

**THE TRANSFER OF DISCOURSE LEVEL WRITING SKILLS FROM XHOSA
L1 TO ENGLISH L2**

by

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I declare that THE TRANSFER OF DISCOURSE LEVEL WRITING SKILLS FROM XHOSA L1 TO ENGLISH L2 is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



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Date

SUMMARY

This research aims to contribute to the improvement of writing in English as a second language in South African schools. It is based on transfer theory: what is known in one language may transfer to another. Much of the transfer of structural aspects of languages as different as Xhosa and English is likely to be negative. This research focuses instead on aspects of writing at discourse level in the expectation that a positive transfer of learning will take place at that level.

The main hypothesis is that certain discourse level writing skills transfer to a second language (English) if they have been taught in the mother tongue (Xhosa) but not in the second language. The skills in question are

- using *topic sentences* appropriately to introduce a paragraph
- writing suitable *support sentences* in the rest of the paragraph
- achieving *paragraph unity* in relation to the topic sentence
- using *linking words* and other cohesive devices effectively.

The writing corpus was obtained from 66 Grade 8 learners in the researcher's school. Thirty three of the learners were in the Experimental Group in 2005 and 33 different learners were in the Control Group in 2006. The difference between the groups was that the Experimental group were taught the writing skills in Xhosa but not in English, whereas the Control group were taught the same skills in both subjects. Both groups were taught Xhosa and English by the researcher himself.

The corpus comprises a total of just under 80 000 words of composition writing, half of which was written at the beginning of the academic year and the other half at the end. Comparisons were made to determine how much learning had taken place individually and by the different groups and subjected to statistical analysis to measure significance.

The findings provide persuasive evidence of a transfer of learning. The impressive amount of learning that occurred in the first place was also rewarding, providing proof, as it did, that learners are capable of responding to greater demands than we might assume.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background information

The researcher is a senior phase teacher at a secondary school. He is currently teaching Xhosa and English Language, Literacy and Communication (LLC 1 and LLC 2) according to Outcomes Based Education (OBE) at a remote General Education and Training (GET) school in the Eastern Cape. The school's curriculum includes two languages, namely Xhosa First Language (L 1) and English Second Language (L 2). The researcher is the only language specialist at the school. The other two language teachers have been trained to teach at the foundation phase and intermediate phase respectively. They have not been trained in effective English Second Language (ESL) teaching. The other teachers who teach content subjects (Learning Areas, according to OBE) do not attach any importance to the development of the English language because they themselves struggle to articulate their thoughts in English.

The researcher is a native speaker of Xhosa who learned English under the same conditions as his learners. However, due to his enthusiasm for the English language, he obtained honours degrees in English language and literature and Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). All his learners are Xhosa mother-tongue speakers who share the same Xhosa customs, culture, values and standards, and are familiar with almost all the aspects of their mother tongue. They struggle to express themselves in English. They communicate in their mother tongue at home, at school and anywhere around them, so they have no contact at all with the English language outside

their classrooms. Many of them have a very fuzzy idea about the importance of education. The majority of their parents are illiterate and unemployed. Consequently many of the learners come from very poor homes, the majority of which depend on old age pensions. These learners struggle to pay the relatively low annual school fee which is R40 for the senior phase, R30 for the intermediate and R20 for the foundation phase.

The learners have been using English as a language of learning and teaching from Grade 3 under these conditions and circumstances which have led to their low competence in English. The school does not have a library. Old textbooks, many of which are still very useful, are kept in a small storeroom. Currently approved textbooks and prescribed networks are also kept in the same storeroom. The school possesses no fiction except for old novels in the school's storeroom. The language teacher has to improvise by using old novels, short stories and comprehension passages from old grammar books for reading activities.

Being Xhosa mother tongue speakers, the ESL teachers do not provide native-like models for their learners. The learners learn the English language as if in a foreign language context. Some teachers avoid using English when conducting their lessons because they are unable to cope in English. They either resort to code-switching or using Xhosa as the language of classroom discourse. Some of these teachers are not interested in reading books, magazines and newspapers, and others lack the enthusiasm for upgrading their skills in the English language. This makes it unlikely that these teachers will be able to provide the learners with the required ESL skills.

Most of the learners are not interested in English television programmes. They like to watch Xhosa soap operas, football matches and action movies (without paying any attention to what the movie stars are saying). This state of affairs does not help to improve the learners' competence in English.

1.1.1 Research objectives

One purpose of this study is to demonstrate to Xhosa subject teachers that it is possible for them to make a valuable contribution to their learners' essay writing in English. Most Xhosa subject teachers have as their mission the imparting of knowledge about Xhosa grammar. Grammar exercises are normally very mechanical and uninteresting, but are fairly easy to mark. Therefore, they make the teachers' work less strenuous. As mother tongue speakers of Xhosa the learners find the teaching of Xhosa grammar boring and a bit futile, for they believe they can use the grammar perfectly well.

This study will show Xhosa subject teachers that certain aspects of Xhosa essay writing are readily transferred to English essay writing. This might persuade them to spend more time on teaching writing skills instead of Xhosa grammar □ to the real benefit of learners in both languages. By teaching writing skills they will be able to teach grammar indirectly in context, based on clearly defined topics. Meaningful essays will result from the appropriate use of grammar and suitable discourse markers. In this way the teaching of writing will have *purpose* — the development of advanced discourse level writing skills.

The National Curriculum Statement (NCS) does not distinguish between Xhosa and English, or any other language. All the languages fall under the Learning Area simply referred to as “Languages”. Therefore, this study will make Xhosa subject teachers aware that the teaching of Xhosa writing skills is not an isolated activity confined to Xhosa as a separate entity, since the skills themselves are not language-bound.

This study will encourage Xhosa subject teachers to teach learners how to link ideas in sentences and in paragraphs and to pay particular attention to all the stylistic considerations that make it possible to communicate on paper (Kilfoil and van der Walt 1997: 248). In order to be able to do that, learners must be conversant with the different types of cohesive devices, including signpost words, and must be able to use them effectively to produce coherent, meaningful texts. The discourse level writing skills that are the focus of the study are **cohesion** and **paragraph structure**.

1.1.2 Context for research objectives

According to Du Toit and Orr (1987), writing is a process of using written words to ‘communicate something we wanted to say, in a way that we wanted to say it’. This process is sometimes long and difficult and mysterious, and consists of the following stages: first, the pre-writing takes place before the actual writing begins, or before the writer decides about the nature of the composing process. Secondly, invention involves generating ideas and material when the writer becomes aware of the specific writing task to be done, the audience for which the writing is done, and the purpose of the writing task. Thirdly, in the drafting stage the writer starts writing his first draft, followed by a

number of other drafts intended to refine the first one, making use of planning, outlining and patterns of exposition. Next, the revision stage involves reworking the draft, looking at the logic, paragraph organization, and use of examples and the development of argument. Finally, the editing stage involves attending to surface details of grammar and style, such as word choice and vocabulary, spelling and punctuation, tenses, register, tone, sentence length and layout.

This approach to the teaching of writing was used in teaching in both Xhosa and English during this research project. The assumption here is that discourse skills are best developed when a process approach is used for the teaching of writing in general. It is not reflected in the research results simply because it cannot be detected and measured in the same way as the discourse skills in question.

1.2 Problem statement

The learners' inefficiency in learning advanced writing skills in English Second Language (ESL), which consequently culminates in poor ESL essay writing particularly intrigues the researcher. It is therefore necessary to develop the writing skills that operate beyond sentence level. The question of what needs to be done in order to address the learners' inability to learn advanced writing skills successfully needs to be addressed.

ESL writing in the researcher's school lacks unity and clarity because the learners are not conversant with those devices that help the writer to connect ideas in a text, namely additive words (except "and"), amplification words, repetitive words, contrast and change

words, cause and effect words, qualifying words, emphasizing words, order words and summarizing words. There is also a lack of adequate knowledge about the use of different types of cohesion such as reference (pronouns, demonstratives, and comparatives), ellipsis (omitting an item) and conjunctions and lexical items.

Lack of knowledge of discourse markers and their use also causes lack of cohesion and coherence in ESL learners' writing. Du Toit and Orr (1987) emphasize the importance of using "signposts" to connect sentences and link paragraphs together, so that the reader can understand and follow the writer's argument. According to Du Toit and Orr (1987:195) the most commonly used signpost words are: *firstly, secondly, thirdly* (and so on), *finally*, and *in conclusion* when listing a number of points. The following transitions: *initially, then, after that, in consequence, ultimately, first, as a result, therefore, and so, thus, when* and *while* are used when describing a series of events, or a cause and effect essay (correctly referred to as 'built-in thought progression' by Chen, 1973). When presenting two sides of an argument, or a comparison/ contrast, the following linking words are used: *on the one hand, but, on the other hand, however, nevertheless, therefore, in contrast, similarly*, and *as a result*.

Lack of cohesion in ESL writing is caused by a lack of skill in the use of different types of cohesive devices such as pronouns, demonstratives and comparatives (collectively referred to as references), ellipsis and conjunctions.

Another problem with writing in the researcher's school is a lack of paragraph unity. The learners' ESL writing tends to include paragraphs that are not properly structured. This is

caused by a lack of knowledge about topic sentences which explicitly state and encapsulate the main ideas of paragraphs, and supporting sentences which give examples, add details, provide reasons and facts about topic sentences. The learners also fail to keep all sentences focused on the same idea in one paragraph. More often than not, an ESL learner produces a kind of miscellany when attempting to write a paragraph. This inevitably confuses the reader, who finds himself jumping aimlessly from point to point, trying to find the main idea. This kind of paragraph becomes a model of internal incoherence, and its lack of relevance to the rest of the essay and loss of internal order and logic make the entire essay a disconcerting mix-up.

Many ESL learners struggle when they are required to produce extended texts. Most of the time these learners lack those writing skills that would enable them to operate above sentence level and thus produce sustained discourses in ESL. This problem perpetually baffles the ESL teachers, particularly in the General Education and Training (GET) Band. The poor command of English is caused by the fact that many teachers of English are reluctant to set essays because learner writing is so faulty that marking takes too long and they have too many learners to cope with. The Curriculum Section and Education Development Officers (EDOs) once prescribed the number of sustained discourse to be completed by set deadlines, in the form of essays, letters and dialogues, in an attempt to address the problem. School principals were instructed to monitor this work. This did not succeed due to abnormal teacher-pupil ratios (1:60 or more). In most schools there is only one language teacher for the entire senior phase consisting of three or more classes, with a total of 150 or more. In some schools English is taught by principals who are burdened with management duties. The most important factor is the acute shortage of

staff in general and language specialists in particular. Consequently, many of the ESL teachers often resort to teaching explicit grammar exercises (sticking to sentence level phenomena) which are disadvantageously mechanical and unhelpful to effective language learning, for they do not know what else to do to make their job less strenuous. This problem is aggravated by the fact that certain advanced ESL writing skills are difficult for ESL learners to master due to their low proficiency in English. These learners do not have enough Control over the mere expression of their ideas to be able to Control higher level aspects of a sustained discourse.

However, it is incumbent upon ESL teachers as language practitioners to devise some strategies to deal with these challenges. Du Toit and Orr (1987) suggest that learners should always be encouraged to ask themselves whether each main idea has at least one supporting idea and whether there are examples and supporting details included in each paragraph whenever they are engaged in writing. If the answer to both questions is affirmative, then that would indicate that the learners' writing is improving. It would also show that the learners are becoming conversant with the correct use of topic sentences and supporting sentences.

1.2.1 Significance of this study

The majority of learners in South Africa are black learners with diverse mother tongues. The majority of schools in the RSA use English as the language of learning and teaching (LOLT). This is a problem for most black learners who are forced to learn in a language that is difficult for them to understand.

English is used as a language of learning and teaching (LOLT) in order to empower non-native speakers of English by giving them access to international resources and positions of power. Politicians mostly use the English language to communicate their ideas to the public and to the outside world. Job applications are mostly written in English; and commercial advertisements are also mainly expressed in this language. This implies that if one cannot express oneself in English, one is likely to lose opportunities to participate in commerce, industry, education, and even in politics.

Language teaching in class is meant to cover all communicative purposes of writing. The expected learning outcomes include, *inter alia*, the ability to write effective job application letters, orders for goods or services, summaries, notes, and reports. In order to have a good chance of writing effectively, the learners must have knowledge of what to write in a given context, keeping in mind the reader's expectations. They must therefore have the knowledge of appropriate writing skills to accomplish that task. Learners need discourse-level writing skills in order to become effective writers in different jobs, including diverse professions and the business world. So the learners have to be aware of the differences in language use that are associated with different written media.

Learners need to be taught how to explore, discuss and present new information in the form of expository paragraphs which form the body of most texts. They also need to be coached to establish the sequence of ideas so that their writing is arranged into coherent, logically successive paragraphs. The learning outcomes listed in the National Curriculum Statement include answering and making enquiries, making offers, acknowledging

orders, writing complaints and apologies, giving written instructions and notices, and so on.

Most jobs involve a lot of writing such as doing paper work in the office, writing reports, orders, letters, speeches, notices, minutes of meetings, and so on. This means that nowadays employees need to have proper writing skills in order to cope. Since the ESL learners are obliged to pursue careers in a world which is dominated by the English language, they need to be taught discourse-level writing skills in a manner that would make it easy for these learners to understand and acquire these skills.

Owing to the circumstances of these learners, the researcher feels that the already disadvantaged ESL learners are further disadvantaged by being forced to learn through a language that is supposedly their second, but is actually foreign to them. He believes that the advanced discourse-level writing skills could be taught in the learners' mother tongue where the learners are not constrained in the same way. If these skills can be demonstrated to transfer to the learners' English writing, this study could facilitate progress in their English classes. Evaluating the current classroom practice in the light of the research findings made in this study could lead to improvements in language teaching in general and to the production of ESL discourse in particular. Xhosa teachers might also be motivated to give extra emphasis to the discourse level writing skills dealt with in this study, not just because they improve writing in Xhosa, but because they transfer to English. Therefore, this study is worth doing.

1.3 Thesis

1.3.1 Definitions

Following are the definitions of the key terms used in this study:

“Discourse level” refers to texts that are longer than one sentence. In other words, here we refer to texts such as paragraphs, compositions, stories, and so on.

Cohesion is the linking of sentences and/or paragraphs to form a meaningful text, using cohesive cues. Various discourse markers are used to produce cohesive discourses which are not a mere collection of incompatible sentences, but comprehensible, well organized texts.

Coherence refers to the logical organization of related ideas in a text. For example, a text could be made coherent through the use of related concepts that refer to a particular phenomenon.

Topic sentence is a sentence that clearly states the controlling idea of the paragraph, and is often a generalization.

Support sentences are those sentences that develop the main idea of the paragraph by adding details, providing reasons, giving examples, and so on. In other words, these sentences explain the controlling idea and lead the reader to the destination of the argument.

Paragraph unity refers to the discussion of a single topic in one paragraph as opposed to dealing with more than one topic in a single paragraph. All the ideas that are not related to the main topic are cut out altogether.

Discourse markers are the words that connect ideas within sentences, between sentences in a paragraph and between paragraphs. These words have different functions, namely: adding, giving examples, contrasting, denoting causes and effects, emphasizing, repeating, summarizing, sequencing, and so on.

Transfer of learning refers to the carry-over of learning from one language (in this case Xhosa first language) to another language (English second language).

1.3.2 Assumptions

The two classes the researcher has chosen for the study are very similar to each other in significant respects and are assumed to be typical of Grade 8 classes in rural schools generally. This assumption stems from the researcher's twenty years of experience in teaching in the senior phase in rural schools.

Another important assumption is that although the researcher is acting in all three important roles in the study, namely, Xhosa teacher, English teacher and researcher, he is able to conduct the research impartially and with no vested interest in the outcome.

A third and final assumption is that if transfer of learning between a first and second language takes place when the same teacher teaches both subjects, it should also take place when there are different teachers for the different languages.

1.3.3 Limitations

This study is confined to discourse-level writing skills and does not attempt to indicate what other kinds of transfer of learning might be possible between languages.

Furthermore, since two Grade 8 groups are used for this study, it might be the case that what works (or does not work) at Grade 8 level may not work (or may work better) at other levels.

1.3.4 Hypothesis

The main hypothesis of this study is that if students learn about cohesion and paragraph structure in their first language (Xhosa), this learning will transfer to the second language (English) without further direct instruction in English.

Improvement in each of the four separate skills will be measured independently of each other, yielding four sub-hypotheses relating to the use of topic sentences, the inclusion of supporting sentences and the degree of paragraph unity and of cohesion through the apt use of linking words.

The transfer of learning from Xhosa to English will be investigated, premised on the expectation that the teaching of discourse level writing skills in the learners' mother tongue will transfer to English. Kilfoil and van der Walt (1997) maintain that studies of competent writers indicate that they use translation from their first language when writing in a second or foreign language. This implies that competence in the first language could result in second language competence. Cumming (cited in Kilfoil and van der Walt 1997: 253) concurs with this assertion, basing his view on the findings from his experience with French EFL learners. Cumming concludes that the learners' mother tongue is a significant resource in their continual process of decision-making while writing their second or foreign language. According to Cumming (1981, cited in Zainuddin et al, 2003), literacy development in L1 shares a common underlying proficiency with literacy in the L2. Cumming maintains that L2 learners have educational, cultural, and linguistic experiences that may facilitate transfer of skills to second language learning. This indicates that L1 literacy can exercise a positive influence on L2 writing. Chen (1973) also discovered a strong correlation between the Chinese ESL learners' writing expertise in their L1 and their L2. This could have resulted from the transfer of L1 writing expertise to the L2.

1.4 Brief overviews of chapters

Chapter 2 presents the literature review. The first section deals with the nature of the transfer of learning between languages. This is followed by separate sections for each of cohesion, coherence and paragraphing.

Chapter 3 presents the research design used for the study. It describes and explains the research instruments used and presents data. It also discusses the limitations of the data and ethical considerations.

Chapter 4 deals with the findings, and it analyses the data and interprets the results.

Chapter 5 discusses the summary of the findings and gives conclusions. It provides a summary of contributions and discusses the implications for further research and possible implications for and applications to classroom teaching.

Chapter 2: Literature survey

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review literature relating to the transfer of learning from a first to a second language (L1 to L2). The transfer hypothesis is defined and its elements explained. Then the definitions and descriptions of transfer are reviewed. The literature is discussed and research done in L1-L2 transfer of learning in general evaluated before narrowing the focus to literature on transfer relating to cohesion and paragraph structure. This is followed by a survey of the literature relating to the concepts behind the variables being researched.

There appears to be very little research or discussion on the transfer of discourse features between languages, and especially between indigenous South African languages and English. Many of the sources deal with the transfer from languages such as Spanish, Arabic, Chinese, Russian, French and Japanese first language to English. Most sources deal with the transfer to English Second Language (ESL) of rhetorical strategies (the strategies that writers use to organise and to present their ideas in writing conventions acceptable to native speakers of that language), metacognitive strategies (those strategies that writers use to control the writing process consciously), cognitive strategies (those strategies that writers use to implement the actual writing actions) and social/affective strategies (the strategies that writers use to interact with others to clarify questions and to regulate emotions, motivation, and attitudes in the writing).

2.2 The transfer hypothesis

Perkins and Salomon (1992), Cree and Macaulay (2000), Ormrod (2004) and Schunk (2004) identify three types of transfer of learning, namely positive transfer of learning, negative transfer of learning and bilateral transfer of learning. Positive transfer occurs when the learning of one task facilitates the learning of another task, or when learning in one context enhances a related performance in another context. On the other hand, negative transfer takes place when the learning of one task inhibits the learning of another task, or when learning in one context undermines a related performance in another context. When the learning of one variable (for example topic sentences) supports the learning of a different variable (for example support sentences), this is called bilateral transfer.

Schunk (2004) lists and explains other types of transfer of learning, not related specifically to language, namely:

- Near transfer, which is transfer between similar but not identical contexts
- Far transfer, in which the original and transfer settings are dissimilar;
- Vertical transfer, which applies when knowledge of a previous topic is essential to acquire new knowledge;
- Horizontal transfer, which occurs when knowledge of a previous topic is helpful in learning a new topic, but not essential;
- Literal transfer, which takes place when ‘intact’ knowledge transfers to new task;

- Figural transfer, which involves the use of some aspect of general knowledge to think or learn about a problem;
- Low road transfer, which subsumes the triggering of well-practised routines by stimulus conditions similar to those in the learning context. It is also referred to as ‘reflexive transfer’;
- High road transfer, which involves intentional, ‘effortful’ abstraction and a search for connections between contexts, hence it is also referred to as ‘mindful transfer’;
- Forward reaching transfer, when one learns something and abstracts it in preparation for applying it elsewhere;
- Backward reaching transfer, which occurs when one finds oneself in a problem situation which one tries to solve by abstracting the main features from the situation and reaches backward into one’s experience for matches.

Schunk identifies the following as the factors that facilitate transfer of learning:

- Similarity – The quality of being similar or alike in appearance or external or superficial details;
- Motivation – Factors (internal or external) that stimulate desire and energy to be consistently keen to exert persistent endeavour in attaining a goal.
- Previous experience – Prior accumulation of knowledge or skill through active participation in activities in the past.
- Similarity of stimulus – Sameness of the acts that accelerate activity or response.
- Retroactive learning – This occurs when learning new things somehow overwrites or obscures existing knowledge

- Proactive learning – This kind of learning takes place when the prior existence of old memories makes it harder to recall newer memories.

2.3 Transfer in language learning

Bliss (2006) maintains that it is generally assumed that certain aspects of a second language learner's native language transfer to the interlanguage grammar of the learner. However, the questions of which characteristics of the native language transfer, which transferred properties play a more fundamental role in defining the interlanguage grammar and what their precise effect is on second language learning, are far from resolved. As an example, within the domain of inflectional morphology, it is highly debated as to whether second language acquisition is constrained by the phonological or morphosyntactic attributes of the L1. On the one hand, the affixal nature of inflection may produce phonological structures that are illicit in an L1 grammar. However, on the other hand, the morphosyntactic features represented by such phonological structures may not be present in the L1. In short, L2 learners' failure to correctly supply inflectional morphemes may be due to transfer of either phonological or morphosyntactic constraints from the L1.

According to Gass (1996), transfer is not only a direct linguistic reflex, but also indirectly shows underlying principles of language. She further maintains that transfer and developmental influences are interacting processes, and that congruence between L1 and L2 allows learners to see relevant L2 features as they affect the production and comprehension of L2. She also claims that similarities in L1 and L2 influence language

development even where there is no structural similarity. However, she admits that transfer is also seen as a constraint on the acquisition process. The latter point actually refers to negative transfer (the interference of previous learning in the process of learning something new, as opposed to the kind of learning which occurs when learning in one context enhances a related performance in another context).

The transfer hypothesis refers to the learner's inference from previous knowledge to solve the prevailing target language problem. Schachter (cited in Gass & Selinker, 1993) maintains that there are three possible outcomes of the learner's hypothesis:

- choice of the wrong domain either due to incompatible signs, or due to the assumption that a pre-established domain of the native language is pertinent to the second language. Schachter claims that the latter case will be an instance of negative transfer.
- choice of both the correct domain and the correct hypothesis either due to a good analysis of the input, or due to the sameness of the native and target language structures, and the learner's awareness of that fact. Schachter also maintains that the latter case will be an instance of positive transfer.
- selection of the correct domain but the wrong hypothesis either due to a partly erroneous analysis of the knowledge or due to the learner's correctly equating the relevant domains of the native and target languages but incorrectly assuming a hypothesis that would be suitable for the native language but not for the target language.

Schachter's view of transfer implies that the learner's previous knowledge at any point in the learning process includes both the learner's knowledge of the first language and also

any knowledge the learner may have of the target language. Schachter claims that although the evidence of L1 knowledge influence typically differs, the L1 knowledge does have as much influence on the learning of a related language as it has on the learning of an unrelated one. Schachter further maintains that positive transfer and interference are more evident in the data of a learner who learns a related language, whereas a 'slower learning' and 'choice of wrong domain' are more evident in the data of one who learns an unrelated language.

Many researchers give different definitions and descriptions of transfer. Selinker (cited in Gass & Selinker, 1993) defines transfer as a process taking place from the native language to the foreign language if frequency analysis shows that a statistically significant trend in the speaker's native language is then paralleled by a significant trend toward a similar alternative in the speaker's attempted production of the foreign language sentences, phonetic features, phonetic sequences, and so on. This definition concurs with Kilfoil and van der Walt's (1997) concept of distance, which implies that some languages and cultures are 'closer' to one another than others. Similar, too, is Odlin's (1983) definition of transfer as "the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language (TL) and another language that has previously been acquired" (p. 27), and Kellerman's (1977) concept of parallel existence of the NL in the TL, which leads to the learner's transfer of his native language (NL) learning to the TL. In other words, under normal circumstances, if the learner believes that his native language has some features that are similar to those of the target language, his NL knowledge will easily transfer to the TL.

Gass (1979) defines transfer as the imposition of previously learned patterns onto a new learning situation, and in Gass (1984) she defines it as the carry-over of items or patterns from the native language (p.120). These two definitions are similar in that Gass's (1979) "previously learned patterns" refer to native language while "a new learning situation" refers to the target language, and the transfer of "patterns from the native language to the target language" is implied in her 1984 definition. She claims that for most researchers the notion of language transfer involves the use of native or other language information in the acquisition of a second or additional language (p.121). Gass lists Beebe's (1980) phenomena for a broader definition of language transfer:

- delayed rule restructuring
- transfer of typological organization
- different paths of acquisition
- avoidance
- overproduction of certain elements
- additional attention paid to the target language, resulting in more rapid learning
- differential effects of socially prestigious phonological forms.

Odlin's (1989) definition of transfer agrees with Selinker and Kilfoil and Van der Walt's concept of "distance", and Kellerman's concept of "parallel existence" of the NL and TL. Odlin defines transfer as "the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired" (p. 27). According to Odlin, the influence emanates from the learner's conscious or unconscious judgement that something in the native language

and something in the target language are similar if not the same. However, Odlin declares that his definition is imperfect, since it consists of problematic terms such as the word “influence”, which is vague, for it is not clear how the influence actually works. Odlin claims that even the word “acquired” cannot be completely understood since the scholars have not yet agreed on a final model of L2 acquisition. He also maintains that adequate definition of transfer seems unattainable unless some other terms such as ‘strategy’, ‘process’ and ‘simplification’ could be adequately defined.

According to Corder (p. 20, cited in Gass & Selinker, 1993), the term transfer is too simplistic to account for the complex process of second language acquisition. He therefore chooses to use the phrase ‘a role for the mother tongue’, for there may be features that are the result of a particular mother tongue which were never recognized within the theory of transfer. Corder claims that we are bound to accept that the mother tongue plays a vital role in the later development of the target language, for there are languages that are more readily learned than others by speakers of a particular language. This concurs with Zobl’s (1980) description of transfer as L1 influence on L2. Zobl maintains that the L2 (which he refers to as ‘the receiving language’) has to contain “certain systemic biases and structural tendencies in order to render it susceptible to influence from a near congruent L1”. He believes that a consideration of the language of learners acquiring L2 either natively or as a second language is essential for the identification of these susceptible structures. Zobl focuses on structural transfer in particular, the emphasis being on the selective workings of transfer which lead to the activation of L1 transfer as a result of the developmental process model of L2 acquisition.

2.4 Some issues relating to transfer

2.4.1 Learning context

It is important to be aware of what information we have about the circumstances in which transfer takes place. For instance, Corder (cited in Gass & Selinker, 1993) maintains that transfer effects are more predominant in the classroom than out of the classroom. Indeed, the classroom is a formal domain where learners get to learn the languages. However, Corder maintains that transfer does not appear to be easily distinguishable from ‘borrowing;’, as in borrowing items or features from L1 as a communicative strategy which leads to an incorporation of the item or feature into the interlanguage system (p. 29), provided that it is communicatively successful. This is what Corder refers to as *structural transfer*. Another important point to note is that in a multilingual classroom, any other languages known to the learner can be a source of what Corder calls ‘borrowing’, as the learner tries to supplement his interlanguage. If one of these other second languages is more closely related to the target language, the learner will prefer to borrow from that language. This means that the L1 is not the only source of borrowing or transfer. Nevertheless, Kellerman (1977) maintains that ‘borrowability’ is a feature of the perception of the relationship between first and second languages. So, in the case of a bilingual class such as the researcher’s, borrowing and transfer are expected to occur from the mother tongue, Xhosa, to the second language, English.

2.4.2 What gets transferred?

Research on transfer has shown that linguistic elements such as syntactic and lexical items (Corder in Gass & Selinker, 1993:26) can be transferred “from one language in the performance of another”, and the mechanical ‘carry-over’ of native language items and structures to the target language is also possible (Gass & Selinker, 1993:10). This assertion is premised on the notion of ‘language distance’, that is, the learner can at least see some of the obvious similarities with the native language. Rules may also be transferred from L1 to L2 (Broselow, cited in Gass & Selinker, 1993). Finally, strategy transfer is also possible. Tarone (1977) and Kellerman (1977) recognise ‘borrowing’ as a communicative strategy. The learner may transfer his L1 communicative strategy to his L2.

2.4.3 Parameter settings

Phinney (1987), Schwartz (1987) and White (1985, 1986, 1988) (cited in Gass & Selinker, 1993) describe L1 parameter settings as factors that define a system, determine or limit its performance or contribute causally to a result and also as the prevailing contexts that influence the performance or the outcome of a process. Parameter settings are part of the interlanguage grammar and therefore they influence the manner in which the L2 learner tries to understand and produce the L2. If the L1 and the L2 have similar parameter settings, this might be expected to result in some sort of positive transfer.

For example, if the L1 and L2 have the same head-initial position the learner might be at an advantage in learning L2 word order (White 1986). White describes English as a head-initial language. Its direct objects follow verbs and relative clauses follow their head nouns. Advantageously for the Xhosa L1 learner who is doing English as L2, Xhosa is a head-initial language as well, and therefore the learner might be at an advantage in learning English word order.

An example can be seen in the Xhosa sentence:

Utitshala unika abafundi umsebenzi omninzi.

(The teacher gives the learners a lot of work.)

The verb ‘*unika*’ is followed by the direct object, ‘*abafundi*’, exactly as in the English sentence.

Similarly, in the sentence:

Utitshala obathandayo abafundi ubanika umsebenzi yonke imihla.

(A teacher who likes learners gives them work everyday.)

the relative clause ‘*obathandayo abafundi*’ follows the head noun ‘*Utitshala*’ just as in the English sentence, where the relative clause ‘who likes learners’ follows the noun it describes — ‘A teacher’.

2.4.4 Prognostication

Broselow (in Gass & Selinker, 1993) discusses transfer which relies on predictions (prognostication) based on the function of the rules in question (Gass & Selinker, 1993:235). Broselow explains this as follows:

...since explicitly stated grammatical rules make predictions beyond the data they are intended to account for, we can expect that in at least some cases the target language will provide opportunities to test the predictions of these rules by offering input strings of types not found in the native language. Where the errors of language learners conform to the predictions made by the rules of the native language, even in environments not found in the native language, we can conclude that these errors result from transfer of the native language rules ... (p. 71).

According to Broselow, those rules “which result in a more systematic interlanguage are most likely to be transferred” (p. 235). For these rules to transfer the learners choose what Schachter refers to as “the wrong domain”; hence Broselow calls this “errors of transfer of first language rules and constraints” (p. 71).

2.4.5 Reversibility of transfer

Using their ‘facilitation hypothesis’, Gundel and Tarone (cited in Gass & Selinker, 1993) maintain that the influences of their hypothesis apply equally “from language A to

language B as from language B to language A”. In other words, their claim implies that transfer can occur equally from L1 to L2 and from L2 to L1 as well. No evidence relating directly to the facilitation hypothesis has been gathered as yet; hence Gass and Selinker (1983) maintain that if Gundel and Tarone’s claim about reversibility proves to be incorrect and “if there exist elements which are in fact transferred in one direction and not in another, then this result would be clear evidence that language transfer is not purely a matter of linguistic reflexes” (p. 11). Gundel and Tarone’s findings are based on a range of tasks giving information about pronominal anaphora (repetition of pronoun words or phrases at the beginning of successive clauses, lines of verse, and so on) of English L2 learners whose native-language background is Spanish, Chinese and French. Nevertheless, many researchers agree on ‘one direction transfer’ so far, that is, transfer from L1 to L2.

2.4.6 Transfer at the level of discourse

The preoccupation in the preceding sections is with transfer relating to the various subsystems of language – phonology, morphology and syntax – rather than with transfer of learning at discourse level. Very little research or writing has been done on the transfer of learning relating to aspects of discourse which are not tied to a particular language. There are one or two interesting exceptions, however.

Trying to establish whether Arab ESL learners transfer features of Arabic textual organisation when writing in English, Fakhri (1994) found insubstantial signs of L1 transfer. But Aidman (2003) found that some text types in the English writing of a

bilingual Russian female child who had begun her mainstream schooling at age four had not been directly taught in English but had been transferred from the participant's first language. If this finding is generalizable, it supports the researcher in his hypothesis that other discourse-level features can transfer from L1 to L2 "without further direct instruction (in English)". However, Aidman's finding might have been influenced by the 'distance' between Arabic and English. Hamp-Lyon's (1986) findings show that his subjects' writing showed rhetorical transfer from their first languages (Chinese, Arabic, Spanish and Japanese). Alharbi (1997) also found that Arabic rhetorical protocols get transferred to the English writing of Arabic L1 speakers.

Carson (1990) discovered that literacy skills may transfer but the pattern of transfer depends on the particular L1. Collier (1987) also found that the lack of perpetual first language cognitive development during L2 acquisition may result in reduced proficiency levels in L2 and in cognitive academic development.

2.5 Cohesion

2.5.1 Introduction

Cohesion is the linking of sentences and/or paragraphs to form a meaningful text, using cohesive cues. Various discourse markers are used to produce cohesive discourses which are not a mere collection of incompatible sentences, but comprehensible well organised texts. Cohesion refers to the grammatical and /or lexical relationships between the different elements of a text, and the relationship may be between different sentences or between different parts of a sentence (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992). This definition

implies that in order for any text to be cohesive, it should have clear links between sentences and between parts of a sentence.

Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997) define cohesion as the linking of sentences and paragraphs to form a meaningful text, and not a mere collection of unrelated sentences.

Likewise, Quirk (1985) maintains that cohesion refers to the actual forms of linguistic linkage, while Tribble (1996) claims that cohesive texts result from the appropriate use of lexical markers/linking devices/discourse markers which link sentences together in a sequence, and organise the sentences into a comprehensible larger structure. Tribble defines cohesion as the grammatical and lexical relationships between the different elements of a text. He claims that these relationships can include the direct types of relationships which exist between subjects and verbs, or the less direct relationships between, for example, pronouns and the words or phrases to which they refer (p.157).

Phelps (1985) describes cohesion as a systematic resource of grammar and as a special case of the verbal relatedness of texts. In order for the reader to follow the writer's argument and to attend to what Phelps refers to as the structure of meaning as a static design spread out before the reader's mind's eye, the text should have a sense of flow from one point to another. In order for any text to be comprehensible and meaningful, cohesive cues have to be used so as to guide the reader through the ideas in the text in order to arrive at a full and coherent understanding of the content. Phelps maintains that cohesive cues make information in memory salient; they focus the current attention of the reader, and they also predict structure and content. The reader's sense of flow is created

by the appropriate use of transitions or linking words which appear at what Phelps calls points of juncture in texts.

Cohen (1973) emphasises the significance of the use of transitions to achieve focus and fluency. He writes:

In the construction of expository and analytical essays, transitions are indispensable ingredients. As guides and pointers they help the writer acquire focus. For example, by repetition or careful restatement of key words and phrases, he can point to his thesis throughout a paper. Transitions are also the tools of fluency, the clear and graceful movement of style, thought, and structure in writing. They provide links within sentences, between sentences, between paragraphs, and between major parts of an essay. (Cohen, 1973)

Cohen's assertion implies that transitions make the text reader-friendly and simultaneously lead the writer to his intended destination, that is, understanding the text.

2.5.2 Kinds of cohesion

Cohesion is one of the four discourse features studied in this research. Halliday and Hasan (1976) identify five kinds of cohesion, namely reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction and lexical cohesion. Only conjunction lends itself to the objective analysis chosen for this research: conjunctions can be counted, as can other kinds of linking

words. The need to exclude certain sources of cohesion becomes clearer from the literature on cohesion in general.

Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997) claim that reference is usually achieved through the use of pronouns such as personal pronouns (he, him, her, it, they), demonstratives (this/that, these/those, here/there) and comparatives (same, identical, similar, such, other, else, more, less, as). They identify three referential devices: anaphoric reference, cataphoric reference and exophoric reference. Anaphoric reference takes place when the writer uses a pronoun to refer to someone or something that has been previously identified, so as to avoid repetition; for example, replacing 'Mr Hallway' with the pronoun 'he' or 'the three musketeers' with 'they'. A different type is found in written texts, referring to what has been said or referred to in the preceding sentences or paragraph/s: 'as stated previously', 'as cited earlier' or 'the aforesaid'.

Cataphoric reference takes place when the reader is introduced to someone as an abstract before later learning his/her or their name, for example, "Here they come - our Rugby World Cup-winning heroes, the Springboks".

Finally, exophoric reference occurs when the writer chooses not to introduce a character but instead refers to him/her by a generic word such as 'someone'.

Ellipsis operates at a structural level by substituting a blank for a previous structure, that is, something is omitted but understood (Kilfoil & Van der Walt, 1997:182). For example, "Swimming is the best exercise to keep one fit without even being aware of the

exercise itself. I am sure there isn't a better." Instead of repeating *exercise to keep one fit* at the end of the second sentence, the writer omits it.

Substitution happens when instead of leaving a word or phrase out, it is substituted by another more general word. This kind of cohesion is basically created by the reiteration of the same lexeme, or general nouns, or other lexemes sharing the majority of semantic features. An example would be: *A bus* crashed on the Y-valley this morning, killing the driver and one passenger then and there. The owner identified *the vehicle* one hour after the accident.

When the same word is repeated, we have what McCulley (1983) refers to as lexical cohesion, which he defines as a "repetition of the same or closely related word, including inflections and derivations not necessarily with the same meaning or referent" (p. 68).

2.5.3 Cohesion through linking words

The final category defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976), namely conjunction, introduces linking words in general, thereby taking us closer to the research in question.

Conjunction relates sentences and paragraphs to each other by using words from the class of conjunctions or numerals. In this way cohesion is created. Halliday and Hasan (1976) claim that conjunctions create cohesion in four ways, namely:

- temporal (before, after, then, next, finally, and so on): these are used to show time relationships
- causal (because, therefore, thus, as a result, and so on): these are used to show cause and effect
- adversative (but, yet, however): these joining words bring about a counter-argument between one sentence and another
- additive (furthermore, also, further, and so on): these words link the second sentence to the first by the addition of meaning.

Sources that deal with linking words use different terms for them, for example, transitions/signpost words/discourse markers/linkers/connective words and so on. Quirk (1985) refers to linking words simply as *linkers*. He classifies the linkers into coordinators, subordinators and conjuncts. Rodseth, Johanson and Rodseth (1992) call linking words ‘connective words’, while Halliday and Hasan (1976) and McCulley (1983) refer to these words as ‘cohesive ties’. Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997) call them ‘cohesive devices’. On the other hand, Tribble (1996:30) refers to linking words as ‘discourse markers’. Some mention more linkers than others do under similar categories. For instance, Rodseth, Johanson and Rodseth (1992) mention more linking words under sequence connectors than any other reference dealing with linkers, but have fewer categories than other sources.

Bander (1980) refers to linking words as ‘transitions’, and defines them as words that join one idea to another idea and add coherence to writing by joining ideas together, while Orr and Schutte (2001:59) call them ‘signpost words’, defined as ‘words used by a writer to

act as cues or directions for readers to guide them through the ideas in the text in order to arrive at a full and coherent understanding of the content'. According to Bander, the placement of transitions often depends on the *rhythm* of a sentence or a paragraph. In other words, the placement of transitions in a text depends on different functions these words have in individual discourses. For example, Bander asserts that transitions placed in sentences within a paragraph make it easy for a reader to follow the movement of an idea from one sentence to the next sentence, while transitions that appear at the beginning of a paragraph carry forward the idea that was talked about in the paragraph immediately preceding. Orr and Schutte (2001: 59-60) explain this as follows:

A signpost word *at the beginning of a sentence* usually indicates how the idea in that sentence is linked to the idea in the preceding sentence, or, alternatively, to the main idea of the paragraph... A signpost word *within a sentence* is used to indicate the relationship between the idea in the second part of the sentence and the idea in the first part of the sentence... A signpost word *at the beginning of a paragraph* may be used to indicate how the ideas in that paragraph are going to be used to advance the general argument of the text ...

Different linking words have different functions in different positions in sentences. Some linking words add a point while others contrast two points. There are linking words that are used to illustrate, or to give examples. Some are used to signal the movement to the next point while others are used to note consequences. Lastly, there are those that are used at the start of the first sentence in the paragraph and those that mark the conclusion of a text (refer to Table 12).

Some linking words appear under different categories. For example, the linker ‘too’, categorised under ‘additional words’ in Orr and Schutte (2001) is under ‘comparison’ in Bander (1980), and does not appear at all under Rodseth, Johanson and Rodseth’s (1992) “additional points connectors”. The linkers that Orr and Schutte refer to as “amplification words” are called “transitions that illustrate” by Bander, and Rodseth, Johanson and Rodseth do not mention them. The differences between these sources are not an issue here; what is important is that they all deal with linking words and together provide the full list of words that were counted in the essays produced for this research.

2.5.4 Linking words in Xhosa and English

Both the Control and Experimental groups were provided with a table of English linking words and their Xhosa equivalents. Most of the Xhosa translations of the linking words were taken from the following dictionaries: Bennett (2006), Reynierse (ed.) (1991), Ndungane (1989), Fischer (1985) and Hartshorne (1984). As a Xhosa L1 speaker, the researcher was able to do the rest of the translations himself.

2.6 Coherence

Coherence refers to the logical organisation of related ideas in a text. For example, a text could be made coherent through the use of related concepts that refer to a particular phenomenon. According to Langan (2001), the key techniques for tying material together in a text are a clear method of organization such as time order or emphatic order,

transitions, and other connecting words. Langan's explanation implies that writing becomes effective if the material is organized clearly and logically. Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997) define coherence as "ideas in a text belonging together and being meaningful in the context of the text, the situation and the reader's previous knowledge and experience". Kilfoil and Van der Walt's definition implies that in order to achieve coherence, each sentence in a text must naturally lead to the next sentence in explaining the main idea. What is written is meant to be read, and therefore the reader must be led from the beginning, in an unbroken forward movement, to the end of the text until the point is made. The reader will then be able to establish the sequence and relatedness of the ideas in the text and consequently understand the writer's point, because coherence contributes to comprehension (p.180). From previous knowledge and experience, the reader will relate cause and effect, contrast and change, and so on, and make inferences. This will lead to a greater understanding of the text.

Bander (1980) explains six ways of achieving coherence. He writes:

A paragraph can grow from the least important example to the most important example, or from the most important example to the least important one. It can develop chronologically (in time order), spatially (in space order), inductively (from specific facts to a general conclusion), or deductively (from a general conclusion to specific facts). (p.174)

Bander explains coherence as follows: "Coherence is the straight line of development within a paragraph or composition. An English paragraph is coherent when its ideas are

clearly related to each other in an orderly sequence. Each sentence in a coherent paragraph naturally grows out of each earlier sentence in developing the central idea” (p. 200-201). Bander emphasizes the importance of logical organization of related ideas in a text. Indeed, this leads to good writing.

Tribble (1996) maintains that a text cannot be coherent unless it has purpose, has an overall structure, describes something, and develops arguments. In other words, Tribble’s assertion implies that even if the text displays formal linking devices that join sentences together in a sequence, it cannot be coherent if the linkers do not result in a structured argument that leads the reader somewhere. Any written text must be convincing enough to engage the reader’s interest.

Purdue Owl (2001) suggests that the writer can help create coherence in his paragraphs by creating logical bridges and verbal bridges. ‘Verbal bridges’ means that the same idea of a topic is carried over from sentence to sentence and that successive sentences can be constructed in parallel form. On the other hand, ‘logical bridges’ examine effects and consequences, analyse the topic, describe the topic and offer a chronology of an event (<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/606/01/>).

While coherence is not measured independently in this research, it provides the basis for all judgements relating to the four variables under consideration: does this linking word make sense in its context and contribute to the coherence of the paragraph as a whole? Does the topic sentence of this paragraph relate coherently to the argument of the essay as whole? Paragraph unity, too, can only be judged in terms of coherence in relation to

the topic sentence and to all the other sentences in relation to each other, which in turn provides the basis for judging them as support for the topic sentence.

2.7 Paragraphs

2.7.1 Paragraph structure

Paragraph structure is a feature that is common in any discourse in any language. It forms the basic structural unit of essays and other academic discourses and is a short piece of writing in which all sentences are related, and whose content develops from a general statement to more specific statements. This is also true for the two languages with which this study is concerned. This study assumes that the use of the elements of an effective paragraph structure, namely a topic sentence, adequate development (support), coherence and unity in mother tongue (Xhosa) can transfer to the second language (English), provided that effective instruction took place in the mother tongue.

2.7.2 Topic sentences

Langan (2001) claims that the writer's first step in writing is to decide what point she wants to make and then to write that point in a single sentence which is commonly referred to as a topic sentence. Langan further suggests that that point should be put in the first sentence in the paragraph as a guide to the writer as well as to the reader. He also puts his assertion figuratively by saying, "To write well, the first thing that you must do is decide what nail you want to drive home". If the writer is able to say what the nail is and knows how to drive it home, then she is on the right track. Orr and Schutte's (2001)

description and definition of a topic sentence concur with Langan's. According to Orr and Schutte, every paragraph contains a single main idea or central concern which is expressed in a topic sentence. They define the topic sentence as "a sentence in the paragraph which explicitly states and encapsulates the main idea of that paragraph". They also claim that the topic sentence is always the most general sentence in the paragraph (p. 47). Langan warns against using topic sentences that are too broad or too narrow. He says this could spoil the writer's chances of producing effective texts. For example, the sentence "My boss is the concern of this paragraph" is a simple announcement of a subject. It is not a topic sentence expressing an idea about the subject. On the other hand, the sentence "Many people have problems with their bosses" is too broad to be supported thoroughly with specific details in a single paragraph. Also, the sentence "My boss is Mr Kimble" is a simple fact that does not need any support because it is too narrow to be expanded into a paragraph. However, the sentence "I hate my boss" expresses an opinion which the writer could support by providing reasons, examples and details to explain why he hates his boss. This opinion could be expanded into a paragraph.

Rodseth, Johanson and Rodseth (1992) also define the topic sentence as the sentence which expresses the main idea of a paragraph, and is often a generalization.

Bander (1980) has this to say about a topic sentence: "Topic sentences direct readers: they tell them what the subject of a paragraph is. Careful writers put topic sentences in their paragraphs to keep a reader travelling on the right road. A states briefly an idea that is more fully developed topic sentence in a paragraph" (p. 88).

There is nothing in these definitions of a topic sentence which suggests that their use is in any way language-specific. Learning to use topic sentences appropriately in Xhosa is therefore likely to transfer to English.

2.7.2.1 Placement of a topic sentence

Rodseth et al. agree with Bander that a topic sentence can appear anywhere in a paragraph (Bander 1980:88; Rodseth, Johanson & Rodseth, 1992:10), that is, at the beginning, at the end and in the middle. According to Bander, a topic sentence can be both at the beginning and the end. Sometimes, though not often, it can be left out altogether and be implied. A topic sentence at the beginning of a paragraph reminds the writer what the topic is so as to be able to avoid irrelevant ideas. On the other hand, a topic sentence at the end of a paragraph encourages the reader to keep on reading until she gets to the writer's central point. Bander claims that this placement has two advantages; first, since the writer's central point is often summed up in the final sentence, the reader usually concentrates on the final point. Secondly, the reader is likely to remember the idea of the final sentence better than those read earlier in the paragraph. Furthermore, a topic sentence in the middle of a paragraph helps when the paragraph is about comparison and contrast. In other words, it is used as a transition sentence between the similarities and differences of the issues being described. An implied topic sentence is disadvantageous in that a writer may lose focus of the topic being developed, and the reader is more likely to miss the point if a topic sentence is implied (p. 91-92).

An important point to note in the above discussion is that there is congruence in the placement of topic sentences in English and Xhosa paragraphs. What does not exist in Xhosa is an implied topic sentence. Naturally, if topic sentences can appear at the beginning, at the end and in the middle of both Xhosa and English paragraphs, then there is a great possibility that this variable can easily transfer from Xhosa to English.

2.7.2.2 Parts of a topic sentence

Langan (2001: 61) explains that a topic sentence is made up of two parts, namely

- the limited topic, and
- the writer's attitude toward the limited topic.

He claims that the writer's point of view or attitude is normally expressed in one or more key words, and then all the details have to support the idea expressed in the key words.

Here are three examples:

- 1 Girls are normally more serious than boys.
- 2 My friend is very pugnacious.
- 3 Many divorce cases result from infidelity.

In Example 1 the topic is *girls*, and the key words that express the writer's idea about the topic is that girls are *more serious* than boys. In Example 2, the topic is *friend*, and the key word that determines the focus of the text is that the writer's friend is *pugnacious*. In

Example 3, the topic is *divorce cases*, and the key words that express the writer's idea about the topic are that those divorce cases are caused by *infidelity*.

This feature applies equally to both Xhosa and English, and this therefore implies that this trait can readily transfer from mother tongue to the second language.

2.7.3 Support for topic sentences

Effective writing is characterized by a clearly stated point at the beginning of every paragraph, and that point should be supported with specific evidence (Langan, 2001). In other words, every paragraph has a main idea stated in a topic sentence, with other sentences supporting the main idea by giving examples, adding details, providing reasons and giving facts (Orr & Schutte, 2001).

2.7.4 Paragraph unity

For the purpose of this study, paragraph unity refers to dealing with a single aspect of the discussion in one paragraph as opposed to using a single paragraph as a 'catchall' for the ideas the writer did not originally wish to develop. Bander (1980) puts it thus: "A writer gains unity ... by cutting out any thoughts that do not fit in with a paragraph's controlling idea" (p. 139).

Bander's (1980) assertion implies that each paragraph should express only one topic or one part of a topic. This topic (or part of it) is referred to as a controlling idea. The

controlling idea should be explained by facts, examples and reasons that are all related to it. Any information that is irrelevant must be excluded from the paragraph. In other words, each sentence in a paragraph must refer to the controlling idea in the topic sentence (p. 140). In order for a paragraph to be unified, all the details should be on the target (Langan, 2001). Langan's opinion coincides with Bander's assertion, in that Langan also claims that all the details in a paragraph should "support and develop the single point expressed in the first sentence (topic sentence)" (p. 133).

In order to achieve unity, all the details in the text should be relevant to the single idea contained in the topic sentence. Every time the writer intends to include a point in the paragraph, she has to ask herself whether that point relates to the main idea, and if it is irrelevant, it must be omitted. Langan advises writers to make sure that every paragraph has an unambiguous opening statement, and that all the details completely support the opening point. Likewise, Bander also suggests that the focus should be the same in the entire paragraph, and that no sentence should contain information that is not related to the main idea expressed in the opening paragraph.

2.8 Conclusion

Although the researcher has not been able to find much research on the transfer of discourse features between languages, the few sources he managed to find prove that the transfer of these features from the learners' first language to the second language is indeed possible. Language distance or similarity, motivation, previous experience and similarity of stimulus are central to the transfer of learning from mother tongue to the

second language. Research on the transfer of discourse features between languages supports this idea.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

3.1 Introduction

The approach used in this study is *hypothetically deductive*, since it begins with a preconceived notion about what may be found. This preconceived notion is formulated as a prediction or hypothesis to be confirmed or rejected (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989:58). The researcher decides what factors or variables might cause certain results and carries out tests to either support or reject the hypothesis at some level of statistical probability. The focus is on the objective data that exist apart from the feelings and thoughts of the researcher. The findings are expressed in numbers that indicate the extent to which the variables were influential during the research.

The aim in using an Experimental design is therefore to identify cause-and-effect relationships. The predicted effect in this case was an improvement in paragraph writing and cohesion in English L2. By eliminating direct instruction as the cause, it would follow that some other cause must be responsible, namely a transfer of learning from instruction in Xhosa L1.

3.2 Research design

This study took the form of an experiment involving two Grade 8 classes in successive years. In 2005 the first class, the Experimental Group, were given instruction in Xhosa but not in English in the variables under consideration, namely cohesion and three

aspects of paragraphing. Their improvements in respect of the four variables were measured at the end of that year and compared a year later with those of the second Grade 8 class, the Control Group, who were given instruction in the four variables in both languages in 2006.

3.3 Methodology

3.3.1 Research procedure

The initial assessment was conducted in the fourth week of January and the first week of February 2005 for the Experimental Group, and at about the same time in 2006 for the Control Group. During each of the weeks the subjects wrote one Xhosa essay and one English essay. A period of two hours was allocated for the writing of each essay. No preparation or discussion was allowed beforehand. The essays were written under strict test conditions and the researcher monitored the process so as to prevent any kind of irregularity, such as filching information from one another, or from other sources such as books.

The pre-test served both to establish the learners' baseline competence in the four variables in question and to determine the extent to which the two groups were equivalent in these respects.

The post-test differed from the pre-test in that the topics were first brainstormed in class so that even the slowest learner would have some ideas to write about. The key points represented topics that should appear in topic sentences and be supported by no fewer

than five sentences. This means that a six-paragraph essay was expected to have at least thirty support sentences. Apart from that, the essays were written under the same strict test conditions as the pre-test essays.

The following essay topics were set for the pre-test in Xhosa:

- Ingaba kuyilahleko ukufundisa intombazana?

(Is it a waste to educate a girl?)

- Ubuthathaka bomanyano lweentsapho kule mihla.

(Lack of togetherness in the modern family)

and the following two in English:

- Should children under age not watch some television programmes?
- Juvenile delinquency: causes and effects

After the intervention, learners wrote the following two essays in Xhosa:

- Umsebenzi wesikolo owenziwa ekhaya.

(Homework)

- Ingaba abanye abazali banalo igalelo ekunxileni kwabantwana babo?

(Do some parents contribute to their children's being alcoholic?)

and the following two in English:

- Why some learners become dropouts
- Should take-home-tasks be given?

3.3.2 The intervention

The intervention ran from the second week of February 2005 to the third week of October 2005 for the Experimental Group and during the same period in 2006 for the Control Group. This provided 34 teaching weeks before the post-test was written. There were 18 periods for languages per week, providing a total of 612 periods.

3.3.2.1 The Xhosa syllabus

The researcher compiled a 'Home Language project writing programme' with the aim of coaching the discourse-level writing skills in Xhosa to both groups. The Home Language document consists of language connectors, the use of topic sentences and supporting sentences, paragraph patterns and paragraph development (see the Home Language document in Appendix 1).

Systematic assessment in Xhosa was done so as to establish that the discourse skills had been learned in Xhosa. This was done progressively, starting from the construction of appropriate topic sentences and supporting sentences, the use of signpost words to connect ideas, and logical organisation of ideas, with similar ideas grouped together to form coherent paragraphs.

In addition to doing the Home Language project writing programme, learners were taught how to write different kinds of texts, namely:

- formal and informal letters, that is, application letters, letters of complaint, ordering of goods, and letters to friends and acquaintances
- agendas
- notices
- dialogues
- stories
- crime reports
- newspaper reports
- role-plays in writing, such as writing proposals to be voted for as prefects – the way politicians do when they want to be voted into positions of power
- minutes of meetings (while half of the class would be dramatising a meeting, the other half would be writing minutes, and vice versa)

Learners did a multitude of tasks from elementary to advanced language and wrote paragraphs and whole essays. The time for the completion of short tasks in class ranged from ten to twenty minutes, while the time for the completion of longer tasks such as essays was two hours for each task. The longer tasks included writing for a wide range of purposes, which were formal and informal, public, personal and educational. For example, apart from the essays, the learners were required to write formal letters such as complaints to the authorities, apologies and applications. They also wrote informal letters. Moreover, they were also required to write about the events of each day in their diaries, or to write about their personal experiences during weekends or local ceremonies. In addition, speeches were written on social issues such as drug abuse and HIV/AIDS to educate peers and the public about the dangers of alcoholism and the AIDS pandemic.

The shorter tasks were mainly paragraphs, particularly paragraphs dealing with examples, cause-and-effect, comparison and contrast.

In addition to the four pre- and post-test essays, about 44 single paragraphs and nine essays were written during the intervention period. There were also about 81 language exercises, some of them not directly linked to the research focus. Only the language exercises were given as homework. All the discourse tasks were written in the classroom so that the researcher could be in control of the teaching and assessment processes. This was also done to systematically and effectively lead the learners to improve their writing skills. The marking of most tasks was done in the classroom in the presence of the writers in the conviction that proper teaching takes place when there is immediate contact and interaction between the teacher and the learner, that no teaching takes place when marking is done at home in the absence of the learners and that learners cannot be taught to improve their writing skills by letting them write at home.

All language lessons were developed from the yearlong work schedule and were a coherent series of teaching, learning and assessment activities. They consisted of activities spread over a few days or a number of weeks, depending on the length of individual activities.

3.3.2.2 The English syllabus

The English lessons began in the same week as those of the Xhosa intervention because the researcher taught both languages at his school.







Before the lessons were developed, the following issues were considered:

- A baseline assessment was done to establish the level of the learners' prior learning. What the learners already knew became a point of departure for the planning of the lessons. An attempt was made to plan appropriate support for the learners accordingly.
- Different learning styles of the learners in the class were taken into consideration, and an attempt was made to accommodate all learners in the class. Some learners learned by taking notes during the course of the lessons, or writing key words, while others listened and participated in the lessons by asking questions, answering questions and giving comments. Planning of writing lessons was done so as to enable the individual learners to use their different learning styles to learn writing successfully.
- Activities were selected and structured so as to overcome barriers to learning that existed in the class. For example, there were learners who were dyslexic. This problem resulted in poor spelling. Other learners tended to omit significant words within sentences, for example before verbs such as 'went', 'flew' and 'think'. The following examples illustrate this: Mother *going* to town today; The bird *was flew* high; He told him *to went* away; I *was think* I should go.
- Much of the year's work was done by both English groups, based on the learning outcomes for English First Additional Language, namely: *Listening, Speaking, Reading and Viewing, Writing, Thinking and Reasoning* and *Language Structure and use*. These lessons generally covered these learning outcomes, and the recommended texts were used as learner support material as well as teaching content.

- The lessons were planned through the use of resources available to the teacher and his class so as to ensure easy access to Learner Teacher Support Material such as textbooks, set books, wall charts and newspapers (the latter brought to class by the teacher).
- The researcher taught writing in English by using cartoons, charts, pictures and newspaper articles. Learners were required to build stories and construct paragraphs based on what they saw in cartoons, charts and pictures, and comment or write summaries of what they had read in newspapers.

Example 1

The following pictures show what happened to Vusi when he failed to put his list of instructions in the right order. Combine the sentences in the box into a single paragraph.

 <p>1 Vusi starts washing the walls. He gets water on the furniture and the floor.</p>	 <p>2 He moves the furniture out.</p>	 <p>3 He fetches the paint, brush and cloth and gets paint on his clothes and the floor.</p>	
 <p>4 He puts on his overall.</p>	 <p>5 He covers the floor with newspaper. The paper sticks to the paint on the floor.</p>	<p>6 Vusi starts painting. When he fetches the stepladder he knocks the paint over. He's very angry.</p>	

(Cretchley, G. 7 Stacey, J. 1984:87)

Example 2

Number the frames in their correct sequence and then write the story that is told in this cartoon.



The crucial difference in the work done by the two groups was that the Experimental Group received no direct instruction about paragraph structure. No mention was made of topic sentences or support sentences or paragraph unity in any of their lessons. Their essays were marked for content and expression, with no attention drawn to organisation unless an illogical ordering of ideas warranted it.

The researcher decided that it was necessary to compromise when it came to linking words, however. Both groups were given a table of English linking words along with the Xhosa equivalents and told to learn them by heart. The thinking behind this was that it would be unreasonable to expect learners to use English linking words if they did not know what they were. The transfer of learning here relates to their propensity to use

linking words in their English essays without their attention being drawn to this aspect of writing during the year's English lessons.

The Control Group, on the other hand, were given special activities that were similar to those in *The Home Language project writing programme* in order to develop their control of the discourse skills in question. Assessment of their essays during the course of the year included feedback on paragraphing and cohesion.

3.3.3 Data: study population

Each of the two groups consisted of 33 learners. No selection of any kind was done. Each of the two classes contained the full enrolment of Grade 8 learners in the school in both 2005 and 2006, drawn from the same rural community of Xhosa-speaking families surrounding the school. There was therefore every chance that the two groups would be closely matched, and so indeed it proved.

It is also likely that in their general English proficiency these learners are similar to those in other schools in rural areas in the Eastern Cape and even to schools in other rural areas in South Africa where a particular African language is used almost exclusively outside the classroom.

3.3.4 Framework for the analysis of essays

In the pre-test and post-test essays, the researcher looked for the ability to construct an argument to support the writers' position pertaining to the essay questions, and for the ability to state opinions clearly in response to the essay questions and to justify and substantiate those opinions convincingly. The essays were therefore evaluated against a model of argument characterised by logical organisation of ideas, with similar ideas grouped together in the form of coherent paragraphs. In other words, coherence was indispensable for the analysis of the overall flow of ideas within the essays.

This general requirement that the essay should make sense guided all judgements relating to the discourse features that were counted, assessed and calculated in the ways described below.

3.3.4.1 Topic sentences

Each learner's score for topic sentences was calculated by counting the number of paragraphs containing a suitable topic sentence and dividing it by the total number of paragraphs in the essay. For example, if suitable topic sentences introduced five of the seven paragraphs in an essay, then the rating for the essay would be $5/7 \times 100 = 71\%$.

3.3.4.2 Support sentences

Each learner's score for support sentences was calculated by using a three-point scale to assess each paragraph in turn. These scores were totalled and divided by the number of paragraphs in the essay to obtain an average for each essay – a number that necessarily falls between 1 (no support throughout) and 3 (good support throughout).

3.3.4.3 Paragraph unity

Each learner's score for paragraph unity was calculated by using a three-point scale to assess each paragraph in turn. These scores were totalled and divided by the number of paragraphs in the essay to obtain an average for each essay. As in the case of Support Sentences, this number necessarily falls between 1 (no support throughout) and 3 (good paragraph unity throughout).

3.3.4.4 Linking words

The score for linking words was calculated by dividing the number of linking words correctly used in an essay by the total number of words in the essay and converting this to a percentage. For example, 27 linking words in an essay of 311 words means 8.68 linking words per 100 words of text, which was rounded off to 9%.

A discourse marker was not counted if it did not make proper sense in the context.

3.3.5 Data analysis

The researcher used t-tests in order to establish the significance of the differences between the pre- and post-tests. These t-tests measure the effectiveness of the teaching intervention and allow comparisons to be made between the two groups and between the two languages in respect of the four variables that were measured.

3.4 Limitations

In section 3.3.2 above it is claimed that the learners' unique learning styles were taken into consideration. However, all the learners were made to write essays with a prescribed number of paragraphs in order to make scoring easy. This did not cater for individual abilities. Some learners can write more extensively than others, depending on the individual intellectual level and writing abilities. This prescription introduced an unnatural element into the exercise too: those who wished to make only five points, for example, had to fabricate an additional two if seven were prescribed; those with nine points to make had to drop two or merge them with others at the risk of losing credit for paragraph unity. In addition, the prescription was a constant reminder of the centrality of paragraphing in the scoring of the essays, and this may well have stimulated a transfer of learning in the Experimental Group's English essays that would otherwise not have occurred.

A similar prescription during the early Xhosa lessons in 2005 was that learners use no fewer than five linking words per paragraph. This was done because some learners used

very few linking words at all due to their incompetence in Xhosa. The result was that linking words were inserted ungrammatically or illogically or both. By the time the researcher realised this and tried to moderate the instruction, the compulsion to infuse writing with linking words had already been internalised and had been transferred to English by some of the learners. However, the greater use of linking words clearly improved the learners' writing once they had learned to use them sensibly.

The amount of work done by the learners who participated in this study was extraordinary – far greater than the amount of work done in the same grade in neighbouring schools or by the same school's Grade 8s that preceded or followed the two involved in the research. This certainly raised their awareness that there was something different about the work they were doing and might have influenced the results.

3.5 Ethics

According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2006), the term *ethics* refers to what is right and what is wrong. They claim that researchers should ask themselves if it is *right* to conduct the particular research.

The researcher feels that his research conforms to the standards of conduct of the teaching profession in that it doesn't violate any ethical practice. In the first place, no physical or psychological harm would come to any of those who participated in this study because the research was conducted in a normal everyday classroom situation, and was carried out with respect and concern for the participants. No state regulations or

professional standards governing the conduct of research with human participants were violated.

The information obtained on the research participants during the course of the study was kept confidential and the names of the participants were removed from all data collection sheets. Therefore, not even the researcher himself is able to link the data to a particular participant.

This study required that the participants should not know that they were undergoing an investigation for fear of changing their behaviour. They should see their lessons in both Xhosa and English as constituting normal learning activities. This might be regarded as deception, but it is justified by the prospective study's educational value.

Teachers at the researcher's school and the District Department of Education had been informed about the study and had no objection to it because it did not interfere with the school processes. After the data collection had been completed the parents of the participants and both the research groups were informed about the research and its aims. None of them had objections. Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) maintain that if it becomes necessary to deceive the participants, as a particular study might require, they have to be supplied with a necessary explanation as soon as possible (p. 58). Struwig and Stead (2001) also claim that the researcher must be honest, fair and respectful toward others and not try to mislead or deceive clients or research participants. They also maintain that researchers must respect the rights and dignity of others, including the privacy, confidentiality, and autonomy of research participants (p. 67).

The researcher tried his best to meet these ethical requirements. Since all the lessons used to gather data for the research were within the curriculum, the research benefited the participants. The researcher carefully monitored the research procedure so as to ensure that the participants were not adversely affected by it.

The researcher also ensured that the ideas of other researchers or authors were acknowledged and all the quotations properly referenced.

3.6 Conclusion

It should be clear from the simplicity of the design described above that the analysis of the results presented in Chapter 4 will be correspondingly straightforward: how much improvement was there in respect of each of the four variables in each of the two groups? How significant were the improvements themselves and how significant the variances in improvement between the languages and between the groups?

Chapter 4: The results

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the results of the study. It interprets the data collected from the Experimental Group at the end of 2005 and from the Control Group at the end of 2006.

The purpose of this research has been to establish whether certain discourse level writing skills transfer to a second language (English) if they have been taught in the mother tongue (Xhosa) but not in the second language. The skills in question are:

- using *topic sentences* appropriately to introduce a paragraph
- writing suitable *supporting sentences* in the rest of the paragraph
- using *linking words* and other cohesive devices effectively
- achieving *paragraph unity* in relation to the topic sentence.

The writing corpus comprises a total of just under 80 000 words of composition writing obtained from 66 learners. Half of the corpus in each year was written at the beginning of the academic year ('Pre-test') and the other half at the end ('Post-test'). Thirty-three of the learners were in the Experimental Group in 2005 and 33 different learners were in the Control Group in 2006. Both groups were doing Grade 8 at the time and were taught both Xhosa and English by the researcher himself.

The research data are discussed in relation to the following three questions:

1. Did teaching these skills make a difference and, if so, how significant was the improvement and to what can it be attributed?
2. Was there more improvement in Xhosa than in English, or less?
3. Which group improved more – Experimental or Control?

Questions 2 and 3 should both provide the answer to the question behind the main hypothesis: to what extent, if any, did a transfer of these skills take place without direct teaching in the case of the Experimental Group's English performance?

Table 1 provides an overview of the results for the four variables as they were measured before and after the intervention in both language subjects and for both groups.

It is followed by a discussion of the three questions listed above. In each case the question is followed by tables showing the statistical significance of the differences that are derived from Table 1 and from the standard deviation (SD) for each of the means listed there. Each of these in turn is followed by a table summarizing the information in the preceding table and then by a discussion of the relevant question.

The tables of raw scores from which means and standard deviations (SDs) were obtained appear in Appendix A.

The graphs (Figure 1 to Figure 8 below) have been used to illustrate how much difference there has been between the pre- and post-test scores of all four variables for both groups.

The statistician who assisted with the calculation of the t-tests explained that effect sizes are necessary in evaluating small differences which may be statistically significant but whose practical significance is in doubt. In this case, the marked improvement in all four variables leaves no doubt as to their practical significance. The practical significance of the improvements in the four variables has therefore not been calculated.

4.2 The research findings

Table 1: Mean scores in pre- and post-tests for both groups, both languages and all four variables.

	Control Group				Experimental Group			
	Xhosa		English		Xhosa		English	
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
Topic Sentences	54%	92% (+38%)	52%	95% (+43%)	54%	84% (+30%)	52%	97% (+45%)
Support Sentences	1.7	2.5 (+0.8)	1.7	2.5 (+0.8)	1.8	2.1 (+0.3)	1.5	2.7 (+1.2)
Paragraph Unity	2.1	2.9 (+0.8)	2.2	2.8 (+0.6)	1.2	2.5 (+1.3)	1.1	2.9 (+1.8)
Linking Words	7%	8% (+1%)	5%	8% (+3%)	6%	8% (+2%)	4%	9% (+5%)

What the scores mean:

Topic sentences: ability to begin each paragraph with a suitable topic sentence. Each paragraph was marked either right or wrong accordingly and the score out of the total number of paragraphs in the essay was converted to a percentage.

Support sentences: degree of control judged on a 3 point scale. A 3 was awarded for substantial support for the topic sentence in the rest of the paragraph, 2 for some support and 1 for poor support or none at all. The rating was a global score for the essay as a whole, assessed subjectively; that is, ratings for each paragraph were totalled and divided by the number of paragraphs in order to obtain an average for each essay.

Paragraph unity: degree of control judged on a 3 point scale, used in the same way as for support sentences above. There is some overlap between the two in that a sentence that supports the topic sentence must necessarily contribute to paragraph unity as well. The difference is that this rating reflects the extent to which points were included that were unrelated to the topic sentence.

Linking words: the number of linking words per 100 words of text. The researcher's own analysis of good expository writing in a variety of educational publications indicates that good expository writing typically includes between 8 to 12 linking words per 100 words of text. Although there is therefore no ideal number, it was assumed in this research project that fewer than six or seven per 100 is too few.

The number in brackets is the difference between the pre-test and post-test scores.

4.2.1 Deductions from Table 1

4.2.1.1 Did the teaching make a difference?

Table 2 gives the improvements achieved in the four skills by the Control Group in 2006 as well as the standard deviation and the statistical significance of the improvements. (** significant at 1% level of significance; * significant at 5% level of significance).

Table 2: The significance of the improvements in the scores achieved by the Control Group (Pair-wise t-test)

H0: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ against H1: $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

	Xhosa		English	
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
Topic sentences				
Mean	54.02	91.84	52.34	95.45
Std deviation	12.86	14.38	10.67	8.61
T-test value	-15.66		-30.35	
Prob> T	0.000**		0.000**	
Support Sentences				
Mean	1.75	2.53	1.74	2.5
Std deviation	0.29	0.27	0.23	0.18
T-test value	-22.54		-17.74	
Prob> T	0.000*		0.000**	
Linking Words				
Mean	7.18	8.46	4.68	7.99
Std deviation	0.62	1.63	0.57	1.56
T-test value	-4.43		-10.99	
Prob> T	0.000**		0.000**	
Paragraph unity				
Mean	2.12	2.91	2.19	2.84
Std deviation	0.35	0.2	0.3	0.33
T-test value	-13.34		-15.35	
Prob> T	0.000**		0.000**	

** Significant at 1% level of significance

*Significant at 5% level of significance

Table 3 summarises the contents of Table 2 for easy reference in the discussion that follows.

Table 3: Improvement: Control Group

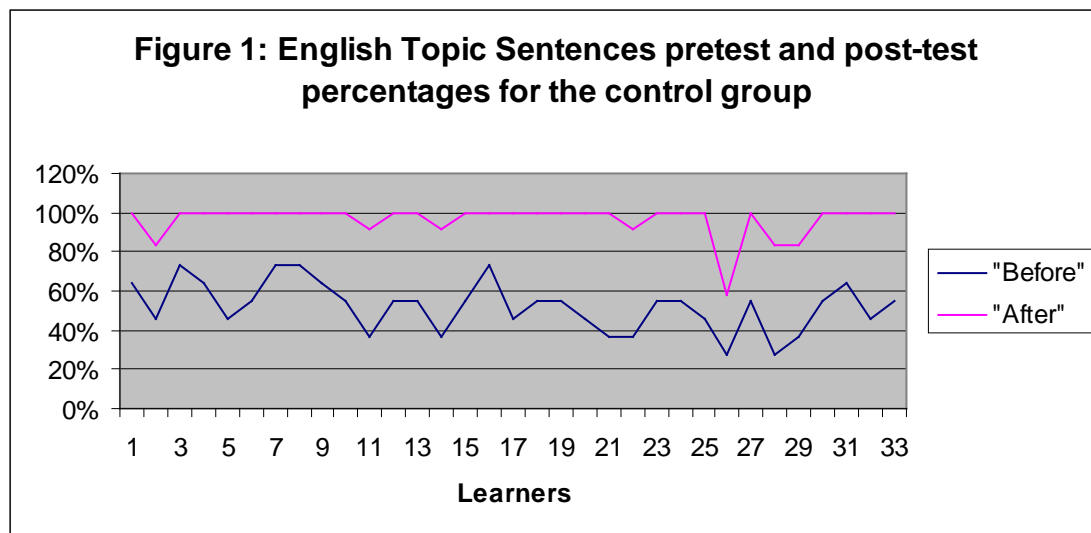
	Xhosa				English			
	Pre-test	Post-test	Increase	t-test	Pre-test	Post-test	Increase	t-test
Topic Sentences	54%	92%	38%	-15.66**	52%	95%	43%	-30.35**
Support Sentences	1.7	2.5	0.8	-22.54**	1.7	2.5	0.8	-17.74**
Paragraph unity	2.1	2.9	0.8	-13.34**	2.2	2.8	0.6	-15.35**
Linking words	7%	8%	1%	-4.43**	5%	8%	3%	-10.99**

The t-test scores in Table 3 confirm that the obvious improvements in all four skills in both languages are statistically significant at the 1% level of significance.

The researcher's experience over many years of teaching languages in Grade 7 to 9 is that skill levels do not improve very much from one grade to the next. The amount of improvement here is therefore far greater than one would expect after a year of conventional teaching and must be attributed to the emphasis on improving writing at the level of discourse that was implemented during the research project. The course materials are provided in Appendix 2 and described in Chapter 3. (See Chapter 5 for recommendations for further research arising from the apparent success of these materials.)

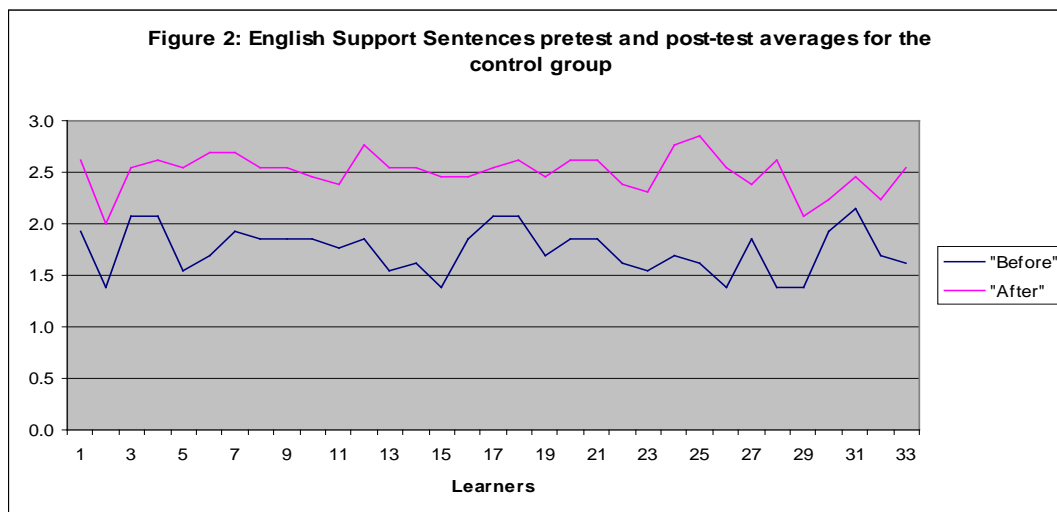
The following comments relate to the separate skills:

Topic sentences: Learners began the year with a moderate control of topic sentences in both languages (54% and 52% in Xhosa and English respectively) and although they improved in both during the year, their improvement in English (43%) was greater than in Xhosa (38%). Figure 1 below is a graphical representation of the improvement between the pre- and post-intervention scores of the Control group.



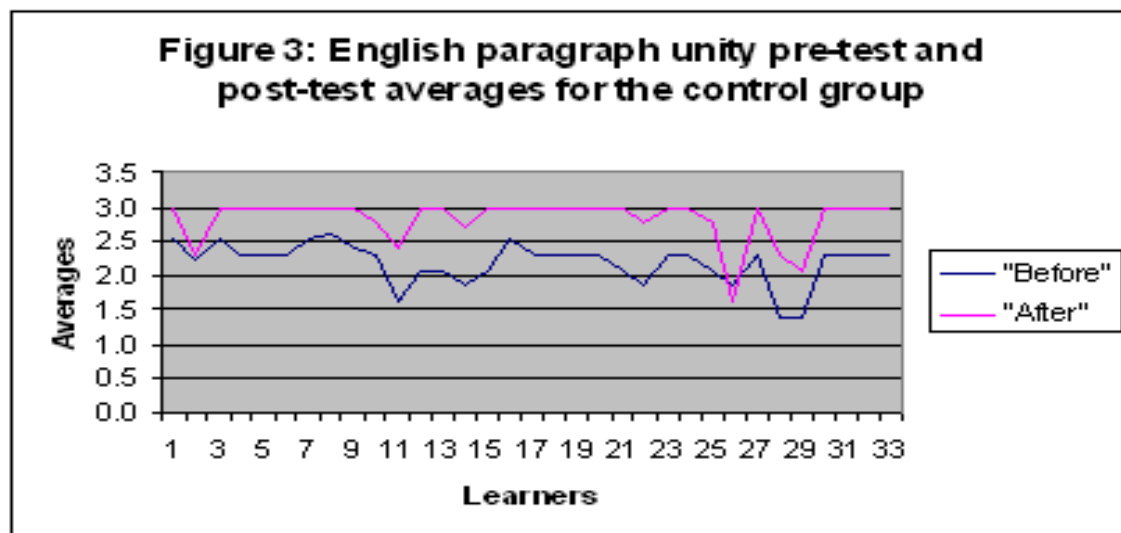
Support sentences: The exact equivalence both in the initial control of this aspect of paragraphing in the different languages and in the amount of improvement in response to teaching confirms the assumption that these skills are independent of the language being used: a learner who writes good paragraphs in one language will write equally good paragraphs in another, other things being equal.

Figure 2 is a graphical representation of the improvement in support sentences.



Paragraph unity: The same assumption is confirmed in this skill as in the use of support sentences: these skills are not language-specific. Approximately the same amount of improvement took place from approximately the same initial base.

Figure 3 below is a graphical representation of the improvement in paragraph unity of the Control group.



Linking words: Although the learners began the year with a higher proportion of linking words in their writing in Xhosa than in English, they ended the year with exactly the same rate of eight linking words per 100 words of text in both languages. The difference in the beginning suggests that they knew fewer linking words in the second language than in the first. It was an issue of vocabulary rather than writing skills. The emphasis on linking words in both languages during the year made up for this initial discrepancy. The outcome in both languages was exactly the same after the same teaching had taken place in both.

Figure 4 is a graphical presentation of the Control group improvement in linking words.

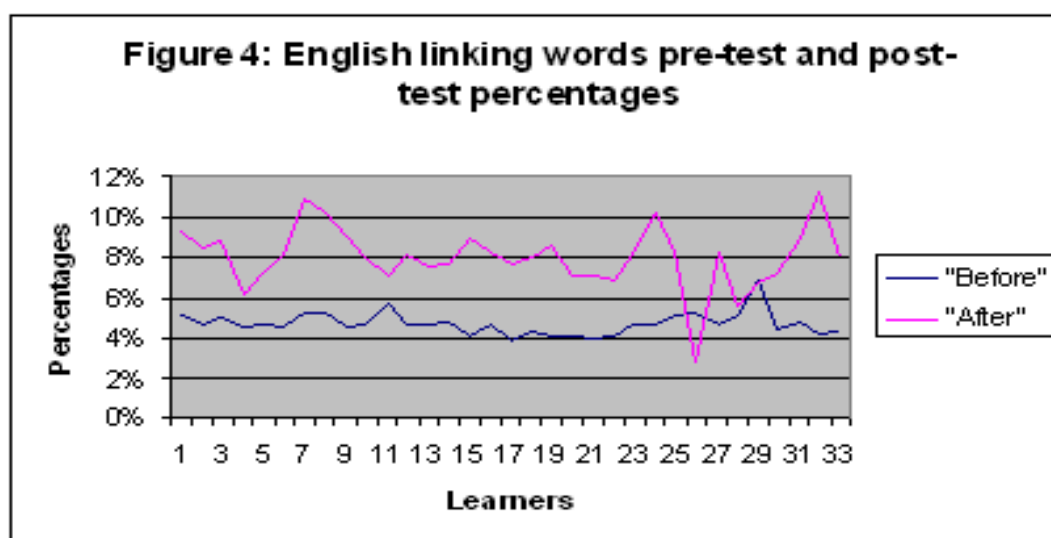


Table 4: The significance of the improvements in the scores achieved by the Experimental Group (Pair-wise t-test)

	Xhosa		English	
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
Topic sentences				
Mean	54.29	83.77	51.79	96.46
Std deviation	14.6	13.75	12.55	8.6
T-test value	-11.579		-24.02	
Prob> T	0.000**		0.000**	
Support Sentences				
Mean	1.77	2.1	1.47	2.72
Std deviation	0.49	0.34	0.34	0.23
T-test value	-4.99		-20.18	
Prob> T	0.000*		0.000**	
Linking Words				
Mean	6.08	7.86	4.45	8.47
Std deviation	2.21	1.03	2.35	1.23
T-test value	-4.47		-10.91	
Prob> T	0.000**		0.000**	
Paragraph unity				
Mean	1.209	2.464	1.085	2.897
Std deviation	0.344	0.238	0.194	0.167
T-test value	-22		-44.45	
Prob> T	0.000**		0.000**	

Table 5 summarises the contents of Table 4 for easy reference in the discussion that follows.

Table 5: Improvements: Experimental Group

	Xhosa				English			
	Pre-test	Post-test	Increase	t-test	Pre-test	Post-test	Increase	t-test
Topic Sentences	54%	92%	38%	-11.579**	52%	95%	43%	-24.02**
Support Sentences	1.8	2.1	0.3	-4.99**	1.5	2.7	1.2	-20.18**
Paragraph unity	1.2	2.5	1.3	-4.47**	1.1	2.9	1.8	-10.91**
Linking words	6%	8%	2%	-22**	4%	9%	5%	-44.45**

Table 5 provides the improvements achieved in the four skills by the Experimental Group in 2005 as well as the statistical significance of these improvements as shown in Table 4. (** Significant at 1% level of significance; * Significant at 5% level of significance.)

As with the Control Group, the t-test scores confirm that the obvious improvements in all four skills in both languages for the Experimental Group are statistically significant at the 1% level of significance.

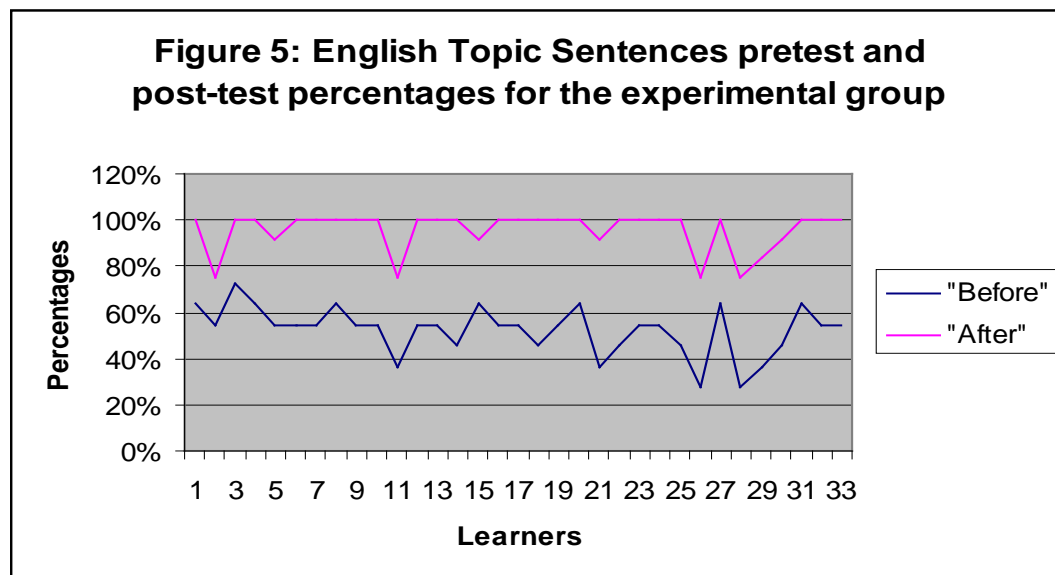
As with the Control Group, the degree of improvement achieved by the Experimental Group is greater than one would expect after a normal year of teaching and must be attributed to the new approach that was implemented in Xhosa with both groups and in English with the Control Group. What was not foreseen was the degree of improvement in English, where direct teaching of the four skills was deliberately withheld from the Experimental Group. While this certainly supports the hypothesis that transfer of learning relating to certain writing skills should take place between languages, it raises more questions than it answers – in particular, how can more learning be transferred in the second language than was learned in the first? The comparative significance of these scores is taken up in 4.2.1.2 below.

The following comments relate to the separate skills:

Topic sentences: Learners began the year with a moderate control of topic sentences in both languages. The initial 54% and 52% in Xhosa and English respectively is just the

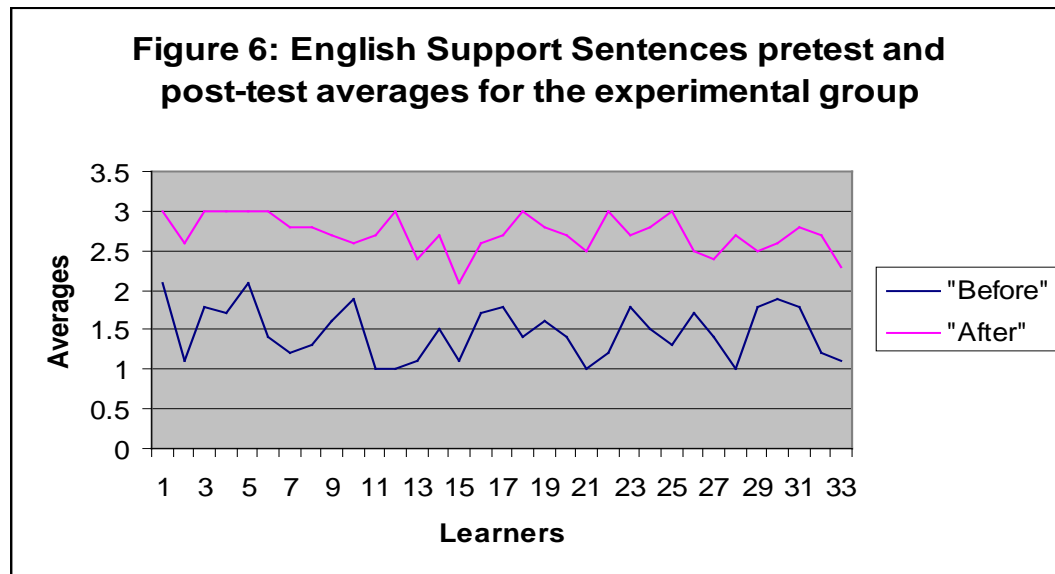
converse of the scores for the Control Group, but since both sets of scores are so similar, this may be treated as evidence of the equivalence of the two groups.

Figure 5: Graphical representation of the improvement between the pre- and post-intervention performance in topic sentences of the Experimental group



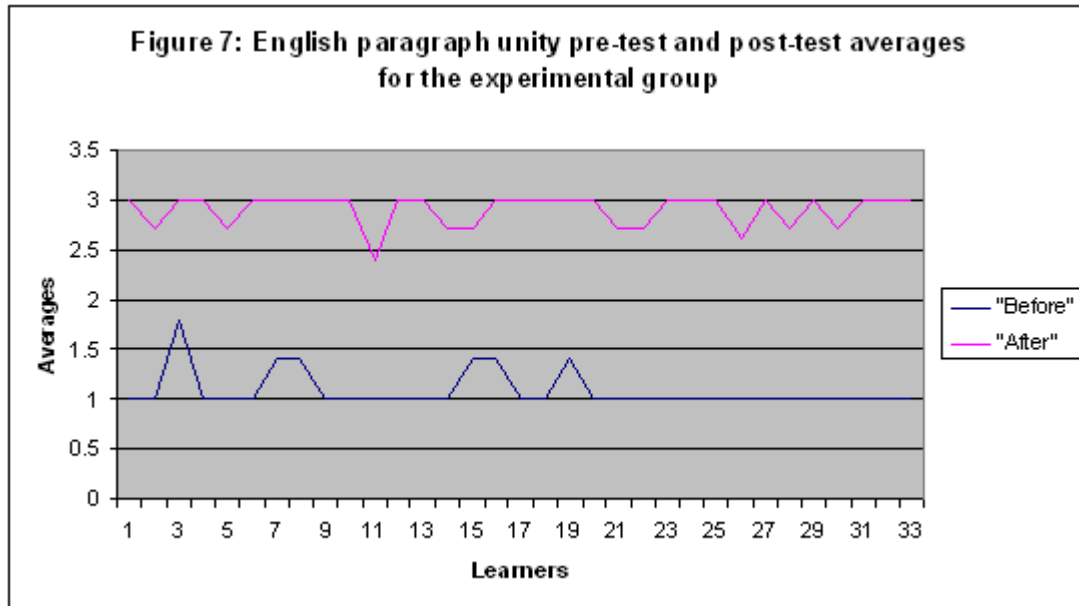
Support sentences: Since the range of possible scores is only 2 (from 1.0 to 3.0), the 15% improvement in Xhosa (1.8 to 2.1) is rated as significant at the 1% level. It seems anomalous, however, that the same learners improved from 1.5 to 2.7 in English (a 60% improvement) without direct instruction. The researcher is unable to account for the relatively poor use of support sentences in their home language by learners who demonstrate in English that they have a good grasp of this aspect of paragraphing.

Figure 6 below shows graphical representation of the improvement between the pre- and post-intervention performance in support sentences of the Experimental group.



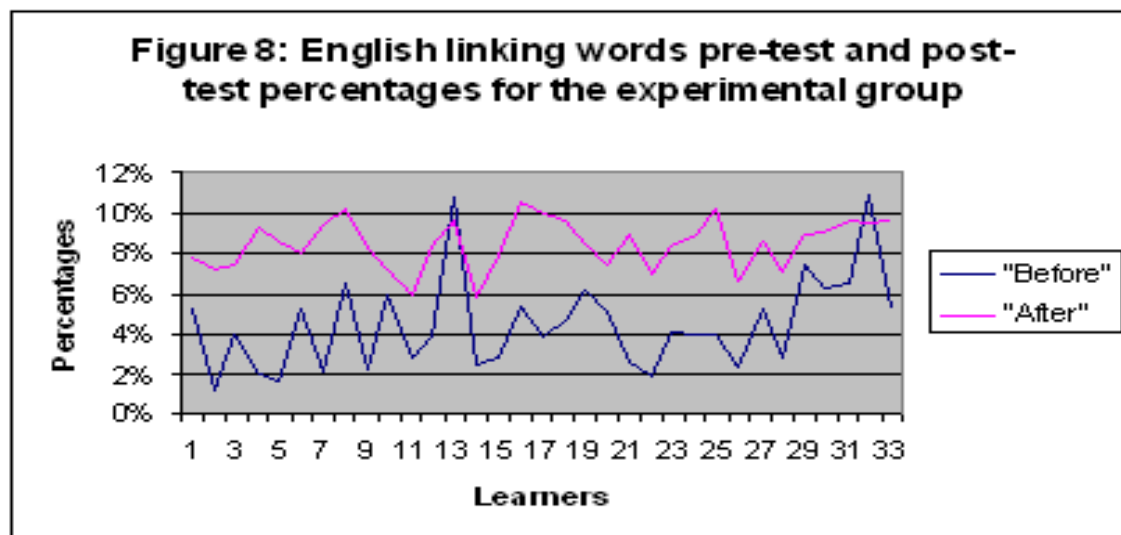
Paragraph unity: The degree of improvement in paragraph unity in Xhosa is somewhat greater than that in the use of support sentences. The same anomaly appears, though: there was greater improvement in English without direct instruction.

Figure 7 is a graphical representation of the improvement between the pre- and post-intervention performance in paragraph unity of the Experimental group.



Linking words: These learners also began the year with a higher proportion of linking words in their writing in Xhosa than in English, and ended the year with similar rates (eight linking words per 100 words of text in Xhosa and nine in English). The difference in the pre-test probably reflects more on their lack of vocabulary in the second language than on their writing skills.

Figure 8 is a graphical representation of the improvement between the pre- and post-intervention performance in linking words of the Experimental group.



4.2.1.2 Comparative improvements (matched pairs) (independent samples t-test)

Tables 6 and 7 assume that the two groups, each consisting of 33 learners, are roughly equivalent. The groups' improvements in Xhosa and in English are compared using an independent samples t-test for matched pairs. The questions being investigated here are these: Which of the two groups showed greater improvement in Xhosa? Which of them showed greater improvement in English? What is the statistical significance of these differences? How can the differences, if any, be explained? What are the implications for the main hypothesis?

Tables 8 and 9 move the focus from the two groups to the two languages: was the improvement greater or less in Xhosa than in English? Is this true for both groups? How significant are these differences? How can the differences be explained? What are the implications for the main hypothesis?

Table 6: Comparing improvement in the two groups

H0: $\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$ against H1: $\sigma_1^2 \neq \sigma_2^2$ and H0: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ against H1: $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

	Xhosa		English	
	Experimental	Control	Experimental	Control
Topic sentences				
Mean	29.47	37.8	44.67	43.11
Std deviation	5.43	6.15	6.68	6.57
F-test for equal variances	0.899		0.583	
Prob> F	0.382		0.066	
T-test value	2.37		-0.67	
Prob> T	0.010*		0.254	
Support Sentences				
Mean	0.323	0.788	1.248	0.76
Std deviation	0.371	0.198	0.355	0.246
F-test for equal variances	3.413		2.086	
Prob> F	0.000**		0.021*	
T-test value	-6.381		6.491	
Prob> T	0.000*		0.000**	
Linking Words				
Mean	1.78	1.27	4.02	3.32
Std deviation	0.33	0.34	2.12	1.73
F-test for equal variances	0.938		1.491	
Prob> F	0.429		0.132	
T-test value	5.72		1.48	
Prob> T	0.000*		0.145	
Paragraph unity				
Mean	1.25	0.79	1.81	0.65
Std deviation	0.33	0.34	0.23	0.24
F-test for equal variances	0.938		0.933	
Prob> F	0.429		0.422	
T-test value	5.72		19.84	
Prob> T	0.000**		0.000**	

** Significant at 1% level of significance

* Significant at 5% level of significance

Table 7 summarises the contents of Table 6 for easy reference in the discussion that follows.

Table 7: Comparing improvement in the two groups

	Xhosa			English		
	Control	Experimental	t-test	Control	Experimental	t-test
Topic Sentences	30%	38%	2.37*	43%	45%	-0.67
Support Sentences	0.8	0.3	-6.381**	0.8	1.2	6.491**
Paragraph unity	0.8	1.3	5.72**	0.6	0.8	19.84**
Linking words	1%	2%	5.72*	3%	5%	1.45

Judged on the relative performance of the two groups in Xhosa it is not possible to say that either of the groups performed better than the other. The Control Group showed a greater improvement in support sentences and paragraph unity, whereas the Experimental Group improved more in topic sentences and linking words. The Control Group's improvement in paragraph unity was statistically significant at the 1% level; the other three differences were significant only at the 5% level.

The group which improved most in the use of topic sentences (the Experimental Group) improved less in supporting those topic sentences but more in writing unified paragraphs in relation to them. An explanation might lie in the time that elapsed between the two periods of teaching: the groups were not being taught or evaluated concurrently, but in sequence a year apart, starting with the Experimental Group. These two aspects were measured subjectively, allowing for the possibility that the

researcher might have modified his expectations the second time round or used a slightly different basis for evaluation. On the other hand, the teaching of aspects of paragraphing might have improved with the second implementation, perhaps in reaction to the relatively little improvement shown by the Experimental Group during the first year of research. As a result the Control Group were more successful in supporting topic sentences in Xhosa than their counterparts.

A greater puzzle emerges when comparing the two groups' performance in English. The Control Group, which received direct instruction in paragraphing skills and linking words throughout their Grade 8 year, was outperformed by the Experimental Group, from whom these skills were withheld. The improvement in the use of English topic sentences was almost identical (43% and 45% for Control and Experimental respectively). There was an apparently greater difference in improvement in the use of linking words (3% for the Control Group versus 5% for the Experimental Group) but the t-test showed that this difference, too, was not statistically significant.

A significant difference in improvement in favour of the Experimental Group occurred in the use of support sentences and in paragraph unity, both differences rating a 1% level of significance on the t-test. On the face of it these results imply that it is better not to teach these skills in a second language than to actually teach them. Possible explanations for this anomaly are discussed below Table 13.

Table 8: Comparative Improvement (pair-wise t-test) in the two languages

	Control Group (n=33)		Experimental Group (n=33)	
	Xhosa	English	Xhosa	English
Topic sentences				
Mean	37.8	43.11	29.47	44.67
Std deviation	6.15	6.57	5.43	6.68
T-test value	-2.2		-6.1	
Prob> T	0.035*		0.000**	
Support Sentences				
Mean	0.79	0.76	0.32	0.36
Std deviation	0.2	0.25	0.37	0.36
T-test value	0.54		-12.56	
Prob> T	0.594		0.000**	
Linking Words				
Mean	1.27	3.32	1.78	4.02
Std deviation	1.65	1.73	2.28	2.12
T-test value	-7.36		-4.63	
Prob> T	0.000**		0.000**	
Paragraph unity				
Mean	0.79	0.65	1.25	1.81
Std deviation	0.34	0.24	0.33	0.23
T-test value	2.06		-8.84	
Prob> T	0.048*		0.000**	

** Significant at 1% level of significance

- Significant at 5% level of significance

Table 9: Improvements in Xhosa versus English in both groups

	Control			Experimental		
	Xhosa	English	t-test	Xhosa	English	t-test
Topic sentences	37.8	43.11	-2.2*	29.47	44.67	-6.1**
Support sentences	0.79	0.76	0.54	0.32	0.36	-12.56**
Paragraph unity	0.79	0.65	2.06*	1.25	1.81	-8.84**
Linking words	1.27	3.32	-7.36**	1.78	4.02	-4.63**

Table 9 summarises the contents of Table 8 for easy reference in the discussion that follows.

Since the Control Group began the year with virtually the same control of paragraphing and cohesion in both languages and received almost identical teaching in both languages throughout the year, one would expect their improvement in both languages to be very similar too. In the case of the improved use of support sentences and improved paragraph unity this does indeed occur. The slightly greater increase in the use of linking words in English than in Xhosa can be attributed to vocabulary acquisition in the second language during the year.

What is not easily explained, however, is why the Control Group improved so much less in their use of topic sentences in Xhosa (38%) than in English (43%). The assumption underlying this research is that discourse level skills such as paragraphing and cohesion will reflect a similar level of competence in all the languages a speaker uses. In the absence of any variables one would expect improvement in competence to occur equally in Xhosa and English: the same learners began from the same base competence, received the same tuition and improved equally in the related skills.

Far more puzzling, however, is why the Experimental Group improved by a greater margin in all four skills in English, where they were not taught those skills, than they did in Xhosa, where they were. The most optimistic expectation relating to the main hypothesis was that the skills in English would improve significantly in response to improvements in Xhosa, thus supporting the case for transfer. However, where it appears that more was transferred to English than was learned in Xhosa, some other explanation will need to be found.

One such explanation might lie in the observer-expectancy effect, which is a cognitive bias that occurs when a researcher unconsciously manipulates an experiment in order to produce an expected or desired effect. Although no direct teaching of the target skills took place in English, the learners' awareness of their importance in English writing might have been stimulated in a number of ways, for example by the number of paragraphs being specified beforehand or the rating scales explained.

Another possibility lies in the Hawthorne effect. According to Diaper (1990), this is usually understood to refer to an Experimental effect in the direction expected but not for the reason expected. A significant positive effect may be caused by the participants' knowing that they are being studied in relation to the outcomes of the research. The learners improved simply because of the unusual importance that seemed to be attached to what they were doing.

4.3 Conclusion

Even with a relatively small sample (66), the test results provide persuasive evidence of the transfer of learning from mother tongue to the second language and therefore support the transfer hypothesis as well as the research hypothesis. Although the findings are undermined by limitations discussed in section 5.3 in Chapter 5, it is reasonable to conclude that the scores were significantly influenced by the programme which was specially designed for this particular study.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an interpretation of findings which underlie the conclusions relating to the hypotheses. These are discussed later in the chapter. It also discusses the limitations and makes suggestions for further research.

5.2 Summary of major findings

The following findings emerge from the discussion in sections 4.2.1.1 and 4.2.1.2 in Chapter 4:

- The marked improvements in all four skills in both Xhosa and English in both the Control and Experimental groups exceeded what would be considered normal during the course of a Grade 8 year and may be attributed to the teaching programme that was specially devised to teach the skills in question.
- The similarity in the four sets of scores in the pre-tests (Xhosa and English for both groups) attests to the equivalence of the two groups.
- The similarity in the scores of the three skills relating to paragraphing confirm the assumption that these skills are not language-dependent or influenced by differences in grammatical competence in different languages, and that they are therefore likely to be transferred between languages.

- The greater disparity in the use of linking words in the two languages in pre-tests suggests that this skill is language-dependent in that it reflects the extent to which the learner's lexis includes linking words in each of the languages in question.
- The greater improvement in English than in Xhosa by both groups suggests that they are more motivated to write well in English than in Xhosa.
- The fact that the Experimental Group improved more without direct instruction in English than they did with direct instruction in Xhosa confirms the hypothesis on the transfer of learning of paragraphing skills and cohesion and at the same time calls the research method into question.

5.3 Discussion of problems

The teaching programme was not typical of Grade 8 English teaching in a rural school in Transkei

It seemed obvious that there could be no possibility of transfer of learning from Xhosa to English if the skills in question had not been properly acquired in Xhosa in the first place.

Both groups of learners were therefore taken through an intensive 10 month writing course focusing on paragraphing and cohesion, the Control Group in both languages and the Experimental Group in Xhosa only. This course appears in Appendix B. As a result, it cannot be said with any certainty that a transfer of learning relating to discourse skills occurs in classrooms where no special attention is given to them in either language.

The learners were very aware that they were involved in research

This was necessary at the beginning of the year to explain to the learners why they would be doing a great deal more writing than they were accustomed to doing and to obtain their co-operation. It is therefore likely that their performance in both languages was influenced in the following ways by the Hawthorne effect:

- People singled out for a study of any kind may improve their performance or behaviour, not because of any specific condition being tested, but simply because of all the attention they receive.
- People will respond positively to any novel change in work environment.

This effect was reinforced by the general departure from a conventional language syllabus and by the unusual rules applying to their essays throughout the year. The learners had to write a specified number of paragraphs in essays and linking words in each paragraph. They were also aware that their essays were going to be marked for topic sentences, support sentences and paragraph unity.

The Experimental Group carried this awareness into their English essays. Even though they were not taught anything during English lessons that was related to paragraphing, they were required to write a specific number of paragraphs per essay and were aware that the same considerations would apply in evaluation in English as in Xhosa. They were also provided with a table of Xhosa linking words and their English equivalents.

The effect of these unusual requirements would certainly have made the act of writing less 'natural'. Attention was unnaturally focused on form instead of on sense.

The researcher acted as both player and referee in both languages

In most schools it is likely that the home language and English will be taught by different teachers, in which case evidence of a transfer of learning between the two will be less contaminated than in this case, where the very presence of the same teacher in the two subjects increases the likelihood of transfer.

The more closely a researcher is involved in implementing an intervention, the greater the likelihood that he would be able to influence the findings in favour of his hypothesis, whether deliberately or subconsciously - the observer-expectancy effect mentioned in Chapter 4. This danger is greatly increased where the researcher not only teaches both language subjects but is also the sole judge of performance in both. Even though the marking was made as mechanistic as possible, subjective judgement could not be completely excluded, even, for example, in counting the frequency of linking words, where a decision had to be made on the aptness of each linking word.

It could therefore be argued that a more thorough process of validation should have been applied by involving different raters who had been provided with clear operational definitions of the constructs to be analysed. The external raters could have cross-validated the data and calculated the inter-rater reliability. This would have made the findings more reliable and valid.

Problems with learners

It turned out to be naïve to assume that, after seven years of schooling, learners in Grade 8 would be sufficiently proficient in writing in their own mother tongue to cope with lessons on paragraphing and cohesion. Many of them, however, were so unacquainted with Xhosa linking words that their efforts to comply with the requirement that each paragraph should contain five linking words led to their inserting words and phrases that made no sense at all. The process of discourse skills development was therefore delayed by the need to teach language basics such as the meaning and usage of lists of linking words.

In addition, absenteeism from some of the research lessons might have impacted negatively on the findings. There were learners who missed vital lessons due to ill health and others who missed writing tasks. As a result the researcher used extra classes for these learners, usually in the afternoon. The disadvantage of these lessons was that the learners were either hungry or exhausted and the heat made them uncomfortable and restless. This affected their concentration and the lessons themselves were like a punishment. The situation during these lessons was different from that of the normal lessons and that may well have influenced performance.

Problem with the study itself

The use of a *control group with normal teaching* instead of a group that was not taught by the researcher at all, for example, a group from another school, was another limitation of this study. It might be argued that the use of a group from a neighbouring school as a control group might have produced more reliable findings.

In this case, the so-called ‘control group with normal teaching’ would have been named ‘Intervention Group 2’, with the Experimental group as ‘Intervention Group 1’.

5.4 Conclusions

5.4.1 The main hypothesis

The marked improvement in the Experimental Group’s paragraph writing and cohesion in their English essays supports the hypothesis that discourse-level writing skills learned in a first language transfer to a second language without direct teaching.

Despite these improvements being statistically significant and surpassing improvements in the Xhosa essays, the validity of the research might be disputed on the grounds that the teaching and feedback were far more intense than is typical in similar schools in South Africa and even in the same school in other years and that the researcher was too closely involved with the research itself.

Further grounds for scepticism are provided by the central anomaly: more learning was manifested in the second language without instruction than was gained in the first with it.

Despite this, the evidence suggests that it is worthwhile to develop discourse-level writing skills in the first language, both for their potential for transfer to the second language and for the improvement of first language essay writing.

5.4.2 Sub-hypotheses

Improvement in each of the four separate skills – the use of topic sentences and supporting sentences, paragraph unity and cohesion through the apt use of linking words – confirms the generalisation in the main hypothesis. One proviso here is that the apt use of linking words reflects knowledge of these words in the language in question and is therefore not as language-independent as paragraphing skills.

5.5 Summary of contributions

Nearly all the literature on the transfer of learning between languages deals with aspects of one or other language sub-system: phonology, morphology, syntax and even semantics. A search for studies on the transfer of language skills yields very little research indeed. The contribution of this research is therefore to draw attention to language skills as a potentially fruitful source of transfer of learning between languages. This is particularly important in a multi-lingual society such as South Africa, where much is written about multilingualism in the classroom, but very little done about it.

The findings that the researcher reached after a long period of investigation led him to make the following recommendations for classroom practice:

- When teaching writing, language teachers need to plan together and make sure they know what to teach and how to teach at levels above sentence level,.

Teachers of both Xhosa and English should agree on the sequencing of the topics to be taught in both languages – what to teach first and what to teach next. Whatever has to be taught must be taught in the mother tongue first, and then immediately after that the teaching in English should follow to bridge the gap between the two languages and to allow the transfer of learning from the mother tongue to the second language.

- Teachers of Xhosa should be enlisted in the cause of better writing in English, tasked with teaching discourse-level writing skills well enough for them to transfer to English.
- ESL teachers should provide learners with a great deal of input via authentic texts such as newspapers, magazines, novels and short stories so as to ensure maximum exposure to correct forms of written English, since most learners' exposure (especially those in remote areas) to English is limited to the classroom.
- Language teachers need to ensure that the learners know the English equivalents of Xhosa discourse markers in particular so as to ensure that the skills of linking ideas in a text that they have acquired in their mother tongue also works for them in their second language.
- Language teachers should use the integrated approach to language teaching by focusing on *listening, speaking, reading and viewing, thinking and reasoning, and language structure and use*, since these skills enhance good writing.
- Language teachers also have to improve their qualifications in language teaching so as to enhance their teaching skills.

5.6 Suggestions for further research

The findings of this research have implications for the role of the first language in rural and township schools in South Africa. The traditional role of teaching which authorised grammatical knowledge is a contested one. A worthwhile alternative would be the development of reading and writing skills in the first language, both as an end in itself and as a basis for a transfer of these skills to the language of learning – English. Research would establish the extent to which this alternative is compatible with current home language syllabuses in African languages and with the approved textbooks based on them and how amenable practising teachers of these languages would be to it.

The remarkable improvements in paragraphing and cohesion produced by the course designed specifically for this research suggest that this aspect of language proficiency is more responsive to intervention than, for example, correct usage, which occupies more lesson time in the normal language syllabus. If this is indeed so, it would be worthwhile to know what the general and long-term benefits of these improvements are. It may well be that improving paragraphing skills and cohesion is an efficient way to improve comprehension and general language proficiency.

Paragraphing and cohesion are only two of the skills that lend themselves to development in one language with the potential for transfer to another. Others are listed under the Learning Outcomes for reading and writing in the National Curriculum Statement for English and include such skills as skimming and scanning,

identifying main points, summarising, distinguishing between fact and opinion, analysing figurative language, analysing various kinds of literary texts and mastering various aspects of a process approach to writing. Any or all of these skills might prove suitable for research on the transfer of learning between languages.

5.7 Conclusion

The impressive amount of learning that occurred during this research was rewarding, providing proof that learners are capable of responding to greater demands than we might assume. Although it is disappointing to acknowledge at the end of a long and tiring period of research that the findings are undermined by flaws in the research method, the evidence of a transfer of learning is persuasive.

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Appendix A: Tables with learners' raw scores

Tables A1 to A24 below contain the raw data from which the data in Chapter 4 is derived.

Note: **S =Student/learner**

Before = Pre-test

TS =Topic sentence

After = Post-test

Par =Paragraph

%= percentage

Incr = Percentage increase

Table A.1: Control: Proportion of paragraphs introduced by suitable topic sentences

	Xhosa						English					
	Before			After			Before			After		
S	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%
1	2	5	40	6	6	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
2	2	5	40	6	6	100	1	5	20	4	5	80
3	3	5	60	6	6	100	2	5	40	5	5	100
4	3	5	60	6	6	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
5	1	5	20	6	6	100	1	5	20	4	5	80
6	1	5	20	6	6	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
7	3	5	60	6	6	100	0	5	0	5	5	100
8	2	5	40	6	6	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
9	1	5	20	6	6	100	0	5	0	5	5	100
10	1	5	20	6	6	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
11	0	5	0	4	6	67	1	5	20	3	5	60
12	1	5	20	4	6	67	1	5	20	5	5	100
13	1	5	20	6	6	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
14	3	5	60	6	6	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
15	1	5	20	6	6	100	2	5	40	4	5	80
16	1	5	20	6	6	100	0	5	0	5	5	100
17	0	5	0	6	6	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
18	0	5	0	6	6	100	0	5	0	5	5	100
19	0	5	0	6	6	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
20	0	5	0	6	6	100	2	5	40	5	5	100
21	1	5	20	6	6	100	0	5	0	4	5	80
22	1	5	20	4	6	67	1	5	20	5	5	100
23	0	5	0	5	6	83	1	5	20	5	5	100
24	2	5	40	6	6	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
25	1	5	20	5	6	83	1	5	20	5	5	100
26	1	5	20	5	6	83	0	5	0	5	5	100
27	3	5	60	6	6	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
28	1	5	20	6	6	100	0	5	0	4	5	80
29	0	5	0	4	6	67	1	5	20	5	5	100
30	1	5	20	6	6	100	0	5	0	4	5	80
31	1	5	20	6	6	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
32	1	5	20	6	6	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
33	1	5	20	6	6	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
T	40	165		187	198		28	165		157	165	
M	1.2	5.0	24%	5.7	6	94%	1.0	5	17%	5.0	5	95%

Table A.2: Control: Proportion of paragraphs introduced by suitable topic sentences

	Xhosa						English					
	Before			After			Before			After		
S	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%
1	6	7	86	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
2	6	7	86	4	7	57	5	6	83	5	7	71
3	6	7	86	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
4	6	7	86	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
5	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
6	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
7	7	7	100	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
8	6	7	86	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
9	6	7	86	5	7	71	6	6	100	7	7	100
10	5	7	71	5	7	71	5	6	83	7	7	100
11	4	7	57	1	7	14	3	6	50	6	7	86
12	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
13	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
14	5	7	71	5	7	71	4	6	67	7	7	100
15	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
16	6	7	86	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
17	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
18	6	7	86	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
19	6	7	86	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
20	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
21	4	7	57	6	7	86	4	6	67	7	7	100
22	4	7	57	7	7	100	4	6	67	7	7	100
23	6	7	86	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
24	6	7	86	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
25	5	7	71	7	7	100	4	6	67	7	7	100
26	3	7	43	4	7	57	3	6	50	4	7	57
27	6	7	86	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
28	4	7	57	6	7	86	3	6	50	5	7	71
29	4	7	57	3	7	43	3	6	50	5	7	71
30	6	7	86	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
31	6	7	86	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
32	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
33	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
T	174	231		207	231		162	198		221	231	
M	5.3	7	75%	6.3	7	90%	4.9	6.0	82%	6.7	7.0	96%

Table A.3: Control: Proportion of paragraphs introduced by suitable topic sentences

Xhosa							English							
	Before			After				Before			After			
S	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%	Incr	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%	Incr
1	8	12	67%	13	13	100%	33%	7	11	64%	12	12	100%	36%
2	8	12	67%	10	13	77%	10%	6	11	55%	9	12	75%	20%
3	9	12	75%	13	13	100%	25%	8	11	73%	12	12	100%	27%
4	9	12	75%	13	13	100%	25%	7	11	64%	12	12	100%	36%
5	6	12	50%	13	13	100%	50%	6	11	55%	11	12	92%	37%
6	6	12	50%	13	13	100%	50%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
7	10	12	83%	13	13	100%	17%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
8	8	12	67%	13	13	100%	33%	7	11	64%	12	12	100%	36%
9	7	12	58%	11	13	85%	26%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
10	6	12	50%	11	13	85%	35%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
11	4	12	33%	5	13	38%	5%	4	11	36%	9	12	75%	39%
12	6	12	50%	11	13	85%	35%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
13	6	12	50%	13	13	100%	50%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
14	8	12	67%	11	13	85%	18%	5	11	45%	12	12	100%	55%
15	6	12	50%	13	13	100%	50%	7	11	64%	11	12	92%	28%
16	7	12	58%	13	13	100%	42%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
17	5	12	42%	13	13	100%	58%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
18	6	12	50%	13	13	100%	50%	5	11	45%	12	12	100%	55%
19	6	12	50%	13	13	100%	50%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
20	5	12	42%	13	13	100%	58%	7	11	64%	12	12	100%	36%
21	5	12	42%	12	13	92%	51%	4	11	36%	11	12	92%	55%
22	5	12	42%	11	13	85%	43%	5	11	45%	12	12	100%	55%
23	6	12	50%	12	13	92%	42%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
24	8	12	67%	13	13	100%	33%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
25	6	12	50%	12	13	92%	42%	5	11	45%	12	12	100%	55%
26	4	12	33%	9	13	69%	36%	3	11	27%	9	12	75%	48%
27	9	12	75%	13	13	100%	25%	7	11	64%	12	12	100%	36%
28	5	12	42%	12	13	92%	51%	3	11	27%	9	12	75%	48%
29	4	12	33%	7	13	54%	21%	4	11	36%	10	12	83%	47%
30	7	12	58%	13	13	100%	42%	5	11	45%	11	12	92%	46%
31	7	12	58%	13	13	100%	42%	7	11	64%	12	12	100%	36%
32	6	12	50%	13	13	100%	50%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
33	6	12	50%	13	13	100%	50%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
Total	214	396		394	429			190	363		378	396		
Ave	6	12	54%	11.9	13	92%	38%	5.8	11	52%	11.5	12	95%	43%

Table A.4: Experimental: Proportion of paragraphs introduced by suitable topic sentences

	<u>Xhosa</u>						<u>English</u>					
	Before			After			Before			After		
S	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%
1	6	7	86	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
2	6	7	86	4	7	57	5	6	83	5	7	71
3	6	7	86	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
4	6	7	86	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
5	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
6	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
7	7	7	100	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
8	6	7	86	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
9	6	7	86	5	7	71	6	6	100	7	7	100
10	5	7	71	5	7	71	5	6	83	7	7	100
11	4	7	57	1	7	14	3	6	50	6	7	86
12	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
13	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
14	5	7	71	5	7	71	4	6	67	7	7	100
15	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
16	6	7	86	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
17	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
18	6	7	86	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
19	6	7	86	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
20	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
21	4	7	57	6	7	86	4	6	67	7	7	100
22	4	7	57	7	7	100	4	6	67	7	7	100
23	6	7	86	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
24	6	7	86	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
25	5	7	71	7	7	100	4	6	67	7	7	100
26	3	7	43	4	7	57	3	6	50	4	7	57
27	6	7	86	7	7	100	6	6	100	7	7	100
28	4	7	57	6	7	86	3	6	50	5	7	71
29	4	7	57	3	7	43	3	6	50	5	7	71
30	6	7	86	7	7	100	5	6	100	7	7	100
31	6	7	86	7	7	100	6	6	83	7	7	100
32	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
33	5	7	71	7	7	100	5	6	83	7	7	100
T	174	231	2484	207	231	2956	162	198	2696	221	231	3156
M	5	7	71	7	7	89.6	5	6	83	7	7	95.6

Table A.5: Experimental: Proportion of paragraphs introduced by suitable topic sentences

<u>Xhosa</u>						<u>English</u>						
Before					After	Before					After	
S	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%
1	3	5	60	6	7	86	1	5	20	5	5	100
2	2	5	40	5	7	71	0	5	0	5	5	100
3	2	5	40	6	7	86	2	5	40	5	5	100
4	4	5	80	5	7	71	1	5	20	5	5	100
5	2	5	40	6	7	86	0	5	0	5	5	100
6	2	5	40	5	7	71	1	5	20	5	5	100
7	4	5	80	7	7	100	2	5	40	5	5	100
8	1	5	20	7	7	100	2	5	40	5	5	100
9	0	5	0	5	7	71	1	5	20	5	5	100
10	1	5	20	5	7	71	1	5	20	5	5	100
11	0	5	0	5	7	71	1	5	20	5	5	100
12	0	5	0	4	7	57	1	5	20	5	5	100
13	1	5	20	5	7	71	1	5	20	5	5	100
14	3	5	60	7	7	100	0	5	0	4	5	80
15	1	5	20	5	7	71	1	5	20	5	5	100
16	3	5	60	5	7	71	2	5	40	5	5	100
17	0	5	0	6	7	86	0	5	0	5	5	100
18	1	5	20	5	7	71	1	5	0	5	5	100
19	1	5	20	5	7	71	1	5	20	5	5	100
20	0	5	0	5	7	71	0	5	0	5	5	100
21	0	5	0	5	7	71	0	5	0	5	5	100
22	1	5	20	6	7	86	0	5	0	4	5	80
23	1	5	20	6	7	86	1	5	20	5	5	100
24	1	5	20	7	7	100	1	5	20	5	5	100
25	1	5	20	4	7	57	1	5	20	5	5	100
26	1	5	20	4	7	57	0	5	0	3	5	60
27	1	5	20	7	7	100	0	5	0	5	5	100
28	0	5	0	7	7	100	0	5	0	5	5	100
29	0	5	0	4	7	57	1	5	20	5	5	100
30	0	5	0	5	7	71	1	5	20	5	5	100
31	2	5	40	5	7	71	1	5	20	5	5	100
32	1	5	20	5	7	71	0	5	0	5	5	100
33	1	5	20	6	7	86	1	5	20	5	5	100
T	41	165	820	180	231	2566	26	165	500	161	165	3220
M	1	5	20	5	7	77.8	1	5	20	5	5	97.58

Table A.6: Experimental: Proportion of paragraphs introduced by suitable topic sentences (final scores)

Xhosa							English							
Before				After			Before				After			
S	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%	Incr	TS	Par	%	TS	Par	%	Incr
1	9	12	75%	13	14	93%	18%	7	11	64%	12	12	100%	36%
2	8	12	67%	9	14	64%	-2%	5	11	45%	10	12	83%	38%
3	8	12	67%	13	14	93%	26%	8	11	73%	12	12	100%	27%
4	10	12	83%	12	14	86%	2%	7	11	64%	12	12	100%	36%
5	7	12	58%	13	14	93%	35%	5	11	45%	12	12	100%	55%
6	7	12	58%	12	14	86%	27%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
7	11	12	92%	14	14	100%	8%	8	11	73%	12	12	100%	27%
8	7	12	58%	14	14	100%	42%	8	11	73%	12	12	100%	27%
9	6	12	50%	10	14	71%	21%	7	11	64%	12	12	100%	36%
10	6	12	50%	10	14	71%	21%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
11	4	12	33%	6	14	43%	10%	4	11	36%	11	12	92%	55%
12	5	12	42%	11	14	79%	37%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
13	6	12	50%	12	14	86%	36%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
14	8	12	67%	12	14	86%	19%	4	11	36%	11	12	92%	55%
15	6	12	50%	12	14	86%	36%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
16	9	12	75%	12	14	86%	11%	8	11	73%	12	12	100%	27%
17	5	12	42%	13	14	93%	51%	5	11	45%	12	12	100%	55%
18	7	12	58%	12	14	86%	27%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
19	7	12	58%	12	14	86%	27%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
20	5	12	42%	12	14	86%	44%	5	11	45%	12	12	100%	55%
21	4	12	33%	11	14	79%	45%	4	11	36%	12	12	100%	64%
22	5	12	42%	13	14	93%	51%	4	11	36%	11	12	92%	55%
23	7	12	58%	13	14	93%	35%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
24	7	12	58%	14	14	100%	42%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
25	6	12	50%	11	14	79%	29%	5	11	45%	12	12	100%	55%
26	4	12	33%	8	14	57%	24%	3	11	27%	7	12	58%	31%
27	7	12	58%	14	14	100%	42%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
28	4	12	33%	13	14	93%	60%	3	11	27%	10	12	83%	56%
29	4	12	33%	7	14	50%	17%	4	11	36%	10	12	83%	47%
30	6	12	50%	12	14	86%	36%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
31	8	12	67%	12	14	86%	19%	7	11	64%	12	12	100%	36%
32	6	12	50%	12	14	86%	36%	5	11	45%	12	12	100%	55%
33	6	12	50%	13	14	93%	43%	6	11	55%	12	12	100%	45%
Total	215	396		387	462			188	363		382	396		
Ave	6.5	12	54%	11.7	14	84%	30%	5.7	11	52%	11.6	12	97%	45%

Table A.7: Control: Proportion of paragraphs with suitable support sentences

	<u>Xhosa</u>						<u>English</u>					
	Before			After			Before			After		
S	Total	Par,s	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave
1	18	7	2.6	21	7	3	11	7	1.5	16	6	2.7
2	15	7	2.1	18	7	2.5	9	7	1.2	13	6	2.2
3	18	7	2.6	21	7	3	12	7	1.7	15	6	2.5
4	13	7	1.9	18	7	2.5	12	7	1.7	16	6	2.7
5	13	7	1.9	18	7	2.5	7	7	1	15	6	2.5
6	12	7	1.7	15	7	2.1	9	7	1.2	15	6	2.5
7	13	7	1.9	18	7	2.5	12	7	1.7	17	6	2.8
8	12	7	1.7	18	7	2.5	9	7	1.2	15	6	2.5
9	13	7	1.9	18	7	2.5	9	7	1.2	15	6	2.5
10	12	7	1.7	18	7	2.5	11	7	1.5	17	6	2.8
11	9	7	1.3	15	7	2.1	14	7	2	18	6	3.0
12	12	7	1.7	15	7	2.1	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
13	13	7	1.9	17	7	2.4	9	7	1.2	15	6	2.5
14	15	7	2.1	18	7	2.5	9	7	1.2	15	6	2.5
15	12	7	1.7	18	7	2.5	9	7	1.2	16	6	2.7
16	13	7	1.9	21	7	3	12	7	1.7	15	6	2.5
17	12	7	1.7	21	7	3	12	7	1.2	15	6	2.5
18	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	12	7	1.7	16	6	2.7
19	13	7	1.9	21	7	3	9	7	1.7	17	6	2.8
20	13	7	1.9	21	7	3	9	7	1.2	16	6	2.7
21	12	7	1.7	18	7	2.5	9	7	1.2	15	6	2.5
22	9	7	1.3	17	7	2.4	9	7	1.2	15	6	2.5
23	12	7	1.7	15	7	2.1	7	7	1	13	6	2.2
24	13	7	1.9	21	7	3	9	7	1.2	18	6	3.0
25	9	7	1.3	18	7	2.5	12	7	1.7	18	6	3.0
26	9	7	1.3	15	7	2.1	12	7	1.7	18	6	3.0
27	12	7	1.7	17	7	2.4	9	7	1.2	13	6	2.2
28	9	7	1.3	18	7	2.5	9	7	1.2	16	6	2.7
29	9	7	1.3	17	7	2.4	9	7	1.2	15	6	2.5
30	13	7	1.9	21	7	3	12	7	1.7	14	6	2.3
31	12	7	1.7	15	7	2.1	13	7	1.8	15	6	2.5
32	15	7	2.1	18	7	2.5	9	7	1.2	13	6	2.2
33	13	7	1.9	18	7	2.5	9	7	1.2	15	6	2.5
T	413	231	59.0	599	231	84.2	339	231	46.6	513	198	85.5
Ave	13.0	7	1.8	18	7	2.6	10	7	1.4	15.5	6	2.6

Note: Total = Total number of support sentences used per essay

Par's = Total number of paragraphs per essay

Ave = Average

Table A.8: Control: Proportion of paragraphs with suitable support sentences

	<u>Xhosa</u>						<u>English</u>					
	Before			After			Before			After		
S	Total	Par,s	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave
1	15	7	2.1	21	7	3.0	14	6	2.3	18	7	2.6
2	12	7	1.7	15	7	2.1	9	6	1.5	13	7	1.9
3	15	7	2.1	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	18	7	2.6
4	15	7	2.1	18	7	2.6	15	6	2.5	18	7	2.6
5	12	7	1.7	18	7	2.6	13	6	2.2	18	7	2.6
6	12	7	1.7	18	7	2.6	13	6	2.2	20	7	2.9
7	15	7	2.1	21	7	3.0	13	6	2.2	18	7	2.6
8	13	7	1.9	18	7	2.6	15	6	2.5	18	7	2.6
9	9	7	1.3	15	7	2.1	15	6	2.5	18	7	2.6
10	9	7	1.3	15	7	2.1	13	6	2.2	15	7	2.1
11	9	7	1.3	13	7	1.9	9	6	1.5	13	7	1.9
12	12	7	1.7	15	7	2.1	9	6	1.5	18	7	2.6
13	12	7	1.7	18	7	2.6	11	6	1.8	18	7	2.6
14	13	7	1.9	15	7	2.1	12	6	2.0	18	7	2.6
15	12	7	1.7	16	7	2.3	9	6	1.5	16	7	2.3
16	15	7	2.1	16	7	2.3	12	6	2.0	17	7	2.4
17	13	7	1.9	15	7	2.1	15	6	2.5	18	7	2.6
18	13	7	1.9	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	18	7	2.6
19	15	7	2.1	21	7	3.0	13	6	2.2	15	7	2.1
20	13	7	1.9	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	18	7	2.6
21	9	7	1.3	13	7	1.9	15	6	2.5	19	7	2.7
22	9	7	1.3	15	7	2.1	12	6	2.0	16	7	2.3
23	12	7	1.7	21	7	3.0	13	6	2.2	17	7	2.4
24	12	7	1.7	18	7	2.6	13	6	2.2	18	7	2.6
25	9	7	1.3	17	7	2.4	9	6	1.5	19	7	2.7
26	7	7	1.0	15	7	2.1	6	6	1.0	15	7	2.1
27	12	7	1.7	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	18	7	2.6
28	13	7	1.9	15	7	2.1	9	6	1.5	18	7	2.6
29	9	7	1.3	15	7	2.1	9	6	1.5	12	7	1.7
30	11	7	1.6	15	7	2.1	13	6	2.2	15	7	2.1
31	12	7	1.7	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	17	7	2.4
32	13	7	1.9	18	7	2.6	13	6	2.2	16	7	2.3
33	12	7	1.7	17	7	2.4	12	6	2.0	18	7	2.6
T	394	231	56.3	572	231	81.7	409	198	68.2	561	231	80.1
Ave	11.9	7	1.7	17.3	7	2.5	12.4	6	2.1	17	7	2.4

Table A.9: Control: Proportion of paragraphs with suitable support sentences (final scores)

Xhosa								English							
	Before			After				Before			After				
S	SS	Par	Ave	SS	Par	Ave	Incr	SS	Par	Ave	SS	Par	Ave	Incr	
1	33	14	2.4	42	14	3.0	0.6	25	13	1.9	34	13	2.6	0.7	
2	27	14	1.9	33	14	2.4	0.4	18	13	1.4	26	13	2.0	0.6	
3	33	14	2.4	42	14	3.0	0.6	27	13	2.1	33	13	2.5	0.5	
4	28	14	2.0	36	14	2.6	0.6	27	13	2.1	34	13	2.6	0.5	
5	25	14	1.8	36	14	2.6	0.8	20	13	1.5	33	13	2.5	1.0	
6	24	14	1.7	33	14	2.4	0.6	22	13	1.7	35	13	2.7	1.0	
7	28	14	2.0	39	14	2.8	0.8	25	13	1.9	35	13	2.7	0.8	
8	25	14	1.8	36	14	2.6	0.8	24	13	1.8	33	13	2.5	0.7	
9	22	14	1.6	33	14	2.4	0.8	24	13	1.8	33	13	2.5	0.7	
10	21	14	1.5	33	14	2.4	0.9	24	13	1.8	32	13	2.5	0.6	
11	18	14	1.3	28	14	2.0	0.7	23	13	1.8	31	13	2.4	0.6	
12	24	14	1.7	30	14	2.1	0.4	24	13	1.8	36	13	2.8	0.9	
13	25	14	1.8	35	14	2.5	0.7	20	13	1.5	33	13	2.5	1.0	
14	28	14	2.0	33	14	2.4	0.4	21	13	1.6	33	13	2.5	0.9	
15	24	14	1.7	34	14	2.4	0.7	18	13	1.4	32	13	2.5	1.1	
16	28	14	2.0	37	14	2.6	0.6	24	13	1.8	32	13	2.5	0.6	
17	25	14	1.8	36	14	2.6	0.8	27	13	2.1	33	13	2.5	0.5	
18	28	14	2.0	42	14	3.0	1.0	27	13	2.1	34	13	2.6	0.5	
19	28	14	2.0	42	14	3.0	1.0	22	13	1.7	32	13	2.5	0.8	
20	26	14	1.9	42	14	3.0	1.1	24	13	1.8	34	13	2.6	0.8	
21	21	14	1.5	31	14	2.2	0.7	24	13	1.8	34	13	2.6	0.8	
22	18	14	1.3	32	14	2.3	1.0	21	13	1.6	31	13	2.4	0.8	
23	24	14	1.7	36	14	2.6	0.9	20	13	1.5	30	13	2.3	0.8	
24	25	14	1.8	39	14	2.8	1.0	22	13	1.7	36	13	2.8	1.1	
25	18	14	1.3	35	14	2.5	1.2	21	13	1.6	37	13	2.8	1.2	
26	16	14	1.1	30	14	2.1	1.0	18	13	1.4	33	13	2.5	1.2	
27	24	14	1.7	38	14	2.7	1.0	24	13	1.8	31	13	2.4	0.5	
28	22	14	1.6	33	14	2.4	0.8	18	13	1.4	34	13	2.6	1.2	
29	18	14	1.3	32	14	2.3	1.0	18	13	1.4	27	13	2.1	0.7	
30	24	14	1.7	36	14	2.6	0.9	25	13	1.9	29	13	2.2	0.3	
31	24	14	1.7	36	14	2.6	0.9	28	13	2.2	32	13	2.5	0.3	
32	28	14	2.0	36	14	2.6	0.6	22	13	1.7	29	13	2.2	0.5	
33	25	14	1.8	35	14	2.5	0.7	21	13	1.6	33	13	2.5	0.9	
Total	807	462		1171	462			748	429		1074	429			
Ave	24	14	1.7	35.5	14	2.5	0.8	22.7	13	1.7	32.5	13	2.5	0.8	

Table A.10: Experimental: Proportion of paragraphs with suitable support sentences

	<u>Xhosa</u>						<u>English</u>					
	Before			After			Before			After		
S	Total	Par,s	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave
1	13	5	2.6	21	7	3.0	12	5	2.4	15	5	3
2	9	5	1.8	21	7	3.0	5	5	1	13	5	2.6
3	12	5	2.4	21	7	3.0	12	5	2.4	15	5	3
4	6	5	1.2	21	7	3.0	12	5	2.4	15	5	3
5	13	5	2.6	21	7	3.0	12	5	2.4	15	5	3
6	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	9	5	1.8	15	5	3
7	9	5	1.8	15	7	2.1	6	5	1.2	13	5	2.6
8	6	5	1.2	15	7	2.1	6	5	1.2	13	5	2.6
9	5	5	1	12	7	1.7	9	5	1.8	14	5	2.8
10	5	5	1	9	7	1.3	12	5	2.4	13	5	2.6
11	5	5	1	9	7	1.3	5	5	1	15	5	3
12	13	5	2.6	14	7	2.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
13	12	5	2.4	13	7	1.9	5	5	1	9	5	1.8
14	13	5	2.6	15	7	2.1	9	5	1.8	12	5	2.4
15	12	5	2.4	13	7	1.9	5	5	1	9	5	1.8
16	13	5	2.6	15	7	2.1	12	5	2.4	11	5	2.2
17	5	5	1	9	7	1.3	9	5	1.8	12	5	2.4
18	5	5	1	18	7	2.6	7	5	1.4	15	5	3
19	13	5	2.6	15	7	2.1	7	5	1.4	13	5	2.6
20	5	5	1	9	7	1.3	5	5	1	12	5	2.4
21	13	5	2.6	9	7	1.3	5	5	1	13	5	2.6
22	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	6	5	1.2	15	5	3
23	5	5	1	9	7	1.3	9	5	1.8	12	5	2.4
24	9	5	1.8	12	7	1.7	9	5	1.8	13	5	2.6
25	5	5	1	12	7	1.7	7	5	1.4	15	5	3
26	9	5	1.8	9	7	1.3	12	5	2.4	12	5	2.4
27	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	7	5	1.4	9	5	1.8
28	5	5	1	9	7	1.3	5	5	1	15	5	3
29	5	5	1	9	7	1.3	11	5	2.2	12	5	2.4
30	5	5	1	7	7	1.0	12	5	2.4	14	5	2.8
31	13	5	2.6	15	7	2.1	9	5	1.8	13	5	2.6
32	13	5	2.6	14	7	2.0	6	5	1.2	12	5	2.4
33	13	5	2.6	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	11	5	2.2
Total	284	165	56.8	451	231	64.4	267	165	53.4	430	165	86
Ave	8.6	5	1.7	13.7	7	2	8.1	5	1.6	13	5	2.6

Table A.11: Experimental: Proportion of paragraphs with suitable support sentences

	<u>Xhosa</u>						<u>English</u>					
	Before			After			Before			After		
S	Total	Par,s	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave
1	13	5	2.6	18	7	2.6	9	5	1.8	15	5	3
2	9	5	1.8	12	7	1.7	6	5	1.2	13	5	2.6
3	13	5	2.6	18	7	2.6	6	5	1.2	15	5	3
4	13	5	2.6	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
5	11	5	2.2	18	7	2.6	9	5	1.8	15	5	3
6	11	5	2.2	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
7	9	5	1.8	15	7	2.1	6	5	1.2	15	5	3
8	6	5	1.2	15	7	2.1	7	5	1.4	15	5	3
9	13	5	2.6	18	7	2.6	7	5	1.4	13	5	2.6
10	13	5	2.6	18	7	2.6	7	5	1.4	13	5	2.6
11	6	5	1.2	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	12	5	2.4
12	9	5	1.8	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
13	9	5	1.8	18	7	2.6	6	5	1.2	15	5	3
14	9	5	1.8	18	7	2.6	6	5	1.2	15	5	3
15	6	5	1.2	15	7	2.1	6	5	1.2	12	5	2.4
16	12	5	2.4	18	7	2.6	5	5	1	15	5	3
17	7	5	1.4	15	7	2.1	9	5	1.8	15	5	3
18	6	5	1.2	13	7	1.9	7	5	1.4	15	5	3
19	9	5	1.8	15	7	2.1	9	5	1.8	15	5	3
20	7	5	1.4	15	7	2.1	9	5	1.8	15	5	3
21	7	5	1.4	13	7	1.9	5	5	1	12	5	2.4
22	6	5	1.2	15	7	2.1	6	5	1.2	15	5	3
23	9	5	1.8	16	7	2.3	9	5	1.8	15	5	3
24	6	5	1.2	15	7	2.1	6	5	1.2	15	5	3
25	9	5	1.8	18	7	2.6	6	5	1.2	15	5	3
26	12	5	2.4	18	7	2.6	5	5	1	13	5	2.6
27	9	5	1.8	15	7	2.1	7	5	1.4	15	5	3
28	6	5	1.2	13	7	1.9	5	5	1	12	5	2.4
29	9	5	1.8	14	7	2.0	7	5	1.4	13	5	2.6
30	7	5	1.4	13	7	1.9	7	5	1.4	12	5	2.4
31	12	5	2.4	18	7	2.6	9	5	1.8	15	5	3
32	9	5	1.8	15	7	2.1	6	5	1.2	15	5	3
33	9	5	1.8	15	7	2.1	6	5	1.2	12	5	2.4
Total	301	165	60.2	517	231	73.9	218	165	43.6	467	165	93.4
Ave	9.1	5	1.8	15.7	7.0	2.2	6.6	5	1.3	14.2	5	2.8

Table A.12: Experimental: Proportion of paragraphs with suitable support sentences (SS)

Xhosa								English							
S	Before			After				Before			After				Incr
	SS	Par	Ave	SS	Par	Ave	Incr	SS	Par	Ave	SS	Par	Ave	Incr	
1	26	10	2.6	39	14	2.8	0.2	21	10	2.1	30	10	3.0	0.9	
2	18	10	1.8	33	14	2.4	0.6	11	10	1.1	26	10	2.6	1.5	
3	25	10	2.5	39	14	2.8	0.3	18	10	1.8	30	10	3.0	1.2	
4	19	10	1.9	36	14	2.6	0.7	17	10	1.7	30	10	3.0	1.3	
5	24	10	2.4	39	14	2.8	0.4	21	10	2.1	30	10	3.0	0.9	
6	16	10	1.6	30	14	2.1	0.5	14	10	1.4	30	10	3.0	1.6	
7	18	10	1.8	30	14	2.1	0.3	12	10	1.2	28	10	2.8	1.6	
8	12	10	1.2	30	14	2.1	0.9	13	10	1.3	28	10	2.8	1.5	
9	18	10	1.8	30	14	2.1	0.3	16	10	1.6	27	10	2.7	1.1	
10	18	10	1.8	27	14	1.9	0.1	19	10	1.9	26	10	2.6	0.7	
11	11	10	1.1	24	14	1.7	0.6	10	10	1.0	27	10	2.7	1.7	
12	22	10	2.2	29	14	2.1	-0.1	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0	
13	21	10	2.1	31	14	2.2	0.1	11	10	1.1	24	10	2.4	1.3	
14	22	10	2.2	33	14	2.4	0.2	15	10	1.5	27	10	2.7	1.2	
15	18	10	1.8	28	14	2.0	0.2	11	10	1.1	21	10	2.1	1.0	
16	25	10	2.5	33	14	2.4	-0.1	17	10	1.7	26	10	2.6	0.9	
17	12	10	1.2	24	14	1.7	0.5	18	10	1.8	27	10	2.7	0.9	
18	11	10	1.1	31	14	2.2	1.1	14	10	1.4	30	10	3.0	1.6	
19	22	10	2.2	30	14	2.1	-0.1	16	10	1.6	28	10	2.8	1.2	
20	12	10	1.2	24	14	1.7	0.5	14	10	1.4	27	10	2.7	1.3	
21	20	10	2.0	22	14	1.6	-0.4	10	10	1.0	25	10	2.5	1.5	
22	11	10	1.1	30	14	2.1	1.0	12	10	1.2	30	10	3.0	1.8	
23	14	10	1.4	25	14	1.8	0.4	18	10	1.8	27	10	2.7	0.9	
24	15	10	1.5	27	14	1.9	0.4	15	10	1.5	28	10	2.8	1.3	
25	14	10	1.4	30	14	2.1	0.7	13	10	1.3	30	10	3.0	1.7	
26	21	10	2.1	27	14	1.9	-0.2	17	10	1.7	25	10	2.5	0.8	
27	14	10	1.4	30	14	2.1	0.7	14	10	1.4	24	10	2.4	1.0	
28	11	10	1.1	22	14	1.6	0.5	10	10	1.0	27	10	2.7	1.7	
29	14	10	1.4	23	14	1.6	0.2	18	10	1.8	25	10	2.5	0.7	
30	12	10	1.2	20	14	1.4	0.2	19	10	1.9	26	10	2.6	0.7	
31	25	10	2.5	33	14	2.4	-0.1	18	10	1.8	28	10	2.8	1.0	
32	22	10	2.2	29	14	2.1	-0.1	12	10	1.2	27	10	2.7	1.5	
33	22	10	2.2	30	14	2.1	-0.1	11	10	1.1	23	10	2.3	1.2	
Total	585	330		968	462			485	330		897	330			
Ave	18	10	1.8	29.3	14	2.1	0.3	14.7	10	1.5	27.2	10	2.7	1.2	

Table A.13: Control: Proportion of unified paragraphs used per essay.

(Paragraph unity; Ratings for paragraph unity using a three-point scale)

S	Xhosa						English					
	Before			After			Before			After		
	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave
1	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	18	7	2.6	18	6	3.0
2	15	7	2.1	15	7	2.1	15	7	2.1	15	6	2.5
3	17	7	2.4	21	7	3	18	7	2.6	18	6	3.0
4	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
5	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
6	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
7	17	7	2.4	21	7	3	18	7	2.6	18	6	3.0
8	17	7	2.4	21	7	3	18	7	2.6	18	6	3.0
9	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
10	12	7	1.7	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	15	6	2.5
11	9	7	1.3	21	7	3	12	7	1.7	13	6	2.2
12	12	7	1.7	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
13	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
14	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	14	6	2.3
15	12	7	1.7	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
16	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	17	7	2.4	18	6	3.0
17	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
18	17	7	2.4	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
19	17	7	2.4	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
20	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
21	9	7	1.3	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
22	9	7	1.3	21	7	3	12	7	1.7	15	6	2.5
23	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
24	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
25	12	7	1.7	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	15	6	2.5
26	9	7	1.3	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	9	6	1.5
27	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
28	12	7	1.7	21	7	3	9	7	1.3	15	6	2.5
29	9	7	1.3	21	7	3	9	7	1.3	12	6	2.0
30	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
31	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
32	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
33	15	7	2.1	21	7	3	15	7	2.1	18	6	3.0
Total	460	231	64.8	687	231	98.1	491	224	69.2	555	198	92.5
Ave	13.9	7	2.0	20.8	7	3.0	15	7	2.1	16.8	6	2.8

Table A.14: Control: Proportion of unified paragraphs used per essay

(Paragraph unity; Ratings for paragraph unity using a three-point scale)

S	Xhosa						English					
	Before			After			Before			After		
	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave
1	18	7	2.6	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
2	18	7	2.6	19	7	2.7	14	6	2.3	15	7	2.1
3	18	7	2.6	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
4	18	7	2.6	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
5	15	7	2.1	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
6	15	7	2.1	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
7	19	7	2.7	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
8	18	7	2.6	21	7	3.0	16	6	2.7	21	7	3.0
9	18	7	2.6	18	7	2.6	16	6	2.7	21	7	3.0
10	15	7	2.1	17	7	2.4	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
11	12	7	1.7	9	7	1.3	9	6	1.5	18	7	2.6
12	15	7	2.1	21	7	3.0	12	6	2.0	21	7	3.0
13	15	7	2.1	21	7	3.0	12	6	2.0	21	7	3.0
14	15	7	2.1	17	7	2.4	9	6	1.5	21	7	3.0
15	15	7	2.1	21	7	3.0	12	6	2.0	21	7	3.0
16	18	7	2.6	21	7	3.0	16	6	2.7	21	7	3.0
17	15	7	2.1	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
18	18	7	2.6	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
19	18	7	2.6	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
20	15	7	2.1	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
21	12	7	1.7	18	7	2.6	12	6	2.0	21	7	3.0
22	12	7	1.7	21	7	3.0	12	6	2.0	21	7	3.0
23	18	7	2.6	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
24	18	7	2.6	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
25	15	7	2.1	21	7	3.0	12	6	2.0	21	7	3.0
26	9	7	1.3	21	7	3.0	9	6	1.5	12	7	1.7
27	18	7	2.6	18	7	2.6	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
28	12	7	1.7	21	7	3.0	9	6	1.5	15	7	2.1
29	12	7	1.7	15	7	2.1	9	6	1.5	15	7	2.1
30	18	7	2.6	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
31	18	7	2.6	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
32	15	7	2.1	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
33	15	7	2.1	21	7	3.0	15	6	2.5	21	7	3.0
Total	520	231	74.1	656	231	93.7	449	198	74.9	663	231	94.7
Ave	15.8	7	2.2	19.9	7	2.8	13.6	6	2.3	20.1	7	2.9

Table A.15: Control: Proportion of unified paragraphs used per essay

(Paragraph unity; Ratings for paragraph unity using a three-point scale)

S	Xhosa								English							
	Before				After				Before				After			
	Tot	Par	Ave		Tot	Par	Ave	Incr	Tot	Par	Ave		Tot	Par	Ave	Incr
1	33	14	2.4		42	14	3.0	0.6	33	13	2.5		39	13	3.0	0.5
2	33	14	2.4		34	14	2.4	0.1	29	13	2.2		30	13	2.3	0.1
3	35	14	2.5		42	14	3.0	0.5	33	13	2.5		39	13	3.0	0.5
4	33	14	2.4		42	14	3.0	0.6	30	13	2.3		39	13	3.0	0.7
5	30	14	2.1		42	14	3.0	0.9	30	13	2.3		39	13	3.0	0.7
6	30	14	2.1		42	14	3.0	0.9	30	13	2.3		39	13	3.0	0.7
7	36	14	2.6		42	14	3.0	0.4	33	13	2.5		39	13	3.0	0.5
8	35	14	2.5		42	14	3.0	0.5	34	13	2.6		39	13	3.0	0.4
9	33	14	2.4		39	14	2.8	0.4	31	13	2.4		39	13	3.0	0.6
10	27	14	1.9		38	14	2.7	0.8	30	13	2.3		36	13	2.8	0.5
11	21	14	1.5		30	14	2.1	0.6	21	13	1.6		31	13	2.4	0.8
12	27	14	1.9		42	14	3.0	1.1	27	13	2.1		39	13	3.0	0.9
13	30	14	2.1		42	14	3.0	0.9	27	13	2.1		39	13	3.0	0.9
14	30	14	2.1		38	14	2.7	0.6	24	13	1.8		35	13	2.7	0.8
15	27	14	1.9		42	14	3.0	1.1	27	13	2.1		39	13	3.0	0.9
16	33	14	2.4		42	14	3.0	0.6	33	13	2.5		39	13	3.0	0.5
17	30	14	2.1		42	14	3.0	0.9	30	13	2.3		39	13	3.0	0.7
18	35	14	2.5		42	14	3.0	0.5	30	13	2.3		39	13	3.0	0.7
19	35	14	2.5		42	14	3.0	0.5	30	13	2.3		39	13	3.0	0.7
20	30	14	2.1		42	14	3.0	0.9	30	13	2.3		39	13	3.0	0.7
21	21	14	1.5		39	14	2.8	1.3	27	13	2.1		39	13	3.0	0.9
22	21	14	1.5		42	14	3.0	1.5	24	13	1.8		36	13	2.8	0.9
23	33	14	2.4		42	14	3.0	0.6	30	13	2.3		39	13	3.0	0.7
24	33	14	2.4		42	14	3.0	0.6	30	13	2.3		39	13	3.0	0.7
25	27	14	1.9		42	14	3.0	1.1	27	13	2.1		36	13	2.8	0.7
26	18	14	1.3		42	14	3.0	1.7	24	13	1.8		21	13	1.6	-0.2
27	33	14	2.4		39	14	2.8	0.4	30	13	2.3		39	13	3.0	0.7
28	24	14	1.7		42	14	3.0	1.3	18	13	1.4		30	13	2.3	0.9
29	21	14	1.5		36	14	2.6	1.1	18	13	1.4		27	13	2.1	0.7
30	33	14	2.4		42	14	3.0	0.6	30	13	2.3		39	13	3.0	0.7
31	33	14	2.4		42	14	3.0	0.6	30	13	2.3		39	13	3.0	0.7
32	30	14	2.1		42	14	3.0	0.9	30	13	2.3		39	13	3.0	0.7
33	30	14	2.1		42	14	3.0	0.9	30	13	2.3		39	13	3.0	0.7
T	980	462			1343	462			940	429			1218	429		
Ave	30	14	2.1		40.7	14	2.9	0.8	28.5	13	2.2		36.9	13	2.8	0.6

Table A.16: Experimental: Proportion of unified paragraphs used per essay

(Paragraph unity; Ratings for paragraph unity using a three-point scale)

S	Xhosa						English					
	Before			After			Before			After		
	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave
1	9	5	1.8	21	7	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
2	7	5	1.4	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
3	5	5	1	18	7	2.6	9	5	1.8	15	5	3
4	9	5	1.8	18	7	2.6	5	5	1	15	5	3
5	5	5	1	18	7	2.6	5	5	1	15	5	3
6	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
7	9	5	1.8	15	7	2.1	9	5	1.8	15	5	3
8	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	9	5	1.8	15	5	3
9	5	5	1	13	7	1.9	5	5	1	15	5	3
10	5	5	1	12	7	1.7	5	5	1	15	5	3
11	5	5	1	12	7	1.7	5	5	1	15	5	3
12	5	5	1	13	7	1.9	5	5	1	15	5	3
13	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
14	9	5	1.8	12	7	1.7	5	5	1	12	5	2.4
15	5	5	1	13	7	1.9	5	5	1	15	5	3
16	9	5	1.8	12	7	1.7	9	5	1.8	15	5	3
17	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
18	5	5	1	13	7	1.9	5	5	1	15	5	3
19	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
20	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
21	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
22	5	5	1	18	7	2.6	5	5	1	12	5	2.4
23	5	5	1	18	7	2.6	5	5	1	15	5	3
24	5	5	1	18	7	2.6	5	5	1	15	5	3
25	5	5	1	13	7	1.9	5	5	1	15	5	3
26	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	11	5	2.2
27	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
28	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
29	5	5	1	13	7	1.9	5	5	1	15	5	3
30	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
31	7	5	1.4	13	7	1.9	5	5	1	15	5	3
32	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
33	5	5	1	15	7	2.1	5	5	1	15	5	3
Total	189	165	37.8	493	231	70.4	181	165	36.2	485	165	97
AVE	5.7		1.1	14.9		2.1	5.5	5	1.1	14.7	5	2.9

Table A.17: Experimental Proportion of unified paragraphs used per essay

(Paragraph unity; Ratings for paragraph unity using a three-point scale)

	Xhosa						English					
S	Before			After			Before			After		
	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave	Total	Par's	Ave
1	9	5	1.8	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
2	9	5	1.8	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	12	5	2.4
3	12	5	2.4	18	6	3.0	9	5	1.8	15	5	3
4	12	5	2.4	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
5	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	12	5	2.4
6	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
7	12	5	2.4	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
8	9	5	1.8	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
9	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
10	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
11	5	5	1	12	6	2.0	5	5	1	9	5	1.8
12	5	5	1	12	6	2.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
13	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
14	9	5	1.8	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
15	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	9	5	1.8	12	5	2.4
16	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
17	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
18	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
19	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	9	5	1.8	15	5	3
20	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
21	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	12	5	2.4
22	5	5	1	12	6	2.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
23	5	5	1	15	6	2.5	5	5	1	15	5	3
24	9	5	1.8	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
25	5	5	1	16	6	2.7	5	5	1	15	5	3
26	5	5	1	16	6	2.7	5	5	1	15	5	3
27	9	5	1.8	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
28	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	12	5	2.4
29	5	5	1	13	6	2.2	5	5	1	15	5	3
30	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	12	5	2.4
31	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
32	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
33	5	5	1	18	6	3.0	5	5	1	15	5	3
Total	210	165	42	564	198	94.1	177	165	35.4	471	165	94.2
Ave	6.4	5	1.3	17.1	6	2.9	5.4	5	1.1	14.3	5	2.9

Table A.18: Experimental Proportion of unified paragraphs used per essay

(Paragraph unity; Ratings for paragraph unity using a three-point scale) - final scores

S	Xhosa							English						
	Before			After				Before			After			
	Tot	Par	Ave	Tot	Par	Ave	Incr	Tot	Par	Ave	Tot	Par	Ave	Incr
1	18	10	1.8	39	13	3.0	1.2	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
2	16	10	1.6	33	13	2.5	0.9	10	10	1.0	27	10	2.7	1.7
3	17	10	1.7	36	13	2.8	1.1	18	10	1.8	30	10	3.0	1.2
4	21	10	2.1	36	13	2.8	0.7	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
5	10	10	1.0	36	13	2.8	1.8	10	10	1.0	27	10	2.7	1.7
6	10	10	1.0	33	13	2.5	1.5	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
7	21	10	2.1	33	13	2.5	0.4	14	10	1.4	30	10	3.0	1.6
8	14	10	1.4	33	13	2.5	1.1	14	10	1.4	30	10	3.0	1.6
9	10	10	1.0	31	13	2.4	1.4	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
10	10	10	1.0	30	13	2.3	1.3	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
11	10	10	1.0	24	13	1.8	0.8	10	10	1.0	24	10	2.4	1.4
12	10	10	1.0	25	13	1.9	0.9	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
13	10	10	1.0	33	13	2.5	1.5	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
14	18	10	1.8	30	13	2.3	0.5	10	10	1.0	27	10	2.7	1.7
15	10	10	1.0	31	13	2.4	1.4	14	10	1.4	27	10	2.7	1.3
16	14	10	1.4	30	13	2.3	0.9	14	10	1.4	30	10	3.0	1.6
17	10	10	1.0	33	13	2.5	1.5	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
18	10	10	1.0	31	13	2.4	1.4	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
19	10	10	1.0	33	13	2.5	1.5	14	10	1.4	30	10	3.0	1.6
20	10	10	1.0	33	13	2.5	1.5	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
21	10	10	1.0	33	13	2.5	1.5	10	10	1.0	27	10	2.7	1.7
22	10	10	1.0	30	13	2.3	1.3	10	10	1.0	27	10	2.7	1.7
23	10	10	1.0	33	13	2.5	1.5	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
24	14	10	1.4	36	13	2.8	1.4	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
25	10	10	1.0	29	13	2.2	1.2	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
26	10	10	1.0	31	13	2.4	1.4	10	10	1.0	26	10	2.6	1.6
27	14	10	1.4	33	13	2.5	1.1	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
28	10	10	1.0	33	13	2.5	1.5	10	10	1.0	27	10	2.7	1.7
29	10	10	1.0	26	13	2.0	1.0	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
30	10	10	1.0	33	13	2.5	1.5	10	10	1.0	27	10	2.7	1.7
31	12	10	1.2	31	13	2.4	1.2	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
32	10	10	1.0	33	13	2.5	1.5	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
33	10	10	1.0	33	13	2.5	1.5	10	10	1.0	30	10	3.0	2.0
Total	399	330		1057	429			358	330		956	330		
Ave	12	10	1.2	32.0	13	2.5	1.3	10.8	10	1.1	29.0	10	2.9	1.8

Table A.19: Control - Number of linking words correctly used per 100 words of texts

(LW =Linking words; TW = Total words in the essay; Incr = Percentage increase)

S	Xhosa						English					
	Before			After			Before			After		
	LW	W's	%	LW	W's	%	LW	W's	%	LW	W's	%
1	22	300	7%	21	232	9%	8	296	3%	22	216	10%
2	16	263	6%	18	221	8%	4	257	2%	15	191	8%
3	21	297	7%	20	253	8%	7	300	2%	22	236	9%
4	17	266	6%	21	259	8%	6	299	2%	18	300	6%
5	16	277	6%	19	206	9%	5	281	2%	21	296	7%
6	15	207	7%	24	236	10%	6	277	2%	22	231	10%
7	19	299	6%	26	287	9%	7	300	2%	23	221	10%
8	18	269	7%	21	214	10%	7	300	2%	26	213	12%
9	19	256	7%	14	200	7%	5	297	2%	22	231	10%
10	15	207	7%	19	219	9%	7	261	3%	20	215	9%
11	11	111	10%	12	197	6%	8	186	4%	11	119	9%
12	16	211	8%	12	173	7%	8	282	3%	24	259	9%
13	15	206	7%	25	258	10%	5	300	2%	22	276	8%
14	14	197	7%	14	228	6%	4	221	2%	12	173	7%
15	15	199	8%	25	225	11%	3	237	1%	22	223	10%
16	17	279	6%	22	190	12%	4	298	1%	23	240	10%
17	16	215	7%	18	189	10%	1	288	0%	18	202	9%
18	17	218	8%	24	263	9%	2	279	1%	22	284	8%
19	18	222	8%	32	294	11%	3	292	1%	26	300	9%
20	16	209	8%	27	300	9%	4	298	1%	15	258	6%
21	15	205	7%	19	250	8%	1	226	0%	13	159	8%
22	14	168	8%	15	165	9%	3	257	1%	14	192	7%
23	17	281	6%	24	300	8%	5	295	2%	24	267	9%
24	18	223	8%	21	299	7%	4	279	1%	22	214	10%
25	15	198	8%	25	268	9%	6	232	3%	22	259	8%
26	13	156	8%	5	174	3%	5	146	3%	7	172	4%
27	19	213	9%	20	300	7%	4	300	1%	22	272	8%
28	15	288	5%	16	300	5%	3	186	2%	19	300	6%
29	14	192	7%	14	208	7%	5	137	4%	13	192	7%
30	14	189	7%	23	232	10%	3	221	1%	18	222	8%
31	20	276	7%	25	291	9%	6	296	2%	21	209	10%
32	18	218	8%	28	244	11%	4	286	1%	24	202	12%
33	17	210	8%	16	183	9%	3	266	1%	15	211	7%
Total	542	7525	242%	601	7858	279%	156	8676	61%	640	7555	281%
Ave	16	215	7.3%	21	232	8.7%	5	281	1.7%	22	222	9%

Table A.20: Control - Number of linking words correctly used per 100 words of texts

(LW =Linking words; TW = Total words in the essay; Incr = Percentage increase)

S	Before			After			Before			After		
	LW	W's	%	LW	W's	%	LW	W's	%	LW	W's	%
1	20	300	6.7%	23	259	9%	22	300	7%	26	300	9%
2	18	256	7.0%	13	119	11%	20	263	8%	17	184	9%
3	21	300	7.0%	24	250	10%	23	300	8%	25	300	8%
4	22	300	7.3%	27	297	9%	21	300	7%	19	300	6%
5	18	248	7.3%	17	242	7%	22	296	7%	22	300	7%
6	17	236	7.2%	17	189	9%	19	282	7%	21	300	7%
7	24	311	7.7%	20	265	8%	24	300	8%	24	209	11%
8	21	296	7.1%	20	192	10%	24	300	8%	20	241	8%
9	20	288	6.9%	15	162	9%	22	300	7%	25	287	9%
10	18	272	6.6%	17	196	9%	19	296	6%	17	247	7%
11	15	199	7.5%	2	70	3%	13	182	7%	15	245	6%
12	19	289	6.6%	22	211	10%	19	291	7%	21	300	7%
13	18	291	6.2%	24	246	10%	23	300	8%	21	300	7%
14	17	279	6.1%	14	194	7%	18	242	7%	21	261	8%
15	18	268	6.7%	16	192	8%	18	270	7%	20	245	8%
16	20	298	6.7%	23	236	10%	24	300	8%	18	261	7%
17	17	215	7.9%	18	184	10%	21	296	7%	22	323	7%
18	19	283	6.7%	25	265	9%	22	285	8%	25	300	8%
19	23	289	8.0%	31	352	9%	21	299	7%	20	236	8%
20	21	297	7.1%	24	259	9%	20	291	7%	23	284	8%
21	16	209	7.7%	13	198	7%	17	231	7%	10	167	6%
22	17	201	8.5%	14	240	6%	18	261	7%	10	161	6%
23	22	300	7.3%	24	323	7%	23	300	8%	24	325	7%
24	21	300	7.0%	23	321	7%	22	290	8%	25	249	10%
25	19	266	7.1%	22	234	9%	18	241	7%	23	292	8%
26	14	189	7.4%	8	129	6%	11	161	7%	3	176	2%
27	24	300	8.0%	21	320	7%	24	298	8%	25	300	8%
28	16	259	6.2%	15	283	5%	16	190	8%	9	207	4%
29	15	196	7.7%	10	141	7%	14	143	10%	12	182	7%
30	17	206	8.3%	25	221	11%	18	257	7%	10	167	6%
31	21	300	7.0%	25	256	10%	22	294	7%	22	278	8%
32	19	291	6.5%	24	218	11%	20	291	7%	17	163	10%
33	18	281	6.4%	23	221	10%	21	296	7%	18	204	9%
Total	625	8813	235.3%	639	7485	280%	659	8946	244%	630	8600	249%
Ave	19	283	7.1%	21	234	9.0%	21	291	7.4%	21	261	7.5%

Table A.21: Control-number of linking words correctly used per 100 words of texts

(LW =Linking words; TW = Total words in the essay; Incr = Percentage increase)

Xhosa							English							
Before				After			Before				After			
S	LW	TW	%	LW	TW	%	Incr	LW	TW	%	LW	TW	%	Incr
1	42	600	7%	44	491	9%	2%	30	596	5%	48	516	9%	4%
2	34	519	7%	31	340	9%	2%	24	520	5%	32	375	9%	4%
3	42	597	7%	44	503	9%	2%	30	600	5%	47	536	9%	4%
4	39	566	7%	48	556	9%	2%	27	599	5%	37	600	6%	1%
5	34	525	6%	36	448	8%	2%	27	577	5%	43	596	7%	2%
6	32	443	7%	41	425	10%	3%	25	559	4%	43	531	8%	4%
7	43	610	7%	46	552	8%	1%	31	600	5%	47	430	11%	6%
8	39	565	7%	41	406	10%	3%	31	600	5%	46	454	10%	5%
9	39	544	7%	29	362	8%	1%	27	597	5%	47	518	9%	4%
10	33	479	7%	36	415	9%	2%	26	557	5%	37	462	8%	3%
11	26	310	8%	14	267	5%	-3%	21	368	6%	26	364	7%	1%
12	35	500	7%	34	384	9%	2%	27	573	5%	45	559	8%	3%
13	33	497	7%	49	504	10%	3%	28	600	5%	43	576	7%	2%
14	31	476	7%	28	422	7%	0%	22	463	5%	33	434	8%	3%
15	33	467	7%	41	417	10%	3%	21	507	4%	42	468	9%	5%
16	37	577	6%	45	426	11%	5%	28	598	5%	41	501	8%	3%
17	33	430	8%	36	373	10%	2%	22	584	4%	40	525	8%	4%
18	36	501	7%	49	528	9%	2%	24	564	4%	47	584	8%	4%
19	41	511	8%	63	646	10%	2%	24	591	4%	46	536	9%	5%
20	37	506	7%	51	559	9%	2%	24	589	4%	38	542	7%	3%
21	31	414	7%	32	448	7%	0%	18	457	4%	23	326	7%	3%
22	31	369	8%	29	405	7%	-1%	21	518	4%	24	353	7%	3%
23	39	581	7%	48	623	8%	1%	28	595	5%	48	592	8%	3%
24	39	523	7%	44	620	7%	0%	26	569	5%	47	463	10%	5%
25	34	464	7%	47	502	9%	2%	24	473	5%	45	551	8%	3%
26	27	345	8%	13	303	4%	-4%	16	307	5%	10	348	3%	-2%
27	43	513	8%	41	620	7%	-1%	28	598	5%	47	572	8%	3%
28	31	547	6%	31	583	5%	-1%	19	376	5%	28	507	6%	1%
29	29	388	7%	24	349	7%	0%	19	280	7%	25	374	7%	0%
30	31	395	8%	48	453	11%	3%	21	478	4%	28	389	7%	3%
31	41	576	7%	50	547	9%	2%	28	590	5%	43	487	9%	4%
32	37	509	7%	52	462	11%	4%	24	577	4%	41	365	11%	7%
33	35	491	7%	39	404	10%	3%	24	562	4%	33	415	8%	4%
Total	1167	16338		1304	15343			815	17622		1270	15849		
Ave	35	495	7%	40	465	8%	1%	25	534	5%	38	480	8%	3%

Table A.22: Experimental - Number of linking words correctly used per 100 words of texts**(LW =Linking words; TW = Total words in the essay; Incr = Percentage increase)**

S	Before			After			Before			After		
	LW	TW	%	LW	TW	%	LW	TW	%	LW	TW	%
1	9	164	5.5%	18	276	6.5%	4	63	6%	17	243	7%
2	7	92	7.6%	17	211	8.1%	1	39	3%	15	168	9%
3	9	158	5.7%	20	263	7.6%	4	101	4%	18	225	8%
4	11	161	6.8%	18	269	6.7%	4	120	3%	19	178	11%
5	10	136	7.4%	18	286	6.3%	2	69	3%	19	197	10%
6	8	128	6.3%	13	174	7.5%	3	46	7%	16	189	8%
7	9	110	8.2%	22	241	9.1%	2	81	2%	22	204	11%
8	10	106	9.4%	16	239	6.7%	7	94	7%	18	193	9%
9	2	57	3.5%	18	176	10.2%	4	145	3%	15	150	10%
10	7	219	3.2%	19	217	8.8%	7	96	7%	18	183	10%
11	4	69	5.8%	9	204	4.4%	4	52	8%	2	42	5%
12	10	142	7.0%	16	202	7.9%	5	103	5%	17	253	7%
13	10	133	7.5%	19	194	9.8%	5	53	9%	20	211	9%
14	5	104	4.8%	17	222	7.7%	3	99	3%	14	195	7%
15	7	99	7.1%	18	234	7.7%	2	87	2%	14	151	9%
16	15	137	10.9%	22	254	8.7%	6	84	7%	22	222	10%
17	6	153	3.9%	17	169	10.1%	7	118	6%	21	188	11%
18	7	90	7.8%	20	247	8.1%	9	126	7%	20	214	9%
19	6	188	3.2%	21	300	7.0%	12	166	7%	20	239	8%
20	6	82	7.3%	19	215	8.8%	7	158	4%	19	177	11%
21	3	122	2.5%	18	248	7.3%	5	111	5%	19	185	10%
22	5	79	6.3%	18	242	7.4%	2	91	2%	16	238	7%
23	7	120	5.8%	22	233	9.4%	9	169	5%	23	267	9%
24	3	148	2.0%	20	271	7.4%	9	162	6%	21	242	9%
25	5	137	3.6%	22	212	10.4%	5	99	5%	21	208	10%
26	4	162	2.5%	8	141	5.7%	3	77	4%	15	190	8%
27	4	178	2.2%	18	282	6.4%	11	159	7%	23	253	9%
28	6	199	3.0%	23	296	7.8%	7	129	5%	13	194	7%
29	10	136	7.4%	15	174	8.6%	7	73	10%	21	208	10%
30	3	123	2.4%	21	270	7.8%	8	79	10%	14	172	8%
31	4	177	2.3%	22	246	8.9%	9	132	7%	17	193	9%
32	10	61	16.4%	17	184	9.2%	6	68	9%	16	169	9%
33	5	98	5.1%	20	277	7.2%	7	84	8%	20	229	9%
T	227	4268	190.5%	601	7669	261.1%	186	3333	187%	585	6570	293%
Ave	7.0	129.33	6%	18	232	8%	6	101	6%	18	199	9%

Table A.23: Experimental - Number of linking words correctly used per 100 words of texts**(LW =Linking words; TW = Total words in the essay; Incr = Percentage increase)**

S	<u>Xhosa</u>						<u>English</u>					
	<u>Before</u>			<u>After</u>			<u>Before</u>			<u>After</u>		
	LW	TW	%	LW	TW	%	LW	TW	%	LW	TW	%
1	9	150	6.0%	24	300	8.0%	3	71	4.2%	22	257	8.6%
2	4	111	3.6%	15	259	5.8%	0	44	0.0%	16	262	6.1%
3	12	199	6.0%	23	300	7.7%	6	151	4.0%	20	287	7.0%
4	8	130	6.2%	18	256	7.0%	3	245	1.2%	23	277	8.3%
5	8	149	5.4%	21	300	7.0%	1	116	0.9%	18	234	7.7%
6	3	88	3.4%	17	200	8.5%	2	51	3.9%	17	222	7.7%
7	9	127	7.1%	18	280	6.4%	3	168	1.8%	20	243	8.2%
8	5	84	6.0%	20	300	6.7%	8	134	6.0%	24	217	11.1%
9	5	128	3.9%	17	211	8.1%	4	213	1.9%	18	253	7.1%
10	5	67	7.5%	13	184	7.1%	8	155	5.2%	13	247	5.3%
11	3	56	5.4%	9	178	5.1%	2	158	1.3%	7	109	6.4%
12	10	145	6.9%	16	172	9.3%	3	107	2.8%	23	221	10.4%
13	13	114	11.4%	18	199	9.0%	8	68	11.8%	22	226	9.7%
14	11	145	7.6%	17	300	5.7%	2	106	1.9%	9	200	4.5%
15	10	209	4.8%	16	216	7.4%	2	53	3.8%	15	216	6.9%
16	12	174	6.9%	20	262	7.6%	5	120	4.2%	27	242	11.2%
17	2	69	2.9%	17	225	7.6%	1	94	1.1%	17	195	8.7%
18	7	47	14.9%	20	227	8.8%	3	129	2.3%	23	238	9.7%
19	14	141	9.9%	24	225	10.7%	5	109	4.6%	20	233	8.6%
20	5	66	7.6%	15	218	6.9%	4	59	6.8%	14	267	5.2%
21	5	78	6.4%	21	276	7.6%	1	123	0.8%	14	186	7.5%
22	13	149	8.7%	22	289	7.6%	1	73	1.4%	13	179	7.3%
23	5	99	5.1%	22	264	8.3%	2	97	2.1%	15	191	7.9%
24	7	106	6.6%	23	300	7.7%	2	122	1.6%	21	229	9.2%
25	6	87	6.9%	18	220	8.2%	2	78	2.6%	19	184	10.3%
26	4	83	4.8%	10	86	11.6%	1	96	1.0%	5	110	4.5%
27	7	110	6.4%	19	300	6.3%	3	108	2.8%	19	234	8.1%
28	4	75	5.3%	21	300	7.0%	0	121	0.0%	16	214	7.5%
29	0	57	0.0%	16	162	9.9%	6	102	5.9%	16	202	7.9%
30	3	69	4.3%	17	161	10.6%	1	66	1.5%	18	180	10.0%
31	14	119	11.8%	16	192	8.3%	7	112	6.3%	22	213	10.3%
32	13	114	11.4%	17	184	9.2%	9	69	13.0%	16	169	9.5%
33	11	102	10.8%	21	231	9.1%	2	86	2.3%	17	155	11.0%
T	247	3647		601	7777		110	3604		579	7092	
Ave	7	111	7%	18	236	8%	3	109	3%	18	215	8%

Table A.24: Experimental - Number of linking words correctly used per 100 words of texts**(LW =Linking words; TW = Total words in the essay; Incr = Percentage increase) - final scores**

	Xhosa							English								
Before				After					Before			After				
S	LW	TW	%	LW	TW	%	Incr	LW	TW	%	LW	TW	%	Incr		
1	18	314	6%	42	576	7%	1%	7	134	5%	39	500	8%	3%		
2	11	203	5%	32	470	7%	2%	1	83	1%	31	430	7%	6%		
3	21	357	6%	43	563	8%	2%	10	252	4%	38	512	7%	3%		
4	19	291	7%	36	525	7%	0%	7	365	2%	42	455	9%	7%		
5	18	285	6%	39	586	7%	1%	3	185	2%	37	431	9%	7%		
6	11	216	5%	30	374	8%	3%	5	97	5%	33	411	8%	3%		
7	18	237	8%	40	521	8%	0%	5	249	2%	42	447	9%	7%		
8	15	190	8%	36	539	7%	-1%	15	228	7%	42	410	10%	3%		
9	7	185	4%	35	387	9%	5%	8	358	2%	33	403	8%	6%		
10	12	286	4%	32	401	8%	4%	15	251	6%	31	430	7%	1%		
11	7	125	6%	18	382	5%	-1%	6	210	3%	9	151	6%	3%		
12	20	287	7%	32	374	9%	2%	8	210	4%	40	474	8%	4%		
13	23	247	9%	37	393	9%	0%	13	121	11%	42	437	10%	-1%		
14	16	249	6%	34	522	7%	1%	5	205	2%	23	395	6%	4%		
15	17	308	6%	34	450	8%	2%	4	140	3%	29	367	8%	5%		
16	27	311	9%	42	516	8%	-1%	11	204	5%	49	464	11%	6%		
17	8	222	4%	34	394	9%	5%	8	212	4%	38	383	10%	6%		
18	14	137	10%	40	474	8%	-2%	12	255	5%	43	452	10%	5%		
19	20	329	6%	45	525	9%	3%	17	275	6%	40	472	8%	2%		
20	11	148	7%	34	433	8%	1%	11	217	5%	33	444	7%	2%		
21	8	200	4%	39	524	7%	3%	6	234	3%	33	371	9%	6%		
22	18	228	8%	40	531	8%	0%	3	164	2%	29	417	7%	5%		
23	12	219	5%	44	497	9%	4%	11	266	4%	38	458	8%	4%		
24	10	254	4%	43	571	8%	4%	11	284	4%	42	471	9%	5%		
25	11	224	5%	40	432	9%	4%	7	177	4%	40	392	10%	6%		
26	8	245	3%	18	227	8%	5%	4	173	2%	20	300	7%	5%		
27	11	288	4%	37	582	6%	2%	14	267	5%	42	487	9%	4%		
28	10	274	4%	44	596	7%	3%	7	250	3%	29	408	7%	4%		
29	10	193	5%	31	336	9%	4%	13	175	7%	37	410	9%	2%		
30	6	192	3%	38	431	9%	6%	9	145	6%	32	352	9%	3%		
31	18	296	6%	38	438	9%	3%	16	244	7%	39	406	10%	3%		
32	23	175	13%	34	368	9%	-4%	15	137	11%	32	338	9%	-2%		
33	16	200	8%	41	508	8%	0%	9	170	5%	37	384	10%	5%		
Total	474	7915		1202	15446			296	6937		1164	13662				
Ave	14	240	6%	36	468	8%	2%	9	210	4%	35	414	9%	5%		

**THE HOME LANGUAGE PROJECT
WRITING PROGRAMME**

IsiXhosa

HOME LANGUAGE PROJECT

HLP

BE PROUD OF YOUR LANGUAGE

KOLISI W.Z.
0563-004-5

Icandelo A (Section A)

Connectors

(Using connectors to achieve cohesion and coherence)

1. Ezokwengeza (Additive connectors)

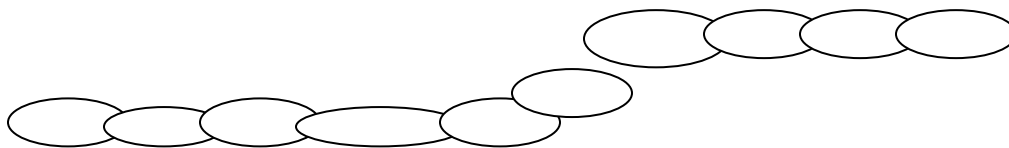
Ezi zihlanganisi zisetyenziswa ukongeza ulwazi kolo solunikiwe; zikwabonisa ukuthi ulwazi oluye lwengezwa lubaluleke ngokufanayo nolo lunikwe ngaphambili.

Imizekelo

- Kunye no... / ne... (also, and, as well as)
- Kwangaxheshanye (at the same time)
- Okukwabalulekile (equally important)
- Ngaphandle koko (besides)
- Kananjalo (likewise, too, moreover, similarly)
- Kanti ke (further, furthermore)
- Kwakhona (yet again)

(a) Umsebenzi

Gcwalisa izikhewu ngezihlanganisi ezifanelekileyo; sebenzisa ezi: kananjalo, kanti ke, ngaphandle koko.



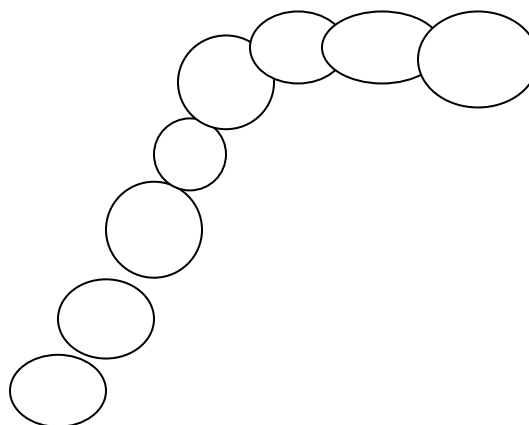
Abantu abanogawulayo kufanele balondoloze impilo yabo ngokuzikhwebula kwiziselo ezinxilisayo kunye nakuluphi na uhlobo lwesiyobisi. _____ kufuneka batye ukutya okuya egazini. _____ nokulolonga umzimba kubaluleke kakhulu ukuwugcina womelele. _____ kukwaluncedo ukuzibandakanya namaqela okuxhasana ukuzigcina bekhuthazekile, bangalahli ithemba.

2. **Ezokwandisa (Amplification connectors)**

Ezi zihlanganisi ziza nolwazi lokwandisa iingcamango ebesele zinikwe ngaphambili, ngokuthi kunikwe imizekelo engqalileyo.

Imizekelo:

- Njenge/njengo (as, such as)
- Oko kukuthi (that is)
- Umzekelo (for example, for instance)
- Enyanisweni (in fact)



(b) Umsebenzi

Funda lo mhlathana uze ukrwelele zonke izihlanganisi zokwandisa

Ukutya kunomyinge omncinane kakhulu wezondlo ezibizwa ngokuba zii “vitamini”, kodwa zibaluleke kakhulu kwimpilo entle. Umzekelo, ukuba utya ukutya okunje ngenyama, isonka, iswekile, amafutha, ungagula sisifo esibizwa ngokuba ngumtshetsha. Oko kukuthi le ngxaki ingabangelwa kukunqongophala ko “vitamini C” ofumaneka kwiziqhamo nemifuno. Enyanisweni ezi ndidi zokutya zifuneka zonke emzimbeni ukuze uphile kakuhle.

3. Ezophinda-phindo (Repetitive connectors)

Ezi zihlanganisi zazisa uphinda-phindo lwengcamango eye iphindwe ngumbhali esebenzisa amagama ahluka-hlukeneyo ukucacisa ingcamango leyo, kwanokugxininisa ukubaluleka kwayo.

Ezona ziqhelekileyo zezi:

- Kwakhona (again, to repeat)
- Ngamanye amazwi (in other words)
- Oko kukuthi (that is)

(c) Umsebenzi:

Krwelela zonke izihlanganisi zophinda-phindo

Ukuhlonipha abadala

Kubalulekile ukuba ulutsha lubahloniphe abantu abadala ukuze luphile ixesha elide. Ngamanye amazwi ngokuhlonipha abantu abadala ulutsha luya kwandiselwa imihla yokuphila ngunkulunkulu. Kwakhona, Ophezukonke uyalusikelela ulutsha olunentlonipho; oko kukuthi lufumana amathamsanqa nje ngokuhlonipha “izisele zenyathi”.

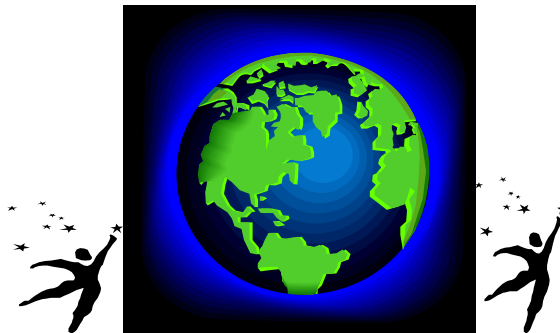
4. Ezochasaniso (Contrast and change connectors)

Ezi zihlanganisi ziveza elinye icala leballi. Zisetyenziswa emveni kokuba umbhali ekhe wanikwa inxalenye yeengcamango aze aphinde atshintshe indlela enika ulwazi oluchasa olo selunikwe ngaphambili.

Imizekelo yolu hlobo lwezihlanganisi yile ilandelayo:

- kodwa (however, nevertheless, on the other hand, but)
- nangona (though, even though)
- kwelinye icala (whereas, conversely)
- endaweni yoko (despite)
- kanti (yet)

- kusenjalo (still)



(d) Umsebenzi:

Krwelela izihlanganisi zochasaniso kwesi sicutshulwa:

Ubudlwengu

Nangona amadoda eli egwetywa qatha ziinkundla ngesenzo sobudlwengu, awabuyi ngamva kwesi senzo; endaweni yoko ziyanda iziganeko zalo mkhuba. Kanti ke abasetyhini banalo igalelo kule meko, kuba bayawutsala umdla wezi zidlwengu ngokuthi banxibe izigqebhezana eziveza amacongwane anomtsalane kwaba rheme. Kwelinye icala, oku akuthethi ukuthi esi senzo

samadoda siyaxoleleka. Kutheni amadoda la engakwazi ukuzibamba? Kodwa ndingagqibezela ngelithi, amadoda nabasetyhini mababe noxanduva lokunqanda lo mkhuba kuba uyasihlazisa isizwe sakuthi.

5. Ezentsusa neziphumo (cause and effect)

Olu hlobo lwezihlanganisi lusetyenziswa ukwazisa nokudibanisa iingcamango zentsusa nesiphumo. Ziyasetyenziswa ukunika izizathu okanye oonobangela bento, kanti ke ziyasetyenziswa nasekunikeni uluhlu lweziphumo.

Ezona ziqhelekileyo zezi:

- ngoba/ ngokuba/ kuba (because)
- ngoko ke, kungoko (therefore, thus, for this reason, so)
- ngenxa yoko (consequently/ as a result)
- ngenxa yokuba (since, due to, because of)

Umsebenzi

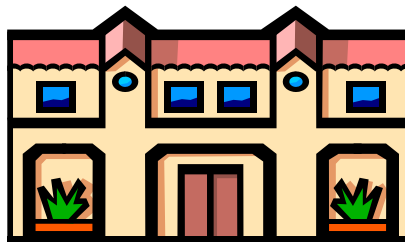
(e) 1. Fakela isihlanganisi sentsusa okanye sesiphumo:

- _____ abantwana abaninzi abafunda ezikolweni eziphucukileyo bahlala kude, kunyanzeleka bakhwele izithuthi xa besiya esikolweni.
- Ukuhamba umgama omde ngesithuthi kuziindleko, _____ kuyanyanzeleka abazali baba bantwana babhatale iimali ezinkulu.

- Abazali abanemali baya bafudusa abantwana babo kwizikolo zikawonkewonke _____ iititshala ezisebenza kwezi zikolo ziyalova.
- _____ abantwana bafunda ngolwimi lwabo lokuzalwa, abaninzi babo bayakwazi ukunceda abantwana abathetha isiNgesi ukuba bathethe ngcono isiXhosa.
- Abazali abangathathi ntweni bona abakwazi ukubasa kwizikolo eziphucukileyo ababo abantwana, _____ babafundisa kwezikawonkewonke ababo abantwana.



School bus



Private School

2. Fakela intsusa/ unobangela, isihlanganisi kwanesiphumo sesivakalisi ngasinye kwezi zingentla kule bhokisi:

Intsusa/Unobangela	Isihlanganisi	Isiphumo

3. Yakha izivakalisi ezinezihlanganisi zentsusa neziphumo ngezi zihloko zilandelayo, uze emva koko wenze ibhokisi ebonisa intsusa, isihlanganisi nesiphumo sesivakalisi ngasinye osakhileyo.

- (i) Ukunqaba komsebenzi
- (ii) Ubungozi bukagawulayo
- (iii) Ukunyamekela isikolo
- (iv) Ukudlwengulwa kweentsana
- (v) Ubugebenga eMpumakoloni

6. Ezolandelelwano (Order words)

Ezi zihlanganisi zisetyenziswa ukubonisa ukulandelelana kweziganeko, okanye ukwenza uluhlu lolwazi ngokulandelelana kwalo. Nantsi imizekelo:

- Okokuqala (first/ly)
- Okwesibini (second/ly) njalo njalo...
- Ngoku (now/presently)
- Kuqala (formerly)
- Emva koko (afterwards/ after that/ thereafter)
- Kamva (later)
- Okulandelayo (next)
- Ekugqibeleni (ultimately)
- Okokugqibela (finally)
- Kwangaxeshanye (at the same time)

(f) Krwelela izihlanganisi zolandelelwano:

Ubom besityalo

Okokuqala, imbewu iyatyalwa. Okulandelayo, iye inkcenkceshelwe. Emva koko isithombo siyadumba siqalise ukuntshula. Emveni koko kuye kukhule iingcambu; kwangaxeshanye namagqabi ayakhula. Kamva kuye kuvele iintyatyambo, kuze kuphume umgutyana. Kuthi xa kwenzeka oku, i”stigma” sifumane umgutyana ekuthiwa yipoleni. Emveni koko kuvela isiqhamo. Kuye kuthi kamva isityalo sife, size ekugqibeleni sibole.

ICANEDLO B

1. (Topic sentence)

Inyathelo lokuqala xa ubhala kukukhetha ingcamango ofuna ukubhala ngayo uze uyibhale kwisivakalisi esinye kuphela. Njengesikhokelo kuwe mbhali nakumfundi, beka ingcamango leyo kwisivakalisi sokuqala somhlathi wakho. Zonke ezinye izivakalisi kuloo mhlathi kufuneka ziphuhlise zikwaxhasa ngeendlela ezingqalileyo ingcamango enye kuphela enikwe kwisivakalisi sokuqala.

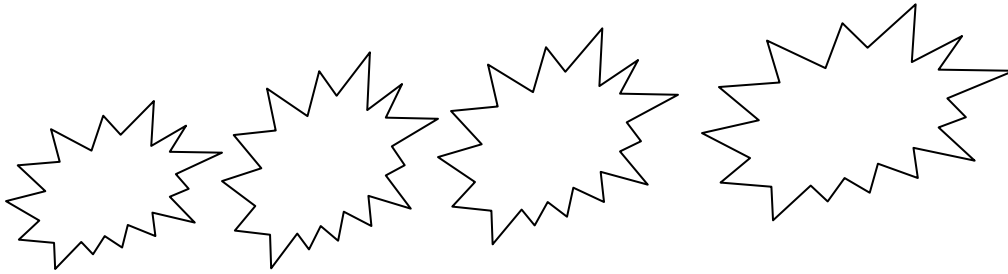
Umzekelo

UMartin Luther King wayeyeyona nkokeli enkulu eyaziwayo kwelaseMelika ngeminyaka yoo 1950 noo 1960. Wayeyinkokeli yombutho olwela amalungelo oluntu. Waakhokela imingcelele yoxolo enyevulela ukunyhashwa kwamalungelo abantu. Baninzi abantu ababexhasa lo mbutho. Ngomnyaka u 1964 wawongwa ngebhaso loxolo likaNobel.

Isivakalisi sokuqala somxholo:

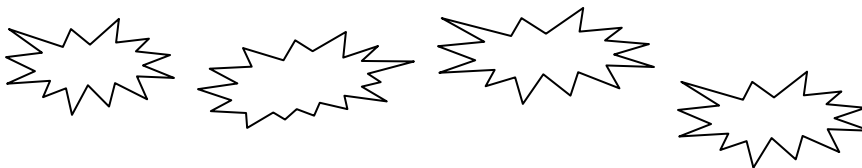
- siqulethe umxholo ophambili womhlathi;

- sisivakalisi sokuqala somhlathi;
- siyinxalenye yomhlathi;
- sisivakalisi esipheleleyo



(g) 1. Chaza ukuba ezi zihloko zidweliswe ngezantsi apha zizivakalisi eziqulethe izihloko zentetho na okanye zizihloko nje. Xhasa uluvo lwakho ngendlela ecacileyo neyanelisayo.

- (i) Imfundo
- (ii) Ugawulayo ngoyena mbulali ugqugqisayo kwezi mini apha eMzantsi Afrika.
- (iii) UBatista ngu “phumasilwe”.
- (iv) Ubugebenga
- (v) Abapolitiki badla ngokuba ngoozungul’ichele.



2. Kwezi zihloko zingentla yandisa izihloko nje uzenze izivakalisi eziqulethe izihloko zentetho.

1. **(Supporting sentences)**

Umhlathana ngamnye unengcamango ephambili edla ngokuvela kwisivakalisi esiqulethe isihloko. Ezinye izivakalisi zixhasa ingcamango ephambili ngokuthi zinike imizekelo, zongeze iinkcukacha, zinike nezizathu.

(h) 1. Sebenzisa ezi zihloko ziku (g) 1 no 2 ngentla apha ukwenza imihlathi epheleleyo ngokwengeza izivakalisi ezixhasa isihloko ngasinye.

2. Yandisa ezi zivakalisi ziqulethe izihloko zibe yimihlathi epheleleyo ngokwengeza izivakalisi ezixhasa ingcamango ephambili.

- (i) Ndiwucaphukela kakhulu umsebenzi wesikolo owenziwa ekhaya.
- (ii) Abantwana abangamantombazana babasokolisa kakhulu abazali babo, ingakumbi oomama, kule mihla.
- (iii) Ndiza kululungiselela kangangoko uhambo lwesikolo sam oluya eThekwini kwinyanga yoMsintsi kulo nyaka.
- (iv) Abazali banalo igalelo ekunxileni kwabantwana babo.

SECTION C

(PARAGRAPH PATTERNS)

Izivakalisi eziquka eziqulethe izihloko zentetho nezixhsa zona emhlathini zingacwangciswa ngeendlela ezahlukeneyo.

1. (From general to particular)

Olu hlobo lomhlathi luqala ngengcamango ephambili, okanye isivakalisi esiqulethe isihloko, luze luqhube ngokucacisa nokongeza iinkcukacha kwingcamango ephambili.

(a) Yenza isivakalisi esiqulethe isihloko ngezi zihloko zilandelayo uze udwelise izivakalisi ezixhasayo.

- | | |
|--------------------------|-------|
| 1. Ubusela | (i) |
| | (ii) |
| | (iii) |
| 2. Izilwanyana zasekhaya | (i) |
| | (ii) |
| | (iii) |
| | (iv) |
| 3. Imisebenzi yasekhaya | (i) |

(ii)

(iii)

(iv)

4. Ingqele

(i)

(ii)

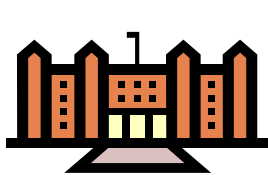
(iii)

(iv)

(b) Bhala ngokulandelelana izivakalisi ezixhasa esiqulethe ingcamango ephambili oyinikwe ngezantsi apha.

UMusa wayengasifuni tu isikolo. (topic sentence)

- i) Usapho lwakhe lwaluhlala lungonwabanga.
- ii) Wayehlala enyanzeliswa ukuba adlale kuba wayengayithandi kwamidlalo leyo.
- iii) Indawo eyayiphucukile yasedolophini awayehlala kuyo wayengathandi ukuba angakhululela kuyo.
- iv) Wafumanisa ukuba ootitshala babenemithetho eqatha kwaye babengaqheleki.
- v) Abazali bakhe babengazange bayiqonde ingxaki yakhe.
- vi) Ngaphandle koko akazange akhe buhlobo nabanye abantwana besikolo kuba wayengavani nabo.



Isikolo



Abantwana



abadlalayo



uMusa

(c) Yakha izivakalisi eziqulethe izihloko, uze wongeze ezibini okanye ezithathu oxhasa ngazo.

(i) Ukutshaya



ii. Ukungafundi

2. (From particular to general)

Olu hlobo lomhlathi luqala ngeenkukacha okanye imizekelo ize ikhokelele kwingcamango ephambili ekupheleni komhlathi.

(d) Bhala iinkukacha okanye imizekelo eya kukhokelela kwisivakalisi esiqulethe ingcamango ephambili osinikiweyo ngezantsi apha.

Makusindiswe ulutsha lwethu kwiziyobisi.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Intengiso yotywala koomabonakude noonomathotholo mayivalwe kuba inegalelo ekonakaliseni izimilo zolutsha.

(e) Funda ngocoselelo ezi nkcukacha zilandelayo uze unike isivakalisi esiqulethe ingcamango ephambili esixhaswa zezi nkcukacha.

1. Iibhanti zezihlalo zisindisa ubomi babakhweli beemoto.

2. Ukungazisebenzisi ezi bhanti kungayingozi kuba xa isiwa imoto okanye ingquzulana nenye, iyamtyekeza umntu ongazibophanga.

Isivakalisi esinengcamango ephambili)



3. (Question to answer, effect to cause)

Lo mhlathi uqala ngombuzo oye uphendulwe zizivakalisi ezixhasayo; kungenjalo uyakwazi lo mhlathi ukuqala ngentsusa okanye isiphumo, ukuze izivakalisi ezixhasayo zicacise oonobangela okanye izizathu zikanobangela.

3.1 QUESTION TO ANSWER

(f) Nika izivakalisi eziyimpendulo kulo mbuzo ulandelayo:

Umntu angazikhusela njani ukuze angasulelwa nguGawulayo?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5.

3.2 EFFECT TO CAUSE

(g) Funda esi sicutshulwa silandelayo uze uqaphele isivakalisi esiqulethe isiphumo. Sibhale kwakho esi sicutshulwa, uqale ngesi sivakalisi, uze ulandelize ngeziqulethe oonobangela.

Intlekele

Iingcali zoogqirha kwisibhedlele iSt Marks ziye zafumanisa ukuba le ngxaki ibangelwe kukutya okungcoliswe ngamayeza athile okubulala izinambuzane. La mayeza ebesisiwa kwifama engaphaya kwesikolo. Ebelayishwe kwakweso sigadla besithwele ukutya kwesikolo eso. Isifo sotyatyzazo esimandlakazi sihlasele abafundi besikolo semfundo ephakamileyo iZonkizizwe kule veki iphelayo. Kucaca ukuba imigqomo ebiqulethe la mayeza ibingavalekanga kakuhle, amayeza

ekratyaka. Ngelishwa ukutya, ingakumbi imifuno, bekungagqunywanga ngokukhuselekileyo, kwaza kwachaphazeleka ngolo hlobo.

(h) (1) Yakha umbuzo ngeli gama lilandelayo, uze ulandelize ngezivakalisi eziyimpendulo kuwo.

Isohlwayo

2. Yakha ibali elifutshane eliqala ngesiphumo uze ulandelize ngoonobangela besiphumo eso, usebenzisa kwa esi sihlokwana “Isohlwayo”.

SECTION D:

(PARAGRAPH DEVELOPMENT)

1. (EXPOSITION)

Kolu hlobo lomhlathi umbhali unika ulwazi ngomxholo othile aze awucacise ngokuthi anike imizekelo, iinkcukacha ngokwenziwa kwento ethile, ukuhlalutya oonobangela neziphumo zokuthile, ukunxulumanisa nokuchasanisa, ukuchaza okanye ukucacisa igama kungenjalo isihloko esithile, nokwahlula-hlula ulwazi ngokwahlukana kwalo, okanye iimpawu zokuthile ngokwahlukana kwazo.

A. (EXAMPLES PARAGRAPHS)

1.1 Nika imizekelo engqalileyo exhasa isivakalisi esiqulethe isihloko:

Umhlobo wam uAbongwe akathembakanga tu. _____

1.2 Gqibezela lo mhlathi ulandelayo ngokunika iinkcukacha eziphuhlisa imizekelo exhasa ingcamango ephambili.

Umntu ocingela yena yedwa

Umntakwethu omdala uXhanti ungumntu ocingela esakhe isiqu kuphela. Okokuqala, akafuni sakhe indlu esemgangathweni esinokuhlala kuyo sonke apha ekhaya. Abazali bethu basishiya nelifa lemali eninzi ukusweleka kwabo ngengozi yemoto. Ngoku sihlala koongquphantsi abathathu ababakhiwe ngabazali abo. UXhanti uthi kukho izinto ezibaluleke ngaphezu kokwakha ezinokwenziwa ngemali. _____

Ngaphandle koko, uXhanti lo uchitha imali eninzi ethenga izinto ezizezakhe yedwa, nezithandwa
nguye kuphela. _____

Enye into, xa sithe saya sonke edolophini, ubhuti wethu lo ufuna siye kwiivenkile ezithandwa
nguye kuphela. _____

Okokugqibela, uXhanti lo uwuyekela kum ndodwa umsebenzi wokunonelela abantakwethu
abancinci. _____

UKULUNGISELELA UKUBHALA

Kwiphepha elisecaleni, bhala iimpendulo zale mibuzo ilandelayo

- Zeziphi kanye ezi zinto uXhanti azithengela zona ezingezizo ezinokusetyenziswa lusapho lonke?
- Kha uxele amagama ezi venkile zithandwa nguXhanti yedwa. Uzithanda ngokuba zitheni? Kutheni nina ningazithandi nje?
- Ziziphi ezi zinto uXhanti angazenziyo zokunonelela abantakwenu abefanele ukuncedisana nawe kuzo?

ZIBUZE LE MIBUZO ILANDELAYO

- Ingaba imizekelo endiyinikileyo iyixhasa ngokwenene ingcamango yokuba uXhanti ucingela yena yedwa?
- Ingaba imizekelo endiyinikileyo yanele ngemeko ka Xhanti ukuze nabantu babe bangavumelana nam?
- Ingaba zonke izivakalisi zam zibhalwe ngobuchule, azinazo iimpazamo ezifana nopelo olungelulo nezinye?



B. (CAUSE-AND-EFFECT PARAGRAPHS)

Ukuze ukwazi ukubhala olu hlobo lomhlathi ngokuvokothekileyo, kufuneka ukwazi ukuchaza iziphumo ngokucacileyo kunye noonobangela abakhokelele kwiziphumo ezo. Ukanti ke kufuneka unike iinkcukacha ezixhasa oonobangela kwaneziphumo.

1.3 Yenza ezi zivakalisi zilandelayo zibe yimihlathi yoonobangela

neziphumo:

(i) Ziliqela izizathu ezibangela ukuba abanye abafundi bebanga lesithandathu

nelesixhenxe bangakwazi ukufunda okubhaliweyo. (topic sentence)

1. abazali (unobangela)
2. isikolo (unobangela)
3. abafundi ngokwabo (unobangela)

akakwazi ukufunda



(ii) Ukuhamba isikolo kuyitshintshe ngeendlela ezininzi ezithandekayo impilo yam.

1. ukuqiniseka ngesiqu sam (isiphumo)
2. ulwazi oluthe chatha (isiphumo)
3. ukukwazi ukuzikhangelela ulwazi (isiphumo)



(iii) Ukutshomana nabantu abangafundiyo kwenza nzima ukuhamba isikolo.

1. ukungalali kwangethuba (unobangela)
2. ukongezeka kwezihendo zokungayi esikolweni (unobangela)
3. ukuphazamiseka kokufunda (unobangela)



Ulonwabo

C. (COMPARISON OR CONTRAST PARAGRAPH)

Xa ebhala umhlathi ololu hlobo umbhali sukuba echaza ukufana kweempawu zezinto ezimbini, okanye umahluko phakathi kwezinto ezimbini okanye iziganeko ezibini.

1.4 Funda eli bali lilandelayo uze uphendule imibuzo elandelayo

Isithandwa sam esitsha uLunga asizange sibe yiyo konke konke into endandiyilindele nendandiyifuna. Ndandicinga ndidibene nenene elithobileyo, elinentlonipho, elingekho gadalala nelimhloniphileyo umntu olibhinqa. Ndandilindele uchulukunyathela wento eyayizakunditefisa,

indisa kwiindawo zolonwabo, indithengela ooni nooni, kanti andibhungisanga. Ndothuke kakhulu xa ndifumanisa ukuba le ndodana uLunga yindlavini ephum'izandla, noxa ingadumanga. Ndiye ndafumanisa ukuba le ndodana ithetha kube kanye ilahle ngempama xa into oyithethayo ingayithandi, kwaye into ephuma emlonyeni kuyo ikrwempa kanobom! Ilikhupha litsole elithi ayisokuze ive ngomntu obhinqileyo yona kuba iyindoda, nandoda eyomGcaleka. Eyokundisa kwiindawo zolonwabo yona asokuze yenzeke kuba kulapho ndingasuka ndibone ababhetele kunaye. ULunga lo uyaligxininisa elithi yena akanayo imali yokuthenga oonobenani; uxakeke gqitha ngemali yakhe. Ubuye andibuze ukuba isithandwa sam esidala besiphumelela na ukwenza zonke ezi zinto zibhanxekileyo. Inene iliwa libhek'umoya kum!

(i) (One side at a time) *Isithandwa esitsha asizange sibe yiyo konke konke into endandiyilindele nendandiyifuna* (Topic sentence).

Dwelisa amanqaku asetyenziswe kweli bali lingentla apha ngokufutshane kwindawo efanelekileyo.

A. Okwakulindelekile (Expectations)

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

B. Eyona nyaniso (Reality)

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

(ii) (Point by Point)

Bhala omnye umhlathi obonisa umahluko phakathi kukaLunga nesithandwa sakho esidala (sibize ngegama).

(Topic Sentence): Isithandwa sam esitsha uLunga sahluka ngeendlela ezininzi kuMafu, isithandwa sam sakuqala.

(iii) Dwelisa amaqaku owasebenzisileyo ukuchaza umahluko phakathi kwaba babini.

Isithandwa sam esitsha uLunga sahluka ngeendlela ezininzi kuMafu, isithandwa sam sakuqala.

(Topic sentence)

A. Isimo jikelele

- 1.
- 2.

B. Impatho kumabhinqa

- 1.

2.

C. Ukupha

1.

2.

Essay titles:

Expository & cause and effect

Umsebenzi wesikolo owenziwa ekhaya

Ubuthathaka bomanyano lweentsapho kule mihla

Izinto ezenziwa ngabantwana besikolo ezihlupha ootitshal.

Abaqhubi abangenankathalo bangunobangela weengozi ezininzi zeendlela eMzantsi Afrika

Why some learners become dropouts

Juvenile delinquency: causes and effects

Why I hate homework

What I do every Saturday and Sunday

Argumentation

Ingaba kuyilahleko ukufundisa intombazana?

Ingaba abanye abazali banegalelo ekunxileli kwabantwana babo?

Sinako ukunqanda ukosulelwa ngugawulayo

Ingaba abantwana baya bahlupha abazali babo?

Should children under age not watch some television programmes?

Should take-home task be given?

Do South African political leaders lead by example?

Do teenagers irritate their parents?