning. This is not to say that these teachers believe teaching grammar alone will enable their learners to communicate in the foreign language.

It was recognized by the EFL teachers in this study that in order to acquire the ability to communicate in a foreign language a learner needs the opportunity to use that language in a communicative situation.

This combination of approaches is consistent with the theory of theorists such as Rod Ellis, (1992) who tries to integrate the two related aspects of language acquisition in his integrated model. Rod Ellis Ellis’s model integrates form-focused input and meaning-focused input and hypothesizes that these should be complementary and encourages both explicit and implicit knowledge.

5.3.2. Grammar in an ESL Context.

Jane’s view of what the role of grammar is within her ESL context is informed by the approach she uses to teach her business ESL learners. This approach is the genre approach and has evolved from functional grammar which simply places its primary focus on the function of language which is to communicate. Therefore functional grammar is only focused on grammar as it relates to communication and social interaction. Functional grammar is concerned with the ways in which grammar forms the differing genres used within a language.
Genre theory is concerned with how people, texts and activities interact with each other in order to produce meaning.

It is evident that Jane’s teaching is consistent with genre theory in that she is focused on helping her learners become competent in various genres rather than being focused on knowing any particular grammar rule for the sake of having structure on which to build her curriculum as the EFL teachers do. She does teach her learners grammar rules, but this done for the purpose of providing insight into the ways in which these differing business genres are written or spoken.

5.3.3. Grammar in an L1 Context

It is evident that the L1 teachers were much more concerned with the higher functions of grammar as it relates to awareness of linguistic choices when writing and reading. The data shows that the L1 teachers thought of grammar as being complementary to their teaching and therefore an enhancive tool enabling the L1 learner to better appreciate the finer details of the language and how they affect the tone, register and subtle meanings of a text.

The focus on grammar as a complementary tool providing the tools to attain a greater awareness of language is consistent with such L1 theorists as Martha Kolln, (1996) Kolln suggests that grammar should be taught in ways which
make learners more aware of the language and the choices available to them when writing or speaking and the resulting tone of such choices. (Locke, 2005)

Debra Myhill, (2005) theorizes as to how grammar may inform learners with regard to their writing in particular. She asserts that:

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“Writers should be encouraged to see the various linguistic choices available to them as meaning making resources, ways of creating relationships with their reader, and shaping and flexing language for particular effects.” (Myhill, 2005)

Janks, (2005) too is concerned with how knowledge of grammar can increase the awareness of learners about the language choices that writers make when writing and how these choices may let the reader know more about the underlying motives of such choices. This awareness in turn leads to an awareness of the choices they make in their own writing.
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