

**Addis Ababa University
The Research and Graduate Program Office
Department of Foreign Languages and Literature**

**The Effect of Communicative Grammar on
the Grammatical Accuracy of Students' Academic
Writing: An Integrated Approach to TEFL**

By

Haregewain Abate

February, 2008

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**A Thesis Submitted to the Research and Graduate Program
Office, Addis Ababa University, for the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy (PhD) in Teaching English as a Foreign Language
(TEFL)**

**Department of Foreign Languages and Literature
Institute of Language Studies**

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February, 2008

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Abstract

This study was an attempt to investigate the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students' academic writing at Grade 11 preparatory secondary schools in Addis Ababa. More specifically, the study addressed the following research questions: (1) what is the effect of communicative grammar on grammar accuracy of students' writing? (2) What major problems related to teaching communicative grammar in the context of writing did Grade Eleven teachers face during the experiment? (3) What major problems related to learning communicative grammar in the context of writing did Grade eleven students' face in the experiment?

This research project was mainly experimental in design. The purpose of the experiment was to find out the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students' academic writing. Pre-test and post-test measures were analyzed using a t-test statistical procedure. In addition, questionnaire, interviews with both students and teachers, and classroom observations were employed in order to obtain data required for the study. The data gathered through different instruments were subjected to both quantitative and qualitative analysis.

The study involved three preparatory secondary schools in Addis Ababa: Yekatit 12 Secondary School (for the pilot study), Menilik Secondary School and Addis Ketema Secondary School (for the main study). In each school, one control and one experimental groups were selected. The main subjects of the study were four sections of Grade 11 preparatory students from the two secondary schools. As many as one hundred and five students from the experimental groups took part in filling in the questionnaire. Moreover, 20 students, 10 from each secondary school were randomly selected for interview. The two teachers involved in this research project were also interviewed in order to gather the necessary data for this study.

Teaching material which mainly consisted of communicative grammar in the context of writing activities was prepared and used during the experiment. Grade 11 English textbooks and international ELT resource books were the main sources of the grammar items and writing tasks used in the preparation of the teaching material. The grammar exercises appended to the Grade 11 English textbook were used with the control groups.

The effect of communicative grammar on students' grammatical accuracy in their writing was examined through the pre-test and the post-test. The results of the pre-test showed that there was no significant difference in the grammar accuracy of the students' writing between the control and experimental groups prior to the experiment. The results of the post-test in all cases showed that there was a significant difference between the control and experimental groups in grammar accuracy in students' writing abilities ($P < 0.05$).

Questionnaire for students was distributed at the end of the experiment. The data obtained from the students' questionnaire also indicated that students in the experimental group had a positive attitude towards communicative grammar in the context of writing. The students stated that the activities helped them to improve their grammar accuracy in their writing abilities. The results of the student and teacher interviews and classroom observations further substantiated this finding.

On the basis of the findings of the study, it was concluded that communicative grammar in the context of writing could have a great value in improving students' grammatical accuracy in their writing. Based on this, conclusions and recommendations were made. Some implications have also been drawn from this study.

DEDICATION

In memory of My Beloved Mother Woizero Zewditu
Taddesse

Acknowledgments

I would like to extend my gratitude to my supervisors Professor A. Subba Rao and Dr. Italo Beriso for the invaluable guidance and constructive comments they gave me throughout this research project. I should also express my appreciation to Dr. Berhanu Bogale, the Chairman of the DFLL, who gave me all the encouragement I needed to complete my research.

I am also greatly indebted to Dr. Tamene Kitila, Dr Nuru Mohammed, Dr. Semie Kebede, Dr Geremew Lemu, Dr Mekasha Kassaye, Dr Girma Gezahegn, Dr. Dejenie Letta and Dr Awol Endris for their professional support and encouragement from the very start of the study. I would also like to thank Ms Olga Yazbec for her advice and encouragement.

I am also grateful to Yekatit 12 Preparatory School students who participated in the pilot study. I would also like to thank teachers and students at Menilik and Addis Ketema preparatory Secondary Schools who took part in the main study.

I am also indebted to the authorities of Addis Ababa University for funding this research project.

Finally, my gratitude also goes to my husband, Ato Gebre Egziabher Haile, my brother Ato Sisay Abate and my children Yonas, Yohannes, Henok, Daniel, and Bezawit for their encouragement throughout the study.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Recent developments in English language teaching have raised new issues and ideas concerning the relationship between grammar and academic writing. For instance, the need for English language teachers to identify parts of the writing processes that could be enhanced by grammar instruction has been duly recognized. Furthermore, there are certain aspects of grammar that teachers are supposed to know in order to teach writing effectively. As a whole, teachers are expected to take into consideration the role that grammar plays in the context of writing.

Many language educators have recognized the strong relationship between communicative grammar and writing skills (Zhang, 1994; Weaver, 1997; Chin, 2000; Hudson, 2001; Allen, 2003; Devet, 2002; Muncie, 2002). They argue that the integration of grammar and writing instruction gives students a meaningful basis for understanding and acquiring new language structures and patterns. It also provides a purposeful and motivating context for learning the rules of grammar in the context of writing. This means that integrating grammar with writing instruction is one helpful means of presenting and practising language forms and functions. This Chapter presents statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study, scope of the study, organization of the thesis, and definition of key terms and abbreviations.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Applied linguists and language teachers are well aware of the need of integrating grammar and writing skills. It is evident that writing involves important features like content, grammar and organization. In fact, one of the biggest problems in teaching writing is that students are unable to express their ideas in grammatically correct sentences. Indeed, grammar is one of the important tools for writing. Concerning this, Muncie, (2002:183) states, “Grammar is just as important an instrument of communication as content, and a text cannot be written cohesively without attention being paid to how meaning is being expressed through grammar.”

In the same view, Allen (2003) argues that grammar is a tool for communicating more effectively and it is fundamental to language learning as a means to an end. He further calls

grammar ‘the writer’s toolkit’. In addition, grammar must be treated as a means to an end, not an end in itself. In this regard, Nachiengmai (1997:3) writes, “The main goal in grammar teaching is to enable learners to achieve linguistic competence and be able to use grammar as a tool or resource in the comprehension and creation of oral and written discourse efficiently, effectively and appropriately according to the situation.” Grammar is also a process of choosing forms and constructing language in response to communicative demands. It essentially involves students’ creative response to context and situations. This is the essence of communicative grammar which is the major concern of the present study (See Chapter 3, Section 3.2.2.5 for more details).

Likewise, Hudson (2001) emphasizes that grammar should always be a means through which students learn more about their writing. Grammar is also very helpful if English language teachers focus on grammatical items that are critically needed for writing and students could be taught these grammar items through grammar lessons. In other words, teachers have to be clear about the grammar items that are most useful for students’ writing. This shows that teachers can help students use the grammatical items they have learnt to develop their writing skills. It should also be noted that the main focus of writing instruction should be on the overall writing processes. Besides, recent research into teaching writing shows that students’ achievement is higher when the teaching approach emphasizes writing as a process. In this respect, teachers could encourage students to use grammar in these overall writing processes.

The present researcher’s experience in teaching writing courses at Addis Ababa University has revealed that grammatical inaccuracy is mostly a recurring problem in students’ writing. This means grammatical errors are among the major obstacles to students’ success in writing classes and in their future career. With so much formal grammar instruction for about ten years or so before students start a tertiary level of education, one would expect to find reasonable accuracy in students’ writings. Unfortunately, results of studies carried out on the Addis Ababa University students’ writing abilities show that many students fail to meet the standards of grammatical accuracy required of them by their instructors (¹Mamo Kefele, 1981; Yonas Adaye, 1996; Geremew Lemu, 1999; Italo Beriso, 1999). More recently, Mesfin Abera (2004:1) states, “Most secondary school teachers in our country, however, are often heard complaining that most students are incapable of producing reasonably efficient written work.” Besides, this problem affects the stakeholders and the public at large. For instance,

¹ As you will read it in the bibliography and in the body itself, Ethiopian names, unlike foreign names, are not written using surnames.

Dereje Tadesse (2001:2) states, “As the English language grammar command of learners has ever been deteriorating, schools, colleges, universities and training institutions are increasingly under criticisms from the public and stakeholders.”

Indeed, most students in Ethiopia have a very limited access to the English language. That is to say, there is little opportunity for students to learn an acceptable form of English outside the classroom. The only place where they can use English is when they learn the language in their classes. On top of that even though communicative language teaching was introduced in Ethiopia about 20 years ago and the new ELT course books have been implemented in primary and secondary schools since 1997, no substantial change has been noticed in the writing of students as far as grammatical accuracy is concerned (Dereje Tadesse, 2001; Dawit Assefa, 2003; Mesfin Abera, 2004).

By and large, although the recent Education and Training Policy of Ethiopia claims to be communicatively oriented, most teachers in Ethiopian secondary schools still seem to use the teacher-centred approach (Sisay Assefie, 1999; Berhanu G/Micheal, 2000). Berhanu Haile (1999:83) shares the same view by saying, “The methodology which most teachers use was the already rejected traditional type.” Similarly, a more recent study (Girma Gezahegn, 2005) has strongly concluded “Class time was dominated by teacher-fronted mode of teaching, while pair and group work activities were never used in most of the classes observed. Therefore, the students were not given the opportunity to interact among and between themselves.” Besides, in her report, Denne-Bolton (2001:2) has clearly pointed out, “Though the theory of communicative language teaching is well known in Ethiopia, and used successfully by some teachers, it is often not applied by others due to uncertainty of techniques, time constraints, and lack of confidence.” Therefore, she strongly recommended on-going professional development for Ethiopian English language teachers especially teachers who are working outside Addis Ababa.

Moreover, it is unfortunate that preparatory students in Ethiopian high schools do not get the opportunity to learn basic grammatical structures in Grades Eleven and Twelve. This can be clearly seen from the introduction given in the Grade Eleven, Teachers’ Book, English for Ethiopia, which states, “It should be noted that there is no grammar section. The most important grammatical structures have been taught and should have been mastered by the students by the end of Grade Ten” (English for Ethiopia, Teachers’ Book Grade 11p. 26). In fact, these statements reveal contradiction with the situations we are in. That is, many

secondary and university students have a great problem in writing grammatically accurate sentences in their composition. This indicates that preparatory students do not have the basic grammatical knowledge that enables them to write accurate sentences in connected writing (Mesfin Aberra, 2004; Alamirew G/Mariam, 2005). Actually, there are few revision grammar exercises included in the Grade 11 Textbook, but they are not contextualized.

Experience shows that writing, as a basic skill, is not adequately taught in Ethiopian high schools and the grammar items found in the textbooks are not as such contextualized. Even though there are writing activities in the English textbooks of Grade 11, teachers do not encourage students to write (Mesfin Aberra, 2004). Despite the importance of writing skills in students' life in and after school, little attention has been given to such skills. For instance, Italo Beriso (1999:9) states, "There seems to be a general tendency amongst language teachers (in Ethiopia) to relegate writing to homework or avoid it altogether." Similarly, Alamirew G/Mariam (2005: ii) reports, "Writing is not effectively taught in the high schools. The teachers do not teach writing properly, that is, they do not give attention to the teaching of writing. The recently introduced plasma television is not either effectively teaching writing"

It has also been observed that English language teachers in Ethiopian high schools often ignore the existing writing activities in the current ELT textbooks. This might be because teachers are bored of correcting all students' papers in large class situations. In relation to this, Italo Beriso (1999:13) further confirms, 'Writing teachers (in Ethiopia) at large tend to avoid giving written assignments to their students for fear of the amount of work and time involved in correcting students' writing because of the large number of students in a class.'

As noted earlier, preparatory students who join Addis Ababa University are observed to have very serious problems of English grammar particularly in their writing. It is common knowledge that most English language instructors complain that the majority of preparatory students, who should have mastered the most basic grammar rules, cannot even write a simple sentence correctly. As a matter of fact, the language deficiency of these students has also become the concern of instructors of other subjects in Addis Ababa University.

This observation has actually led me to research into the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students' academic writing. In fact, having taken such a major problem into consideration, the Department of Foreign Languages and Literature (DFLL) at

Addis Ababa University revised the curriculum and recommended one grammar course called “Grammar in Use” (not essentially in the context of writing) for all students of the Department of Foreign Languages and Literature (DFLL) at Addis Ababa University.

Thus, the author of this thesis feels that Ethiopian students still have serious problems that need further consideration of English grammar especially in relation to their writing. Therefore, in response to this problem observed in secondary schools and in my work place (i.e. Addis Ababa University), an attempt has been made to investigate the extent to which communicative grammar activities enhance students’ grammatical accuracy in their writing English. In fact, fluency in writing is valuable as it encourages students to write as much as possible without worrying about making mistakes. In this study, however, attention has mostly been given to students’ grammatical accuracy. This is because as students go up the academic ladder, accuracy would be very important. Besides, if teachers do not insist on accuracy in writing, many college and university students submit a careless piece of written work which results in the development of bad habits of writing that might become difficult to change later in life after school. In this regard, Nachiengmai (1997:3) confirms, “Formal accuracy is an important concern if teachers focus on productive skills (speaking and writing)”.

So far no research has been conducted on the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students’ academic writing in Ethiopia. In fact, some research studies related to the teaching of writing in Ethiopia (Mamo Kefele, 1981; Tesfaye Abebe, 1991; Yonas Adaye, 1996; Geremew Lemu, 1999; Italo Beriso, 1999; Dawit Assefa, 2003; Mesfin Abera, 2004; Alamirew G/Mariam, 2005) have already been conducted. For instance, Geremew Lemu (1999) investigated the academic writing requirements in four selected departments of Addis Ababa University. His findings suggest that there should be a writing course for academic purposes for Addis Ababa University students that consists of two main components: Writing for General Academic Purposes and Writing for Specific Academic Purposes. Italo Beriso (1999) conducted a study on the effectiveness of different feedback methods on revisions of students’ writing. His findings suggest that teacher and peer feedback are equally effective in responding to students’ writing.

Dawit Assefa (2003) carried out a study on the effect of training students’ in giving and receiving peer feedback on their revision types and writing quality. He found that if students

get proper training and continuous guidance in the practice and in the use of peer feedback or revision, they might be reliable reviewers of each other's drafts of their written compositions. Similarly, Mesfin Aberra (2004) found that both peer correction and self-correction were equally important in improving students' essay writing. Alamirew G/Mariam (2005) also conducted a study on the beliefs, efficacy and attitude of both teachers and students in the teaching and learning of writing skills and on how writing is taught. He found out that both teachers and students have average efficacy, and the students' performance in writing is also average. None of these studies has investigated whether or not communicative grammar activities could help enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities, because it was not their major concern. The present study is an attempt to fill this gap.

In this study, therefore, an attempt has been made to investigate whether or not communicative grammar activities enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities. Thus, the following null and alternative hypotheses have been formulated:

H₀ There is no significant difference in the grammatical accuracy in students' written work between the control group (students taught through grammar exercises of the Grade Eleven textbook not in the context of writing) and the experimental group (students taught through communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing prepared for the study).

H₁ There is significant difference in the grammatical accuracy in students' written work between the control group (students taught through grammar exercises of the Grade Eleven textbook not in the context of writing) and the experimental group (students taught through communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing prepared for the study).

1.2 Objectives of the Study

There has been a growing interest in grammar as an essential aspect of written communication and that students should be taught to view grammar as an important aid to shape effective and appropriate written messages. As has been stated by many applied linguists (Leech and Svartvik, 1994; Chin, 2000; Cotton, 2001; Cook, 2001), grammar is one important aspect in teaching writing skills. Indeed, English language teachers strive to integrate grammar

instruction into writing lessons as a method to reinforce grammar items that students are taught in grammar lessons. This is the direction in which language teaching experts have been moving in recent years. Therefore, the main objective of this study is to investigate whether or not communicative grammar activities could help enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities. More specifically, this study seeks to address the following basic questions:

1. What is the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students' academic writing?
2. What major problems related to teaching communicative grammar in the context of writing did Grade Eleven teachers in this study face during the experiment?
3. What major problems related to learning communicative grammar in the context of writing did Grade eleven students' in this study face in the experiment?

1.3 Significance of the Study

Many language educators advocate the integration of major language skills. In the teaching-learning process, one language skill can be used to support another. A case in point is the strong relationship that exists between grammar and writing. Applied linguists (Leech and Svartvik, 1994; Weaver, 1996; Chin, 2000) have dealt with the strong relationship between grammar and writing. In this regard, Hudson (2001:4) explains, "There is now much more enthusiasm in some educational circles for the idea that conscious grammar (resulting from formal teaching) could have the useful benefit of improving writing." Actually, there has also been a growing interest in communicative grammar activities as an important part of language learning syllabus in some countries. However, no research has been conducted in this area in foreign/second language context in Ethiopia or elsewhere.

To this effect, it was assumed that this study might generate some pedagogically useful information about the teaching of communicative grammar in relation to writing skills in English. The information gained from this study could be of great help for syllabus designers, material writers and English language teachers and students in Ethiopia. The results of this study may also draw the attention of syllabus designers and material writers to the importance of incorporating communicative grammar tasks in writing instruction that could enable students to improve their writing skills. In addition, as more research needs to be conducted especially in the area of communicative grammar in the context of writing, the results of this

study could provide a useful base for further future research in this area in the Ethiopian context.

1.4 Scope of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether or not communicative grammar activities enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities. To achieve this aim, out of the ten preparatory government secondary schools in Addis Ababa in 2005/2006 academic year, two preparatory secondary schools were randomly selected for the main study. The subjects of this study were Grade 11 students and English teachers from preparatory senior secondary schools of the second cycle. The samples from the regular Grade 11 secondary school students were selected for the following reasons:

1. From my observation while teaching writing courses at AAU, I have learned that the majority of preparatory students who come from the government schools are incompetent to write grammatically accurate sentences compared to those who come from the private secondary schools. Therefore, the focus of the study is on 11th grade government preparatory secondary schools.
2. According to the New Education and Training Policy, the second cycle of preparatory senior secondary school students are supposed to have covered the freshman English courses that used to be offered in the first year. Thus, these students are expected to perform well in English when they join their fields of study in universities and colleges. So, this grade, as a transitional stage between school and collegiate levels, is considered the right choice of sample for the present study, and thus preparatory senior secondary school is the place where a great deal can be done to alleviate this serious problem.
3. Furthermore, Grade 11 provides the language base for preparatory students because the two common English courses (FLEn 101 and FLEn 102) are claimed to be offered in Grades 11 and 12.
4. Grade 12 students, who are usually busy preparing themselves for college entrance examination, may not be in a position to actively participate in this study. Owing to this fact, Grade 11 students have been considered for the purpose of this study.

The researcher is well aware that it would have been far better had the study involved greater number of students and more preparatory secondary schools. But this has not been possible in this study due to constraints of time and resources.

In this study a pilot study was conducted. Two sections were chosen from one government secondary school: one section for the control group and another for the experimental group in the pilot study (See section 4.9 for detail). Teaching materials were prepared for the experimental group whereas the control group used the English textbook that is currently in use. The experiment for the pilot study was undertaken for six weeks in the first semester of the 2004/2005 academic year. The pilot study was mainly planned to try out the research tools of the study and the teaching materials intended for the study. For the main study as mentioned above, four sections were selected from two government high schools: two sections for the control group and the other two for the experimental group. The experiment lasted four months in the first semester of the 2005/2006 academic year.

1.5 Organization of the Thesis

The thesis is organized into six chapters. Chapter One consists of an introduction which includes: Statement of the Problem, Objectives of the Study, Significance of the Study, Scope of the Study, Organization of the Thesis, Definition of Key Terms and Abbreviations. Chapter two gives a brief survey of the history of education in Ethiopia particularly in relation to English language teaching. Chapter three presents a review of related literature in which important issues related to communicative grammar and writing are discussed. Chapter four explains the various research methods employed in this study. Chapter five deals with the analysis and discussion of data of the pilot study and the main study. Finally, Chapter six summarizes the findings of the study, and provides conclusions, recommendations and implications of the study.

1.6 Definition of Key Terms and Abbreviations

Communicative Approach: The Communicative Approach is an approach that lays emphasis on giving students practice not only in the grammatical structures of the language, but also in the processes of using them. This approach starts from a theory of language as communication in order to develop what Hymes (1972)

referred to as 'communicative competence'. Alptekin (2002:58) states that 'The communicative approach considers target language based communicative competence to be essential in order for foreign language learners to participate fully in the target language culture'. Similarly, in this study, the communicative approach is defined as an approach to language teaching where the language system is appropriately used for effective communication.

Grammar: Larsen- Freeman (2001:6) says, "grammatical structures not only have (morphosyntactic) form, they are also used to express meaning (semantics) in context-appropriate use (pragmatics). Likewise, in this research, grammar is defined as a system of rules that govern the order and patterns in which words are arranged into meaningful texts. Moreover, in this study, grammar is also viewed as a tool that students use, and also as part of the outcome of their writing process.

Communicative Grammar: According to Leech and Svartvik (1994) this term refers to grammar that relates grammatical structures within context using meaningful and purposeful communicative tasks. Dickins and Woods (1988) also state that communicative grammar is concerned with how to make up the message that students communicate not simply in terms of forms and structures, but in terms of meaning. In the present study, communicative grammar is defined as the teaching of grammar for communication in the context of real life like situations (day-to-day life).

Writing Skill: According to Ghaith (2004:6) writing skill is a complex process that lets 'students engage in pre- writing, planning, drafting, and post writing activities'. Likewise, in this study, writing skills refer to writing as a process in which students actively practise writing for effective communication through the following processes: brainstorming, planning, drafting, revising, proof-reading and publishing/submitting what is written in its final form to the publisher or the instructor as the case may be.

Task: There are a number of definitions of task. For instance, Nunan (1989) defines a task as an activity that necessarily involves students in comprehending, manipulating, or interacting in the target language. Ellis (2003:16) also defines

a task as “a work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed.” In the present study, task refers to a classroom activity, which requires students to produce, comprehend, or interact in the target language while their attention is focused on both meaning and form. Thus, in this study terms such as ‘tasks’, ‘activity’, ‘exercise’ are used interchangeably to refer to such activities.

Preparatory Students: In this research, this term refers to Grade eleven students who are in the second cycle of preparatory senior secondary schools in Ethiopia (Education and Training Policy, 1994).

Academic Writing: Academic Writing is a kind of writing that aims at developing students’ writing skills that would help them to cope with their academic courses and achieve success in their lives.

ELT	English Language Teaching
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
MCR ₁	Menilik Secondary School Control Group Rater One
MCR ₂	Menilik Secondary School Control Group Rater Two
MER ₁	Menilik Secondary School Experimental Group Rater One
MER ₂	Menilik Secondary School Experimental Group Rater Two
ACR ₁	Addis Ketema Secondary School Control Group Rater One
ACR ₂	Addis Ketema Secondary School Control Group Rater Two
AER ₁	Addis Ketema Secondary School Experimental Group Rater One
AER ₂	Addis Ketema Secondary School Experimental Group Rater Two
MC&E	Menilik Secondary School Control and Experimental Groups
AC&E	Addis Ketema Secondary School Control and Experimental Groups
MAC	Menilik and Addis Ketema Secondary School Control Groups
MAE	Menilik and Addis Ketema Secondary School Experimental Groups
MC	Menilik Secondary School Control Group

ME Menilik Secondary School Experimental Group
AC Addis Ketema Secondary School Control Group
AE Addis Ketema Secondary School Experimental Group

CHAPTER TWO: BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY AN OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH SETTING

2.1 Introduction

The English language has been playing a crucial role in almost all aspects of human communication over the last couples of decades. Globalization, a development trend, which is now becoming one among the top claims in the agenda of the international community, seems to create a more pressing need to have a common medium of communication in our times than in any other era in human history. This emerging need appears to have the potential to give the English language the opportunity to play an important role in almost all fields of human endeavor. For example, the English language is dominant today in trade, commerce, banking, education, tourism, technology and scientific research as well as in mass communication in many parts of the world.

The importance of English in the business world, for instance, is immense to compete in the global economy. Moreover, researchers all over the world mainly use English and often relevant research terminologies are better known in English than in other languages. Thus, this chapter is a survey of the education system of Ethiopia, with a particular emphasis on English language teaching. It is intended to serve as a background for the present study. The role of English at all levels of educational system is also examined in the Chapter.

2.2. A Brief Survey of the History of Education in Ethiopia

It is obvious that education is an indispensable process of teaching, training and learning to improve knowledge and develop different skills that will help us to respond effectively and to transmit all these to the next generations in order to guarantee a worthwhile life in the world we live in. In relation to this, the New Education and Training Policy (NETP, 1994:1) of Ethiopia clearly states, “Education is a process by which man transmits his experiences, new findings and values accumulated over the years, in his struggle for survival and development through generation.” Over the course of human history education, both formal and informal, has evolved in many forms. This has contributed a lot to the lives of many people. It is to be noted that in any education system, language plays an important role in imparting knowledge to scholars as individuals and to society as a whole.

Ethiopia, which is historically and culturally unique in Africa, has had a remarkable education system for over a century. Ethiopia is a linguistically diverse country like most African nations, and over eighty languages are used in the country for everyday communication (Pankhurst, 1976; Wartenberg, 2001). Amharic, which is the most commonly spoken language in cities and big towns, is used as a Federal medium of communication by different regions that have the option to use their regional languages as media of instruction in their respective regions (New Education and Training Policy, 1994).

2.2.1 Traditional Education in Ethiopia

In the past, the Ethiopian Education system emphasized moral and religious values and its main objective was teaching religion and as such it was not dynamic enough at that time. It was also widely believed that what was true and valuable in the past was true and valuable for life time (Pankhurst, 1976; Teshome G/Wagaw, 1979; Teklehaymanot Haileselassie, 2001). It is true that the Orthodox Christian Church and the Quran Schools provided the continuation of traditional education in Ethiopia. The education provided by these institutions was mainly for promoting their respective religious doctrines. For instance, the main objective of the Quranic schools was to produce devoted Muslims who would promote the Islamic religion (Teshome G/Wagaw, 1979). Quranic schools also used the Arabic language and script to attain their objectives (Last, 1980).

The Ethiopian church school system was originated during the Axumite Empire at about the fourth century. As local institutions, church schools had exercised great influence on the country's day-to-day life by imparting and enriching the cultural heritage of the nation over many centuries (Girma Amare, 1958). For centuries, the Ethiopian Orthodox Church was the only formal educational agency. It used to develop and spread a system of learning in the ancient Geez and later in Amharic. Geez, the Latin of Ethiopia, was the classical Ethio-semitic language of the Axumite Empire. It is now a dead language but crucially important in the liturgy and literature of the Ethiopian Orthodox Church (Teshome G/Wagaw, 1979). Geez was structurally a pure semitic tongue closely related to Arabic and Hebrew. It was also a medium of learning and the language of literature, and even the script of Amharic was adopted from Geez (Bender et al. 1976:120). According to Tekelehaymanot Haileselassie (2001:10) "Geez alphabet characterizes Ethiopia to be the only country which has developed

its own alphabet in Africa.” In fact, the existence of a written language in Ethiopia was a very important factor in promoting the development of a formal system of education. The existence of a written language and the contribution of the Orthodox Church and Muslim schools in spreading reading and writing skills created a useful foundation for the modern school system.

2.2.2 Modern Education in Ethiopia

However, the fact that church education had great influence on the country's education system was far too limited to satisfy the needs of the modern world. The first Ethiopian ruler to realize this was Emperor Menelik II. Menelik II opened the first state supported educational institution: Menelik II School in his palace compound for the sons of the nobility and dignitaries in Addis Ababa in 1908 (Pankhurst, 1976; Last, 1980).

The curriculum of the government schools started by Emperor Menelik II was intended to supplement, not to replace, the traditional instruction given in the church schools. Actually, the school was designed to provide selected group of students with the linguistic and other skills necessary to enable Ethiopia to maintain satisfactory relations with other countries. Menilik II School, for example, was designed primarily for teaching foreign languages. However, this school remained the only one of its kind in Ethiopia until 1929. Subsequently, Menelik II School was followed by many other schools both in Addis Ababa, the capital and in provinces/regions (Bender et al. 1976:120).

After the death of Imperial Menilik II, Emperor Haileselassie's coronation accelerated the development of Ethiopian education. To this effect, the Taferi Mekennen School was established by Emperor Haileselassie (Teshome G/Wagaw, 1979). In 1930, the Emperor established a Ministry of Education and Fine Arts. At that time, there was an education system comprising six years of primary, six years of secondary and four years of university education with a special emphasis on teacher training and agriculture (Wondafrash Kebede, 2001). In 1935, there were over twenty schools established in the Empire of Ethiopia (Girma Amare, 1958). The establishment of these schools had actually laid the foundation of modern education in Ethiopia. In fact, modern education was an import from the western world mainly France, Italy, Britain, Canada, Sweden and America (Teshome G/Wagaw, 1979). Egypt also contributed a lot to the development of Ethiopian education.

However, all these attempts at expanding modern educational activities were disrupted by the Italian invasion in 1936 (Abir, 1970). That is to say the invasion of Ethiopia by Italy in 1936 resulted in the closing of the government school system which had been inaugurated by Emperor Menelik II and greatly expanded under Emperor Haileselassie. Actually, the Italian aggression affected Ethiopian education in a number of ways. The government school system was not only closed down but also schools were used as barracks and hospitals. Furthermore, in addition to disrupting the entire education system, the Italians assassinated 75 percent of all Ethiopian university graduates from abroad (Hagos G/Yesus, 1966; Abir, 1970; Last, 1980; Ministry of Education, 1986).

Nevertheless, many efforts were made to recover especially the educational system about one year after the restoration of the country's independence in 1942. In fact, at that time there was a great shortage of funds. As a result, the government felt that it was beyond the economy and resource of the Ethiopian government to recover educational provisions destroyed during the war. Hence, the government asked the British government for assistance and to make available, material and personnel resources (Pankhrust, 1976; Teshome G/Wagaw, 1979). Most of the schools after the war were directed by British personnel. After the Second World War, the Monarchical Government adopted English as a second language for its bureaucracy and as a language of instruction in schools. Since that time, English has been introduced along with modern education in all the schools of Ethiopia as the medium of instruction starting from the elementary levels (Tesfaye Shewaye and Taylor, 1976; Ministry of Education, 1986).

During the Imperial government, there were 620 government elementary and four academic secondary schools in 1962. The first university was established as University College of Addis Ababa in 1950 by the Emperor (Bowen, 1976). From 1952 -1974, Americans and Canadians had great influence on the education system. At that time, the education system had 6+2+4 structure, consisting of six years of primary education, two years of junior secondary education and four years of senior secondary education. In 1962, English was replaced by Amharic as a medium of instruction up to Grade six (Ministry of Education, 1996). In fact, there is a general belief that the English language problems of students have multiplied since then. Although there have been criticisms against the education system during the Imperial government, we have seen that the foundations for much work had indeed been laid during that time itself.

After the overthrow of the then Emperor Haileselassie I, the Military Regime took over power in 1974. During the Military Regime, the education system was organized along a new set of principles. The primary aim of the regime was to expand education services in the rural areas and more importantly to propagate socialistic ideology (Last, 1980). The education policy of the military government had six years of primary, two years of junior secondary, four years of secondary and four years of tertiary education. There was also an emphasis on polytechnic education. At that time, there were several literacy campaign programmes which led many Ethiopians to become literate. The rate of illiteracy was reported to have been quantitatively minimized from about 93 percent in 1979 to 37 percent in 1983 (Ministry of Education, 1996). However, the increase in student population had not been accompanied by additional resources and budget. That is to say very little attention had been given to the quality and content of education (Last, 1980).

During the Derge/Military reign, the Ministry of Education produced a five volume policy document named the General Directive of the Ethiopian Education in 1980. This document illustrated the view of expansion of education and implementation strategies stipulated in the National Democratic Revolution that was declared in 1976. As a result, the following educational policies had been stated in the National Democratic Revolution programme of the Military government:

- i. Equal right of education for all members of the society
- ii. Education for an all-sided personality
- iii. General and compulsory education for all children of the society

Besides, the revolutionary educational objectives were:

- i. Education for production
- ii. Education for scientific inquiry
- iii. Education for socialist consciousness

(Ministry of Education, 1986:23)

Nevertheless, the military education system was criticized for emphasizing quantity in measuring progress in the educational sector, and for paying little attention to the quality of education (Teklehaymanot Haileselassie, 2001). Furthermore, as Wartenberg (2001) stated, several factors were identified for the major weaknesses of the education policy during the

Derge period. Some of these included failure to introduce the mother tongue as a medium of instruction at the primary level, students' poor performance in English, under-funding of the education system, insufficient training of teachers, overcrowded classes and shortage of books and other teaching materials. All these seem to indicate the low quality of education under the Derge regime.

It can be said that the present Ethiopian system of education has a two-fold foundation: that of the past and that of the present. After the overthrow of the Military Regime, Ethiopia started a New Education and Training Policy (NETP) in 1994 in order to improve its educational system. This policy is generally claimed to be qualitatively different from the old education system.

The policy has eight (i.e.4+4) years of primary education, with the first cycle for grades 1-4, and the second cycle for grades 5-8. The secondary education has also two cycles (i.e.2+2). The first cycle for grades 9-10 will enable students to identify their interests and acquire useful academic knowledge that will prepare them to enroll either in various vocational training programmes or preparatory programmes. The second one for grades 11-12 will enable students to choose subjects which will prepare them for higher education. Tertiary education, which will be research-oriented at diploma, first degree and graduate levels, will enable students to become problem-solving professional leaders in their fields of study (New Education and Training policy, 1994; Ministry of Education, 2001).

Moreover, the New Education and Training Policy has underscored the importance of peoples' use of their own languages. For the first time in the history of Ethiopia, indigenous languages other than the Amharic language have been incorporated in the school curriculum. This means that every child has the right to learn primary education through his/her mother tongue. Currently, primary education is being given in the nationality languages (Ministry of Education, 2001). According to Ministry of Education (1996: 7), out of the 80 local languages spoken in Ethiopia, about 20 of them are now used as media of instruction in the primary schools. With regard to nationality languages, the Education and Training Policy states "Cognizant of the pedagogical advantage of the child in learning in mother tongue and the rights of nationalities to promote the use of their languages, primary education will be given in nationality languages. The language of teacher training for kindergarten, and primary

education will be the national language of that area” (Education and Training Policy, 1994:23).

As has been stated earlier, Amharic has become a language of nation-wide communication in government offices and is taught as a subject since grade 3 except in the Amhara region. English is taught as a subject starting from grade one and is the medium of instruction for secondary and higher education. Many researchers have recognized the very important role English Language has in Ethiopian education system. For instance, Wartenberg (2001:18) writes, “The English Language is indispensable, because it is the language of instruction for secondary school (9-12) and for higher education.”

2.3 English Language Teaching in Ethiopia

As noted earlier, in the present age when the world is becoming global village, the English language appears to be suitable for international communication and it has become the universal language on the Internet. In Ethiopia, English has become a second language for a great number of people. Higher officials use English in different international summits. Besides, the capital city, Addis Ababa is the headquarters of AU (African Union) and as result, many foreigners who live, work and come for a short conference or visit use English in different places such as hotels, supermarkets, offices and so on. Hence, many people in Ethiopia need to learn English and transact their day-to-day activities in English.

It can be argued from what has been stated above that Ethiopian people should at least know good English in order to be successful in their lives. Moreover, for disseminating information about current affairs, different English newspapers (government and private) such as The Daily Monitor, The Reporter, and The Ethiopian Herald and many more are being published. On top of that the English language also plays a significant role in the country's educational system. Especially, at the secondary and tertiary levels, English is a key to all subjects. This means that students coming to study at secondary schools, colleges and universities should have the necessary language skills in English in order to successfully accomplish the intended academic tasks. This means that Ethiopian students need to attain a reasonable degree of mastery of the English language to successfully respond to their academic demands. Thus, in

the next three paragraphs an attempt has been made to present a historical sketch of the role of English in the Ethiopian educational system.

The history of English language teaching goes back to the introduction of modern education into the country during the reign of Menilik II. Since the introduction of modern education in the country, English has been taught as a subject starting from the elementary level and used as a medium of instruction at the secondary and tertiary levels. In the monarchical regime, the British had a great impact on the role that the English language had, but there was not enough budget allocated for the English language programmes. A study, for example, by Tesfaye Shewaye and Taylor (1976: 378) noted, “There was a limited budget allocated for the provision of supplementary readers in the English programme.” This might have actually hindered the development of students' language proficiency. In the Derge Regime also there was no sufficient budget for the English language programmes and the methods used were traditional to help students improve their language skills.

At present, it has been stated that the New Education and Training Policy has capitalized the role that the English language plays in the education system. The New Policy has also underscored the need to develop students' English language proficiency at the primary level so that they would overcome problems that they might encounter when English replaces their native language as a medium of instruction at secondary and tertiary levels. However, major problems such as inadequate facilities, insufficient training of teachers, overcrowded classes, and shortage of books were identified in relation to the teaching-learning processes of the English language.

Recently, a new curriculum has been developed and new English textbooks have been introduced in schools. In this context, training of teachers in English language teaching acquires importance as the competence of teachers will have a great impact on students' proficiency of English. The Ministry of Education has realized that recent developments in the English language teaching demand that teachers who were qualified some years ago be given in-service training in the form of workshops and seminars. As a result, the government has done its best in the last few years to raise the teachers' professional skills, by organizing English language Improvement Programme (ELIP). Hence, different English teacher training courses have been arranged in the past three years for both elementary and secondary school

teachers during summer in Addis Ababa and in many other colleges of teacher education outside Addis Ababa to upgrade the teachers' knowledge of the English language and its teaching methodology.

2.3.1 English Language Teaching in Ethiopian Elementary Schools

As already mentioned earlier, the English language has come to occupy a central place in the education system of Ethiopia. To this effect, students are expected to have a good knowledge of English right from the primary level itself. This is because unless a foundation is laid for children at this stage, learning would become a difficult task later in their secondary school. It is evident that Ethiopia had a well developed curriculum for English language during the Monarchic regime. At that time, students in elementary grades were highly exposed to learning English. For instance, during those days, students were made to ask, communicate, present dramas in class, and write school journals. They were also encouraged to express their feelings to their teachers by writing letters (Sylvia, 1967).

However, there were serious problems such as the limited competence in English on the part of elementary school teachers, shortage of facilities, books and so on. In relation to this, Rodgers (1969) explained that given the qualifications and standard of English of many elementary school teachers, it is unfair to expect them to teach the language well. Meanwhile, teachers from America and England recommended that Ethiopian teachers with good command of language should be selected and given special training in English language Teaching (ELT) methods. In fact, the Ministry of Elementary Education Division with the help of some Peace Corps volunteers had for some months been visiting schools in Addis Ababa and holding sessions with teachers in which English language teaching problems related to techniques, teaching aids and textbooks were discussed. This was intended to bring a change in the quality of English language teaching (Wandafrash Kebede, 2001).

Moreover, it was stated in the Elementary English curriculum in 1947/8 that teaching the English language is essential for four major reasons:

- i. all foreign teachers speak English
- ii. textbooks are available in all subjects in English
- iii. for the professions, the first step is to pass an examination probably that of the University of London, or similar universities and colleges in other countries

- iv. further reading can be done in English (Tesfaye Shewaye and Taylor 1976:375)

Nevertheless, Amharic had been used as a medium of instruction at the elementary level from 1962 to 1994. English was studied as a subject beginning with Grade 3. At that time, the following four major reasons were identified for the change to Amharic as the medium of instruction in elementary schools.

- i. to secure political and cultural unity.
- ii. to provide citizens that know their country's history and culture in their own language;
- iii. to enable students to express themselves freely in a national language; and
- iv. to meet the urgent need of spreading literacy throughout the nation and providing basic education (Ministry of Education, 1986:1).

However, it has actually been argued that the quality of education had suffered since 1964 when Amharic began to be used as a medium of instruction in the elementary schools. For instance, many local studies (e.g. Almaz Bein, 1989; Sara Oqbay, 1989) indicate that English is not adequately taught in Ethiopian elementary schools. This means that elementary school students do not acquire the necessary English language skills in schools.

As mentioned earlier, the Ministry of Education has recently designed a special Programme, English Language Improvement Programme (ELIP) in response to the fact that standards of English were falling in the country. The project (ELIP) has been designed to help raise English language competence of elementary school and secondary school teachers throughout the Ethiopian education system. In fact, the English Language Improvement Program was introduced in April 2002 at the initiative of the Ministry of Education, in collaboration with the British council and the College of St Mark and St John of the UK.

It should also be noted that so long as the foundation of English language proficiency to be laid at the elementary school level, great attention should be given to the teaching of English at this level. As pointed out earlier, however, the success of developing students' English language proficiency seems highly inadequate in the Ethiopian primary schools even today. This might have an adverse effect on the secondary level of education.

Hence, in the next section, a brief review of English language teaching in Ethiopian secondary schools is presented.

2.3.2 English Language Teaching in Ethiopian Secondary Schools

Currently, the English language has been playing a prominent role in the Ethiopian secondary schools. The position of English in secondary schools has a dual role to play, that is, English as the language of instruction for all subjects except Amharic. It is also a compulsory subject in the secondary schools. This being the role of English in our country, students in Ethiopian secondary school still seem to have inadequate command of the English language. This surely would result in poor understanding of other subjects they learn in English. Besides, secondary school students learning of English is considerably limited to what they learn in the classroom. That is to say most students have almost no access to the English language except what they learn in the classroom.

During the Monarchy, the 1963/4 Secondary English curriculum confirmed that the main purpose of all English teaching was to increase the proficiency and accuracy in spoken and written English (Tefaye Shewaye and Taylor, 1976). In fact, English course books used at that time were not specifically designed for use in Ethiopian high schools prior to 1966. However, in 1970, the first book in the Oxford English course for Ethiopia popularly known as the Contact Series started to be used in Grade 9. Gebremedhin Simon (1993) has clearly stated that the 'Contact Series' books were the first of their kind specifically designed to be used for teaching English in Ethiopian secondary schools. Unfortunately, before their effects on developing students' linguistic ability could be reliably assessed, the books were replaced in 1979 by a new series 'English for new Ethiopian' (ENE). The 'English for New Ethiopian' (ENE) was developed by the Curriculum Division of the Ministry of Education. The ENE series was produced in a haste to fill the gap created as a result of the Ministry's decisions to dispense with all materials and textbooks that were believed not to be reflecting the then contemporary ideology, namely Socialism.

In the Ethiopian secondary schools, (where the present study has been carried out) students have little ability to express themselves in clear, simple English. The basic structural elements of the language are not known or if known, are not put into use. Studies conducted locally by Sisay Assefie, (1999), Berhanu Haile, (1999) have proved that the quality of

English language instruction suffers mainly from lack of qualified English language teachers, overcrowded classes and lack of sufficient books and facilities. Furthermore, the low quality of teaching materials and inappropriate and inefficient teaching methodology used by the English language teachers also seem to have aggravated the problems.

Having taken such problems into consideration, the New Education and Training Policy of Ethiopia has changed the old textbooks in primary and secondary schools of Ethiopia. Following this change, it has been claimed that the ELT syllabuses have been designed with communicative orientation and are being put into implementation. Although the currently developed ELT textbooks have been implemented since 1997, there seems to be a general feeling that the language problems of students have grown worse from time to time. There is also a common belief among many college and university instructors that the language proficiency of many preparatory students who have recently joined colleges and universities of the country is found to be below the expectation levels when compared to that of the former freshman origin students. This clearly shows that most of the Ethiopian secondary school students are not proficient and competent enough in their command of English in general and in their grammatical accuracy in writing in particular. For instance, studies by Tesfaye Abebe (1991) and Mesfin Aberra (2004) confirmed that secondary school students cannot even write a single grammatically correct sentence. That is the main reason why the present researcher was prompted to investigate the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students' academic writing at the preparatory level especially in Grade 11, in government secondary schools.

As mentioned earlier, the New Education and Training Policy (NETP, 1994) proposed the replacement of the old ENE textbook by the new textbooks known as 'English for Ethiopia'. Even though the old textbooks have been replaced by the new ones, the English language proficiency of the students is still very low (Berhanu Haile, 1999). It has been claimed that the New Policy focuses on a student-centered approach. However, in our secondary schools, teachers follow the old traditional teacher-centered approach in spite of the seminars and workshops they have been exposed to (Sisay Assefie, 1999). Besides, 'English for Ethiopia' for Grade 11, does not encourage students to learn the major language skills by integration. For instance, integration of communicative grammar with writing (which is the major focus of this study) has not even been considered. That is to say, the grammar activities, which are appended at the end of Grade Eleven textbooks, are not integrated with writing tasks (See

section 2.3.4.2 for detail). Thus, in this study an attempt has been made to prepare some communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing for the experimental groups so that these students might be able to improve their grammatical accuracy in writing.

2.3.3 English Language Teaching at Tertiary Level in Ethiopia

English language is the medium of instruction and a key in all colleges and universities in Ethiopia. That is to say, college and university students use the language as a medium of communication particularly in their academic endeavor. In order to succeed in higher institutions, students need to master the English language skills.

For instance, at the Addis Ababa University English service courses used to be given to all students for three semesters, 16 weeks each semester (College English I and II and Sophomore English). The rationale for teaching these courses was to help students improve their proficiency as well as accuracy in English so that they could follow their university studies more effectively. But in spite of the fact that English was taught for three semesters as a service course, the language performance of Addis Ababa university students is very disappointing. Many English language and other subject instructors have been complaining about the deterioration of university students' ability to use English for their studies. Students are found to be linguistically incompetent to cope with their academic studies and their incompetence is growing more and more serious from time to time. Although such students are exposed to grammar-focused English language teaching for more than ten years, the problem of writing grammatically accurate and meaningful sentences remains to be a great challenge. To make things worse, it has been claimed in the New Education and Training Policy, freshman students who have recently joined universities and colleges are given only one service course (Sophomore English) except in the College of Education and the Institute of Language Studies (ILS). It has also been claimed that preparatory students must have covered the two service courses (College English I and II) in Grades Eleven and Twelve. However, the actual fact is that students at the preparatory level are not taking these or similar courses at that level (although formal document from the Ministry of Education is not available at present). The present writer strongly feels that this is among the factors that have worsened the problem further.

It is obvious that much of the work of a university student consists of writing. Term papers, different assignments, essay examinations demand a lot of writing- a skill without which hardly any student can succeed in his/her academic career. Even at work after graduation one needs to write different reports, letters, and memos in English in one's field of study or activity. For students from College of Education and Institute of Language Studies (ILS), the need for writing skills is especially unquestionable. This is because these students, after graduation, will teach English or other subjects in English in the secondary schools in Ethiopia. If these teachers' level of grammatical accuracy in their writing is very low, it will definitely be reflected in their students' writing. In view of the facts mentioned above, the focus of this study is on the preparatory level (especially Grade11) where the service courses (College English I and II) are claimed to be given. In particular, this study tries to investigate the extent to which communicative grammar tasks could enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their writing at this level.

In the next section, an overview of English language syllabus for first-cycle (9-10) and second-cycle (11-12) will be discussed. Besides, an attempt has been made to present an overview of grammar and writing exercises of the Grade 11 English Text-books (Book1 and Book 2).

2.3.4 An Overview of English Language Teaching in Ethiopian Secondary Schools in the More Recent Education and Training Policy

The New Education and Training Policy gives special attention to secondary school education. This is because secondary school education is the place where students prepare themselves for colleges and universities. In the next two sub-sections, English language teaching in secondary school first-cycle (9-10) and second-cycle (11-12) and an overview of grammar and writing exercises of the grade 11 English textbooks will be discussed.

2.3.4.1 English Language Teaching in Secondary School First-cycle (9-10) and Second-cycle (11-12)

The secondary first-cycle (9-10) prepares students for various training programmes and due attention is given to the English language at this level of education. The English language syllabus for grades 9 and 10 provides continued practice in the four major language skills and

basic study skills so that students could develop their ability to communicate effectively in English at school, and in every day situations (Ministry of Education, 2001). It has been stated that by the end of Grades 9 and 10, students should be able to:

- Listen and respond to specific information;
- Use English effectively to ask questions and discuss topics during the English lessons and in other subject lessons;
- Use English for social interaction;
- Read a wider range of English texts for information;
- Write compositions on given topics; and
- Complete given note summary outlines.

The secondary school second-cycle (11-12) is a preparatory level leading to higher education and the world of work. To this effect, additional subjects that are prerequisites for areas of specialization are included. This will also broaden the choice of fields that students can pursue. At this level, the English language has a key role to play as students prepare themselves for the tertiary level. This is because English appears to be a particular challenge for the majority of students (Ministry of Education, 2001).

The purpose of Grades 11 and 12 English language syllabuses is, therefore, to consolidate the work done so far in developing students' English language skills, and to develop the study skills which students need in order to work efficiently both at school and at the tertiary level. It has been stated that by the end of Grades 11 and 12, students should be able to:

- Achieve general academic success;
- Communicate effectively in English socially and at work place;
- Use the English language spontaneously and flexibly for oral communication in academic environment and in other situations where the use of English is appropriate;
- Understand the different types of materials in English that they will study at school;
- Read efficiently, critically and make discriminating judgments;
- Produce the kinds of writing which will be expected of them in their chosen subject e.g. essays, reports, notes, and summary; and
- Employ the study skills which they will need in order to operate effectively as tertiary level students (Ministry of Education, 2001: 2-3).

2.3.4.2 Grade 11 English Textbooks (Book 1 & Book 2): An Overview of Grammar and Writing Exercises

In this research project, the researcher tried to look through the Grade 11 student and teacher textbooks in order to have clear information about the grammar and writing exercises at that grade level.

To this effect, the nature of the writing activities was observed. This aimed at looking for the types of writing activities (controlled, guided and free writing). Furthermore, it was observed whether the activities follow the different stages of the writing processes such as brainstorming, planning, drafting, and revising. The instructions of the writing activities in the textbooks were given particular attention. This was done to see if the instructions given invite students to work in pairs or in groups.

The revision grammar exercises were also examined. This was needed to see whether or not the exercises are presented in context and to see if the grammar exercises are integrated with writing activities. In general, the purpose of making an overview of the text was to see how effectively the writing activities are designed and to see if the grammar exercises are integrated with writing activities.

English for Ethiopia for Grade 11 is divided into two books. Each book has seven units and each unit is again divided into six sections: comprehension, vocabulary, speaking, listening, writing, and reading. The textbooks incorporate different writing activities. There are about 27 writing activities of which 9 are controlled 9 are guided and 9 are free writing.

The controlled writing activities include punctuation and fill in blanks with appropriate verbs. The guided writing activities include writing a composition using given information, writing a paragraph by answering questions, note making, report writing based on information given, writing stories based on pictures, completing stories. The free writing activities include writing a letter of reply, and writing paragraphs and essays based on given topics.

Revision grammar exercises are appended to each book. In Book 1, the following grammar exercises are included: 'the present simple and present continuous tense', 'the present perfect and present perfect continuous tense', 'for and since', 'pronouns and possessive adjectives', verbs followed by 'the infinitive' and verbs followed by '-ing', result using 'so-that' and

‘such a-that’. In Book 2, the following grammar exercises are included: ‘conditional sentences’, ‘relative clauses’, ‘the passive voice’, ‘reported speech’, ‘the position of adverbs’, and ‘participle phrases’. However, almost all these grammar items are not presented in context; rather they are presented in the form of isolated sentences. All these items are not also integrated with writing activities. The researcher has selected some of these grammar items to prepare communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing for the experimental group.

The following two tables clearly show the writing activities and the revision grammar exercises in both Book 1 and Book 2.

Table 2.1: Grade 11 Book 1 and Book 2 Writing Exercises

Units	List of writing exercises	No. of writing exercises and types
Book 1		
1	Descriptions of people	1 controlled writing 2 free writing
2	Writing instructions	2 free writing
3	Punctuate a passage Descriptions of animals	1 controlled writing 1 free writing
4	Telling a story	1 free writing
5	Punctuate a passage Composition about a time when you meet an interesting person	1 controlled writing 2 guided writing
6	Describing process	1 controlled writing 2 guided writing
7	Letter writing	1 controlled writing 2 free writing

Units	List of writing exercises	No. of writing exercises and types
Book 2		
1	Letter writing	1 free writing
2	Completing a story	1 guided writing
3	Writing instructions	1 controlled writing 1 guided writing 1 free writing
4	Report writing	2 guided writing
5	Completing a story	1 controlled writing 2 guided writing
6	Writing a survey	2 guided writing
7	Punctuate and letter writing	1 guided writing 1 free writing

Table 2.2: Grade 11 Book 1 and Book 2 Revision Grammar Exercises

	List of grammar exercises	No. of grammar exercises
Book 1		
1	'the present simple and present continuous tense'	6
2	the present perfect and present perfect continuous tense'	5
3	'for and since'	3
4	'pronouns and possessive adjectives'	7
5	verbs followed by 'the infinitive' and verbs followed by '-ing'	4
6	result using 'so-that' and 'such a-that'	4
	List of grammar exercises	No. of grammar exercises

Book 2		
1	'conditional sentences'	6
2	'relative clauses'	3
3	'the passive voice'	5
4	'reported speech'	2
5	'the position of adverbs'	2
6	'participle phrases'	3

In this chapter, an attempt has been made to give a historical background of English language teaching in the Ethiopian education system. In the next chapter, the review of related literature, in which important issues related to communicative grammar and writing will be dealt with.

CHAPTER THREE

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter has three major parts. The first part surveys the historical development of the four major language teaching approaches that have made significant contributions to the teaching of grammar in the context of writing. Part two presents the role of grammar in English language teaching. The third part discusses the place of writing skills in English language teaching.

3.1 Part I: A Historical Survey of Language Teaching

Different approaches have been used in the teaching of foreign languages in general and in the teaching of English in particular for a long time. An attempt has been made below to discuss four major approaches: the Structural Approach, the Humanistic Approach, the Functional-notional Approach and the Communicative Approach. These approaches seem to have strongly influenced the teaching and learning of communicative grammar in the context of writing skills in the recent history of language teaching.

3.1.1 The Structural Approach

The structural approach to language teaching has emphasized the formal analysis of the system of structures that make up a given language. This study attempts to discuss two different structural methods, namely, the grammar-translation method and the audio-lingual method in relation to the teaching of writing.

In the grammar-translation method, students were taught to analyse grammar and to translate it (usually in writing) from one language to another (Stern, 1983; Howatt, 1984; Larsen-Freeman, 1986). In this method, writing skill was given emphasis. Speaking skills were not given any attention, and the textbooks were full of abstract rules, lists of vocabulary and sentences for translation. Speaking practice was restricted to reading aloud the sentences that students had translated. The sentences were simply to show the grammatical system of the language without any relation to real communication (Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Larsen-Freeman, 1986). Some of the basic characteristics of the grammar-translation method could be stated as follows:

- Reading and writing were the major focus.
- Translating texts into and from the target language was a way of studying a language through a detailed analysis of its grammar rules.
- Accuracy was emphasised.
- Grammar was taught deductively (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

Nevertheless, applied linguists criticize traditional classroom procedures associated with the grammar-translation method. In a traditional class, teachers spend most of their time copying from textbooks, or writing translation work, in explaining grammar rules, without any attention to what is going on in the classroom (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

Gradually, the audio-lingual method was developed influenced by the work of Bloomfield (1933), an American structural linguist, and his associates. This method was widely used in the United States and other countries in the 1950's and 1960's. The advocates of the audio-lingual theory often criticized the grammar-translation method. In the audio-lingual method, language learning was considered as a set of habits, and this method accepted speech as primary. As a result, writing has sometimes been either excluded or included in a later stage of the programme to reinforce what has been learned in spoken medium. The five principal characteristics of the audio-lingual method were:

- i. Language is speech, not writing.
- ii. Language is a set of habits.
- iii. Teach the language, not about the language.
- iv. A language is what native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say.
- v. Grammar is taught inductively (Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Rivers, 1987).

According to Richards and Rodgers (1986) there are certain shortcomings in the audio-lingual method:

- the students' native language should never be used in the class.
- classroom activities should be structured in such a way as to avoid the possibility for a student to make a mistake.

Moreover, strongly influenced by the work of the behaviourist psychologist, Skinner (1957), structural methodologists considered language learning as habit formation. At that time, contrastive analyses of the structural differences between the native and the target languages provided the basis for a careful selection, gradation and presentation of structures. Second

language writing instruction also focused on students' production of formally correct sentences and paragraphs (Rivers, 1991). Behaviourist psychology also described all learning as a result of conditioning, that is to say, the formation of habits through responses to outside stimuli. Accordingly, it was believed that language could be learned through 'mimicry and memorisation' (Stevick, 1982; Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Larsen-freeman, 1986).

3.1.2 The Humanistic Approach

The Humanistic Approach is a language teaching approach which emphasises humanism as the most significant element in the teaching process. In this approach, the following four principles are considered very important:

- i. Development of human values;
- ii. Growth in self-awareness and in the understanding of others;
- iii. Sensitivity to human feelings and emotions; and
- iv. Active student involvement in learning (Stevic, 1990:64).

The basic principle of this approach in English language teaching is a shift of focus of education from teaching to learning, so that the teacher is no longer the focal point in class but someone who facilitates the process of education. The Humanistic Approach implies an entirely new role of the learner. It aims to make the learner more independent, since the responsibility for the learning process is to some extent handed over to him. The new role of the learner may bring about some psychological problems related to his performance in the classroom. It is quite natural that if the burden of what is happening is shifted to the learner while the teacher only facilitates the process creating the appropriate psychological climate, the performance of the learner will most likely involve psychological stress or more stress than before (Stevic, 1990).

With regard to humanistic teachers, Piaget (1970), as cited in Stevic (1990) suggests that humanistic teachers are aware of the individual learners developmental readiness which will determine when and how to teach each student something. Above all, the successful humanistic teacher will probably be a pragmatist- allowing a combination of language learning theories and their own experience to interact with each other to produce effective language lessons. The humanistic teacher also needs to be aware of what motivates their students. Some students will probably want to learn English because they have to (e.g. for their job), while others want do so to simply for the sake of it. The former is called 'extrinsic

motivation’, while the latter is called ‘intrinsic motivation’. Those students who are extrinsically motivated will be more goal-oriented and might want, for example, a lot of tests and exams. Students who are intrinsically motivated will get a lot of satisfaction from solving language problems-the solution will be a reward in itself. In reality, students can be both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated. They may be learning English for a specific purposes (e.g. to be accepted into a speech community or to get promotion), but they might also really enjoy the processes of learning English.

According to Stevic (1990), there are four methods of humanistic approach: Suggestopedia, the Silent Way, Community Language Learning, and Total Physical Response (TPR). These four approaches will be discussed briefly as follows:

3.1.2.1 Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia is a language teaching method which was developed by Lozanov (1979) on the principle that people are capable of learning more if their minds are clear off other things and free of anxiety (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). This means that Suggestopedia is based on the view that relaxation enables learners to exploit their capacities for language acquisition to the maximum degree. In this method, classrooms are dispensed with in favour of comfortable language lounges. Throughout the lesson, low baroque music is played to enable the students to relax. In this method, emphasis is laid on vocabulary and students practise imaginative compositions. The relationship between teacher and students is based on friendship and trust. The pressures and anxieties many students feel in a classroom are reduced to a minimum. Teachers, instead of teaching in a formal way, merely suggests their students the right behaviour for learning. Hence, it is suggestopeadia. Language experts suggest that such a method when combined with skillful teaching can produce excellent results particularly with shy individuals or small groups. However, it is impractical in large groups and in multi-cultural groups (Stern, 1983; Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

3.1.2.2 The Silent Way

The language teaching method developed by Gattegno (1972) is called the Silent Way. In this method, the teacher speaks much less than in the average audio-lingual classroom and students do not mimic and repeat aloud so frequently. Instead, they are motivated to think and say the appropriate sentences to accompany actions performed under the guidance of the teacher. The students are not forced to use the target language in the initial stages. They are

allowed to absorb the language silently for a few weeks initially. So, it is called the Silent Way. The advantage of the Silent Way is that it combines a high degree of mental involvement and interest with actual use of the language (Rivers, 1980; Stern, 1983; Larsen-Freemen, 1986). However, there are no empirical data to show how such a method would work in the average classroom situation, or how successful it might be if used at more advanced stages (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

3.1.2.3 Community Language Learning (CLL)

Community Language Learning was developed by Curran (1976) on the basis of counseling, that is, learners sit in a circle as a community and decide what they want to say (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). In other words, this method is patterned upon counseling techniques and adapted to the peculiar anxiety and threat as well as the personal and language problems a learner encounters in the learning of foreign languages. Consequently, the learner is not thought of as a student but as a client. The native instructors of the language are not considered teachers but, rather are trained in counseling skills adapted to their roles as language counselors. The language-counseling relationship begins with the client's linguistic confusion and conflict. The aim of the language counselor's expertise is first to communicate empathy for the client's threatened and inadequate state and to aid the latter linguistically. Then slowly the teacher-counselor strives to enable his clients to arrive at their own increasingly independent language adequacy. This process is furthered by the language counselor's ability to establish a warm understanding, and accepting a friendly relationship (Larsen-Freemen, 1986).

3.1.2.4 Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response was developed by Asher (1997). It is based upon the way that children learn their mother tongue (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Parents have 'language-body conversations' with their children, the parent instructs and the child physically responds to this. The parent says, 'Look at mummy' or 'Give me the ball' and the child does so. These conversations continue for many months before the child actually starts to speak itself. Even though the baby cannot speak during this time, the child is taking in all of the language: the sounds and the patterns. Eventually when it has decoded enough, the child reproduces the language quite spontaneously. TPR attempts to mirror this effect in the language classroom (Larsen-Freemen, 1986).

In the classroom the teacher plays the role of a parent. She/he starts by saying a word ('jump') or a phrase ('look at the board') and demonstrating an action. The teacher then says the command and the students do the action. After repeating a few times it is possible to extend this by asking the students to repeat the word as they do the action. When they feel confident with the word or phrase the teacher can then ask the students to direct each other or the whole class. It is more effective if the students are standing in a circle around the teacher who can even encourage them to walk around as they do the action (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

TPR can be used to teach and practise language items.

- Tenses past/present/future and continuous aspects (Every morning I clean my teeth, I make my bed, I eat breakfast)
- Classroom language (Open your books)
- Imperatives/Instructions (Stand up, Close you eyes)

All in all, Total Physical Response (TPR) is a method that combines information and skills through the use of the kinesthetic sensory system. This combination of skills allows the student to assimilate information and skills at a rapid rate. As a result, this success leads to a high degree of motivation. The basic tenets are: Understanding the spoken language before developing the skills of speaking. Imperatives are the main structures to transfer or communicate information. The student is not forced to speak, but is allowed an individual readiness period and allowed to spontaneously begin to speak when the student feels comfortable and confident in understanding and producing utterances.

As already mentioned, these four methods are sometimes described as humanistic techniques. Moskowitz (1978:2), as cited in Richards and Rodgers (1986:113), defines humanistic techniques as those that

...blend what the student feels, thinks and knows with what he is learning in the target language. Rather than self-denial being the acceptable way of life, self-actualization and self-esteem are the ideals the exercises pursue. The techniques help to build rapport, cohesiveness, caring that far transcend what is already there...help students to be themselves, to accept themselves, and be proud of themselves.....help foster a climate of caring and sharing in the foreign language class.

As revealed in the excerpt quoted above, humanistic techniques engage the whole person, including the emotions and feelings (i.e. the affective realm) as well as linguistic knowledge

and behavioural skills. However, some language experts argue that since Humanistic Approach focuses on students' interest and feelings, the main task of language learning is forgotten.

3.1.3 The Functional-notional Approach

The Functional-notional Approach focuses on language as a system for expressing meanings. The idea is that language should be classified in terms of what people want to do with it—functions or in terms of what notions people want to put across. The use of particular notions depends on three major factors: the functions, the elements in the situation and the topic being discussed (Wilkins, 1976). Functional-notional Approach largely lays emphasis on language as a system for expressing meaning, including past time, requests, commands, apologies, questions, politeness, respect and narration among others, because functional approaches focus on the meanings that are communicated. Language is usually considered in relation to the contexts of use in which meaning is negotiated.

Finacchiaro and Brumfit (1983: 46) present the functional categories under five headings: personal, interpersonal, directive, referential and imaginative.

- ❖ Personal: clarifying or arranging one's ideas; expressing one's thoughts or feelings: like love, joy, satisfaction, dislikes, pain, hunger, cold etc.
- ❖ Interpersonal: enabling people establish and maintain desirable social and working relationships, for instance: greetings and leave-takings, introducing people to others, expressing joy at other's success.
- ❖ Directive: attempting to influence the action of others, accepting or refusing direction: as in the case of making requests, persuading someone to change his point of view, requesting and granting permission, giving and responding to instructions.
- ❖ Referential: talking or reporting about things, actions, events or people in the environment in the past, the present or in the future such as: identifying items or people in the classroom, asking for a description of someone or something, comparing or contrasting things.
- ❖ Imaginative: discussions involving elements of creativity and artistic expression, for example: discussing a poem, a story, a piece of music, creating rhymes, poetry, stories or plays, solving problems or mysteries.

Similarly, Wilkins (1976) recognized three different types of notional category: general notions, specific notions and language functions, which as a whole came to be known as Functional-notional Approach. Functions may be described as communicative purposes for which we use language, while notions are the conceptual meanings expressed through language. Wilkins, further, suggests that the term ‘notional syllabus’ includes any strategy of language teaching that derives the content of learning from an initial analysis of the learner’s needs to express three different kinds of meaning:

- i. Functional: i.e. the social purpose of the utterance
- ii. Modal: the degree of likelihood, and
- iii. Conceptual: the meaning relations expressed by forms within the sentence (categories of communicative functions)

According to Finacchiaro and Brumfit (1983), Functional-notional Approach has a tremendous merit of placing the learners and their communicative purposes at the center of the curriculum. Functional-notional Approach provides realistic language tasks for the teaching of everyday, real-world language and leads teachers to emphasize receptive activities before rushing learners into premature performance. The main goal of Functional-notional Approach is to make learners use the language communicatively. However, a Functional-notional syllabus does not teach communicative competence. The basic concepts of this approach are learners’ needs, situation, language activities and functions that serve as the core of teaching a language.

3.1.4 The Communicative Approach

The Functional–notional Approach discussed in the preceding section paved the way for the Communicative Approach to language teaching. Let us now turn to the next section which reviews the Communicative Approach to language teaching.

The communicative approach to language teaching has played a significant role in recent language pedagogy. This approach was developed around the beginning of the 1970s when the Council of Europe appointed a group of experts to elaborate a system of foreign language learning for adult learners. The term ‘communicative’ was used to describe programmes that used a functional-notional syllabus based on needs assessment. Meanwhile, in the United States, Hymes (1972) reacted to Chomsky’s characterization of the ‘linguistic competence’ of

the ideal native speaker-hearer and proposed the notion 'communicative competence' to represent the use of language in social context and to broaden the scope of competence (Wilkins, 1976; Rivers, 1987).

As stated earlier, in the communicative language teaching approach, the goal of language teaching is to develop what Hymes (1972) referred to as "communicative competence". It could also be stated that communicative competence is the central aim of foreign and second language teaching/learning. In relation to this, Celce-Murcia (1997) states that communicative competence is the foundation of communicative language teaching. Actually, there is a strong relationship between linguistic competence and communicative competence. Linguistic competence is the spontaneous and correct manipulation of the language system. Communicative competence involves principles of appropriateness and readiness on the part of the learner to use relevant strategies in coping with certain language situations. Linguistic competence is the basis of communicative competence. Without linguistic competence there is no communicative competence (Wilkins, 1976; Stevick, 1982; Stern, 1983). Similarly, Andrew and Hicks (1987:69) state, "The broadening of the concerns of language education suggests that learners not only need to be provided with opportunities to manipulate the formal system of the language, but also to make use of communicative abilities".

For Hymes (1972), syntax and language forms were best understood as meaning resources used in particular conventional ways in particular speech communities. Grammaticality was related to social acceptability. Likewise, cognition was an important aspect of communication. Moreover, the basic argument of this approach is that the learning of a foreign language should be directed towards the students' acquisition of communicative competence. In other words, learning a series of skills through a communicative approach will permit students to communicate with native or non-native speakers of the language in most common situations of daily life (Littlewood, 1981). However, Savignon (1972) states that the involvement in communication events necessarily requires attention to form. Communication is unthinkable without grammar or structure. In recent developments of linguistics, it is generally agreed that grammar is an indispensable component of language learning when it relates to learners' communicative needs and experiences (Dickins and Woods, 1988; Leech and Svartvik, 1994).

3.1.5 Implications

Given the foregoing brief historical account, it will be very helpful for English language teachers to become more aware that one single teaching method or approach may not deal with everything that concerns the form, the use and content of the target language. In fact, when we discuss the structural approach, we have to remember that the ideas in structuralism are still central today. For instance, Matthews (2001) has strongly argued the importance of structuralism even in 2000. This shows that in one context the communicative approach might suit and in another the structural methods could work alongside the communicative approach. Similarly, the present researcher feels that in the Ethiopian context purely communicative activities without having the basic grammatical knowledge might be unrealistic and impractical. That is why, in this study, an attempt has been made to find out through experiment whether or not communicative grammar activities enhance students' mastery of grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities.

In the next section, the role of grammar in English language teaching will be discussed. This is because it is worth looking at grammar, a valuable tool for teaching writing, before discussing the role of writing in English language teaching.

3.2 Part II: The Teaching of Grammar

3.2.1 The Role of Grammar in English Language Teaching

It is evident that the teaching of grammar has become the most controversial area throughout the history of language teaching. Indeed, grammar, which gives sense to language, is an important part of language we use in everyday communication. This means that it is considered an essential element of language teaching. Any language is systematically organized by its grammar that is inextricably linked to meaning and communication. It is very difficult to make meanings clear without shaping grammatical and linguistic structures (Blyth, 1998; Frodesen and Holten, 2003).

Moreover, grammar has been the most exciting area of language teaching. It has also played a central role as the only activity in language classrooms (Weaver, 1996). Similarly, Cook (1994:3) considers grammar "as the core mental system of language". This shows that grammar has a prominent role in English language teaching and learning. Nonetheless, grammar has had a bad image in the early days of communicative language teaching. At that time, according to Matthews (2001), some English language teachers had quickly reacted

assuming that grammar had no significant part in language teaching and thus neglected its role in English classrooms. This might be because it was thought natural to be preoccupied with the new element viz., ‘functions’.

However, most applied linguists, language teachers and students believe that grammar is the mental system that allows people to use language for any purpose in their lives. In this regard, Cook (1994:1) observes:

Grammar is at the heart of the activity. As it is at the heart of all human activity declaring war, writing a love poem or a prescription, sentencing a prisoner to life imprisonment, advertising soap powder, praying, whatever their difference of motivation or seriousness, all would be effectively be impossible without grammar.

Furthermore, all languages are governed by a set of grammatical norms and therefore, grammar is present in all teaching and learning situations of a foreign language. Whatever goals students and teachers have, they cannot ignore the fact that grammar is of the centre of what they are doing and learning.

The importance of learning grammar has recently increased tremendously all over the world. Nowadays, most English language teachers focus on grammar instruction and practice. This is because students are required to develop grammatical accuracy that they need for the university entrance and proficiency tests. For instance, many students in Ethiopia and the rest of the world who want to continue their studies abroad especially in the USA or the UK have to take an intensive course in grammar in order to pass exams like the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and the International English Language Testing system (IELTS). Like IELTS, TOEFL is a kind of English proficiency test including listening, speaking, grammar, reading comprehension and a short composition on a given topic. In this context, Nachiengmai (1997) has pointed out that knowledge of grammar is what separates the educated from the uneducated.

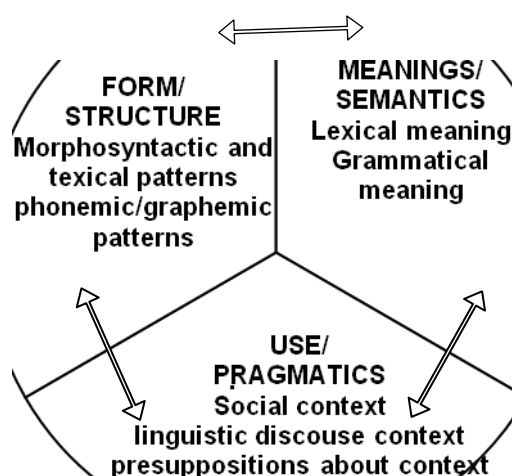
According Celce-Murcia (2001), grammar has a great place in a communicative classroom. It is true that the fundamental purpose of learning a foreign language is to be able to communicate in that language. However, the teaching of grammar must be integrated into a communicative framework. Celce-Murcia, further notes that grammar instruction should be more contextual, meaningful and purposeful than in the past. As a result, grammar is viewed

as a tool to be used to convey meaning. In light of this, Widdowson (1986) has pointed out that grammar is regarded as an aid to language users in communicating accurately their messages, rather than as an isolated body of knowledge that must be studied for its own sake. Likewise, Nachiengmai (1997) explains that grammar is viewed as one component of communicative competence. In sum, grammar interacts with meaning, social function and discourse or a combination of these rather than being a system to be learned for its own sake.

It is evident that grammar is the scientific aspect of the study of language. Modern applied linguists state that grammar is not merely a set of rules, but it also covers many important areas. According to Nachiengmai (1997), grammar includes many aspects of linguistic knowledge: phonology (the sound system), morphology (the rules of word formation), syntax (the rules of sentence formation) and semantics (the system of meaning). Because all languages are characterized by these components, language does not exist without grammar (Musumea, 1997; Petrovitz, 1997; Stackpole, 1999). To this end, it can be argued that grammar is an indispensable area in language teaching particularly for teaching writing skills. For instance, Musumeci (1997) states that in the past the term grammar referred to the art of writing. Similarly, studies by Palmer (1971) and Allen (2003) report that the term grammar comes from the Greek word meaning to 'write'.

In this connection it is worth looking at the three-dimensional framework of grammar developed recently by Larsen-Freeman (2001) consisting of form, meaning, and pragmatics. The three parts are closely interconnected with each other. In this framework, teaching grammar means enabling students to use linguistic forms accurately, meaningfully and appropriately.

Fig: 3.1 A three dimensional grammar framework



In addition, Larsen-Freeman notes that for effective grammar teaching, grammar lessons have to comprise three phases: presentation, practice and communication. It is evident that grammar is a complex and difficult subject for many students and teachers. In connection with this, a pioneer in the field of grammar and writing, Weaver (1996:11) points out, “Grammar is a large complicated subject, and I'm not very sure about some of it myself.” Besides, teachers of foreign languages are in a sense learner of the language they teach, particularly grammar that is a complicated subject. Therefore, Weaver suggests that English language teachers should give greater attention to the teaching of grammar. They should also consider the interest, level and background of their students when they teach grammar.

Another important point worth mentioning about grammar is that there are many different types of language learners and many different purposes for learning the English language. Thus, it is essential to consider a number of variables in teaching of grammar. In light of this, Celce-Muricia (2001) identifies six common instructional and learner variables for English language teachers to use in deciding the degree of importance the grammar instruction can have for a given class. The six variables include: age, proficiency level, educational background, language skill, register and need/use. These variables would help language teachers to make an informed decision of the place of grammar instruction in their own classes.

3.2.2 Types of Grammar

Before examining different methods of grammar instruction it is necessary that we look at different types of grammar discussed by different language educators. As mentioned in the preceding section, it is widely held that applied linguists have considered grammar as the central area of language teaching. They believe that other areas of language teaching are connected to each other through grammar. They also argue that grammar, for example, relates sound and meaning and it is very difficult to communicate without grammar. Furthermore, grammar is a unique aspect of language. It has different characteristics that are not found in non-human modes of communication (Cook, 2001). Grammar is highly systematic and its effects are usually seen in speech and written discourse. As a result, language educators have emphasized the teaching and learning of grammar. Accordingly, five types of grammar will be discussed below.

3.2.2.1 Prescriptive Grammar

Prescriptive grammar deals with what the grammarian believes to be right or wrong, good or bad language use. In other words, it is a proper way of telling people what to say rather than what they do say (Patterson, 1999; Cook, 2003; Wardhaugh, 2003). In addition, language educators believe that prescriptive grammar tries to preserve what is assumed to be the standard language by informing people what rules they should know and how they should use English in their writing and speaking (Stern, 1983; Batstone, 1994). This means that the teaching of grammar is usually seen to enable learners to produce the 'correct' way of speaking and writing (Nachiengma, 1997). Prescriptive grammar is usually based on the prestige dialects of a speech community and often condemns certain constructions that are commonly used among lower socioeconomic groups such as the use of 'ain't' and double negatives in English. In the next section, I shall discuss traditional grammar which is very important even at the present time.

3.2.2.2 Traditional Grammar

Traditional Grammar is a system of analyzing parts of speech. This means sentences are analyzed by labeling the parts with their names and giving rules that explain in words how the parts may be joined. In fact, modern grammarians do not totally reject this type of grammar.

This is because parts of speech are relevant to grammar, and there are many other powerful grammatical concepts that are equally important (Stevic, 1982; Cook, 2001). In other words, traditional grammar seems to be useful in highlighting certain grammatical points. The main shortcoming of traditional grammar materials is a lack of context; however, in recent years the need to correct this has been recognized.

3.2.2.3 Transformational Generative Grammar

The fourth type of grammar is transformational generative grammar. Chomsky's (1957) transformational generative grammar is a means of dealing with structures like active and passive forms (Patterson, 1999). It also attempts to explain not only the surface structure of a language but also the deep structure of a language (cognitive process). In other words, a transformative grammar attempts to systematize the changes that take place between the deep structures in language patterning and surface structures (i.e. the actual utterances made by speakers and writers); such a grammar is termed 'generative' because it is thought to be able to generate sentences or meaningful utterances, as opposed to merely describing or prescribing rules for their information. According to Chomsky (1957), the deep structure of a sentence is the abstract form that determines the meaning and structure of the sentence, it is actually present in the mind but not necessarily represented directly in the physical signal. On the other hand, the surface structure of a sentence is the actual organization of the physical signal into phrases of different sizes, into words of various categories, with certain particles, inflections, arrangements and so on (Stern, 1983; Rutherford, 1987; Matthews, 2001).

The distinction between 'deep-structure' and 'surface structure' may be seen by comparing Chomsky's classic examples:

- (1) John is easy to please.
- (2) John is eager to please. (Rivers, 1981)

In (1) and (2) the surface structure is the same, but any speaker of English will recognize that the two sentences are different in meaning. (John being a passive factor in the first sentence but John does the 'pleasing' in the second.) The difference between the two sentences is to be found in their underlying "deep" structures (Matthews, 2001).

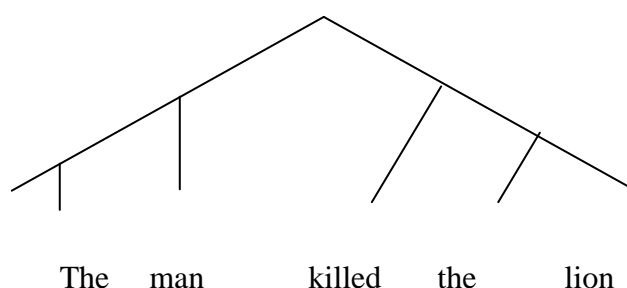
According to Rivers (1980), for the transformational generative linguist, every sentence can be analyzed through transformations such as replacement, addition, deletion, and change of position until its base structure is revealed. This means transformation grammar tasks would

illustrate how the parts of a sentence can be combined, rearranged, substituted and shows their surface derivation. These tasks would help students work with language at phrase and sentence level.

3.2.2.4 Structural Grammar

Structural Grammar describes how the elements of the sentence fit together in an overall structure built up from smaller structures. This means that it is a system of describing sentences. As pointed out by Cook (2001:42-43) the use of structural grammar is based on the concept of phrase structure. For instance, in a sentence ‘The man killed the lion.’ The word ‘the’ seems to go with ‘man’ but ‘killed’ does not go with ‘the’. ‘Killed’ belongs to ‘the lion’. Now, the two structures ‘the man’ and ‘killed the lion’ go together to make the whole sentence. This phrase structure could be presented in tree diagrams that show how words build up into phrases and phrases build up into sentences.

Fig 3.2 An example of a phrase structure



Source: Cook (2001: 43)

3.2.2.5 Communicative Grammar

This section has two sub-sections. In the first sub-section, the researcher discusses some important suggestions for developing communicative grammar activities. In the second section, designing and adapting communicative grammar activities will be suggested. The presentation of grammar in a contextual, meaningful and purposeful manner is called communicative grammar (Nachiengamai, 1997). In language learning, mastery of the forms would be valueless without equal mastery of the meanings they convey. This shows that grammatical forms and grammatical meanings are equally important in language teaching. According to Dickins and Woods (1988:45) “Communicative grammar consists of content

and construct, content refers to what is being presented to students and construct addresses how the content is being presented to learners via grammar learning tasks.” They further suggest that grammar and communication are seen as two complementary elements needed for effective language use. In other words communicative grammar is concerned with ‘content’ and ‘construct’.

In recent times, many applied linguists have been trying to incorporate grammar teaching within the communicative curriculum. This is because most students at the secondary school level or in higher institutions do not have an adequate grasp of English grammar. As a result, a new trend in favour of the teaching of grammar in context has emerged. This new trend is known as communicative grammar (Dickins and Woods, 1988; Leech and Svartvik, 1994; Hudson, 2001).

As mentioned above, current pedagogical practice places emphasis on communication. This is because the function of grammar is beginning to be understood as an essential aspect of language teaching that makes communication effective. Grammar does not function as an end in itself, but it is a means towards successful communication. Here, the focus could be on how grammatical competence relates to and integrates with communicative competence. This means that a communicative grammar learning environment facilitates the comprehension of how grammar works in conveying and interpreting meaning.

It is often argued that grammar was not seen as an important aspect in a communicative approach. That is to say, for a long time grammar and communication were considered as two independent features rather than as two complementary and integrated aspects necessary for effective language use. However, many language educators (Dickins and Woods, 1988; Leech and Svartvik, 1994; Nachiengmai 1997; Brinton and Holten, 2001) suggest that communicative competence comprises different skills, one of which is grammatical skill. In communicative grammar, grammatical structures are systematically related to meaning, forms, uses and situations. It is for this reason that, Hudson (2001) believes that teaching communication and teaching grammar are inseparable aspects of language teaching.

In communicative grammar tasks, the use of particular grammatical structures could be presented in the context of authentic, real life like situations such as giving or requesting for information, telling a personal story, writing an invitation, following a set of directions and so

on. In communicative grammar activities, such factors as students' language levels, frequency of grammatical forms, and importance of grammatical errors have to be taken into consideration.

In teaching communicative grammar, it is important to choose the appropriate language according to the context of the situation. For instance, choices of grammar in speech will usually be different from the choices made in writing. Even when we want to communicate in writing in an informal and/or a formal situation, again choice of grammar will often be different (Leech and Svartvik, 1994). Thus, communicative grammar activities can help learners use the language appropriately in a given situation, particularly in writing.

3.2.2.5.1 Criteria for Designing Communicative Grammar Activities

Maria and Kamyin (1996:32) have suggested the following nine characteristics for developing communicative grammar activities:

Choice: students should get a chance to express their own meaning through the activity. An activity can generate different meanings depending on the context in which students find themselves. Therefore, there should be a room for students to express their own meaning in a given activity. If students get such freedom, they will benefit a great deal from the learning process. This will help learners to become independent.

Focused: we should not deal with more than one grammar item in a given activity particularly at elementary level. Students should be made to explore one grammar item in a given activity because this will make learning grammar easier. A grammar item that is practised in a given context is remembered better than if it were learned in separate, unrelated sentences. Including more than one grammar item in a given exercise will tend to confuse students.

Relevance: The activity should consider students' personal interest and background. A given grammar should be practised in exercises that are based on situations that are not remote from students' background or schema. Familiar situations in grammar activities enhance students' interest and mastery of the grammar items that are practised in different activities.

Active Language use: students should be able to practice and produce a given language item in a particular activity. They should be encouraged to practise the various

grammar items in their own examples. Active language use takes place when students are given the opportunity to relate the learning of grammar items with real life situations.

Contextualized: Students should practice a given grammatical item through a particular context. In other words, the teaching of grammar should be contextualized. Knowledge of grammar is essential for clear and purposeful communication. Communication takes place in a given context. This means it would be inappropriate to divorce grammar use and learning from the context.

Fun: The activity should enhance students' creativity and engage their interest. Allow students to practise the grammar items in interesting contexts created by themselves. We should also give them the opportunity to express their ideas to their classmates. Students will enjoy the grammar activities if they find them entertaining. You will also notice that students are full of ideas that are interesting because the ideas are derived from their own experience. A better learning of grammar items takes place in classroom situations where students are relaxed and derive fun from the exercises that they are doing.

Cooperative learning: Through group work students do different activities that require the active participation and contribution of each of them, and also engage them in peer correction. Group work is important because it enhances mutual benefit and encouragement. Each student has the opportunity to contribute something to the task. Weaker students benefit from good students. On the other hand, there is also a tendency for good students to mingle with those who have similar ability. Group work can be used provided there is a mechanism through which the instructor can check that the group members are heterogeneous. The researcher feels that group work should be implemented along with individual and pair work even though we often hear that weak students tend to take advantage and depend on good ones, who may feel that they are exploited.

A sense of achievement: the activity should not be too difficult and students should gain a sense of achievement and satisfaction after they have done it. A difficult task makes students lose interest in what they are doing. Neither should it be too simple. If students are given an interesting task which they enjoy doing, they will eventually get a sense of satisfaction if they feel that they have achieved something and learned from it at the same time. When students are asked to

read a difficult passage and do the exercises set on it, they will come up with all sort of excuse for not doing it.

A real need to collect information: The activity should give students the opportunity to contribute information from what they already know. A good task is one that allows students to learn something new from it, but at the same time gives them the opportunity to contribute information from their own schema. This will make the active learning process meaningful.

In this research project, the researcher has devised the communicative grammar activities prepared for the experiment using the criteria suggested above.

3.2.2.5.2 Designing and Adapting Communicative Grammar Activities

The criteria discussed above can be used to adapt and design grammar exercises which are suitable for many foreign language learners. It is evident that textbooks usually provide plenty of exercises for students to consolidate basic grammar items learnt. These exercises are fairly easy and mechanical for students to consolidate basic grammar items learnt. However, the problem is that the exercises are not communicative. As a result, English language teachers may want to do some follow-up activities where there is a chance for meaningful language use. In this section, an attempt has been made how to adapt and design communicative grammar activities by means of two examples from Grade 9 and Grade 10 English textbooks (English for Ethiopia, 1997).

Teaching ‘there is/are:

The grammatical item there is/are creates certain problems for Ethiopian students. Let us see how this structure is typically practiced. In a locally produced textbook, students are given the picture of a room. They are asked to study the picture and write sentences such as:

There are two pictures on the wall.

There is a shirt in the wardrobe.

After this, students are asked to work in pairs and report what they have seen in the picture to each other, for example:

(two pictures/wall)

A: Are there any pictures in the room?

B: Yes, there are two.

A: Where are they?

B: They're on the wall.

In this exercise, students have no real need to ask questions to get information as everyone can see the answers in their picture. It is doubtful whether any student will find this exercise interesting or enjoyable.

Some modifications can be made to make this exercise more meaningful and communicative.

The steps are:

- i. Think of an item and tell students to draw it on the picture in their textbooks. If the students are weak, let them know their only task is to draw the correct item in the right place. They do not have to bother about its colour, size or shape. Students in better classes should aim at drawing the item more accurately. Encourage them to ask for details while they are drawing. Finally, check the answer.
- ii. When students have familiarized themselves with the task, ask each student to draw on their picture 3 to 5 items they would love to have in the room, without letting other students know what and where they are.
- iii. Put students into pairs. Ask them to tell each other orally what they have added to the picture and where they are by using the target structure. Each student should draw the items described by their partner on the picture. Better students should describe the items in greater detail.
- iv. Get students to compare drawings in pairs and check whether the items are correct and have been drawn in the right places.

Rationale

- ❖ In this revised grammar activity, a real need has been created for students to collect information.
- ❖ Instead of describing what the textbook wants them to describe, students have to decide what items they want to talk about and where they are in the picture. In other words, there is choice and students are allowed to express their own meaning.

Teaching comparatives and superlatives:

Comparatives and superlatives are two very common grammatical items that are covered in the English textbooks. Students are usually given different pictures to compare and then write sentences such as:

A bus is bigger than a bicycle.

Building A is the tallest building in Ethiopia.

Students are not given any chance to choose what to write. In addition, there is a lack of an element of fun. Why should students bother about the height of buildings or size of vehicles? Short of scrapping this exercise, teachers can devise a simple follow-up activity that exploits students' personal experiences. The steps are:

- i. Ask each student to select a classmate and write 3-4 sentences to describe him/her, making use of comparatives and superlatives. The name of the student described should not be disclosed. Show them an example, if necessary.

He is fairer than Kebede. He looks happier than Tessema and he is the most hardworking student in the class.

- ii. Split students into groups of 3 or 4. Get them to read each other's descriptions and guess the persons.
- iii. Ask each group to select the best description and read it out. The whole class guesses who the mystery person is.

Rationale

- ❖ By asking students to select a classmate to describe, we make it possible for students to decide on what they would like to say.
- ❖ The activity requires students to produce texts rather than isolated sentences. This reflects the use of language in daily life, and gives students plenty of chance to use the target structures.
- ❖ The guessing nature makes the activity game-like and fun.

3.2.2.5.3 Conclusion

It is obvious that nowadays there are many published teaching materials and activities available, but these do not always meet teachers' needs. Many teachers work in very different contexts, and therefore need to create their own activities. In fact, material production is part of professional development, and teachers need to know how to devise good learning tasks to supplement commercial materials where necessary (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994; Maria and Kamyin, 1996). Hence, in our local context, students may find some grammar and writing

activities interesting if teachers consider and make use of the characteristics for developing communicative grammar activities suggested by Maria and Kamyin (1996).

3.2.3 Methods of Teaching Grammar

3.2.3.1 Introduction

As noted in section 3.3, the teaching of grammar has become the most controversial area throughout the history of language teaching. In fact, the focus of the debate has currently shifted to the question on how grammar can be taught best (Muncie, 2002). In this regard, many applied linguists have agreed that there is no just one way of teaching grammar. This is because the grammar items to be learned are quite varied in nature and usage. For instance, the plurals of nouns must be taught in a different way from the use of ‘were’ and ‘have’ with plural subject. In light of this, Petrovitz (1997: 201) states, “No single method is satisfactory for teaching all grammatical rules; rules must first be distinguished on the basis of certain linguistic criteria before pedagogical strategies can be considered.” Thus, English language teachers could use different types of grammar teaching methods where necessary. In view of this, three methods of grammar teaching are examined in this section.

3.2.3.2. Deductive Grammar Teaching

Deductive grammar teaching can be defined as the explicit presentation of grammar rules. In this method, grammar rules are explained to students and then examples are given so that students could have a conscious understanding of the rules (Cook, 2001). According to Ellis (1991), explicit grammar instruction is necessary for students to make them notice features in the input that they receive and can then become part of their acquired knowledge. Moreover, grammar explanations can be presented in a simple and clear language. In support of this, Nachiengmai (1997:3) confirms that many second and foreign language learners have gained a better comprehension from a systematic explanation of grammatical items. In deductive method, teachers explain grammar rules so that students could make more grammatically accurate sentences (Sysoyev, 1999). This method is very helpful for most adult foreign and second language learners.

3.2.3.3. Inductive Grammar Teaching

In inductive grammar teaching, students are encouraged to work out rules for themselves and to be aware of and use basic grammatical items appropriately. This means that teachers present grammar items to students through examples and ask them to explore or discover the rules for themselves. In fact, in this method, students are asked to discover grammatical rules under teachers' supervision. According to Sysoyev (1999), this method involves cognitive learning as students spend some time discussing and discovering grammatical structures in order to help them understand the rules. This method is very helpful for young learners who enjoy learning through active use. With regard to inductive grammar teaching method for young language learners, Rivers and Temperley (1978:110) have said the following:

The inductive approach is very appropriate for young language learners who have not yet developed fully their ability to think in abstractions and who enjoy learning through active application; students who can take time to assimilate the language through use and those studying the language in an environment where they hear it all around them .

3.2.3.4. Exploration, Explanation and Expression Method (EEE Method)

In the 1970's, Byrne (1976) introduced a well-organized grammar lessons through PPP method (Presentation, Practice and Production). In this method, grammar is presented by teachers (deductively or inductively); students then practise it in a controlled way before moving on to a production stage where students have a chance to use the language in realistic situations. Therefore, it is important for English teachers to strictly follow these steps in order to have an effective grammar lesson.

Similarly, many applied linguists have recently addressed the issue of grammar teaching to students with the focus on form and meaning. A study conducted by Sysoyev (1999), for instance, has proposed a new method of grammar teaching EEE method (Exploration, Explanation and Expression). He calls this method integrative grammar teaching. This method combines a form with a meaning-based focus. He further suggests that EEE method consists of three important stages: exploration, explanation and expression. The first stage of EEE method is exploration (inductive learning). In this stage, students are given sentences illustrating certain grammar rules and are asked to discover the rule as a group with the help of the teacher. This stage is a useful way to motivate students. The second stage is explanation

(deductive learning) in which teachers focus on form. In this stage, students learn the explicit grammar rules. According to Sysoyev (1999:4), the explanation stage is valuable because “students feel safer when they know the grammar rules and have some source to go back in case of confusion or for future reference”. The third stage of integrative grammar teaching is expression. At this point, students gain experience in applying their grammar knowledge by producing meaningful sentences. In fact, students practise a lot in order to produce correct sentences under the teachers' supervision. In sum, in EEE method, after students have discovered the grammar rules, they learn explicit grammar rules as well as have a chance to practise them in communication in day-to-day life.

3.2.3.5. Implications

The three methods discussed above have significantly contributed for the teaching and learning of grammar. In fact, we have seen that grammar is viewed as one component of communicative competence and is part of language teaching. Studies have indicated that many adult second and foreign language learners prefer the deductive method (top-down strategy) where grammatical rules are explained through teacher-directed instruction. Many others prefer inductive method (bottom-up strategy) where students are asked to discover grammatical rules by themselves. A third method, EEE (Exploration, Explanation and expression) can help students use both inductive and deductive methods of grammar learning. Therefore, it is possible to say that grammar instruction can be presented both inductively and deductively (Widdowson 1986; Sysoyev, 1999). It is also better if teachers experiment with different methods of teaching grammar until they find the one that works best for them and for their students as well. In this connection, Sysoyev (1999:1) states,

It has become popular these days to refer to the goals and needs of students in grammar teaching. Therefore if students need grammar for communication, it should be taught communicatively, that is meaning based. On the other hand, if students need grammar knowledge to be able to translate from L2 into L1 and that is what they are going to be graded on then form-based approach will be more appropriate (p.1).

Similarly, Nachiengamai (1997:5) explains that grammar instruction could be presented both inductively and deductively by considering such factors as ‘learners’ needs’, ‘educational level’, ‘learning styles’ and so on. Thus, it is better if English language teachers use a mixture

of inductive and deductive approaches according to the type and needs of students they are teaching.

In the next part, the teaching of writing skills and the relationship between communicative grammar and writing will be dealt with.

3.3 Part III: The Teaching of Writing Skills

This part discusses the role of writing skills in English language teaching. Different approaches to teaching writing are explained in the Chapter. The important stages in teaching process writing: controlled, guided and free writing are also dealt with. In addition, issues related to integrating writing with major skills, some grammatical errors in students' writing are discussed. Testing writing and the importance of feedback have also been examined. Finally the central issue of this study, integrating communicative grammar in the context of writing and previous research findings on grammar and writing are given due emphasis in this part.

3.3.1 The Role of Writing Skills in English Language Teaching (ELT)

Writing, an important skill in language learning, is a continuing process of discovering how to find the most effective language for communicating one's thoughts and feelings. In other words, people usually write in order to communicate facts, feelings, attitudes, and ideas clearly and effectively. In fact, writing is a complex process that allows writers to explore thoughts and ideas, and make them visible and concrete. It is also a powerful instrument of thinking because it provides students with a way of gaining control over their thoughts (Cotton, 2001). Writing enhances language acquisition as learners experiment with words, sentences, and larger chunks of writing to communicate their ideas and to reinforce the grammar and vocabulary they are learning in the class. It is also a critical area of the school curriculum and an important part of students' career or higher studies after school.

It can be said that the ability to express one's thoughts in writing is an essential part of being educated. Writing is essentially a social act and an integral part of everyday life. Students usually write to communicate with an audience that has expectations about the text type they produce. According to Hedge (1991:8), "Good writers should have a sense of audience, a

sense of direction in their writing”. Hedge, further notes that writing instruction should enable students to write whole texts from connected, contextualized and appropriate pieces of communication in order to make writing meaningful and enjoyable for all students. Studies (e.g. Raimes, 1983; McDonough and Show, 1993) report that writing continues to serve as a vehicle for language practice and it enables students to communicate with each other and helps them as an aid to learning. In addition, writing reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms, and vocabulary that have been taught. This means that students necessarily become involved with these new items of language structure.

Writing can be challenging whether it is in one’s native language or in a second language. It is a difficult skill because writers must balance important issues such as content, organisation and grammar. It is especially difficult for second language learners because they are expected to create written products that demonstrate mastery of the elements needed for writing in a foreign language. As stated above, writing is a complex set of skills that requires continuous practice. Because writing is a complex and challenging activity for many students, teachers should especially focus on the grammatical concepts that are essential for a clear communication of meaning (Chin, 2000). As a result, students can produce effective written language for a variety of purposes and for a variety of audience. Moreover, recent research (e.g. Matsuda, 2003) into teaching writing shows that students’ achievement is higher when the teaching approach emphasises writing as a process rather than writing as a product. This means that students should be encouraged to go through a process of planning, organising, drafting and revising. Furthermore, students who write a lot learn more about the writing process because they have had more experience in different stages of the process. They also learn from each stage as they brainstorm, plan, draft, re-think, revise and re-draft.

3.3.2 Approaches to Teaching Writing

Researchers (e.g. Raimes, 1983; Kroll, 1990; Hedge, 1991; McDonough and Shaw, 1993; Harmer, 2001; Matsuda, 2003; Ghaith, 2004) have indicated that there are several ways to approach writing in the classroom. It should be noted that there is no necessarily any ‘right’ or ‘best’ approach to teach writing skills. The best approach in any situation will depend on the type of students, the text being studied, the school system and many other factors. In this section, an attempt is made to discuss the three major approaches to teaching writing. These are the product approach, the process approach and the genre approach. These three

approaches are not necessarily mutually incompatible. It has been argued that process writing can be integrated with written products in different genres in the classroom. This means that the approaches are not mutually exclusive. Thus writing is both a process and a product within different genres.

3.3.2.1 The Product Approach

The product approach is a traditional approach in which students are encouraged to imitate a model text that is usually presented and analyzed at an early stage. The focus of the product approach in teaching writing has been much more on the end product of what students produced. In this approach, students are not allowed to ‘create’ in the target language at all. Rather, they write on a given topic in a restricted time and hand in the composition to the teacher to ‘correct’ it. Here, the role of the teacher is to be a judge of the finished work (McDonough and show, 1993).

According to Zamel (1983), the proponents of the product approach viewed the composing process as linear. Besides, the product approach leads students and teachers to believe that the planning stage began and ended in the initial period of composition. In fact, the product approach involves students more or less in copying or manipulating the model texts in various ways. For instance, in a formal letter, students may be asked to practise the language used to make formal requests, practising the ‘I would be grateful if you would. . .’ structure or changing declaratives into interrogatives and so on. This means an entire activity of writing in the product approach was seen as an exercise in habit formation (Silva, 1990:13). What is more, students are also asked to write only one draft individually. In sum, importance is usually given to the end product in this approach.

3.3.2.2 The Process Approach

Recently, the teaching of writing has moved away from a focus on written product to an emphasis on the process of writing (Ghaith, 2004). Allen (2003) explains that since the 1980's, process writing has been considered as the most authentic way to teach writing at primary, secondary and university levels. According to Muncie (2002:180), “Process approaches focus on the writer, the creativity and individualism of writing, and the process of writing as a whole, starting from the generation of ideas through to the editing of work, as well as following studies of how successful writers write.”

In the process approach, writing has a recursive nature that encourages the writer to return to any of the earlier stages to change his thinking or to improve their writing. In other words, the writing processes are not linear but rather they are recursive in nature. Besides, students should be encouraged to produce writing that is clear and precise and that communicates with ease and clarity through the process. Teachers also encourage students to write a lot and have a clear sense of purpose and audience while writing on a given topic. This means that writing instruction must include sufficient in-class and out-class activities for writing and should include writing for a variety of purposes and audiences. In this approach, written texts are used as a resource for composition. Moreover, students are expected to write more than one draft in groups. In fact, the emphasis is on the whole creative process. In other words, the process approach treats all writing as a creative act that requires time and positive feedback.

According to a review of current process writing research, the finished product is respected. That is, linguistic competence is viewed as an integral part of communicative competence (Polio, 2003). Kroll (1990) has also pointed out that the major objective in process writing is to achieve the best product possible. In this regard, Weaver (1996) confirms that emphasis on correct grammar should be an integral part of the writing process with students identifying their individual areas of weakness and focusing on them.

Process writing involves a number of stages. In this regard, Hedge (1991: 20) suggests that process writing contains a number of stages that can be represented in the following figure:

Figure 3.1 The stages in process writing

Being Motivated to write	Getting ideas together	Planning and drafting	Making notes _____	Making a first draft	Revising replanning redrafting	Editing and getting ready for publication
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Source: Hedge (1991: 20)

In the following sub-sections, three important stages in process writing: pre-writing, drafting and post-writing will be discussed. Students need frequent opportunities to master the skills involved in the various tasks of the writing process. This means writing abilities are largely acquired through practice and frequent writing.

3.3.2.2.1 Pre-writing

Pre-writing is the first important stage in process writing. It focuses on engaging students in the writing process and helps them discover what is important for them about the given topic at a particular time. Pre-writing activities prepare students for actual writing through different activities. In classroom, pre-writing activities can be integrated into the writing process so that students generate ideas for their writing. It is evident that many teachers give their students opportunities to explore a topic fully in pre-writing activities such as discussion, reading, debate, and brainstorming and list making (Johns, 1990).

Brainstorming is the most crucial of all the stages in the writing process. It is a useful activity that can easily be introduced in writing classroom so that students produce words, phrases and ideas without concern for appropriateness on a given topic. This means it is used to generate as many ideas as possible within a specified time. This can be done as a group or whole class discussion. Students can also list ideas individually or in groups on paper. Thus, this stage becomes a process of discovery of new ideas and language forms to write effectively.

In brainstorming activity, students produce relevant vocabulary, ask questions, and make comments as freely as they can in a short time without worrying about grammar, spelling, organization or the quality of the ideas (Raimes, 1983). This would give students a chance to work with something rather than a blank page. At this stage, teachers provide the necessary support for the right word or structure to help students express their ideas. In sum, at this initial stage ideas for writing are explored and a plan is also formulated. At this level, experiences and observations that students have prior to entering the classroom have an impact upon what and how they write (Krapels, 1990).

3.3.2.2.2 Drafting

Drafting is the second stage in process writing in which students get down to their ideas and thoughts based upon pre-writing activities. During this stage of the writing process, students begin to determine what to include and exclude and make initial decisions about how these ideas will be organized. At this stage, students make an attempt to change words, phrases and fragments into complete sentences and then organize them in to paragraphs and longer discourse. At this point, students put their ideas onto paper without considering grammatical

correctness. Besides, they also begin to develop various styles from their own experiences and make little or no attempt to revise (Matsuda, 2003).

Furthermore, drafting is the stage where formal writing begins. By using prewriting activities as inspiration, students begin to write without worrying too much about mechanics, style or organization. The important thing at this point is getting everything down on paper as quickly and as easily as possible. What is more, during this stage, notes, ideas, and lists are turned into sentences and paragraphs. As in pre-writing, in the drafting stage, students need time and encouragement to engage themselves in the activity (Silva, 1990; Ferries, 2003).

3.3.2.2.3 Post-Writing

Post-writing stage involves revision and editing for content, grammar and clarity of meaning. Students reorganize and sequence relevant ideas, add or delete details as they strive to make their meaning clear. Revisions of words, sentences, paragraphs or the whole text can be made at this stage. Besides, writing conferences with the teacher and peers about ideas and meaning can assist revision. Writing conference is useful because it provides an immediate audience that help to shape students' writing (Leike, 1990).

In this stage students also proofread for grammar accuracy and correctness in spelling, punctuation, capitalization. Proofreading is one example of shaping students' writing for grammar accuracy and correctness in spelling, punctuation, capitalization and so on. Self-editing checklists are useful tools at this level. Peer editing can also be established to help students who are at this stage of the process. When students have an authentic audience and purpose, they want to rework their written drafts, polishing them for presentation or publication (Fathman and Whalley, 1990). The above sub-sections have provided the three main stages in process writing. The next section presents a genre approach to teaching writing skills.

3.3.2.3 The Genre Approach

The genre approach in writing has recently received a lot of attention from applied linguists as well as practitioners. This approach analyses the particular conventions, grammatical as well as organizational, specific types of texts which students need to be able to produce (Dudley-Evans, 1997). The genre approach to teaching writing focuses on teaching particular genres

that students need control of in order to succeed in different academic settings. In this connection, Harmer (2001:259) states

In a genre approach to writing students study texts in the genre they are going to be writing before they embark on their own writing. Thus, if we want them to write business letters of various kinds we let them look at typical models of such letters before starting to compose their own. If we want them to write newspaper articles we have them study real examples to consider facts about construction and specific language use which is common in that genre.

Likewise, Johns (2003:65) argues “Genres are particularly useful to teachers of composition because those who become familiar with common genres develop shortcuts to successful processing and production of written texts.” This might include a focus on language and discourse of the text, as well as the context in which the text is produced.

Similarly, Muncie (2002:180) states, “Genre approaches focus more on the reader, and on the conventions a piece of writing needs to follow in order to be successfully accepted by its readership.” Recent research into teaching writing has shown that students need to be exposed to and have practice in handling various genres. Genre approach considers what writing in certain genre will look like both in terms of organization and linguistic features. This approach places grammar centrally by considering the specific effect of particular structures as they apply to particular types of text. In fact, the issue of genre has been of considerable interest to those interested in academic discourse (Johns, 2003).

Furthermore, speakers and writers use particular genres in order to fulfill certain social functions and to achieve certain goals within particular social and cultural contexts. From a genre perspective, language is both purposeful and inseparable from the social and cultural context in which it occurs. Likewise, Johns (2003) reports that genre is a concept that is both cultural and cognitive because it is developed from people’s experiences and through their own written texts. According to Martin (1985), as cited in Geremew Lemu (1999:101), “Genre refers to any culturally recognized type of activity such as lecture, seminar, service encounter, news broadcast, poem and narrative that is realized by means of language.” The objective of genre approach is to enable students to use genres in appropriate contexts that are important for them and to be successful in their lessons (Johns, 2003).

In this study, the process approach is adopted. This is because this approach gives students the opportunity to work in groups in order to improve their writing skills. In the next sub-section,

the three stages in teaching process writing: controlled writing, guided writing and free writing will be discussed.

3.3.3 Stages in Teaching Writing

It is evident that there are important stages and procedures that students would follow in learning writing skills. In relation to this Hyland (2003) writes

An emphasis on language structure as a basis for teaching writing is typically a four stage process:

1. *familiarization:- learners are taught certain grammar and vocabulary usually through text.*
2. *controlled writing:- learners manipulate fixed patterns, often from substitution tables.*
3. *guided writing:-learners imitate model texts.*
4. *free writing:- learners use the patterns they have developed to write an essay, letter, and so forth (p.34).*

The first stage ‘familiarization’ has already been discussed in Part I of this literature, i.e. the presentation of grammar items in context (communicative grammar). Thus, in the next section, the three stages in teaching writing: controlled writing, guided writing and free writing are discussed.

3.3.3.1 Controlled Writing

Controlled writing draws students’ attention to specific features of written language. It can be used to reinforce grammar, vocabulary and syntax in context. According to Raimes (1983:115), “Controlled writing tasks give students the opportunity to produce a great deal of almost error free writing and also to draw their attention to troublesome grammatical and syntactic features.” Raimes, further notes that controlled writing is a valuable method at all levels. The tasks in controlled writing make students focus on one or two problems at a time. Pincas (1989:124) has pointed out that controlled writing leads students to produce correct written work. In the next sub-section, guided writing will be dealt with.

3.3.3.2 Guided Writing

Guided writing is a teaching component designed to teach a specific skill or grammar to students and to give them practice in writing. Guided writing allows students to practice a grammatical item or syntactic structure within a text. Scrivener (1994) points out that guided

writing is a very important classroom technique for helping students to become better writers. It is preceded by some controlled exercises. In this regard, Pincas (1989: 102) points out

Guided writing stands as a bridge between controlled and free writing. It includes any writing for which students are given assistance such as a model to follow, a plan or out line to expand from, a partly written version with indication of how to complete it, or pictures that show a new subject to write about in the same way as something that has been read.

In guided writing, students are supported as needed by a teacher who provides instruction through writing lessons and conferences. Indeed, the writing lesson session is focused on specific aspects of writing that students need to develop. The purpose of guided writing is to give students the opportunity to expand their writing skills. It is also an important step in the continuum towards free writing. Teachers could present writing lessons that emerge from what they notice students' need to learn from observing their writing.

What is more, guided writing is useful for a range of teaching purposes. It allows students to focus on conventions such as grammar, spelling, punctuation and handwriting. In guided writing, students are encouraged to write on a topic chosen by themselves or by their teachers. During the activity, when students are writing, teachers move among them giving assistance and guidance as required. Activities such as sentence combining, dictogloss, and parallel writing are some examples of guided writing. Below three types of guided writing activities: sentence combining, dictogloss and parallel writing are discussed.

3.3.3.2.1 Sentence Combining

Sentence combining is an activity in which students combine simple sentences into longer compound or complex sentences. Sentences can be combined for variety. Researchers (e.g. Raimes, 1983; Frodesen, 1991) on teaching writing have found that sentence combining exercises improve students' sentence structure, length of sentence, and sentence variety. That is, students could increase their syntactic fluency and writing ability when introduced to sentence combining activities. Moreover, sentence combining is a very good way of introducing new language structures without going into complicated grammatical explanations. In this connection, Raimes (1983: 109) reports that "sentence combining does provide plenty of practice with the syntactic structures that are more common in writing than

in speech and gives students the chance to use the grammatical knowledge they have to make choices about structure.” Likewise, Frodesen (1991) explains that sentence combining is very useful for practising a particular grammatical structure in order to help students become aware of different strategies to improve syntactic fluency.

3.3.3.2 Dictogloss

Dictogloss is one of many innovative language teaching techniques. It is an activity in which short pieces of language are read out at normal speed to students so that they reconstruct the gist of the text from their own notes (Davis and Rinvoluceri, 1988; Jacobs, 2003). Dictogloss, a new way to do dictation, is developed by Wajnryb (1991). This is because dictation in the traditional form has been criticized as a rote learning method in which students merely make a copy of the text the teacher reads without doing any thinking; they produce a mechanical form of literacy. Thus, dictogloss represents a major shift from traditional dictation. According to Jacobs (2003:3), dictogloss has four important stages:

- i. Preparation: introducing the topic, the language focus and the key vocabulary.
- ii. Dictation: reading the text at a normal speed. Read the text again, and on the second reading students individually make very brief notes of key words and phrases, sentence fragments.
- iii. Reconstruction: here, students are allowed to work in pairs and then they are grouped to compare notes and write a shared version of the text, editing for accurate grammar, punctuation, spelling and content.
- iv. Analysis and correction: at this stage, students compare reconstructions with other groups and with the original and discuss the difference.

Furthermore, dictogloss is also instrumental to integrate grammar with writing skills. It also seeks to combine a focus on meaning with a focus on form.

3.3.3.2.3 Parallel Writing

Parallel writing is one form of guided writing. In parallel writing, students are asked to read and study a model passage and then write a similar topic on their own using the vocabulary, sentence structure, cohesive devices and organization of the given model text. According to Byrne (1988:37), in parallel writing, “students are given a model text of some kind and are asked to write a similar text with the help of cues”. This kind of activity is very helpful for students to improve grammatical accuracy in their writing.

3.3.3.3 Free Writing

Free writing is an activity in which students practise earlier exercises without teachers' support. In this kind of activity, there should be a link with the previous work but students are required to create their own essay on a given topic (Pincas, 1989). Free writing enables students to write down in their own words what they feel, ideas they have and what they think about a given topic. According to Raimes (1983:95), "Free writing is an activity where students generate, organize and express their own ideas in their own sentences".

Free writing is the final stage of a writing lesson. At this stage, students might also need to be assisted in getting started and in organizing their ideas so that they can concentrate on the actual writing activity. The emphasis in free writing activity is usually on content and fluency rather than on accuracy and form. It is believed that once ideas are written down on the page, grammatical accuracy and organization follow. This means free writing exercise is a way of developing fluency in writing (Matsuda, 2003:19).

Besides the three important stages in teaching writing, integrating writing with major language skills is also important as discussed in the section below.

3.3.4 Integrating Writing with Major Skills

Many linguists and researchers have given support to the idea of integrating language skills in English language teaching. English language teachers are also aware of the importance of integrating major language skills such as writing, speaking, listening, reading as a means of presenting, practising language forms and functions. In this connection, Byrne (1988: 108) reports,

The use of any skill may lead on quite naturally to the use of another. Reading, for instance, is just likely to lead to speaking as the reverse. To give a simple example, if we read an ad for a job in the newspaper, we may discuss it with someone (and perhaps leave it at that) or we may ring up and enquire about the job. We may then write a letter of application for the job, which will in turn lead on to somebody else's reading the letter and replying to it.

Hence, integration of language skills is essential because it allows learners to practise the four language skills. In every day life, people use language skills in different interactive situations in an integrated way. According to Rivers and Temperley (1978:258), the most effective writing practice has a close connection with what is being practised in relation to other skills. The high level of composition is possible only when students attain some degree of mastery of other skills. When writing is integrated with other major skills, it becomes part of communication.

3.3.4.1 Listening and Writing

In fact, there are different situations in which listening and writing skills are integrated with each other. For instance, students listen to news and are asked to write an article or story about one of the news items. Students can also write a summary of a talk they have heard on the radio or TV. A very good example of integrating listening with writing in classroom situation is dictogloss in which students listen to a text and are asked to write a summary of the text read aloud to them by their teachers (See section 3.8.2.2. for details). In higher institution of learning, students also write down a summary of what instructors lecture on.

3.3.4.2 Speaking and Writing

It is evident that writing is not a skill that can be learned in isolation. In a classroom, there are different activities that call for the integration of speaking and writing. For instance, students could be given a topic to discuss in groups and then asked to write the summary of their discussion. Students usually speak in order to rehearse the language and content that will go into what they write. As pointed out earlier in this Chapter (Section 3.3.2.2.1), brainstorming is a good example of integrating speaking and writing. In this activity, students generate various relevant ideas on the topic given and are asked to write based on the discussion. Actually, this is one way of pre-writing activities in which students are made to produce as many ideas as possible for starting their planning and drafting. Besides, writing conferences where students talk about their work with a teacher, who can give suggestions and comments on what the student is writing, are also very helpful uses of speech in the writing process (Borjars and Burrige, 2001).

3.3.4.3 Reading and Writing

According to Shuying (2002), reading and writing are closely related and students who read a lot have a much easier time to develop their writing skills. Likewise, writing can also help students become better readers. In addition, reading is a vital source of information and ideas for students to write effectively. The view of writing as communication suggests an interactive process that takes place between the reader and the writer through the text. This shows that reading and writing are closely related to each other. Moreover, reading provides models of what English texts look like. It also provides input that helps students develop awareness of written texts. Grabe (2003) states that reading and writing are complementary cognitive processes; students should be encouraged to draw on their experience in one to solve problems in the other. That is why reading and writing are being taught in integrated language skills. To this effect, in teaching reading, teachers could make specific references to features of writing; and while teaching writing, teachers may talk about accommodating the needs of readers.

Besides, English language teachers give various writing tasks that require a great deal of reading in order to analyze academic materials. Thus, students could be assisted in preparing academic writing assignments by using reading as a basis to practise such skills as summarizing, paraphrasing and interpreting concepts. According to Hedge (1991:11), in order to be a good writer, students need to read a lot. In other words, one way to help students become better writers is to make sure that they have lots of extended time to read in and out of school. It has also been claimed that any communicative writing skills must contain a large component of reading (Rivers and Temperley, 1978). Therefore, it can be argued that reading and writing are integral to learning in all subject areas. As students develop strategies for making sense of what they read, and engage in the writing process, they could develop their abilities to communicate effectively in writing. On the whole, the integration of writing with major language skills will have a profound effect on students' writing abilities.

In the next section, writing and some common grammatical errors in students' writing will be discussed.

3.3.5 Some Common Grammatical Errors in Students' Writing

According to Dulay and Burt (1982:138), "Errors are those parts of conversation or composition that deviate from some selected norm of mature language performance." In this regard, Dulay and Burt (1982:139) have classified errors into four broad categories: linguistic errors, surface strategy errors, comparative errors, and communicative errors. In fact, the main concerns of this study are linguistic errors and communicative errors. It has also been argued that errors that affect the entire meaning and understanding of a sentence could be considered more important than other errors. In addition, Kroll (1990) suggests that grammatical errors should be dealt with at the final stage of the writing process, that is, at the editing phase when the meaning students want to express has been adequately dealt with.

Furthermore, teachers can help learners develop strong writing skills through editing techniques. They can identify students errors by using correction symbols that help students identify their errors and correct the errors when they go through their texts for a second time. Gurrey (1976:97) remarks that errors should be corrected according to the proficiency level of students. Gurrey further says, 'In process writing, errors in language use are not seen bad, but rather as indications of the learners' active efforts to master a complex linguistic system'. Besides, Mahili (1994) argues that correcting every error discourages students' confidence and wastes valuable time.

It is evident that the main concern of any writer is to communicate their ideas clearly to readers. It is also true that in many instances grammatical errors usually lead to confusion and misunderstanding. In view of this, four common grammatical errors that most seriously distract students' writing namely, sentence fragment, faulty parallelism, faulty agreement, and faulty pronominal reference are discussed below.

3.3.5.1 Sentence Fragment

Fragments are incomplete sentences written by students. Sentence fragment is the most serious of all grammatical errors. Students who usually write fragments as complete sentences are those who are unable to recognize that a sentence is a basic unit of expression in written language (Leggett et al 1988). Actually, in conversation students use fragments that establish a sense of completeness. For instance, most answers to questions are fragments: 'Where are

you going?’ ‘Home.’ However, written language demands complete sentences. The standard sentence in written English contains a subject (expressed or implied) and a verb. Although fragmentary sentences occur in many forms in students’ writing, the most frequent are dependent clauses and verbal phrases. Mostly students consider dependent clause as a sentence. The fact that a group of words contains a subject and verb does not necessarily mean that the construction is a complete sentence. Besides, many students also consider verbal phrase as a subject. A verbal phrase cannot be used as the verb of a sentence (Legget et al, 1988). Therefore, it cannot stand alone as a sentence. Thus Table 3:1 presents a sample of such sentence fragments.

Table 3:1: Sentence Fragments

Fragment (phrase or dependent clause)	Possible Revision
I was disappointed when the circus failed to arrive. That being my only reason for coming to town.	I was disappointed when the circus failed to arrive that being my only reason for coming to town.
The procedure is essentially correct. Although I can’t say I approve of the final result.	The procedure is essentially correct although I can’t say I approve of the final result.
I need to find a new roommate. Because the one I have now isn't working out too well.	I need to find a new roommate because the one I have now isn’t working out too well.
Addis Ababa University offers many majors in engineering. Such as electrical, chemical, and industrial engineering.	Addis Ababa University offers many majors in engineering such as electrical, chemical, and industrial engineering.
My greatest desire has been a fairly simple one. To live close to the sea with in sound of the wave.	My greatest desire has been a fairly simple one: to live close to the sea with in sound of the wave.

(Source: Internet)

It could be noticed from the above table that fragments are frequently dependent clauses or verbal phrases. One of the easiest ways to correct sentence fragments is to remove the period between the fragment and the main clause and put a comma or colon in place of the period and a small letter in place of the capital.

3.3.5.2 Faulty Agreement

Agreement is the other common error that students usually commit in their writing. It is the grammatical relationship between a subject and a verb. Lack of agreement between subject and verb might be the result of carelessness in composition or editing. However, students use a singular subject with a plural verb or a plural subject with a singular verb because they are uncertain of the number of subjects. It should be noted that in writing a verb should agree in number with its subject, i.e. a singular verb with a singular subject, and a plural verb with a plural subject. There are three particular situations that cause the problem of agreement in number between the subject and verb (Wardhaugh, 2003:82).

1) Singular subjects separated from the verb by plural element. Frequently, the verb is separated from a singular subject by a subordinate construction containing a plural noun.

Consider the following examples:

e.g: 1) The remark that he made with reference to the strikes at the Medroc companies is (not are) both vicious and false.

2) The welcome given to him by his friends was (not were) heart warming (source: Internet).

It should be remembered that when the phrases ‘together with’, ‘along with’, ‘as well as’ are set off by comma, they are not considered part of the subject. One important reason for the occurrence of subject-verb wrong agreement is inadequate proof-reading and revision. A more serious reason however is the inability of the writer to distinguish the subject.

2) Mistakes of number of the subject: The indefinite pronouns (everyone, each, either, neither, and so on) used as the subject take a singular verb. They frequently cause difficulty in subject-verb agreement when they are followed by a prepositional phrase with a plural object.

e.g.: 1) Each of the men is (not are) waiting for his turn.

2) Does (not do) either of you have a match?

3) Neither of us has (not have) one. (Source: Internet)

A compound subject connected by ‘and’ requires a plural verb.

For example: Steak and fresh salad are his favorite food.

However, the above claim is not always true, for instance:

There’s hundreds of people on the waiting list. (Informal style) According to Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:176), ‘A subject which is not definitely marked for plural requires a singular verb.’

The hammer and sickle was flying. (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:117)

But a compound subject connected by the conjunctions ‘either- or’, ‘neither- nor’ requires a verb that agrees with the subject nearer to the verb.

e.g.: 1) Neither Bezawit nor her brothers are very much interested in music.

2) Either the two criminals or your brother is lying.

3) Delayed subjects in ‘there is’, ‘there are’ constructions usually cause confusion. The subject of sentences beginning with either of these constructions comes after the verb.

e.g.:1) There are two important elements that make up this compound.

2) There is only one explanation for his refusal to go.

3.3.5.3 Faulty parallelism

Faulty parallelism is an error in which two or more parts of a sentence are not parallel in form. Such an error distracts the readers’ attention and disturbs the flow of reading. When two elements of a sentence are similar in meaning, they should be constructed in a parallel form. In other words, all linked words should match in form.

e.g.:*My brother brought me a pen, a pencil, and he gave me a book.

All of the linked words should be in the same form but the last one does not have the same form. Thus, this sentence can be improved in the following way:

e.g.: My brother brought me a pen, a pencil, and a book. (Source: Lobeck, 2000:56)

The following are some guidelines that help learners avoid faulty parallelism:

- 1) When listing a series of things, actions, or ideas, the items in the list should be expressed in a similar manner. Words such as by, to, that, and because should be repeated in order to signal parallelism.

Faulty: * Yohannes went to the barber’s, visited the butcher shop, and stopped off at the movie theatre.

Parallel: Yohannes went to the barber’s, to the butcher shop, and to the movie theatre.

- 2) When making comparisons using the words than or as, one should be sure that the things compared are similar logically as well as grammatically.

Faulty: * The girls in Addis Ababa are prettier than Dire Dawa.

Parallel: The girls in Addis Ababa are prettier than the girls in Dire Dawa.

- 3) When using correlative conjunctions (*not only- but also; both - and; neither- nor, either- or*), the construction that follows the first half of the pair should be exactly balanced by the construction that follows the second half of the pair.

Faulty:* He is either a mad man or he is a fool.

Parallel: He is either a madman or a fool. /Either he is a madman, or he is a fool. (Source: Batstone, 1994, Lobeck, 2000, Internet)

3.3.5.4 Faulty Pronominal Reference

Faulty use of pronouns for reference can confuse readers and obscure the intended meaning. Every pronoun students write should refer clearly to only one particular noun. This noun is called the antecedent. In other words, the antecedent of a pronoun is the word the pronoun refers to. Thus, students should place pronouns as close to their antecedents as possible and make pronoun references exact, clear and obvious.

e.g. Correct reference: After buying some disks, Henok puts them in the cabinet.

Here the pronoun 'them' clearly refers to the noun 'disks'. 'Disks' is the antecedent of the pronoun them.

However, in the sentence 'After putting the disk in the cabinet, Henok sold it.' Here the pronoun it does not have a clear noun antecedent, and such error is called faulty pronoun reference.

There are three major pronoun reference errors and ways to correct them so that students can avoid pronoun reference errors in their writings.

- 1) Too many antecedents: A pronoun should have only one antecedent (the noun it refers to).

e.g.: Incorrect reference: Take the radio out of the car and fix it.

Here, any one who reads this sentence would not know which item was to be fixed because the pronoun 'it' has two possible noun antecedents: the radio and the car. Thus, it is possible to improve this sentence by substituting a noun for the pronoun. Take the radio out of the car and fix the radio.

- 2) Hidden antecedents: faulty pronoun reference errors also occur when the pronoun's antecedent functions as an adjective rather than a noun. In such a case, the antecedent is obscured for the reader because it has

been subordinated to another noun. Thus, we call this kind of faulty antecedent, a hidden antecedent.

e.g. The candy dish was empty, but we were tired of eating it any way.

The reader of this sentence might think that the dish was being eaten because, dish appears to be the antecedent of the pronoun 'it'. Obviously people do not eat dishes. What this writer means to say is, 'We were tired of eating candy'. However, *candy* cannot be the antecedent of *it* because candy, situated in front of the noun dish, it functions as an adjective. Only nouns can be antecedents. Thus, we can avoid this error by substituting the appropriate noun for the pronoun 'it'. 'The candy dish was empty, but we were tired of eating candy any way'.

3) No antecedent at all: another kind of faulty pronoun reference problems occurs when writers use pronoun without giving the pronoun any antecedent at all.

e.g. The witness called the television station, but they didn't answer.

(Source: Internet)

But who are 'they' mentioned in the sentence? In this example, the pronoun 'they' has no noun antecedent to which it can refer. Thus, this sentence can be improved by changing the pronoun with an antecedent into a noun. 'The witness called the television station, but the reporters did not answer' or to create an antecedent -one that is clear like, 'The witness called the television reporters but they did not answer'.

In the sub-sections above, the researcher has tried to discuss each grammar error type by suggesting ways to correct them so that students could improve grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities. In the next section, testing writing in EFL classrooms will be discussed.

3.3.6 Testing writing in EFL Classrooms

It is obvious that a test is a formal classroom activity that is carefully prepared and devised by a teacher or group of teachers for students. It has been argued that testing should be a central and integral part of learning material. This means testing and learning are closely related and tests are usually constructed to reinforce learning and motivate students to learn better (Heaton, 1990). A test is used as a measuring instrument or as the basis for an on-going assessment of learners' achievement. In language classes, four types of tests are commonly

used depending on the criteria of their classification. These include: proficiency tests, achievement tests, diagnostic tests and placement tests (Hughes, 1989). Below is a brief description of each of the test type referred to above. Proficiency tests are designed to measure the ability of students without giving any training. This means proficiency test is not based on the content or objective of language courses. Proficiency tests are not usually prepared by classroom teachers. Achievement tests, on the other hand, are directly related to language courses, and are often prepared by classroom teachers. Such tests are reliable only if they reflect the content and the objectives of the language courses. Diagnostic tests are intended to identify what further teaching learners need. These tests are used to find out students' strengths and weaknesses in the contents taught. Placement tests are intended to provide information which will help to place students at a certain level of the teaching programme that is most appropriate to their abilities. Such tests are used to assign students to classes at different levels.

Tests can be subjective and objective (Bachman, 1970; Harrison, 1983; Hughes, 1989). In order for tests to have any value both for teachers and students, they must be valid, reliable, discriminative and practical. The validity of a test is the extent to which the test measures what it is intended to measure; the reliability of a test is the extent to which the data collection procedure is consistent and accurate (Rea, 1985). Weir (1990), states that there are two approaches for testing writing: the indirect testing of writing and the direct testing of writing. In indirect testing of writing students, for example, are asked to edit a text containing a number of errors of grammar, spelling and punctuation, and to re-write the passage by making all the necessary corrections. The direct testing of writing includes essay tests, controlled writing, guided writing, free writing and summary. In this study, the researcher used the direct testing of writing.

According to Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990), in testing writing it is important to provide learners with specific guidelines as to the nature of the task. It is also important for written tests to pay attention only to those aspects of the tasks that learners were asked to consider. With regard to marking, Heaton (1991) has suggested three major marking methods. These are error count method, the analytical method and the impression or multiple marking methods. Error count method involves counting up the number of errors students make, but it ignores different categories of errors and content. The procedure used consists of counting the errors made by each student and deducting the number from a given total. The analytical

method is useful for a class progress test. This method depends on a marking guideline which has been carefully prepared by the examiner or group of examiners. Besides, there should be flexibility in the divisions (such as grammar, vocabulary, content etc.) or the weighting given to them in the analytic method. In this research project the analytic method is used. This is because Heaton (1991) and Weir (1990) suggest that the analytic method is useful to improve the reliability and validity of writing tests since it uses a marking guideline. The impression method (multiple marking) is also valuable for marking a large number of compositions. Actually, marks are awarded based on the total impression of the composition as a whole. In impression method, two or three markers score each paper, marks being averaged out to reveal the testee's score. This method is found to be much faster than analytic or error count method.

According to Weir (1990: 86), "Performance tasks, such as controlled writing tasks, listening to lectures and note taking, and face to face spoken interaction tasks, are receiving increased attention in the testing literature and, where relevant, they should be developed for inclusion in future tests." Similarly, in this study the pre and post-tests include controlled writing, guided writing and free writing.

In the next section, the importance of feedback in teaching writing will be discussed.

3.3.7 The Importance of Feedback in Teaching Writing

It is evident that feedback is an essential aspect of any writing courses. It is also a valuable aid to improve students' writing skills. Positive feedback is especially important in building up student confidence in the writing process. Besides, feedback involves students in revising and editing of their own texts so that it becomes part of the writing process for both students and teachers. It has been suggested that teachers should not dominate students with the correction procedure (Ferris, 2003). Peer and self-correction can help students recognize both grammatical and lexical errors as well as problems with content, organization, and development of ideas and clarity of writing.

A number of studies (e.g. Cohen and Cavalcanti, 1990; Kroll, 1990; Ferris, 2003) argue that feedback given to what students write is an indispensable tool to the improvement of the

writing skills. Besides, studies on process writing (e.g. Krapels, 1990; Hamp-Lyons, 1990; Matsuda, 2003) report that feedback which does not involve students in re-writing and revision is of little help for students to improve their writing skills. According to Dulay et al (1982: 34), “Feedback generally refers to the listeners or reader’s response given to the learner’s speech or writing.” Correction is one type of feedback. Kroll (1990) says, “The best approach to feedback must undoubtedly derive from considering the circumstances of the individual student coupled with the goals of the course and the stage of the composing process a particular draft reflects.” Besides, Frodesen (1991) states that students usually do not pay much attention to correct their final compositions. To this effect, teacher feedback on error seems most helpful. In this regard, Nachengmai (1997:4) suggests that teachers can help students improve their composition through using various editing techniques such as correction symbols (e.g., SP for error in spelling; NP for not appropriate word etc.). Similarly, researchers (e.g. Shaughnessy, 1977; Raimes, 1983; Edge, 1989; Byrne, 1988) have suggested different correction procedures:

- i. Correcting all the mistakes
- ii. Correcting mistakes selectively
- iii. Indicating mistakes so that students can correct them.

In fact, in product approach, feedback is usually given after students finish writing their papers in the form of ‘error corrections’ and ‘written commentary’ (Byrne, 1988). However, researchers in process writing (e.g Raimes, 1983; Zamel, 1985) criticized the feedback provided after students finished their writing. This is because such type of feedback rarely improves students’ writing skills.

In fact, it may be difficult to decide on what and how much to correct in students’ writing. This is because students can develop a negative attitude towards writing if their teachers correct all their errors or if their teachers correct only a few. Students might also feel that teachers have not spent enough time looking at their work. English language teachers can evaluate the different correction procedures and decide which would be appropriate for their own teaching situations.

Researchers (e.g. Cohen and Cavalcanti, 1990; Kroll, 1990) argue that teachers should consistently use a standard set of symbols for marking to indicate type of error and train the students in what kinds of corrections to make based on each symbol. Actually, list of proof

reading symbols can easily be found in most writing textbooks, or teachers can create their own. Without training in how to use the comments to improve their writing, students are likely to ignore the comments, misunderstand them, or fail to use them constructively (Dawit Assefa, 2003).

Generally, teachers need to develop more systemized and consistent forms of feedback that take advantage of the process approach. They also need to familiarize and train students in how to effectively use the feedback in order to produce efficient written texts.

3.3.8 The Role of Communicative Grammar in Teaching Writing Skills

In the previous sub-sections, an attempt has been made to discuss the teaching of grammar and the teaching of writing in some more detail. In this section, the role of communicative grammar in teaching writing skills, which is the central part of this study, will be discussed. The issue of communicative grammar instruction in the context of writing has become one of the important innovations in second and foreign language teaching in recent years. Many applied linguists (Zhang, 1994; Weaver, 1997; Celce-Murcia, 1997; Lee, 1998; Chin, 2000; Devet, 2002; Muncie, 2002; Allen, 2003) argue that communicative grammar could be integrated with process writing classes in order to help students write more effectively and accurately. Hudson (2001) in particular states that the effect of grammar teaching on students' writing is currently a major change in English language teaching.

Moreover, it is held that there has recently been a shift away from the teaching of grammar in isolation to integrating it with writing. As noted earlier, a number of researchers (Weaver, 1996; Chin, 2000, Hudson, 2001) have indicated that one of the most important innovations to emerge in the English language teaching is that the teaching of communicative grammar in the context of writing. They have further noted that integrating grammar with writing instruction provides students with a variety of syntactic strategies for effective communication and helps them understand how grammar contributes to meaning. For instance, Reppen (1991) has emphasized the importance of language form and structure as an integral part of meaningful language use in writing instruction. He, further suggests that the teaching of grammar as an aid to writing.

Furthermore, in teaching communicative grammar in the context of writing, teachers should focus on one grammar item at a time in writing classes. This means that teachers could only deal with one element of grammar in written language at a time. For instance, if the majority of students have problems with adverbs, English language teachers may focus on them in various ways by using various texts and tasks for a while. Teachers could also provide reading texts that are highly contrived to illustrate the use of adverbs that students can analyze for adverbial rules and functions. They could also be given small descriptive and narrative types of tasks that call for the use of adverbs in their own texts when editing them or, correcting the grammar therein (Maria and Kamyin, 1996).

What is more, in order to teach writing effectively English teachers have to be clear about the kinds of texts they are assigning and the grammar features that will be most functional for student writing (Perera, 1992; Kameen, 1996). With an understanding of the linguistic features of academic writing tasks, teachers can help students use the grammatical resources available to them to expand and develop their writing skills. Further, teachers can also help students learn to use the grammatical features that help them write in the ways that are valued at school (Ur, 1988).

Accordingly, English language teachers teach grammatical items that are critically needed for editing, and they could also present these items mostly through mini-lessons and conferences while helping students edit their texts/writings. To this effect, students should be given adequate opportunities and encouragement to write for a variety of purposes and real audience. On the whole, teaching communicative grammar in the context of writing is not always an easy task; it requires a commitment to teach and read students' writing. It also requires a commitment with which teachers are able to conference with students and identify the issues in their writings that most need to be addressed. Moreover, English language teachers should have adequate knowledge in preparing communicative grammar activities that are useful in teaching writing skills. In this regard, the researcher believes that if teachers are helped to participate in different workshops regarding communicative grammar in the context of writing, they can become committed to prepare different communicative grammar activities that would be very helpful for students to improve grammar accuracy in their writing abilities.

Relating her experience, Chin (2000) underlines the fact that the most beneficial way of helping students improve their command of grammar in writing is to use students' writing as

the basis for discussing grammatical concepts. Based on students' writing, English teachers can use knowledge of grammatical forms to address specific needs of students and prepare grammar lessons for learners at all stages of the writing process. In this way, grammar instruction may be integrated with various writing tasks/activities. Grammar could also be presented to learners not as a prescriptive model of error correction but as an aid to conveying meaning appropriately based on students' needs. Besides, grammar instruction that is relevant to the students' own writing, and that focuses on the process of writing develop students' writing abilities.

Indeed, students find communicative grammar very interesting when they apply it to authentic texts such as clippings from newspapers and their own writings as sources for grammar examples and exercises. This approach will make grammar teaching relevant and productive. It also helps teachers realize the artificiality of studying sentences in isolation. Students can also see how sentences are connected and contrasted to one another through their writing (Sheen, 2003; Allen, 2003).

As teachers integrate grammar instruction with writing, they could use grammar terms that make sense to the students. By incorporating grammar terms naturally into the processes of revision, editing and proof-reading, teachers can help students understand and apply grammar purposefully to their own writing. Concerning this, Chin (2000: 5) states, "Strategies such as writing conferences, partnership writing, grammar mini- lessons, and peer response groups are valuable methods for integrating grammar in writing instruction." For instance, to plan an effective grammar mini-lesson, teachers could identify the weaknesses of their students' by reading their written work. Besides, integrating grammar instruction into the revision and editing process helps students make immediate application of grammar to their own writing.

Hence, it is possible to integrate grammar instruction in process writing during the proofreading phase. Chin (2000:5) further notes, "After students have written their drafts and feel comfortable with the ideas and organization of their writing, teachers may wish to employ various strategies to help them see grammatical concepts that can enhance their writing purposes." In addition, discussing with classmates in peer editing groups will help students improve their own grammar skills as well as to understand the importance of grammar as a useful tool to be used (Mahili, 1994). It should also be noted that in discussing grammar teaching in relation to writing, it is important to consider students' errors. This would help teachers to know what aspects of grammar they should focus on in their mini-grammar

lessons. Moreover, students can be editors themselves when they work in pairs with an awareness of grammar (Nachiengmai, 1997). Besides, a careful analysis of the mistakes in the composition class can provide the information on which to base warm up grammar activities that are appropriate to the level of students.

Based on the insights gained from research on language pedagogy, applied linguists suggest that rather than striving to teach all grammatical concepts to all students, teachers should prioritize and provide instruction on the grammatical elements that most affect their students' writing abilities to communicate effectively in their day-to-day life. Weaver (1996:3), for example, identifies four important grammatical concepts:

- i. Teaching concepts of subjects, verb, sentence, clause, phrase, agreement, sentence variety, length, parallelism etc.
- ii. Teaching style through sentence combining and sentence generating;
- iii. Teaching punctuation and mechanics for clarity, and style;
- iv. Teaching sentence sense through manipulation of syntactic elements.

3.3.9 Previous Research Findings on Grammar and Writing

For over a century, the effect of grammar on students writing has been of interest among language researchers, but very limited research has been conducted. The findings have also been inconclusive perhaps because previous studies and reviews have not been sufficiently comprehensive to answer the question of effectiveness conclusively. In fact, it has been difficult to get access to more recent research in the area of grammar for writing on both L₁ and L₂ contexts. Because of this, the present project has reviewed a few studies that take us 3 or 4 decades back.

As mentioned above, the role of grammar in writing instruction has been an area of controversy even today. First language (L₁) composition researchers have found that traditional grammar instruction had little effect in improving students' writing. Research studies in England (Harris, 1962), New Zealand (Elley et al, 1976), the United States (Hillocks, 1986), all point to the same conclusion that traditional grammar has no value in improving students' writing. For instance, in the UK study, Harris, (1962) examined the impact of traditional grammar on ten classes with 109 students from five secondary schools in London covering a period of two years. Harris had a control group receiving 'no grammar' instruction. Both groups were exposed nearly to the same course for four periods, with the experimental group having a fifth period to extra composition studies. At the end of his two

years study, Harris used writing samples evaluated primarily on sentence errors and sentence complexity to compare his two groups. He found that the experimental group performed significantly worse than the control group. He concluded that traditional grammar had insignificant effect in improving students' writing.

Similarly, in New Zealand, Elley et al. (1976) conducted research with 248 students in 8 matched classes of average abilities for three years. The Elley study compared the effects of three different groups: transformational grammar group, the reading and writing group and the traditional grammar group. Those who studied traditional or transformational generative grammar for three years, two periods a week, showed no benefits in reading, writing or editing in comparison with the three classes who studied no grammar, but devoted the same amount of time to extra reading and writing. The study noted that the grammar groups finished with less positive attitudes towards English. Nevertheless, Hudson (2001:9) says "Research on the effectiveness of teaching English grammar in improving English composition has been mainly negative, but until this research has been repeated with improved methods of teaching English grammar I will remain unconvinced that grammar is useless in this respect."

Weaver (1996), on her part, advocated teaching grammar within the context of writing. She argued that a behaviorist view that drill alone will result in accurate applications of rules is faulty because it assumes that the concepts students learn in isolation will be transferred to other contexts. She proposed that a constructivist model encourages students to grapple with both the meaning of the conventions and their useful applications. Weaver suggested that teachers could use grammar lessons to introduce concepts and guide students in gaining an awareness of grammatical patterns and in providing opportunities to students to arrive at their own generalizations about use. Grammar lessons would present new information of value to writers while extended grammar lessons would offer opportunities for elaboration and collaborative practice.

In fact, the present researcher has not come across empirical studies on the teaching of grammar in the context of second language (L2) writing. As noted in Chapter 1, in our local Ethiopian context although studies have been carried out by Mamo Kefele (1981), Tesfaye Abebe (1991), Italo Beriso (1999), Geremew Lemu (1999), Dereje Tadesse (2001), Dawit Assefa (2003), Mesfin Aberra (2004) and Alamirew G/Maria,, (2005) in the area of writing,

none of them has dealt with the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students' academic writing in Ethiopia. Thus, this study attempts to investigate whether or not communicative grammar tasks enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities.

3.3.10 Conclusion

In this Chapter, an attempt has been made to discuss important issues in relation to communicative grammar and writing. One important issue discussed in the Chapter is the role of grammar in English language teaching and five types of grammar have been discussed. The three methods of grammar teaching have also been presented in this chapter.

Another important issue discussed in the Chapter is the role of writing in English language teaching. Three approaches to teaching writing, namely, product, process and genre-approaches have also been examined. Another important issue raised is writing and some grammatical errors in students' writing. In addition, testing writing in EFL classrooms and the importance of feedback in teaching writing have been dealt with.

The effect of communicative grammar in the context of writing has emerged as an important innovation in recent times in English language teaching. However, the research establishing whether or not grammar could help enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities is scanty. This has also been discussed in the chapter. This study has, therefore, tried to investigate whether or not communicative grammar tasks could help enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities in second/foreign language (L₂) context.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study, as introduced in Chapter one, was to investigate whether or not communicative grammar tasks enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities. The study is mainly experimental since it tries to find out the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students' academic writing. It also investigates students' and teachers' attitude towards communicative grammar in the context of writing and the problem they encounter during the experiment. To this effect, it calls for a qualitative approach.

This chapter attempts to discuss the research design and methodology. As background to the choice of the research methods used for the purpose of the study, the four schools of thought about knowledge: Positivism, Constructivism, Advocacy/Participatory and Pragmatism will be discussed in brief. Furthermore, three approaches to research that drive from the four schools of thought viz., quantitative, qualitative and mixed method approach will also be briefly reviewed.

Hence, this study has used a mixed method approach. The subjects, the methods and the procedures used in the study are discussed in detail in this chapter. The chapter also discusses the pilot study. In the next section, a brief background about the four schools of thought and the three research approaches will be discussed.

4.2 Research Paradigms: The Four Schools of Thought about Knowledge and the Three Approaches to Research

According to Creswell (2003) and (Laws, 2003), there are four schools of thought about knowledge: Positivism/Post-Positivism, Constructivism, Advocacy/Participatory and Pragmatism. Positivism has governed the traditional claim of the absolute truth of knowledge. Post-Positivism has recognised that it is impossible to be 'positive' about our claims of knowledge when studying the behaviour and actions of human beings. Thus Post-Positivists emphasize the need to examine causes that influence outcomes, for instance issues examined

in the experiments. The knowledge sought through a post-positivist theory is based on careful observation and measurement. As a result, developing numeric measures of observations and studying the behaviour of individuals become very significant for a post-positivist. Thus, post-positivists strongly suggest that theories that govern the world need to be tested and refined so that we can understand the world in a better way. In this regard, Creswell (2003:32) says, “In the scientific method-the accepted approach to research by post-positivist, an individual begins with a theory, collects data that either supports or refutes the theory and then makes necessary revisions before additional tests are conducted.”

The second school of thought about knowledge is social constructivism. In this school of thought, it is believed that people seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. They develop subjective meanings of their experience. These meanings are varied and multiple leading the research to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas. In other words, real world meanings are subjective and are negotiated socially. They are not simply imprinted on individuals by individual beliefs, but rather are formed through interaction with others. Hence, the purpose of research is to rely as much as possible on the participants’ views of the situation being studied. Therefore, the researcher’s intent unlike in positivism is to make sense of or interpret the meaning others have about the world rather than starting with a preconceived theory.

There are also researchers who claim knowledge through an advocacy/participatory approach. This theory arose during the 1980’s and 1990’s from individuals who felt that the post-positivists assumptions imposed structural laws and theories that did not adequately address issues of social justice. Participatory approach stresses the importance of creating a participatory and democratic learning environment that provides people, especially the underprivileged, with the opportunity to overcome oppression and domination. Scholars who support advocacy approach believe that social constructivists did not go far enough in advocating an action agenda to help marginalized peoples. The proponents of this approach believe that inquiry needs to be integrated with politics and political agenda. Hence, research should contain an action agenda for reform that may change the lives of the participants, the institutions in which individuals work and live and the researcher’s life. Moreover, they claim that issues such as empowerment, inequality, oppression, domination, suppression and alienation need to be addressed. The advocacy research often begins with one of these issues as the focal point of research (Laws, 2003; Creswell, 2003).

The fourth school of thought about knowledge comes from pragmatists. Pragmatism arises out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than theory as opposed to what happens in positivism. Pragmatic knowledge claims that the problem is more important than the method of seeking a solution. Researchers use all approaches to understand the problem. Pragmatism is not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality. This applies to mixed methods of research in that researchers draw liberally from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions when they are engaged in research. Pragmatism allows researchers to have a freedom of choice of methods, techniques and procedures of research that best meet their needs and purposes.

It is evident that the theoretical framework (paradigm) influences the way knowledge is studied and interpreted. It is the choice of the paradigm that sets down the motivation and expectation of any research. Without choosing a paradigm as the first step, there is no basis for subsequent choices regarding methods and research design. In this study, therefore, the researcher has followed the pragmatic knowledge claim as it allowed her to adopt a mixed method approach. The next section will highlight the important features of the three approaches to research in the context of the four schools of thought.

As noted above, there are three approaches to research that come out from the four schools of thought: quantitative, qualitative and mixed method approaches. Quantitative approach aims to test hypothesis and to identify numerical differences between groups. This means quantitative data are represented through numbers and analysed using statistics. Quantitative methods were originally developed in the natural sciences to study natural phenomena. Other methods in the social sciences such as survey and experimental methods are accepted as examples of quantitative methods. Many researchers including Creswell (2003), Laws (2003) state that quantitative approach is described as exploring precise relationships with numerical data in controlled conditions. Usually, quantitative research results can be generalised. The basic building blocks of quantitative research are variables (something that takes on different values or categories). Variables are the opposite of constants (something that cannot vary).

The second major approach in educational research is qualitative approach. Qualitative approach deals with how people understand their experience. Qualitative research methods were developed in the social sciences to enable researchers to study social and cultural phenomena. Some examples of qualitative methods are action research, case study and ethnography. Qualitative approach involves collection of narrative data in a natural setting in

order to gain insights into phenomena of interest. This kind of research studies many variables over an extensive period of time in order to find out the way things are, how and why they came to be that way. Qualitative researchers do not want to control anything. The most common methods of qualitative data collection involve questionnaire, interview, documents and texts and participant observation.

It is obvious that there are different and widely advocated positions towards the possibility of using quantitative and qualitative approaches in complementary and combined ways. This approach is known as mixed method approach. The mixed method approach is a new movement in educational research. Most researchers argue that it is possible to avoid bias by using the mixed method approach. This approach is usually referred to as triangulation. The concept of triangulation is based on the assumption that by using several data sources and methods, one can minimise bias in one's particular study. It is often stressed that different methods have different weaknesses and strengths, and therefore the main effect of triangulation is to overcome the weaknesses of any single method (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989; Cohen and Manion, 1998; Laws, 2003; Creswell, 2003). Hence, when researchers use several different methods for investigation of a study, the results provide mutual confirmation and valid conclusions. This means that wider acceptance and employment of mixed method research can only enrich and strengthen educational research through the application of quantitative and qualitative methods in a complementary way and should therefore be clearly described and explored within research texts.

4.3 Subjects of the Study

The data for this study were generated from two government preparatory secondary schools students and teachers in Addis Ababa. More specifically, students from Grade 11 and two English language teachers were the subjects of the study.

4.4 Sampling Procedures

As discussed above, the focus of this study is Grade 11 preparatory government secondary school students and teachers. According to the information obtained from Region 14 Education Bureau, there are 10 government preparatory senior secondary schools in 2005/06 academic year in Addis Ababa. From the 10 government schools, Yekatit 12 Comprehensive

Secondary School was selected for the pilot study using convenient sampling technique. This technique was chosen because the researcher could easily select subjects based on their relative ease of access (Kumar, 1996). This means the school is located near the main campus of Addis Ababa University. For the main study, two schools were randomly selected from the remaining government preparatory secondary schools in Addis Ababa. They are Menilik and Addis Ketema Secondary Schools. The random sampling technique was chosen because it would give each school equal chance of being selected.

4.5 The Research Design

4.5.1 The Research Methods

As noted earlier, students and teachers from Grade 11 preparatory Secondary School participated in this research project. In order to gather data for this research different research tools were used. These include an experiment, questionnaire completed by students, interviews with students and teachers, and classroom observations.

4.5.1.1 The Experiment

In this research project, the major method used is the experiment. An experiment was conducted in order to investigate whether or not communicative grammar in the context of writing could enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities. The students who participated in the experiment (both in the pilot and main studies) were encouraged to work very hard and cooperate with the teachers and friends for the success of this study. In addition, the researcher made the aims and objectives of the communicative grammar and writing tasks clear to both teachers and students in the experimental groups.

This section of the Chapter is divided into four sub-sections. These include preparation of communicative grammar and writing tasks teaching material, classroom methodology, measurement, and guideline for marking the pre and post-tests.

4.5.1.1.1 Preparation of Teaching Material for Communicative Grammar and Writing Tasks

The major aim of preparing teaching material on communicative grammar and writing tasks is to motivate students to practise the selected communicative grammar items in the context of

writing in order to help them develop grammatical accuracy in their writing. The grammar items in teaching material were integrated with writing tasks. Two main sources were consulted for this purpose and for ideas on communicative grammar and writing tasks to be used in the teaching material designed for the pilot and main study. One source material was the current grade eleven English textbook used by the students themselves.

The other source consisted of materials from different international English course books such as Blueprint Two (1982), by B. Abbas and I. Freebairn, Crossroad (1987), by Hinton, M. and Marsden, R., Headway (1990), by Soars, L. Focus on Grammar (1995), by Fuchs, M. and Bonner, M. Breakthrough (1984), by J.C. Richards and M.N. Long, Using Basic English Grammar, (1992) by E. Woods and N. McLeod, Oxford Practice Grammar (2001) by J. Eastwood to mention some among many others. Some of the communicative grammar and writing tasks were slightly adapted from these books. The researcher also used internet as another source material for preparing the teaching material. The characteristics for developing communicative grammar tasks suggested by Maria and Kamyin (1996:32) have been used in preparing the material. The teaching material which was used in the main study was the same as the one used in the pilot study, with some modifications where necessary. As noted in Chapter 3, Chin (2000) holds that before preparing any teaching material the weakness of students should be assessed. Similarly, in this study, the students selected for the pilot study were given writing tasks in order to identify the level of grammatical accuracy in their writing at the pre-pilot stage (See Section 4.7 below for details). Then their answer scripts were collected and marked. The evaluation of their performance helped to determine the grammar items that the students needed to practise. In other words, this gave the researcher some insight into the grammar aspects in which the students had to make further practice. In addition, the teaching materials prepared were to be part of the regular course and suitable for students at this level to learn. For this purpose, the Grade 11-textbook was used as a reference for preparing and adapting teaching material that would be appropriate for Grade 11 students. As a result, communicative grammar tasks were prepared in such a way that students might be motivated and improve their writing skills.

The following language items are included in this study: 'simple present tense and present continuous tense', 'present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense', 'possessive pronouns and reflexive pronouns', 'the passive and the active voice', 'the relative clauses'. The rationale for selecting these grammar items could be seen from three angles. Firstly, these

grammar items are emphasized in grade 11 textbooks. Secondly, the poor performance of students during the pre-pilot stage revealed that the students needed proper guidance and practice in the selected grammar items. Thirdly, from personal observation during the pre-pilot study, these items are frequently used by Grade 11 students in their writing skills.

In the next section, the classroom methodology used in the experiment will be discussed.

4.5.1.1.2 Classroom Teaching Methodology

As has been mentioned in Chapter 3, Hyland (2003:3) states that the teaching of grammar in the context of writing is a four stage process: familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing, and free writing. He further states that we might follow these four stages if our students have basic knowledge of grammar items.

Thus, since Grade 11 students had learnt the basic grammar items when they were in earlier grades, for example, Grades 9 and 10, these four stages were followed during the experiment. In this study, Exploration, Explanation, and Expression (EEE) grammar teaching method was used. This is because many language educators encourage EEE grammar teaching method to second and foreign language learners. For instance, Sysoyev (1999) suggests that many foreign language learners benefited greatly from this method that combines a form with meaning-based focus in order to develop grammatical accuracy. The subjects of this study, i.e., grade eleven students, are expected to have basic knowledge of grammar. A quick review of the grammar sections of grades 9 and 10 English language textbooks confirms this expectation (See Appendix P for this quick review).

In this study, the following classroom procedures have been used. During the first three weeks of the experiment, students were taught the grammar items ‘present tense and present continuous tense’ and this was done by first holding a brainstorming session. The purpose of this task was to familiarize students with the selected grammar items. After that, there were context-oriented grammar tasks to be completed by students individually. Then they compared their answers in pairs/groups. This was followed by a teacher-led discussion for the whole class. There were controlled writing activities based on a given context. During the writing activities, students first tried the given tasks individually before they compared their answers in pairs. Then, they were given guided writing tasks with an emphasis on the

grammar items introduced earlier. Using the models given, students prepared an outline, and then wrote their first draft.

After writing their first draft, students were asked to edit it on their own. When they finished editing their own work themselves, they exchanged their scripts for peer evaluation. Finally, there was a free writing task. In this activity, students were instructed to share different ideas with their partners on the given topics. Students were encouraged to prepare an outline. Based on the outline, they were asked to write the first draft of the paragraph/essay/letter. Again after writing their first draft, they were asked to edit their first draft on their own after which they exchanged their writings for peer correction. Besides pair work, they also formed larger groups. One member of the group read the paragraph/essay/letter aloud. The others gave comments for further improvement. In this regard, Harmer (2001:260) says, “Although many people in their personal lives write on their own, whether at home or at work, in language classes teachers and students can take advantage of the presence of others to make writing a cooperative activity, with great benefit to all those involved.” At the end of the activity, students submitted the best final draft to their teacher. This was done according to the principles of process writing: brainstorming, outlining, drafting, editing and publishing. There were many communicative grammar activities, controlled and guided writing tasks for students before they were asked to attempt lots of free writing. This was done because in general, government preparatory school students have poor background knowledge of grammatical accuracy in their writing (Mesfin Aberra, 2004). These procedures applied to all the communicative grammar items and writing tasks practised in the teaching material used for Experimental groups in the pilot and main study.

4.5.1.1.3 Measurement

In this research project, in designing the pre- and post-tests the ideas suggested by Heaton J. B. (1991) Writing English Language Tests, Weir C. J. (1990) Communicative Language Testing, Hughes, A. (1989) Testing for Language Teachers, Rea (1985) ‘Language Testing and the Communicative Language Teaching Curriculum’, Harrison, A. (1983) A Language Testing Handbook and Bachman, Lyle F. (1970) Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing were followed. A pre- test was given before the experiment began to all students both of the control and experimental groups (See the Pre-test in Appendix C). After the students in the experimental group were taught for six weeks in the pilot study and sixteen weeks (four

months) in the main study using the communicative grammar and writing tasks (Experimental groups) and the revision grammar items of the Grade 11 textbooks not in the context of writing (Control groups), again both students in the control and experimental groups were given a post test at the end of the experiment to find out if there was any significant difference in grammatical accuracy in the writing produced by the control and experimental groups (See the Post-test in Appendix D). In other words, the students in the Experimental group were taught using the communicative grammar and writing tasks while students in the control group were taught using the revision grammar items of the Grade 11 textbooks. To determine the significance of the mean difference between the experimental and control groups, the t-test was used both in the pilot and main study.

4.5.1.1.3.1 Pre-test

The main objective of the pre- test administered before the experiment, was to find out if there was any significant difference in grammatical accuracy between the experimental group and the control group in grammar accuracy in their writing abilities. A three partite pre-test was prepared for both groups. The first part is on controlled writing. In this part, the students were given incomplete sentences and asked to complete them using the correct forms of the verbs placed in brackets appropriately in the given context. The second part is on guided writing. In this part the students were given information, and asked to write a paragraph /essay/letter using the information. The third part is on free writing. In this part, the students were given a topic and they were asked to write a paragraph/essay/letter on their own. The time given for the pre-test was one hour and thirty minutes for the pilot study, and two hours for the main study. This was because the students had first to write the first draft of the paragraph/essay/letter before they produced the final draft.

4.5.1.1.3.2 Post-test

At the end of the experiment, a post-test was given in order to find out if there was any significant difference between the control and the experimental groups in grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities as a consequence of the experiment. As in the pre-test, a three partite post-test: controlled writing, guided writing and free writing was administered to both groups.

4.5.1.1.4 Guidelines for Marking the Pre- and Post-tests

As mentioned in Chapter 3, Heaton (1990) suggests that there are three major methods of marking composition: the error-count method, the analytic method and the impression (multiple marking methods). In this study, the analytic method was used because this method is very valuable to improve the reliability and validity of writing tests due to a marking guideline (Weir, 1990). For error category, I have adapted the classification of errors used by Kroll (1990:63). Moreover, for correcting the pre- and post-test scripts, the parameter recommended for marking in College English I & II (1996) by Atkins et al (1996) and Heaton (1990) was adapted. Heaton (1990) suggests that in order to mark students' composition we have to identify the important features such as organization, grammar, vocabulary, content etc that we want to focus on. What is more, if we want to emphasize a certain feature in correcting compositions, we can double that mark, and we can also reduce the weightage of any section like spelling, punctuation etc. Similarly, in this study since the primary emphasis is on communicative grammar, the marks for grammar part were doubled. The marks allotted to some of the components of writing such as vocabulary, spelling and punctuation were also reduced. This is elaborated below.

4.5.1.1.4.1 Content- Marks: 4

- 0- The answer bears no relation to the task set. Totally inadequate in content.
- 1- Answer is of limited relevance, major gaps in treatment of topic or major irrelevance.
- 2- Answers the tasks set, though with considerable gaps and/or some redundant or irrelevant information.
- 3- Answers the tasks set with some, but not much redundant information or with a few gaps.
- 4- Highly relevant and entirely adequate in ideas/ content.

4.5.1.1.4.2 Organization- Marks: 3

- 0- No apparent organization either at the complete essay level or within individual paragraphs.
- 1- Very little organization at single paragraphs or the complete essay level with ideas poorly organized.
- 2- Some organizational skills are apparent, but not adequately manipulated.
- 3- Overall shape of the essay and internal development of paragraphs are clear

and well manipulated.

4.5.1.1.4.3 Grammar-Marks: 4 (Doubling this part: 8)

- 0- Almost every sentence contains grammatical inaccuracies.
- 1- Very frequent grammatical inaccuracies.
- 2- Frequent grammatical inaccuracies, e.g. more than 10 in the essay.
- 3- Some, but not many grammatical inaccuracies, i.e. fewer than 10 in the essay.
- 4- Almost no evidence of grammatical inaccuracy.

4.5.1.1.4.4 Vocabulary- Marks: 4 (Reducing this part: 3)

- 0- Vocabulary inadequate even for basic communication
- 1- Frequent inadequacies in the use of vocabulary for the task, e.g. frequent lexical inappropriacies or repetitions.
- 2- Some inadequacies in the use of vocabulary for the task
- 3- Almost no inadequacies in the use of vocabulary for the task

4.5.1.1.4.5 Spelling and Punctuation-Marks: 4 (Reducing this part: 2)

- 0- A generally low standard of spelling and punctuation
- 1- Noticeable inaccuracies in spelling and punctuation
- 2- Almost no inaccuracies in spelling and punctuation

These guidelines were used in this research project. They were used in order to achieve uniformity in correcting the pre-and post-test scripts.

In the following table, Table 5.1, the framework used for error categories adapted from Kroll (1990:63) is presented. The errors that the students made during the different stages of this research have also be given as instances of errors.

Framework for Error Categories Adapted from Kroll (1990:63)

Table 4.1: Error categories

Classification of errors	Instances of errors
<p>Sentence structure errors</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Verb missing 2. Parallel structure 3. Relative clause formation 4. Word order <p>Verb-centered errors</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Tense 6. Voice (passive and active) 7. Subject-verb agreement 8. Two-word verbs <p>Reference errors</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. Noun-pronoun agreement 10. Quantifier-noun agreement <p>Word level choice</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 11. Lexical /phrase choice 12. Singular for plural 13. Plural for singular 14. Prepositions <p>Punctuation and spelling</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 15. Missing /extra/ wrong mark 16. Inaccuracies in spelling 	<p><u>I dinner</u> at seven o'clock. He liked playing basketball and <u>to ride</u> horses. Where is the new boy <u>which</u> was in class yesterday? I have seen <u>never</u> this book before.</p> <p>She <u>live</u> in Dire Dewa for five years. My sister <u>drink</u> a cup of tea after lunch. My sister <u>eat</u> breakfast every morning at 7:00. I given prize. Hamlet written by Shakespeare.</p> <p>I never go to that place because <u>they</u> have stale bread. One of the kids <u>know</u> the answer.</p> <p>I live in Addis Ababa <u>town</u>. I don't have <u>many</u> knowledge about the Internet. I read seven <u>story</u> to my son. I have my English class <u>in</u> Monday. I <u>believe</u> God.</p> <p>What do you do. I'm studing history.</p>

Table 5.1 above shows the errors that the students committed during the pre-pilot stage, the pilot study and in the main study. The errors helped the researcher to identify the grammar items that the students found difficult. Based on the errors that the students' made, it was possible to prepare communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing.

4.5.1.2 Questionnaire for Students

Questionnaire for students was one of the tools used for gathering data for this study. A questionnaire with closed and open-ended questions was designed and distributed to students in the experimental group in order to find out the grammar items that the students had learnt in lower grades (Grade 9 and 10) and their attitudes towards communicative grammar and writing activities in the experiment. Besides, the student questionnaire was aimed at investigating the major problems students faced while they were learning communicative grammar in the context of writing. The researcher distributed the questionnaire only for students in the experimental group. This is because there were question items which give meaning only for students who participated in the experimental group. It was assumed that the students' responses would throw light on how teachers teach communicative grammar in the context of writing in Ethiopian secondary school English classes.

4.5.1.3 Interview for Students

As complementary to the questionnaire, a structured interview was conducted in Amharic so that the students could understand the questions clearly and give accurate response. The students' interview was conducted during class time and tape-recorded. The interview was intended to collect data on students' attitude towards communicative grammar activities in the context of writing. The interview data also helped the researcher to see whether or not communicative grammar activities were helpful in improving the students' writing skills.

4.5.1.4 Interview for Teachers

In this study, a structured interview was conducted with two English teachers, who participated in the main study one from Menilik Secondary School and the other from Addis Ketema Secondary School. The teacher from Menilik obtained B.Ed. from Kotebe College of Teacher Education and the teacher from Addis Ketema graduated with B.A degree in English Language and Literature from Addis Ababa University. Both of them have been teaching English for more than twenty years. The main objective of the interview was to find out the major problems teachers faced (if any) in teaching communicative grammar in the context of writing and the teachers' attitudes towards communicative grammar and writing activities during the experiment.

4.5.1.5 Classroom Observation

In this research project, an attempt was made to observe different grammar teaching methods and some important stages in process writing by using an observation checklist. In other words, classroom observation was primarily aimed at finding out the teachers' way of implementing the different methods of grammar teaching and at observing the various steps in process writing: pre-writing, drafting and post-writing activities. Furthermore, classroom observation was also needed to see the ways the students perform the grammar and writing activities in the main study. Hence, classroom observation helped the researcher to find out how communicative grammar tasks were being taught and learnt in the context of writing.

4.6 Reliability and Validity of Data Collection

It is evident that the concept of reliability and validity is central when considering a research instrument. According to Selinger and Shohamy (1989:184), "Reliability provides information on the extent to which the data collection procedure elicits accurate data; validity provides information on the extent to which the procedure really measures what it is supposed to measure." In testing writing skills, a test should first be reliable as a measuring instrument, therefore, an attempt was made to consider test/ re-test reliability. In order to achieve this, the test should be administered to the same group on different occasions with no language practice taking place between these occasions. This is because a test must be consistent in its measurement without any language input given. In this study, the researcher considered test/re-test reliability for the pre and post-test prepared before piloting during the pre-pilot study (See Section 4.7.2 for further details).

In order to obtain data for this study, four instruments were employed: tests, a questionnaire, an interview and observation (for the main study). These four instruments were selected in order for the data to be more reliable. An attempt has also been made to observe both validity and reliability. The face and content validity of the pre-and post-tests was checked by getting feedback from the research supervisors and colleagues. The comments made were used to improve the pre and post-tests as well as the marking guidelines. In this regard, Weir (1990:39) states, "The pilot test should undergo a further validation check at this stage by inviting professionals in the field (language and subject) to comment on the suitability of texts, formats and items." Furthermore, in preparing the pre-and post-tests, the researcher has consulted different books on testing (for example, Weir, 1990; Heaton, 1991). Besides, the

pre-and post-tests are believed to have content validity as they aimed at assessing the students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities covering the grammar items and writing tasks which the students studied during the experiment.

As noted above, the tests were submitted to the research supervisors for comments. Guidance was given on how to revise the test items to ensure that the tests are appropriate to our local Ethiopian context. Then, the tests were scrutinized again and approved for pre-testing. The analysis of the data was carried out using the t-test and the Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient (r). The questionnaire was also commented on and reorganized several times before it was piloted. Besides, an interview was conducted as a tool in addition to the questionnaire in order to crosscheck students' responses. This could also enhance the reliability of the study.

4.7 Pre-pilot Study

The pre-pilot study had two main purposes. The first one was to identify the weaknesses of students' written work in order to prepare grammar lessons in the context of writing. The second one was to check the reliability of the pre-and post-tests prepared for the present research project before piloting. The pre-pilot study took place during the first semester of 2004/2005 in Abiyot Kirs Secondary School.

4.7.1 Preparing Communicative Grammar and Writing Tasks

As has been discussed in Chapter 3, Chin (2000) suggests that to plan an effective grammar lesson, English language teachers should be able to identify the weaknesses of their students' written work. Accordingly, before preparing the teaching material to be used in the pilot and main study, the researcher wanted to determine the areas of grammar in which the students selected for the study needed to make further practice. For this to happen, the researcher prepared communicative grammar and writing tasks and asked students to do them in order to identify the level of grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities (See Appendix A for the grammar and writing tasks used at the Pre-pilot stage). And then, the students' writings were collected and marked by the researcher. Their writings revealed the level of the grammatical accuracy. This gave the researcher a helpful opportunity to determine the level of the students before writing the teaching material used during the pilot and main study. In this way, the results of the grammar and writing tasks in the pre-pilot stage helped to select the

communicative grammar items in the context of writing that the students in the experimental group needed to further practise.

4.7.2 Test/re-test Reliability

Test/ re-test reliability is used to assess the consistency of a measure from one time to another. The pairs of marks relating to each student's test in the pre-and post-test were subjected to statistical analysis. One statistical measure is the correlation coefficient. In this study, Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (r) was used. A correlation coefficient of zero indicates no relationship at all. A score of 1 indicates perfect consistency in the scores students receive. A correlation coefficient of -1 shows there is lack of relationship (Cohen and Manion, 1998).

As mentioned previously, during the pre-pilot stage, the researcher considered the test/re-test reliability of the pre and post-tests prepared. For this, one government preparatory secondary school was randomly selected. The school was Abiyot Kirs Preparatory Secondary School. In this school, there were seven sections of Grade 11 during the first semester in 2004/2005. Out of the seven sections, two sections: Section 11-4 and 11-7 were chosen. Section 11-4 took the pre-test and section 11-7 took the post-test twice. The classroom teacher informed the researcher that Section 11-4 had 47 students and Section 11-7 50 students. However, most of the students did not appear in the class as it was the first week of the semester. Thus, the researcher administered the pre and post-tests in the first week of the semester before students began their regular class seriously and received no language lesson when they took the tests for the second time after a week.

And then the test papers were marked by the researcher and the correlation coefficients were calculated for both pre and post-tests. Actually, the researcher was mainly interested to find out if the results of the pre and post-tests were consistent. Only the results of 20 students who took the tests twice were analyzed because the remaining students did not take either the week-1 or week-2 pre and post-tests. In fact, the researcher believes that the results of 20 students would give adequate sample for this research project. The raw scores of the pre and post-tests of section 11-4 and section 11-7 are given in Appendix C. To this effect, the following correlation matrix tables depict the test/re-test results. As noted above the correlation coefficient is calculated by using the Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficient (r).

Table 4.2: Correlation of Section 11-4 in Pre-test (Abyiot Kirs)

	Pre-1	Pre-2
Pre-1 Pearson Correlation	1.000	0.739
Sign (2-tailed)		
N	20	20
Pre-2 Pearson Correlation	0.739	1.000
Sign (2-tailed)		
N	20	20

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 4.2 indicates the test/re-test correlation of Section 11-4 in pre-test in Week-1 and in Week-2. The P-value is 0.739. This shows that the pre-test scores of Week-1 and Week-2 are highly consistent.

Table 4.3: Correlation of Section 11-7 in Post-test(Abyiot Kirs)

	Post-1	Post-2
Post-1 Pearson Correlation	1.000	0.682
Sign (2-tailed)		
N	20	20
Post-2 Pearson Correlation	0.682	1.000
Sign (2-tailed)		
N	20	20

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

The above table shows the test/re-test correlation of Section 11-7 in post-test in Week-1 and in Week-2. The P-value is 0.682. This reveals that the post-test scores of Week-1 and Week-2 are highly consistent.

To sum up, the above two tables show that high reliability coefficients were found in all cases in test/re-test reliability. This means the scores of the pre and post-tests in two different occasions for the same groups were highly consistent. Thus, it has been proved that both pre and post-tests were found to be reliable. In the next section, an attempt has been made to discuss about Plasma Television Programme which can directly or indirectly affect this research project.

4.8 Plasma Display Panels

One major aim of teaching/learning of English is to enable learners to communicate using the language either in written or spoken or in both forms effectively. In Ethiopia, the English language is also an essential tool through which students learn other school subjects in the context where the language is used as a medium of instruction. Television is among the various means through which learners are assisted to develop their communicative as well as academic skills. Apparently, the essential role television is believed to play in education seems to have long been understood in the Ethiopian educational system. This might explain why Television was introduced in the educational system in the Ethiopian context as far back as the 1950s. There is scarce written evidence available to show the extent of the use of educational television at the beginning or even long after the introduction of the device in the educational system in the local context. However, experience tells us that the role played by television was limited to supplementing the teaching done by classroom teachers. The schools covered by the educational television were also limited.

More recently, however, the role plasma television is needed to play and the purpose the gadget is desired to serve has been entirely changed. More clearly, Plasma Television Programme has been implemented in all grades (9-12 government preparatory secondary schools) in Addis Ababa since the beginning of the 2004/05 academic year. Six subjects have been aired via Plasma Display Panels (PDP_s): English, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and Civics and Ethical Education. As noted above, in Grade 11, English lessons are transmitted through Plasma Display Panel. Grade 11 students have four periods of Plasma English lesson per week. The Plasma lesson could affect this research project in one way or the other as mentioned below. To this effect, an attempt has been made to discuss the strength and weaknesses of plasma programme.

According to Bishop (1986) Plasma Display Panel has an enormous role to play. For example, he argues that this programme is sufficiently expressive, and this makes it effective. It is also powerful in attracting learners' attention to the material that serves as a source of lesson. This means plasma screen gives the teacher an effective means of directing and controlling the attention of the pupil. Television can also create a classroom context in which students can watch the outside world in the classroom. It has also been claimed that Plasma Display Panel enables transmission of uniform education to all students. It also presents quality education.

Besides, it enables students to have access to model and competent teachers (Misganaw Solomon, 2005).

On the other hand, plasma television programme has a negative effect on the teaching and learning process in Ethiopian preparatory secondary schools. For instance, a recent study by Alamirew G/Mariam (2005) states that plasma TV is 'mono-directional'. This means it is a one-way communication between the plasma teacher and the students. Besides, the pace of the lesson is too fast, it does not consider students' background. In relation to this, Alamirew G/Mariam (2005:193) reports, "The plasma lessons were developed and transmitted by experts who did not seem to have background knowledge about Ethiopian students and the practice of EFL teaching and learning." Moreover, the classroom teachers play a minor role in helping students in the lessons presented through plasma. Plasma television teaching is dependent upon the perfect functioning of electronic devices. When mechanical failures take place, that is, when picture or sound is received inadequately, the class is bound to lose the thread of the day-by-day sequence of the television lesson. All in all, plasma television programme does not seem to have taken into consideration the background of Ethiopian high school students. Classroom teachers are not also given enough time so that they could have the opportunity to help their students during the lessons, for instance, by preparing communicative grammar in the context of writing tasks. In the next section, the researcher will discuss the pilot study, an important part of this study.

4.9 The Pilot Study

The pilot study had two main objectives. The first objective is to try out the research tools used and the teaching material prepared for this study. The second is to use the results of the pilot study as a springboard for conducting the main study of this research. According to Region 14 Education Bureau, there are 10 government preparatory senior secondary schools. From the 10 government schools, Yekatit 12 Comprehensive Secondary School was selected for the pilot study using convenient sampling technique. This technique was chosen because the researcher could easily select subjects based on their relative ease of access (Kumar, 1996) and the school is also located near the main campus of Addis Ababa University.

Thus, an experiment was conducted for six weeks in Yekatit 12 Preparatory Secondary School using teaching materials prepared for the experimental group during the first semester of 2004/2005. The control group was taught using the revision grammar items appended to

the Grade 11 textbooks not in context of writing. The researcher had to conduct the experiment herself because the teachers she talked to were not interested to take part in something for which there was no remuneration.

4.9.1 Subjects of the Pilot Study

As already indicated, Yekatit 12 Comprehensive Secondary School was selected for the pilot study. In this school, there were 8 sections of Grade 11 in the morning shift. Among the 8 sections, section 11-1 and section 11-5 were randomly selected. And then section 11-1 was selected as an experimental group, and section 11-5 as a control group. The subjects that have been involved in the pilot study were 85, 40 students in the experimental group and 45 students in the control group.

4.9.2 Research Methods

4.9.2.1 The Experiment

4.9.2.1.1 Language Items and Writing Tasks Taught in the Pilot Study

As discussed in Section 4.5.1.1.1, the communicative grammar items covered during the experiment were the following: ‘simple present and present continuous tense’, ‘present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense’, ‘possessive pronouns and reflexive pronouns’, ‘the passive and the active voice’, ‘relative clauses’. During the experiment, the students were taught each grammar item. And then they were asked to use them in their own writing on a given topic. The communicative grammar items and writing tasks taught during the experiment in the pilot study are summarized in Table 4.4 below. Insights gained from the pilot study were hoped to determine the nature of the communicative grammar and writing tasks used in the main study.

Table 4.4: Communicative Grammar and Writing Tasks of the Pilot Study

Week No	Content (Communicative Grammar Items)	Topics for Writing Tasks
1	Present tense and present continuous tense	A day in my life
2	Present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense	Applying for a job
3	Possessive pronouns and Reflexive pronouns	A short biography of a famous person
4	The passive and active voice	Delivery of letters
5	The relative clauses	A place you know well
6	Revision of the communicative grammar items and writing tasks taught	

4.9.2.1.2 Classroom Teaching Methodology in the Pilot Study

Grade 11 students have four periods of English subject per week. During the pilot study as already mentioned, the experiment was conducted by the researcher because the teachers were not interested to take part in something for which there was no remuneration. Thus the researcher used two periods for Plasma television and the other two periods for the selected communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing. Two periods of plasma programme were used for experiment because the researcher wanted the students to attend the afternoon session during the experiment. Besides, students had two hours extra teaching twice a week in the opposite shift for six weeks wherein teaching was through integrating communicative grammar with writing tasks for the experimental group and using revision grammar exercises of the Grade Eleven textbooks not in the context of writing for the control group.

As discussed in Section 4.5.1.1.2 in detail, the students were taught the selected communicative grammar items in the context of writing first by giving them controlled exercises. And then guided writing and free writing tasks were presented by following the principles of process writing. EEE grammar teaching method was used during the experiment.

4.9.2.1.3 Measurement

In the pilot study, a pre-test was given before the experiment began for both the control and the experimental groups (See the Pre-test in Appendix C). After the students in the experimental group were taught for six weeks using the communicative grammar and writing tasks (experimental group), and using grammar exercises of the grade Eleven textbook not in the context writing (control group) again both groups were given a post test in the sixth week in order to see if there was any significant difference in the grammatical accuracy in the writing produced by the control and experimental groups (See the Post-test in Appendix D). A t-test was used in order to determine the significance of the mean difference between the experimental and control groups.

4.9.2.1.3.1 Pre-test

The main objective of the pre- test was to find out if there was any significant difference in grammatical accuracy between the experimental group and the control group in grammar accuracy in their written compositions (See details in Section 5.3.1.3.1). The pre-test took one hour and thirty minutes for the pilot study.

4.9.2.1.3.2 Post-test

In the pilot study, a post-test was given in order to find out if there was any significant difference between the control and the experimental group in grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities at the end of the experiment. Just as the pre-test, a three partite post-test was prepared for both groups consisting of controlled writing, guided writing and free writing. Similarly, the post-test took one hour and thirty minutes for the pilot study.

4.9.2.2 Questionnaire for Students

A student questionnaire was used as one of the data gathering tools in the pilot study. It was used to find out the grammar items that the students had learnt in lower grades (Grade 9 and 10) and their attitudes about communicative grammar and writing activities in the experiment. It was also used to investigate the major problems students faced while learning communicative grammar in the context of writing.

4.9.2.3 Interview for Students

A structured interview was conducted in order to crosscheck the data gathered through the questionnaire. The interview questions were intended to collect information from students on their attitude towards communicative grammar activities and the problems the students faced during the experiment. Besides, they aimed at finding out whether or not communicative grammar activities are helpful in enhancing their grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities.

4.10 The Main Study

The main objective of this research was to investigate through experiment whether or not communicative grammar activities enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their written compositions. As noted in chapter 1, the following null and alternative hypotheses have been formulated.

H₀ There is no significant difference in the grammatical accuracy in students' written work between the control group (students taught through grammar exercises of the Grade Eleven textbook not in the context of writing) and the experimental group (students taught through communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing prepared for the study).

H₁ There is significant difference in the grammatical accuracy in students' written work between the control group (students taught through grammar exercises of the Grade Eleven textbook not in the context of writing) and the experimental group (students taught through communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing prepared for the study).

In the main study two preparatory secondary schools: Menilik and Addis Ketema Secondary schools were randomly selected. Two sections were randomly selected from each school altogether four sections participated in the main study. Two English teachers participated in this study, one teacher from Menilik Secondary School and the other from Addis Ketema Secondary school (teaching both control and experimental group). The selected teachers were properly oriented about the methods and techniques of teaching communicative grammar in the context of writing.

This research project required an extra hour teaching in the opposite shift. The two teachers conducted two hours of teaching twice a week (a total of about 60 hours) for sixteen weeks by integrating communicative grammar with writing tasks. The control groups were also taught for two hours twice a week using the grammar items appended to the end of the Grade 11 textbook currently in use.

4.10.1 Subjects of the Main Study

As mentioned above, two preparatory secondary schools were selected for the main study. In Menilik Secondary School, there were six sections of Grade 11 in the Morning shift. Among the 6 sections, section 11-D and section 11-B were selected randomly. Again section 11-D was selected as a control group and section 11-B as an experimental one. Similarly there were eight sections of Grade 11 in Addis Ketema Secondary School, 4 sections in the afternoon shift and 4 of them were in the morning shift. Section 11-6 was selected as a control group and section 11-2 as an experimental one. The subjects that have been involved in the main study were 224. The subjects of Menilik Secondary School control group were 58 and experimental group 50, a total of 108 students. The subjects of Addis Ketema Secondary School control group were 56 and experimental group 60, a total of 116 students. As noted earlier, two teachers were involved in this research project. To control the teacher variable, the English teacher from Menilik Secondary School was given one control group and one experimental. Similarly, English teacher from Addis Ketema Secondary School was given one control group and one experimental.

4.10.2 Research Methods

4.10.2.1 The Experiment

4.10.2.1.1 Language Items and Writing Tasks Taught in the Main Study

Similar to the Pilot Study, the language items taught during the main study are: ‘simple present and present continuous tense’, ‘present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense’, ‘possessive pronouns and reflexive pronouns’, ‘the passive and active voice’, ‘relative clauses’. As discussed in Section 4.5.1.1.1, these grammar items were selected for the following three reasons. Firstly, they are emphasized in Grade 11 textbooks. Secondly, the performance of students during the Pre-pilot study showed that students have serious problems in the selected grammar items. Finally, these grammar items are frequently used in

students' writing. The communicative grammar items and writing tasks taught during the experiment in the Main study are summarized in Table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5: Communicative Grammar and Writing Tasks of the Main Study

Week No	Content (Communicative Grammar Items)	Topics for Writing Tasks
1-3	Present tense and present continuous tense	A day in my life
4-6	Present perfect and present perfect continuous	Applying for a job Invitation letter to a friend
7-9	Possessive pronouns and Reflexive pronouns	A short biography of a famous person My Former Friends My Friends in Elementary Schools, My Family My Brother/Mother/Sister
10-11	The passive and active voice	Modern Process of Milk Production Preparing Tea/Coffee
12-14	The relative clauses	A place you know very well My School, My Village A person you know very well A person I admire in my country Haile G/Sillasie/Derartu Tulu Artist Chachi Tadesse
15-16	Revision of the communicative grammar items and writing tasks taught	-

The table above shows communicative grammar and writing tasks used in the main study. In the main study additional topics such as 'Modern Process of Milk Production', 'My School', 'My Village', 'A Person I Admire in My Country' and so on were included.

4.10.2.1.2 Classroom Teaching Methodology in the Main Study

As noted in Section 3.3.3, four stages have been used in order to present communicative grammar in the context of writing: familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing and free writing (Hyland, 2003). According to Ur (1994), one of the qualities of communicative grammar is to present the grammar items in explicit way. Thus, since Grade 11 students have basic grammar knowledge, EEE grammar teaching method was used.

In the Main Study, the students were made to be familiar with selected items by exploring and explaining the grammar rules so that they would easily remember when they are given different writing tasks. And then controlled-writing tasks were given individually. They were also asked to compare their answers with their partners. Next guided writing tasks were given. In the tasks information was provided in order to help students write their paragraphs, letters and essays. After they had written their first draft, students were asked to self-correct themselves. They were also asked to get together and to read their paragraphs to their partners in the group and make any necessary correction. Then one best paragraph would be selected from the group and read to the whole class for further comment. A similar procedure was followed when students were given free writing tasks. These procedures were used for all grammar items and writing tasks in the main study.

4.10.2.1.3 Measurement

In the Main Study, a pre-test was given before the experiment. After the Control and Experimental groups were taught for 16 weeks (four months) using the revision grammar exercises from grade 11 textbooks (Control groups) and the communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing (Experimental groups) again students in both groups were given a post-test at the end of the experiment to see if there was any significant difference between them. To determine the significance of the mean difference between the experimental and control groups, the t-test was used in the main study.

4.10.2.1.3.1 Pre-test

The pre-test used for the main study was similar in many respects to the type of test used in the Pilot study. The pre-test was used to find out if there was any significant difference in grammatical accuracy between the experimental group and the control group in their written composition before the experiment in the main study. Unlike the Pilot Study, the pre-test took two hours in the main study.

4.10.2.1.3.2 Post-test

In order to find out if there was any significant difference between the control and the experimental groups in grammatical accuracy of the students' writing abilities, a post-test

which was administered in the pilot study, was given at the end of the experiment in the main study. The post-test also took two hours in the main study.

4.10.2.2 Questionnaire for Students

A closed and open-ended questionnaire was designed and distributed to students in the Experimental groups. The purpose of the questionnaire was to obtain information regarding:

- a) major problems students faced to learn communicative grammar in the context of writing
- b) the attitudes of students towards communicative grammar in relation to writing tasks; and
- c) the grammar items students' learned in lower grades (Grade 9 and Grade 10)

4.10.2.3 Interview for Students

A structured interview was conducted in Amharic in order to find out whether or not communicative grammar activities are helpful in enhancing grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities. Moreover, the questions were intended to elicit information from students on their attitude towards communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing.

4.10.2.4 Interview for Teachers

As noted in Section 4.5.1.4, a structured interview was conducted with two teachers who were involved in the main study. The main purpose of the interview was to find out major problems teachers and their students faced (if any) in teaching and learning communicative grammar in the context of writing. The interview data was used to see the teachers' attitudes towards communicative grammar and writing activities during the experiment.

4.10.2.5 Classroom Observation

In the main study, the researcher observed the methods of grammar teaching used and the different stages in process writing by using observation checklist. In other words, an attempt has been made to observe the different grammar teaching methods: deductive, inductive and EEE methods and the stages of the process writing: pre-writing, drafting and post writing.

Before we move on to the chapter in which the results of the pilot study and the main study will be discussed, let's briefly look at the main points raised in the chapter being concluded.

The main purpose of this chapter was to describe the research methods used in this study by giving brief background on the four schools of thought about knowledge and the three approaches to research. As noted earlier, in this study a mixed method approach was used in order to triangulate the data gathered through different tools. The dominant method used in this study was experiment so as to find out the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students academic writing. The procedures used in the pilot and main studies were discussed in more detail.

CHAPTER FIVE: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The main objective of this study was to investigate whether or not communicative grammar tasks enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities. In this Chapter, the analysis of data and discussion of the results of the pilot and the main study will be presented.

5.2 The Pilot Study

5.2.1 Introduction

As mentioned in Chapter 4, the pilot study required an extra hour of teaching in the afternoon shift. The researcher also had to conduct two hours teaching twice a week (a total of about 24 hours) for six weeks by integrating communicative grammar with writing tasks. The control group was also taught for two hours twice a week using the grammar items appended to the end of the Grade 11 textbook, which is currently in use. This was intended for additional revision exercise and to minimize the gap between the control and the experimental groups. Actually, the control group only learned the grammar exercises available in the course book. These exercises were not integrated with writing.

The section on the pilot study is divided into four sub-sections. The first sub-section describes the mark/re-mark reliability of the pre-and the post-test scores. The second sub-section examines the pre-and the post-test results and their possible implications. The third sub-section deals with the data obtained from the students using the questionnaire. The interview data is discussed in the fourth section.

As indicated earlier, in the pilot study, a pre-test was administered before the beginning of the experiment to the students both the control and experimental groups (See the pre-test in Appendix C). After the students in the experimental group were taught for six weeks using the communicative grammar in the context of writing, again both students in the control and experimental groups were given a post-test at the end of the experiment to see if there was any significant difference in grammatical accuracy in the writing produced by the control and experimental groups (See the post-test in Appendix D). The researcher took only the test

results of 30 students in each group because the remaining students did not take either the pre-test or the post-test.

5.2.2 Mark/re-mark Reliability

Mark/ re-mark reliability was used to assess the degree to which the different raters gave consistent scores of the same test. The pairs of marks relating to each student's test score in the pre-and post-test were subjected to statistical analysis. As discussed in Chapter 4, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) is used in this study. According to the statistical theory, for a rater's marking to be acceptable it is established that if $P < 0.05$, there is significant difference, if $P > 0.05$, there is no significant difference. In second language research, mark/re-mark reliability has been considered very significant. Therefore, in this pilot study the pre-and post-test answer scripts of the students were given for re-marking using analytic scoring method to a colleague who was briefed about the research and specifically about the marking procedures. He also used the same answer key used by the researcher to mark the test answer scripts. The marks given by the colleague were correlated with the researcher's. Thus, the researcher made a statistical analysis of the scorers of Rater 1 (the researcher) and Rater 2 (a colleague). SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) was used in order to calculate the correlation of the two raters' scores. As noted above, Pearson product momentum correlation was computed in order to find out the inter-rater reliability (See Appendix E-E1-Table 2 for the raw scores of the pre-test of both Rater 1 and Rater 2 and Appendix E-E2-Table 3 for the raw scores of the post-test of both Rater 1 and Rater 2).

The following four correlation matrix tables show the results.

Table 5.1: Correlation of Yekatit 12 Control Group in Pre-test (Pilot Study)

	Pre-test Rater 1	Pre-test Rater 2
Pre-test Pearson Correlation Rater 1 Sign (2-tailed) N	1.000 30	0.945 30
Pre-test Pearson Correlation Rater 2 Sign (2-tailed) N	0.945 30	1.000 30

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 5.1 shows the inter-rater correlation of Yekatit 12 Secondary School control group Rater 1 against Rater 2 in pre-test. The P-value is 0.945. This could clearly indicate the rater's marking of the same paper is highly consistent.

Table 5.2: Correlation of Yekatit 12 Control Group in Post-test (Pilot Study)

	Post-test Rater 1	Post-test Rater 2
Post-test Pearson Correlation Rater 1 Sign (2-tailed) N	1.000 30	0.865 30
Post-test Pearson Correlation Rater 2 Sign (2-tailed) N	0.865 30	1.000 30

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

As shown in the above table, the inter-rater correlation of Yekatit 12 Secondary School control group Rater 1 against Rater 2 in post-test was 0.865. This could show the raters' marking is also highly consistent.

Table 5.3: Correlation of Yekatit 12 Experimental Group in Pre-test (Pilot Study)

	Pre-test Rater 1	Pre-test Rater 2
Pre-test Pearson Correlation Rater 1 Sign (2-tailed) N	1.000 30	0.961 30
Pre-test Pearson Correlation Rater 2 Sign (2-tailed) N	0.961 30	1.000 30

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

As depicted in Table 5.3, the inter-rater correlation of Yekatit 12 Secondary School Experimental group Rater 1 against Rater 2 in pre-test was 0.961. This could clearly indicate the marking was consistent.

Table 5.4: Correlation of Yekatit 12 Experimental Group in Post-test (Pilot Study)

	Post-test Rater 1	Post-test Rater 2
Post-test Pearson Correlation Rater 1 Sign (2-tailed) N	1.000 30	0.928 30
Post-test Pearson Correlation Rater 2 Sign (2-tailed) N	0.928 30	1.000 30

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 5.4 above indicates the inter-rater correlation of Yekatit 12 Secondary School Experimental group Rater 1 against Rater 2. The P-value is 0.928. This means the raters' marking was highly consistent.

To sum up, Pearson product momentum correlation (r) was computed and as indicated above high reliability coefficients were found in all the cases. As shown above in Tables 5.1 and 5.2, the inter-rater correlation of the control group was 0.945 and 0.865 for the pre and post tests respectively. Likewise, the inter-rater correlation of the experimental group was 0.961 and 0.928 for the pre and post tests respectively. Hence, this indicates that the raters' markings (scores) of the same scripts was highly consistent. It has been proved that there is no significant difference between the scores given to the same scripts by two different markers. Therefore, the average scores were taken for further analysis (comparison of mean).

One of the research questions raised in Chapter 1 is whether or not communicative grammar activities enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities. Thus, the T-test was computed and 0.05 significance level was taken as a critical region for supporting or rejecting the Null Hypothesis (H_0). It is established that if the $P\text{-value} < 0.05$ there is a significant difference and if the $P\text{-value} > 0.05$ there is no significant difference.

5.2.3 Results of the Pre-test and Post-test

As noted above, the average scores were taken for further statistical analysis (See Appendix E-3: Table 4 for the average score). In this section, the independent sample t-test and the correlated sample t-test computed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) are presented.

Table 5.5: Results of Statistical Analysis of the Independent Sample T-test (Pilot Study)

Test	Control Group			Experimental Group			D/f	t-value	p-value	Significance
	N	X	S.D	N	X	S.D				
Pre-test	30	19.22	6.88	30	19.78	6.45	58	0.329	0.672	Not significant
Post-test	30	18.37	5.46	30	25.77	7.22	58	4.476	0.003	Significant

The above Independent sample t-test table shows that the average scores of the control group of 30 students and the experimental group of 30 students are 19.22 and 19.78 respectively for the pre-test. The standard deviation of the control group and the experimental group are computed as 6.88 and 6.45 respectively for the pre-test. Regarding the t-value and the p-value, the t-value is 0.329, and the p-value is 0.672. Therefore, the difference between the above two scores was found to be statistically insignificant indicating that the experimental group made no significant difference over its pre-test compared to that of the control group.

The post-test scores of the control group and the experimental group are also shown above (See Table 5.5). As can be seen from the table, the average scores of the control group of 30 and experimental group of 30 are 18.37 and 25.77 respectively for the post-test. The standard deviation of the control group and the experimental group in the post-test is computed as 5.46 and 7.22 respectively. Besides, the above table shows that the t-value is 4.476 and the p-value is 0.003. The difference between the two scores was found to be statistically significant indicating that the experimental group made a significant improvement over its post test compared to that of the control group. The findings of the tests thus seem to indicate that the communicative grammar tasks could have considerable contribution in enhancing students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities. Evidence from the reviewed literature, for instance, Muncie (2002:182), appears to support this when he states grammar instruction is a useful means of improving students' grammatical accuracy in their writing ability.

Table 5.6: Results of Statistical Analysis of the Correlated Sample T-test (Pilot Study)

	Pre-test			Post-test			D/f	t-value	p-value	Significance
	N	X	S.D	N	X	S.D				
Control Group	30	19.22	6.88	30	18.37	5.46	29	1.031	0.827	Not significant
Experimental Group	30	19.78	6.45	30	25.77	7.22	29	4.461	0.002	Significant

The correlated Sample T-test analysis in the above table shows that the average scores of the control group of 30 students are 19.22 and 18.37 for the pre-test and post-test respectively. The standard deviation of the control group is computed as 6.88 and 5.46 respectively for the pre-test and post-test. Regarding the t-value and the p-value, the t-value is 1.031 and the p-value is 0.827. The difference between the above two scores was found to be statistically insignificant indicating that the post test mean scores of the control group showed no significant difference over its pre-test results. Thus, the students in the control group even after they were taught grammar items appended to Grade 11 textbook (not in the context of writing) did not improve their grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities. Surprisingly, the raw scores of students in the control group in post-test are less than the pre-test scores. Three possible reasons can be mentioned for the poorer performance of students in the Control group in the post-test:

- i. Learning only grammar items did not help students to improve their grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities;
- ii. Teaching students grammar without integrating it with other major skills might demotivate students; and
- iii. The grammar exercises appended to the Grade 11 textbooks are not presented in context. This means the sentences are unrelated and do not give meaning to the students. Thus, it is possible to say that the exercises are not motivating.

Likewise, the average scores of the experimental group of 30 students are 19.78 and 25.77 for the pre-and post-test respectively. The standard deviation of the experimental group is 6.45 and 7.22 for the pre-and post-test respectively. Besides, the above table shows that the t-value

is 4.461 and the p-value is 0.002. The difference between the above two scores was found to be statistically significant, the post-test mean scores of the experimental group revealing significant improvement over their pre-test results. Hence, the result seems to indicate that communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing could be valuable in improving students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities. In this connection, Dickins and Woods (1988:642) confirm that communicative grammar is very useful for efficient and effective communication, particularly for improving students' grammatical accuracy in their writing.

5.2.4 Results of Student Questionnaire

In this section, an attempt has been made to summarize the important findings obtained from the student questionnaire in the pilot study. A thirty-five item questionnaire was designed and administered at the end of the experiment. The questionnaire was filled in by 40 students in the experimental group. The main objective of the student questionnaire was to find out students' attitude towards communicative grammar in the context of writing. The questionnaire was also intended to gather data on the grammar items that the students had learnt in Grades 9 and 10. Yet another aim of students' questionnaire was to identify the problems students' encountered during the experiment.

Important insights were drawn from the pilot study. For example, the results of the pilot study showed the need for rearrangement of some of the items in the questionnaire. There were also cases in which some unclear items used in the pilot questionnaire were deleted from the questionnaire intended for the main study. Moreover, pilot study findings similar to the findings of the main study have not been analyzed in this chapter. The reason for exclusion of such answers arose out of the need to avoid redundancy (See Appendix F for the complete data obtained through students questionnaire).

Item 1 asked students if they liked learning grammar in English classes. The result shows that the majority of the respondents said 'yes' and the remaining 10% said 'no'. This might imply that a large number of students have a keen interest in learning grammar in English classes which might result in improving their grammatical accuracy. In Item 2, the students who said 'no' were further asked to give justifications for their response. Two of them said the grammar activities are not motivating and the other two reported that the grammar activities

are difficult for them. From the data, we can understand that grammar activities should be motivating and easy for students to learn.

In Item 3, students were asked if grammar is important in their writing activities. The result shows that a significant number of students are aware of the importance of grammar in writing. Item 4 required the students to provide justification for their positive reply. In response to this item, the majority of the respondents stated that grammar is a tool in writing as well as in other skills. Five of them said grammar and writing are closely interrelated. Thus, it may be argued that the results by and large showed that many students considered grammar as a basic component in writing skills. In relation to this, (Nachiengmai, 1997) says that grammar is seen as an instrument of communication, and students can not communicate effectively without grammar.

Item 6 asked the students if the grammar items they had learnt in Grade 9 and Grade 10 helped them to improve grammar accuracy in their present writing skills. Three-fourths of the respondents i.e. (75%) said that the grammar items they had learned in grades 9 and 10 did not help them much to improve grammar accuracy in their writing. The remaining 25% said 'yes'. From the above data, it is possible to understand that although the students had learnt all the grammar items in lower grades, such learning did not help them to improve their writing skills. Item 9 asked the students if they now felt comfortable to use the grammar items they had learnt when they were in Grades 9 and 10 in their writings. The majority of the students, i.e. 85% said 'no', while the remaining 15 % said 'yes'. This could imply that even if the students had learnt the grammar items in lower grades, they were not able to use the language items in their current writing. In Item 10, the students who gave a negative reply to Item 9 were asked to give justification for their responses. To this item, most of the students (i.e.85%) reported that they did not practise writing activities related to the grammar items they had learnt, and their teachers did not encourage them to practise those items in writing.

Item 11 was designed to know if the grammar items in Grade 9 and Grade 10 textbooks are presented only through rules and abstract explanation. In response to this item, slightly over half of the respondents, (i.e. 57.5%) said 'yes', while the remaining (42.5%) said 'no'. In fact, in the textbooks of Grades 9 and 10, very few grammar exercises are contextualized. Item 12 asked the students if the grammar items in Grade 9 and Grade 10 are presented in context (in dialogue or text form) in the textbook. The majority of the students, i.e. 62.5% reported 'no',

while the remaining 37.5 % said 'yes'. As noted in Chapter 3, students would be motivated to learn grammar items if they are presented in context (Weaver, 1996).

The purpose of Item 14 in the students' questionnaire was to find out if there are adequate communicative grammar tasks in Grade 11 textbook that could help the students improve their writing skills. A large majority (i.e.87.5%) of the students said, 'no', while the remaining (i.e.12.5%) said 'yes'. This might imply that students need more communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing.

In Item 18, the students were asked about the components relevant to writing skills. In response to this item, over three-fourths of the students, (i.e. 80%) said 'grammar', 7.5% said 'organization', 5% said 'content' while the remaining, 7.5% said 'all.' From the above data, it can be noted that the majority of the students are aware of the importance of grammar in writing.

Item 19 was designed to find out which grammar teaching method used during the experiment was helpful for improving students' grammar accuracy in writing. In reply to this item 50 % of the students said EEE (Exploration, Explanation, and Expression) method, 12.5% said Inductive method and the remaining 37.5% said Deductive method. In fact, the researcher had clearly explained to the students what is meant by deductive, inductive and EEE grammar teaching methods. During the experiment EEE grammar teaching method was followed. The responses obtained from the students also indicate that they preferred this grammar teaching method. This finding is in agreement with Sysoyev's (1999) position in which he explained that EEE grammar teaching method is very helpful for second/foreign language learners.

In Item 20, the students were asked if they encountered any problems when they practised the selected communicative grammar items in the context of writing during the experiment. In response to this item, over a half of the respondents, (i.e. 57.5%) said 'yes', and the remaining (i.e.42.5%) said 'no'. This could clearly indicate that a significant number of students encountered difficulties during the experiment.

In Item 21, the students who gave a positive reply to Item 20 were required to give justification for their response. To this Item, the majority of the students reported that the activities that they had to do were rather unfamiliar to them. Four of them stated that some of the activities were difficult. The remaining students stated that they did not get the instructor's support whenever they needed it because of the large number of students in the classroom.

The results of this item revealed that the students need to practise a lot of communicative grammar in the context of writing activities frequently.

Item 22 was designed to find out the grammar items that the students' practised during the experiment. The majority of students, (i.e. 90%) reported that they practised all items listed in the questionnaire. The remaining students stated that they practised one or two grammar items. These students might be those who did not frequently attend the experimental classes. Thus, the above analysis shows that most of the students were aware of the fact that they practised the grammar items taught in the experiment. Actually, when one unit was completed in the experiment, by way of summing up, the researcher asked the students what grammar items they had learnt in the tasks. The students could easily identify the grammar items they practised during the experiment.

From the results of Items 30, 31, 32, 33 and 34, it is possible to observe that almost all the students had a positive attitude towards communicative grammar in the context of writing. Moreover the interview results also revealed that the students really enjoyed the communicative grammar tasks during the experiment (See Items 30, 31, 32, 33 and Item 34 in Appendix F).

The last item (i.e. No. 35) required students to write general comments regarding the teaching of communicative grammar in the context of writing. A majority of the students reported that the grammar items found in lower grades and even in grade 11 are not contextualized. Others also reported that they would like to practise a lot of communicative grammar and writing tasks so that they could improve their writing skills. Still others underscored the importance of learning grammar in the context of writing so that they would be able to improve grammatical accuracy in their writing.

5.2.5 Results of Student Interview

The main aim of student interview was to find out students' attitude towards communicative grammar activities and to investigate whether or not communicative grammar activities are helpful in enhancing students' writing abilities. The results of the interview helped the researcher to substantiate the results obtained from the questionnaire. To this effect, out of 40 students from the Experimental group, 10 students were randomly selected and interviewed. The findings of the interview are summarized below:

One purpose of the student interview was to find out students' attitude towards communicative grammar. The students were asked if they had enjoyed the communicative grammar tasks they had practised in their classes. Almost all students reported that they liked all the grammar exercises, only one of the interviewees stated that she missed three periods of the afternoon classes and she felt that if she had attended all classes, she would have enjoyed the tasks practised. Besides, two students said that the grammar items practised were not enough. They also stated that it would have been better if other grammar items were included (See Appendix J for students' interview questions).

Regarding the confidence that students gained in using the selected grammar items in writing, four students said that they could confidently use the grammar items that were taught in their writing. However, six students pointed out that they would need more than six weeks to achieve grammatical accuracy in their writing. In this regard, the respondents' belief tends to support Weaver's (1996:4) point of view when she states:

Teaching grammar in the context of writing will not automatically mean that once thought, the concepts will be learned and applied forever after. On the contrary, grammatical concepts must be taught and re-taught, to individuals as well as to groups or classes, and students may long afterwards continue to need guidance in actually applying what they have, in some sense or to some degree, already learnt. There is no quick fix.

In reply to the third question, six students reported that doing the grammar tasks enhanced their awareness of subject-verb agreement sentences (Present simple) in English. Nevertheless, the other four students said that they would need more practice in the remaining grammar items before they could see some improvements in their grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities.

Concerning the integration of grammar with writing, the majority of students said that if grammar items had been integrated with all writing tasks they would have improved their writing skills to a great extent, so they regretted not having such an opportunity in high schools.

To the fifth item, the majority of students (seven of them) reported that EEE method helped them to improve grammar accuracy in their writing. Three students stated they preferred deductive method. This might imply that in teaching grammar in the context of writing we have to consider different variables that could affect the teaching and learning process.

Regarding problems students encountered in the experiment, six students stated that the activities were not familiar to them and they found the tasks rather difficult. They also reported that the time for the pilot study was very short; they needed more time to practise more. Four students said that they need individual support from their teachers in order to improve grammar accuracy in their writing.

To the last question, the students replied that grammar should be incorporated in all language skills. They felt that students would learn a language more effectively if emphasis was given to grammar accuracy. They liked all the grammar activities included in the experiment but they regretted that they could not devote more time to these activities as they had to prepare themselves for the first semester final examination.

5.2.6 Insights Drawn from the Pilot Study

This section presents a discussion on the insights drawn from the pilot study and their implications for the main study. The important lessons gained may be summarized as follows:

- i. As noted in Chapter 4, the main objective of the pilot study was to try out the teaching material prepared and the various research tools selected to conduct the main study of this research project. As a result, thirty-five questions were administered to the students in the pilot study. However, some of the items which the students failed to respond to clearly and other items which my supervisors remarked to be difficult were dropped in the main study. For instance, Item 13 was dropped because it contained terminologies that the students found to be difficult to understand. Similarly, Item 16 and Item 17 which asked students to report if their English language teachers used supplementary communicative grammar activities to teach writing skills in the pilot study had to be dropped because in the Plasma Display Panel teachers were observed not to have time to use any supplementary material. They do not even have enough time to summarize the important points of the lessons transmitted in every English period.
- ii. Students did not find instructions for some of the exercises in the pilot study clear enough for understanding. They often asked for clarification of the instructions before doing the exercises. This led to the need for re-writing instructions of some of the exercises in the main study.

- iii. The other insight drawn from the pilot study relates to the time allotted to the pre- and post-tests. Students were given one and a half hours to complete the tests. This was found to be less than the time students needed to complete the writing tests which involved writing the first draft before producing the final draft. Hence, the time allotted to the pre- and post-tests was raised two hours in the main study.
- iv. Students did not find some of the concepts (e.g. delivery of letters) used in the teaching material prepared for the experimental group familiar enough. Thus, more familiar terms were used in the main study.
- v. Some female students expressed their wish to be given more topics for paragraph and essay writing. Accordingly, additional topics for writing paragraphs and essays were given in the main study.

As shown above, the experience gained from the pilot study was invaluable. The researcher was alerted about problems that students faced while interacting and performing various grammar and writing tasks. As a result, she was able to amend the weaknesses observed in the preparation of grammar and writing tasks. It was also possible to test the various tools that were used later in the main study.

5.2.7 Summary of the Results of the Pilot Study

As indicated earlier, the pilot study had two main objectives. The first objective was to try out the research methods and the teaching material prepared for this study. The second one was to use the results of the pilot study as a stepping stone for conducting the main study of this research. It was also believed that the results of the pilot study would help to indicate direction of the main study. In the pilot study, three methods of data collection were used: experiment, questionnaire and interview. The data collected through these methods were analysed. Some of the results which were believed to reinforce the main study are summarized in this section.

As noted earlier, an experiment was conducted for six weeks in one secondary school i.e. Yekatit 12 Secondary School for the pilot study. The purpose of the experiment was to find out whether or not communicative grammar could enhance the grammatical accuracy of students' writing. The results showed that the students' in the experimental group made a

significant improvement in grammar accuracy in their writing abilities compared to those in the control group.

A questionnaire was administered to the students at the end of the pilot study. The results of the questionnaire revealed that the students had a positive attitude towards communicative grammar in the context of writing tasks. The students also reported that they liked the grammar and writing tasks. They also stated that communicative grammar tasks helped them to improve grammar accuracy in their writing. In this connection, Frodesen's and Holten's (2003) view that grammar is an essential element of second language writing instruction was confirmed.

Furthermore, regarding the students' questionnaire in the pilot study, some items to which the students did not respond were dropped in the main study. For instance, Item 13 was dropped because the majority of students did not give clear answers to the question. This question was on how the grammar items were presented in grade 9 and 10. It seems that the students found the terms such as 'traditional' and 'communicative' difficult to understand. Besides Item 16 and Item 17 were dropped because classroom teachers did not have time to use any supplementary material in the plasma television programme.

Moreover, during the interview, the students commented that the paragraph and essay topics given in the pilot study were not adequate for future reference. Their comments were accepted and additional writing topics were included in the main study. All in all, the results of the pilot study conducted for six weeks motivated the researcher to carry out the main study of this research. Moreover, a useful lesson that influenced the main study has been gained from the pilot study.

5.3 The Main Study

5.3.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this study was to find out whether or not communicative grammar in the context of writing could enhance students' grammar accuracy in their writing abilities. Moreover as noted in Chapter 1, this study specifically sought to address the following basic questions:

- i. What is the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students' writing?

- ii. What major problems related to teaching communicative grammar in the context of writing did Grade Eleven teachers face during the experiment?
- iii. What major problems related to learning communicative grammar in the context of writing did Grade eleven students face in the experiment?

As reported in Chapter 4, for the main study two secondary schools: Menilik Secondary School and Addis Ketema Secondary School were selected randomly. Two sections from each school, a total of four sections were selected for this research. The experiment was conducted for 16 weeks (four months). The details are presented in this section.

This section has six sub-sections. The first sub-section describes the mark/ re-mark reliability of the pre-and post-test scores. The second sub-section discusses the results of the pre-and the post-test. The students’ responses to the questionnaire designed to get information on students’ attitude towards communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing and the problem they encountered during the experiment is presented in the third sub-section. The fourth and the fifth sub-sections discuss students’ and teachers’ responses to the interview. The section ends with the discussion of the results of classroom observations.

5.3.2 Mark/re-mark Reliability

As discussed in section 5.2.2, mark/ re-mark reliability was used to examine the degree to which the different raters gave consistent scores of the same test. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) used in the pilot study was also used in the main study. The two teachers who participated in the main study were taken as Rater 1 and Rater 2. The raw scores of the pre-and post-test of the two secondary schools are given in Appendix G. SPSS was used to calculate the correlation of the two raters’ scores. The following correlation matrix tables show the results.

Table 5.7: Correlation of MCR₁&MCR₂ in Pre-test (Main Study)

	Pre-test Rater 1	Pre-test Rater 2
MCR ₁ Pre Pearson Correlation Sign (2-tailed) N	1.000 58	0.851 58
MCR ₂ Pre Pearson Correlation Sign (2-tailed) N	0.851 58	1.000 58

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

MCR₁Pre Menlik Secondary School Control group Rater one
MCR₂Pre Menlik Secondary School Control group Rater two

Table 5.7 above shows the inter-rater correlation of Menilik Secondary School control group Rater 1 against Rater 2 in pre-test. As can be seen from the above table, the inter-rater correlation of control group in pre-test was 0.851. This shows that the raters' marking of the same paper is highly consistent. As a result, the average score was taken for further analysis.

Table 5.8: Correlation of MCR₁&MCR₂ in Post-test (Main Study)

	Post-test Rater 1	Post-test Rater 2
MCR ₁ Post Pearson Correlation Sign (2-tailed) N	1.000 58	0.906 58
MCR ₂ Post Pearson Correlation Sign (2-tailed) N	0.906 58	1.000 58

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

MCR₁ Menlik Secondary School Control group Rater one
MCR₂ Menlik Secondary School Control group Rater two

Similarly, Table 5.8 indicates the inter-rater correlation of Menilik Secondary School control group Rater 1 against Rater 2 in post-test. From the above table, one can observe that the inter-rater correlation of control group in post-test was 0.906. This means there is no significant difference between Rater 1 against Rater 2 ($P>0.05$ i.e. 0.906).

Table 5.9: Correlation of MER₁&MER₂ in Pre-test (Main Study)

	Pre-test Rater 1	Pre-test Rater 2
MER ₁ Pre Pearson Correlation Sign (2-tailed) N	1.000 50	0.843 50
MER ₂ Pre Pearson Correlation Sign (2-tailed) N	0.843 50	1.000 50

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

MER₁ Menlik Secondary School Experimental group Rater one in Pre-test
MER₂ Menlik Secondary School Experimental group Rater two in Pre-test

As depicted in Table 5.9, the inter-rater correlation of Menilik Secondary School Experimental group Rater 1 against Rater 2 in pre-test was 0.843. This could clearly indicate that the marking is consistent.

Table 5.10: Correlation of MER₁&MER₂ in Post-test (Main Study)

	Post-test Rater 1	Post-test Rater 2
MER ₁ Post Pearson Correlation	1.000	0.919
Sign (2-tailed)		
N	50	50
MER ₂ Post Pearson Correlation	0.919	1.000
Sign (2-tailed)		
N	50	50

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

MER₁Post Menlik Secondary School Experimental group Rater one in Post-test

MER₂Post Menlik Secondary School Experimental group Rater two in Post-test

Table 5.10 above indicates the inter-rater correlation of Menilik Secondary School Experimental group Rater 1 against Rater 2 in post-test. The P-value is 0.919. This means the raters' marking is highly consistent.

Table 5.11: Correlation of ACR₁&ACR₂ in Pre-test (Main Study)

	Pre-test Rater 1	Pre-test Rater 2
ACR ₁ Pre Pearson Correlation	1.000	0.755
Sign (2-tailed)		
N	56	56
ACR ₂ Pre Pearson Correlation	0.755	1.000
Sign (2-tailed)		
N	56	56

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

ACR₁Pre Addis Ketema Secondary School Control group Rater one in Pre-test

ACR₂Pre Addis Ketema Secondary School Control group Rater two in Pre-test

As can be seen from the above table, the inter-rater correlation of Addis Ketema Secondary School control group Rater 1 against Rater 2 in pre-test is 0.755. This shows that the scores of Rater 1 and Rater 2 is highly consistent.

Table 5.12: Correlation of ACR₁&ACR₂ in Post-test (Main Study)

	Post-test	Post-test
ACR ₁ Post Pearson Correlation Sign (2-tailed) N	1.000 56	0.892 56
ACR ₂ Post Pearson Correlation Sign (2-tailed) N	0.892 56	1.000 56

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

ACR₁Post Addis Ketema Secondary School Control group Rater one in Post-test
ACR₂ post Addis Ketema Secondary School Control group Rater two in Post-test

Table 5.12 indicates the inter-rater correlation of Addis Ketema Secondary School control group Rater 1 against Rater 2 in post-test. The P-value is 0.892. This shows the raters' marking is highly consistent.

Table 5.13: Correlation of AER₁&AER₂ in Pre-test (Main Study)

	Pre-test Rater 1	Pre-test Rater 2
AER ₁ Pre Pearson Correlation Sign (2-tailed) N	1.000 60	0.892 60
AER ₂ Pre Pearson Correlation Sign (2-tailed) N	0.892 60	1.000 60

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

AER₁Pre Addis Ketema Secondary School Experimental group Rater one in Pre-test
AER₂ Pre Addis Ketema Secondary School Experimental group Rater two in Pre-test

Table 5.13 shows the inter-rater correlation of Addis Ketema Secondary School Experimental group Rater 1 against Rater 2 in pre-test. The P-value is 0.892. This could clearly show the raters' marking of the same paper is highly consistent.

Table 5.14: Correlation of AER₁&AER₂ in Post-test (Main Study)

	Post-test Rater 1	Post-test Rater 2
AER ₁ Post Pearson Correlation Sign (2-tailed) N	1.000 60	0.874 60
AER ₂ Post Pearson Correlation Sign (2-tailed) N	0.874 60	1.000 60

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

AER₁Post Addis Ketema Secondary School Experimental group Rater one in Post-test
AER₂Post Addis Ketema Secondary School Experimental group Rater two in Post-test

As shown in the above table, the inter-rater correlation of Addis Ketema Secondary School Experimental group Rater 1 against Rater 2 in post-test was 0.874. This could show the raters' marking is highly consistent. As a result, the average scores were taken for further statistical analysis.

5.3.3 Results of the Pre-Test and Post-Test

One of the research questions raised in Chapter 1 was whether or not communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing improve students' grammar accuracy in their writing abilities. As already indicated in the previous chapter (Chapter 4), a pre-test was given before the experiment to all students (in both experimental and control groups). After they were taught for about 16 weeks using the new material (communicative grammar in the context of writing), they were given the post-test. The results are presented by taking the average scores.

As noted above, the average scores were taken for further statistical analysis. To this end, the average raw scores of the control and the experimental groups (pre-and post-tests) are given in Appendix G (G-7-Table 24 Menilik and G-8-Table 25 Addis Ketema). In this section, the independent sample t-test and the correlated sample t-test were computed using SPSS.

Table 5.15: Results of Statistical Analysis of the Independent Sample T-test MC&E in Pre and Post-test (Main Study)

Test	Control Group			Experimental Group			D/f	t- value	p- value	Significance
	N	X	S.D	N	X	S.D				
Pre-test	58	21.80	7.32	50	22.55	6.35	106	0.563	0.575	Not significant
Post-test	58	20.77	7.36	50	27.03	7.84	106	4.272	0.002	Significant

MC&E:- Menilik Secondary School Control and Experimental group

Table 5.15 indicates the average scores of Menilik Secondary School Control and Experimental groups in pre and post-tests. As shown above, the average scores of the control group of 58 and the Experimental group of 50 students are 21.80 and 22.55 respectively for the pre-test. The standard deviation of the control group and experimental group is computed as 7.32 and 6.35 respectively for the pre-test. Regarding the t-value, it is 0.563 and the probability value (P-value) is 0.575. Therefore the difference between the above two scores was found to be statistically insignificant difference over its pre-test compared to that of the control group ($P > 0.05$ i.e. 0.575).

The post-test scores of Menilik Secondary School Control and Experimental groups are also shown in Table 5.15. As can be seen from the above table, the average scores of the control group of 58 and experimental group of 50 are 20.77 and 27.03 respectively for the post-test. The standard deviation of the Control group and Experimental groups in post-test is computed as 7.36 and 7.84 respectively. Besides the t-value is 4.272 and the P-value is below 0.05 (i.e. 0.002). Thus post-test scores were found to be statistically significant indicating that the Experimental group made significant improvement over its post-test compared to the control group.

Therefore, the findings of the tests seem to indicate that communicative grammar tasks had considerable contribution in enhancing students' grammatical accuracy in their written compositions. The researcher believes that since Grade 11 students are preparing themselves for universities and colleges, they need to improve grammatical accuracy in their writing. In this connection, Nachiengmai (1997:4) states that teachers who teach pre-college students should focus on grammatical instruction and practice. This, in Nachiengmai's opinion,

facilitate students' development of accuracy which they need for university entrance examination and the proficiency tests.

Table 5.16: Results of Statistical Analysis of the Independent Sample T-test of AC&E in Pre-and Post-test (Main Study)

Test	Control Group			Experimental Group			D/f	t- value	p- value	Significance
	N	X	S.D	N	X	S.D				
Pre-test	56	21.04	5.58	60	22.71	6.16	114	0.247	0.85	Not significant
Post-test	56	22.44	6.16	60	27.63	6.81	114	4.296	0.002	Significant

AC&E: - Addis Ketema Secondary School Control and Experimental group

Similarly, Table 5.16 shows the average scores of Addis Ketema Secondary School Control and Experimental groups in Pre-and post-tests. As noted above, the average scores of the control group of 56 and the Experimental group of 60 students are 21.04 and 22.71 respectively for the pre-test. The standard deviation of the control group and experimental group is computed as 5.58 and 6.16 respectively for the pre-test. The t-value is 0.247 and the P-value is 0.85. Therefore the performance of students in both groups did not significantly differ. The experimental and control groups have similar grammar accuracy in their writing abilities in pre-test.

The post-test scores of the Control and Experimental groups are also shown in Table 5.16. As can be seen from the table, the average scores of the control group of 56 and experimental group of 60 are 22.44 and 27.63 respectively for the post-test. The standard deviation of the Control group and Experimental groups in post-test is computed as 6.16 and 6.81 respectively. Moreover, the above table shows the t-value is 4.296 and the P-value is 0.002. The difference between the above two scores was found to be statistically significant, indicating that experimental group made significant improvement over its post-test compared to the control group. Therefore, the findings of the tests seem to indicate that experimental group benefited greatly in improving grammatical accuracy in their written texts. In this regard, Weaver (1996) says that grammar items integrated with writing can greatly enhance the quality of students' writing.

In this study, an attempt has been made to show whether there were differences in the performances of the aggregate sample of the control and experimental groups of Menilik and Addis Ketema Secondary Schools. Thus, before computing the aggregate sample of the two secondary schools selected for the main study, finding out whether there were any differences in the performance of the control and experimental groups of Menilik and Addis Ketema Secondary Schools in pre-and post-tests was felt to be important. To this effect, the following two tables (Table 5.17 and Table 5.18) present the findings.

Table 5.17: Results of Statistical Analysis of the Independent Sample T-test MC and AC in Pre-and Post-test (Main Study)

Test	Control Group (Menilk)			Control Group (Addis Ketema)			D/f	t- value	p- value	Significance
	N	X	S.D	N	X	S.D				
Pre-test	58	21.80	7.32	56	21.04	5.58	112	0.520	0.604	Not significant
Post-test	58	20.77	7.36	56	22.44	6.16	112	1.304	0.283	Not Significant

MAC:- Menlik and Addis Ketema Secondary School Control group

Table 5.17 indicates the average scores of Menlik and Addis Ketema Secondary School Control groups in Pre-and post-test. The average scores of Menlik control group of 58 and Addis Ketema Control group of 56 students are 21.80 and 21.04 respectively for the pre-test. The standard deviation of Menlik control group and Addis Ketema Control group is computed as 7.32 and 5.58 respectively for the pre-test. Regarding the t-value and the P-value, the t-value is 0.520 and the P-value is 0.604. Therefore the difference between the above two scores was found to be statistically insignificant. This indicates that Menlik control group made no significant difference over its pre-test compared to the control group at Addis Ketema Secondary School.

The post-test scores of Menlik control group and Addis Ketema control group are also shown in Table 5.17. As can be observed from the table, the average scores of Menlik control group of 58 and Addis Ketema Control group of 56 students are 20.77 and 22.44 respectively for the post-test. The standard deviation of Menlik control group and Addis Ketema control group in post-test is computed as 7.36 and 6.16 respectively. Besides, the table also shows that the t-

value is 1.304 and the P-value is 0.283. The difference between the two scores was found to be statistically insignificant. It indicates that Menlik control group made no significant difference over its post-test compared to Addis Ketema control group ($P > 0.05$ i.e. 0.283).

Table 5.18: Results of the Statistical Analysis of the Independent Sample T-test ME and AE in Pre-and Post-test

Test	Experimental Group(Menlik)			Experimental Group (Addis Ketema)			D/f	t- value	p- value	Significance
	N	X	S.D	N	X	S.D				
Pre-test	50	22.55	6.35	60	22.71	6.16	108	0.132	0.895	Not significant
Post-test	50	27.03	7.84	60	27.63	6.81	108	0.432	0.667	Not Significant

MAE:- Menlik and Addis Ketema Secondary School Experimental groups

Table 5.18 indicates the average scores of Menlik and Addis Ketema Secondary School Experimental groups in pre-and post-tests. The average scores of Menlik Experimental group of 50 and Addis Ketema Experimental group of 60 students are 22.55 and 22.71 respectively for the pre-test. The standard deviation of Menlik Experimental group and Addis Ketema Experimental group is computed as 6.35 and 6.16 respectively for the pre-test. Regarding the t-value and the P-value, the t-value is 0.132 and the P-value is 0.895. Therefore the difference between the above two scores was found to be statistically insignificant. This shows Menlik Experimental group made no significant difference over its pre-test compared to Addis Ketema Experimental group.

The post-test scores of Menlik Experimental group and Addis Ketema Experimental group are also shown in Table 5.18. As can be seen from the above table, the average scores of Menlik Experimental group of 50 and Addis Ketema Experimental group of 60 students are 27.03 and 27.63 respectively for the post-test. The standard deviation of Menlik Experimental group and Addis Ketema Experimental group in post-test is computed as 7.84 and 6.81 respectively. Besides, the above table shows that the t-value is 0.432 and the P-value is 0.667. The difference between the above two scores was found to be statistically insignificant indicating that Menlik Experimental group made no significant difference over its post-test compared to that of Addis Ketema Experimental group.

As can be noted from the two tables above, the scores indicate that there is no significant difference in the performance of the subjects in the two selected secondary schools. As a result the two Control groups (MAC) were aggregated to form one control group of a population of 114 students. Similarly, the two Experimental groups (MAE) were also aggregated to form one Experimental group of a population of 110 students. Accordingly, the aggregate samples were taken for further analysis in pre-and post-tests. The table below shows the findings in this regard.

Table 5.19: Results of Statistical Analysis of the Aggregate Correlated Sample T-test MAC &MAE in Pre and Post-test (Main Study)

	Pre-test			Post-test			D/f	t-value	p-value	Significance
	N	X	S.D	N	X	S.D				
Control Group (MA)	114	22.01	6.39	110	21.62	6.89	113	0.736	0.464	Not significant
Experimental Group (MA)	110	22.64	6.22	110	27.36	7.27	109	5.586	0.001	Significant

MAC &MAE:- Menlik and Addis Ketema control group against Menlik and Addis Ketema Experimental group

As noted above after finding out there was no significant difference in scores between Menilik and Addis Ketema Control groups in pre-and post-tests and Menilik and Addis Ketema Experimental groups in pre-and post-tests, the aggregate correlated sample was taken for further analysis. Table 5.19 indicates the aggregate correlated sample t-test of Menilik and Addis Ketema Control groups and Experimental groups in pre-and post-tests. The above aggregate correlated sample t-test shows that the average scores of Menilik and Addis Ketema Control groups of 114 are 22.01 and 21.62 for the pre-and post-tests respectively. The standard deviation of Menilik and Addis Ketema Control groups is computed as 6.39 and 6.89 respectively for the pre-and post-tests. Regarding the t-value and the p-value, the t-value is 0.736 and the p-value is 0.464. Therefore, the difference between the above two scores was found to be statistically insignificant. The post-test mean scores of the control groups made no significant difference over its pre-test results. This shows that the control groups, who were

taught grammar items appended to the Grade 11 textbook, did not improve their grammar accuracy in their post-test results.

The average scores of Menilik and Addis Ketema Experimental groups of 110 are 22.64 and 27.36 respectively for the pre-and post-test respectively. The standard deviation of Menilik and Addis Ketema Experimental groups is computed as 6.22 and 7.27 for the pre-and post-tests respectively. The table also shows that the t-value is 5.586 and the p-value is 0.001. Therefore, the Experimental groups outperformed in grammar accuracy in post-test results perhaps as a result of practicing communicative grammar in the context of writing tasks. Thus, the results of the t-test presented in Table 5.19 shows a significant difference between the Experimental and Control groups in their post-test scores. This means the Experimental groups outperformed in the post-test results. In relation to the crucial role grammar plays in improving students' writing, Devet (2002) confirms that students should understand that grammar plays an important role in improving grammar accuracy in their writing.

Table 5.20: Results of Statistical Analysis of the Correlated Sample T-test MCPre against MCPPost & ME Pre against ME post-tests

	Pre-test			Post-test			D/f	t-value	p-value	Significance
	N	X	S.D	N	X	S.D				
Control Group (Menilik)	58	21.80	7.32	58	20.77	7.36	57	1.352	0.180	Not significant
Experimental Group (Menilik)	50	22.55	6.35	50	27.03	7.84	49	4.910	0.003	Significant

MCPre against MCPPost:- Menlik control Pre-test against Menlik control Post-test
 MEPre against MEPost:- Menlik Experimental Pre-test against Menlik Experimental Post-test

Table 5.20 indicates the correlated sample t-test of Menilik control group in pre-test against Menilik control group in post-test and Menilik Experimental group in pre-test against Menilik Experimental group in post-test. The correlated sample t-test table shows that the average scores of Menilik control group of 58 students are 21.80 and 20.77 for the pre-and post-tests respectively. The standard deviation of the Menilik control group is computed as 7.32 and

7.36 for the pre-and post-tests respectively. Regarding the t-value and the P-value, the t-value is 1.352 and the P-value is 0.180. The difference between the two scores was found to be statistically insignificant. This implies that the post-test mean scores of the control group show no significant difference over the pre-test results. Thus, the control group even if they were taught grammar items appended to Grade 11 text (not in the context of writing) did not improve grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities.

The average scores of Menilik Experimental groups of 50 students are 22.55 and 27.03 for the pre-and post-tests respectively. The standard deviation of the Experimental group is computed as 6.35 and 7.84 for the pre-and post-tests respectively. Besides the above table shows that the t-value is 4.910 and the p-value is 0.003. This shows that the students' achievement in the experimental group significantly improved as a result of using communicative grammar in the context of writing tasks. In this connection, Hudson (2001:3) explains that there has been a conviction among curriculum writers and policy makers in England that grammar teaching will improve students written English. Hudson's remark seems to make sense even in the context where English is taught as a foreign language like the context in which this study has been conducted.

**Table 5.21: Results of Statistical Analysis of the Correlated Sample T-test
ACPre against ACPost and AEPRe against AEPost**

	Pre-test			Post-test			D/ f	t-value	p- value	Significance
	N	X	S.D	N	X	S.D				
Control Group (Addis Ketema)	56	21.04	5.58	56	22.44	6.16	55	1.031	1.00	Not significant
Experimental Group (Addis Ketema)	60	22.71	6.16	60	27.63	6.81	59	4.461	0.000	Significant

ACPre against ACPost:- Addis Ketema control Pre-test against Addis Ketema control Post-test

AEPRe against AEPost:- *Addis Ketema* Experimental Pre-test against Addis Ketema Experimental Post-test

Table 5.21 indicates the correlated sample t-test of Addis Ketema control group in pre-test against Addis Ketema control group in post-test and Addis Ketema Experimental group in pre-test against Addis Ketema Experimental group in post-test. The correlated sample t-test table shows that the average scores of Addis Ketema control group of 56 students are 21.04 and 22.44 for the pre-and post-tests respectively. The standard deviation of the control group is computed as 5.58 and 6.16 for the pre-and post-tests respectively. Regarding the t-value and the P-value, the t-value is 1.031 and the P-value is 1.00. The difference between the above two scores was found to be statistically insignificant. This indicates that the post-test mean scores of the control group showed no significant difference over the pre-test results. Thus, the control group even if they were taught grammar items appended to Grade 11 textbook (not in the context of writing) did not improve grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities. The average scores of Addis Ketema Experimental groups of 60 students are 22.71 and 27.63 for the pre-and post-tests respectively. The standard deviation of the Experimental group is computed as 6.16 and 6.81 for the pre-and post-tests respectively. Besides the above table shows that the t-value is 4.461 and the p-value is 0.000. Thus, the experimental group made higher gains in grammar accuracy in post-test scores as a result of using communicative grammar in the context of writing tasks. As shown in the literature reviewed in this study, Dickins and Woods (1988:642) state that grammar items should be introduced to students as an integral network in writing instruction so that students could improve their writing skills.

5.3.4 Results of the Student Questionnaire

The main objective of the student questionnaire was to find out students' attitude towards communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing and the problems that the students might have encountered during the experiment. A thirty-two item questionnaire was filled in by 110 students in the experimental group. One hundred five students filled in and returned the questionnaire. The data collected were tabulated. The results of the questionnaire of the main study are presented below (decimals are rounded off to the nearest whole number).

Table 5.22: Attitude to Learning Grammar

No.	Item	Yes		No	
		Freq	%	Freq	%
1	Do you like to learn grammar in English classes?	95	90.48%	10	9.52%

In Item 1, the students were asked if they liked to learn grammar in English classes. From the above table, one can observe that 90.48% of the respondents said ‘yes’ and the remaining 9.52% said ‘no’. This could clearly show that a large number of students have a keen interest in learning grammar in English classes which might result in improving their grammatical accuracy. Besides, the results indicate that grammar seems to be the most important skill in English language learning from the students’ point of view. The present finding seems to confirm Nachiengmai’s (1997) point related to the value of grammar in writing instruction. More specifically, he states that grammar is a highly valuable part of writing instruction.

In Item 2, the students who said ‘no’ were further asked to give justifications for their response. Six of them said the grammar activities are not motivating and four of them reported that the grammar activities are difficult. From the above data, we can understand that grammar activities should be motivating and easy for students to learn. Otherwise students would not be motivated and they dislike learning the English language as a whole.

Table 5.23: The Importance of Grammar in Writing

No.	Item	Yes		No		To some extent	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
3	Do you think grammar is important in your writing activities?	85	80.95%	5	4.76%	15	14.29%

Item 3 asked the students whether or not grammar is important in their writing activities. As depicted in Table 5.23, 80.95% of the students said ‘yes’, 4.76% said ‘no’ and the remaining 14.29% said ‘to some extent’. This shows that a majority of students are aware of the importance of grammar in writing. Regarding this, it may be recalled that in the Review of Literature (See Section 3.3), it was pointed out by Stackpole (1999) that grammar is an invaluable tool in teaching writing skills. Similarly, Nachengmai (1997:3) states that the main goal in grammar teaching is to enable learners to achieve linguistic competence and to be able to use grammar as a tool or resource in producing written discourse efficiently, effectively, and appropriately according to the situation.

Item 4 required the students to provide justification for their positive reply to Item 3. To this item, the majority of the respondents (70 of them) stated that grammar is basic to writing as well as to other skills. Fourteen of them said grammar and writing are closely interrelated. They have also reported that they would like to have an opportunity to use the grammar items

they learnt in their writing. One student reported that any language is meaningless without grammar. Thus, the responses of the students to this item seem to suggest that many of the students have considered grammar as a basic component in writing skills. In relation to this, (Chin, 2000) says grammar items are necessary instrumental skills without which meaningful writing cannot take place.

Table 5.24: Awareness of Grammar Items Learnt and their Impact on Students' Writing

No.	Item	Simple present & pres. Continuous The passive & active voice		Present perfect & present perfect cont. Relative clauses		All items	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
5	Which of the following grammatical items did you learn when you were in Grade 9 and Grade 10?	10	9.52%	8	7.62%	87	82.86%
	Item	Yes		No			
		Freq	%	Freq	%		
6	Did the grammar items you learnt in Grade 9 and Grade 10 help you to improve your writing skills?	32	30.48%	73	69.52%		
7	When you were in Grade 9 and Grade 10, did you have the opportunity to use the grammar items you learnt in your writing?	20	19.05%	85	80.95%		

Item 5 was designed to find out the grammar items that the students had learnt when they were in Grade 9 and Grade 10. As the students' responses in the above table show, the majority of the respondents stated that they had learnt all the grammar items listed in the questionnaire. However, they suggested that even if they had learnt these items, it was difficult for them to use the grammar items correctly in their writing abilities.

Grade 11 students were asked in Item 6 if the grammar items they had learnt in Grade 9 and 10 helped them to improve their writing skills. The above table indicates that the majority of the respondents i.e. 69.52% stated 'no' and the remaining 30.48% said 'yes'. From the above data, it is possible to understand that although the students had learnt the grammar items in their textbooks in lower grades, many do not seem to have benefited much from the lessons.

This means that the lessons they learned did not help them to improve their writing skills. Regarding this, (Weaver, 1996:11) says,

No matter how students are taught grammatical concepts, syntactic constructions and stylistic devices, or language conventions and editing concepts, they will not automatically make use of these in their writing. However the relevant research confirms what everyday experience reveals that teaching grammar in the context of writing works better than teaching grammar as a formal system, if our aim is for students to use grammar more effectively and conventionally in their writing.

In Item 7, the students were asked whether they had the opportunity to use the grammar items they learnt in grade 9 and 10 in their writing. As shown in the above table, 80.95% of the students said ‘no’ and the remaining 19.05% said ‘yes’. From the above data, we can observe that a majority of the students did not get the chance to practice the grammar items they had learnt in their writing. This might create a negative impact on enhancing grammar accuracy in students’ writing.

In Item 8, the students who responded negatively to item 7 were required to give justification for their responses. Over half of (60 of them) stated that their teachers did not give them any grammar exercises related to writing. They also pointed out that if they had got an opportunity to use the grammar items they learnt in their writing, they would have improved their writing skills and they could have also been able to write grammatically correct and meaningful sentences. Twenty five of them said that their teachers did not motivate them to use the grammar items learnt in their writing.

Table 5.25: Feeling Comfortable Using the Grammar Items Learnt

No.	Item	Yes		No	
		Freq	%	Freq	%
9	Do you now feel comfortable to use the grammar items that you learnt in Grade 9 and Grade 10 in your writing?	22	20.95%	83	79.05%

Item 9 asked the students if they now felt comfortable to use the grammar items they had learnt when they were in Grades 9 and 10 in their writing. As can be seen from the above table, the majority of the students, i.e. 79.05% said ‘no’, while the remaining 20.95 % said ‘yes’. This could imply that even if the students had learnt the grammar items in lower grades,

they were not able to use them in their current writing. In this connection, (Musumeci, 1997:2) says, “Accuracy in writing develops gradually as a consequence of exposure to good models and a lot of practise.”

In Item 10, the students who gave a negative reply to Item 9 were required to give justification for their responses. To this item, most of the students (69 of them) reported that they did not practise writing activities related to the grammar items they had learnt. Others (10 of them) stated that their teachers did not encourage them to practice those items in writing. The other four students suggested that the time they had for English subject is very short in order to practise the grammar items they had learnt in their writing.

Table 5.26: Presentation of Grammar Items in Grades 9 and 10

No.	Item	Yes		No	
11	Are the grammar items in the Grade 9 and Grade 10 textbooks presented only through rules and abstract explanation?	67	63.81%	38	36.19%
12	Do you think the grammar items in Grade 9 and Grade 10 are presented in context (in dialogue or text form) in the textbook?	21	20%	84	80%

In Item 11, the students were required to report whether the grammar items in Grade 9 and Grade 10 textbooks are presented only through rules and abstract explanation. In response to this item, more than half of the respondents, i.e. 63.81% said ‘yes’, while the remaining 36.19% said ‘no’. In fact, in the textbooks of Grades 9 and 10, very few grammar exercises are contextualized. In relation to this, Girma Gezahegn (2005) in the study he conducted in the local context clearly stated that the grammar lessons in the English for Ethiopia textbooks are not contextualized; they focus on grammar items only at the sentence level.

Item 12 asked the students if the grammar items in Grade 9 and Grade 10 are presented in context (in dialogue or text form) in the textbooks. As can be noted from the above table, the majority of the students, i.e. 80% reported ‘no’, while the remaining 20 % said ‘yes’. This finding is supported by the students’ responses in the interview. The majority of students stated that teaching grammar in the context is a better way of learning grammar in meaningful way. As noted in Chapter 3, students would be motivated to learn grammar items if the items

are presented in context (Weaver, 1996). Likewise, Celce-Murcia (1991) states that grammar instruction should be contextualized and meaningful.

Table 5.27: Adequacy of Communicative Grammar Items

No.	Item	Yes		No	
		Freq	%	Freq	%
13	Do you think that there are adequate communicative grammar tasks in Grade 11 textbook that could help you to improve your writing skills?	12	11.43%	93	88.57%
14	If your answer to question No. 13 is 'no', do you want to have supplementary communicative grammar activities in order to improve your writing skills?	93	100%	-	-

Item 13 was designed to find out if there are adequate communicative grammar tasks in Grade 11 textbook that could help the students improve their writing skills. As Table 5.27 shows, 88.75% of the students said, 'no', while the remaining 11.43% said 'yes'. This might imply that students need more communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing. It might also suggest that students are aware of the importance of communicative grammar in the context of writing.

In Item 14, the students were asked if they wanted to have supplementary communicative grammar activities in order to improve their writing skills. As is shown in the above table, 88.75% of the respondents said "yes." This could imply that students need supplementary communicative grammar activities that are motivating.

Table 5.28: Components of Writing Skills

No.	Item	Grammar		Organization		content		All	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
15	Which of the following components do you think are relevant to writing skills?	68	64.76%	5	4.77%	10	9.52%	22	20.95%

In Item 15, the students were asked about the components relevant to writing skills. In response to this item, more than half of the students, i.e. 64.76% said ‘grammar’, 4.77% said ‘organization’, 9.52% said ‘content’ the remaining, 20.95% said ‘all.’ From the above data, it can be noted that over half of the students are aware of the importance of grammar in writing. According to Hillocks (1986) grammar is a major component of writing instruction. He further suggests that the knowledge of grammar is crucial to good writing. Similarly, Hyland (2003:19) confirms, “Grammar is considered by many linguists to be the central area of the language around which other areas such as pronunciation and vocabulary revolve.”

Table 5.29: Grammar Teaching Methods Used during the Experiment

No.	Item	Deductive Method		Inductive Method		EEE Method	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
16	Which grammar teaching method used in the experiment was helpful for improving grammar accuracy in writing?	18	17.14%	20	19.05%	67	63.81%

Item 16 was designed to find out which grammar teaching method used during the experiment was helpful for improving students’ grammar accuracy in writing. As Table 5.29 shows 17.14% of the students said Deductive method, 19.05% said Inductive method and the remaining 63.81% said EEE method (Exploration, Explanation, Expression). During the experiment mostly EEE grammar teaching method was used. This is because, as noted in the review of related literature, Sysoyev (1999) argued that EEE grammar teaching method is very valuable for second and foreign language learners. The data also reveal that the students preferred the EEE method. In fact, many researchers (e.g. Petrovitz, 1997; Muncie, 2002) contend that there is no single best grammar teaching method. This, in the researchers’ opinion, is because grammar items are varied in nature and usage.

Table 5.30: Problems Encountered during the Experiment

No	Item	Yes		No	
		Freq	%	Freq	%
17	Did you encounter any problems when you practised the selected communicative grammar items in the experiment?	65	61.90%	40	38.10%

In Item 17, the students were asked if they encountered any problems when they practised the selected communicative grammar items in the experiment. In response to this item, over half of the respondents, i.e. 61.90% of the students said ‘yes’, the remaining 38.10% said ‘no’. This could clearly indicate that a significant number of the students encountered difficulties during the experiment.

In Item 18, the students who gave a positive reply to Item 17 were required to give justification for their responses. To this Item, the majority of the students (53 of them) reported that the activities that they had to do were rather unfamiliar to them. Six of them stated that some of the activities were difficult for them. Two of the students reported that they did not have any practice doing these kinds of exercises in lower grades. The remaining students reported they did not get the teacher’s support whenever they needed it because of the large number of students in the classroom.

Table 5.31: Grammar Items Practised in the Experiment

No.	Item	Present tense & present continuous tense		The passive & the active The present perfect & present perfect cont.		Relative Clauses & Reflexive pronoun		All of them	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Fr eq	%	Freq	%
19	Which of the following language items did you practise in the experiment?	18	17.14 %	16	15.24%	10	9.52 %	61	58.10 %

Item 19 was designed to find out the grammar items that the students’ practised during the experiment. As can be seen from the above table, over half of the respondents, i.e. 58.10% reported that they practised all items listed in the questionnaire. The remaining students stated that they practised one or two grammar items. These students might be those who did not frequently attend the experimental classes. Thus, the above data shows most students were aware of the fact that they practised the grammar items taught in the experiment. Actually, when one unit was completed in the experiment, as a summary, the teachers involved in the

experiment asked the students what grammar items they had learnt in the tasks. Students could easily identify the grammar items they practised during the experiment.

Table 5.32: Awareness of the Role of Communicative Grammar in the Context of Writing

No.	Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		No opinion		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
20	During the experiment, I learnt grammar rules through context(paragraph/dialogue)	84	80%	18	17.14%	3	2.86%	-	-	-	-
21	I feel it is helpful to know explicit grammar rules, which I could use later in my writing.	83	79.05%	20	19.05%	2	1.90%	-	-	-	-
22	Communicative grammar tasks helped me to remember grammar rules.	70	66.67%	25	23.81%	10	9.52%	-	-	-	-
23	I feel comfortable while practising communicative grammar tasks so that I can use them in my writing.	68	64.76%	10	9.52%	20	19.05%	7	6.67%	-	-
24	I have had more opportunities to improve grammar in my writing when I frequently practise communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing.	52	49.53%	35	33.33%	12	11.43%	4	3.81%	2	1.90%

Item 20 asked the students if they had learnt grammar rules through context (paragraph/dialogue). To this Item, almost all students agreed that they had learnt grammar items through context. Only 2.86% of the students said ‘no opinion’. This might imply that those students who did not express any opinion did not attend most of the experimental classes.

For Item 21, a significant number of students agreed that it was helpful to know explicit grammar rules, which they could later use in their writings. In relation to this, Sysoyve (1999)

says that foreign and second language students feel comfortable when they know the grammar rules so that they could easily use them in their writing. Furthermore, Ur (1988) states that explicit grammar rule is one of the features of communicative grammar.

Item 22 asked the students if communicative grammar tasks helped them to remember grammar rules. In response to this Item, the majority of students, i.e. 90.48% agreed that communicative grammar tasks helped them to internalize grammar rules.

Item 23 was designed to find out if the students felt comfortable while practising communicative grammar tasks so that they could use the grammar items later in their writing. As the students' responses in the above table show, over half of the respondents agreed that they felt comfortable while practising the grammar tasks given, whereas 19.05% said 'no opinion', and the remaining 6.67% said 'disagree'. From the interview results, two students reported that the experiment for the main study lasted for sixteen weeks, but they needed one year of intensive study to feel comfortable to use the grammar items they had learnt in their writing. This suggests that perhaps they need more time.

Item 24 asked the students if they had more opportunities to improve grammar accuracy in their writing when they frequently practise communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing. From the above table, one can observe that over half of the respondents agreed that they had the opportunity to improve grammar by frequently practising the communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing. However, 11.43% said 'no opinion' and the remaining 5.71% disagreed. This might imply that the time allotted for the experiment (i.e. one semester) might have not been enough for them to develop grammatical accuracy in their writing. Yet it should be noted that sufficient evidence of improvement has been observed in this study.

Table 5.33: Awareness of the Need for More Communicative Grammar Tasks in the Context of Writing

No.	Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		No opinion		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
25	I need to learn more communicative grammar tasks in the future in order to improve my writing	100	95.24%	5	4.76%	-	-	-	-	-	-
26	I feel I do not need any supplementary communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing.	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	5.71%	99	94.29%

With regard to the need for more communicative grammar in the context of writing, the data analyzed in Item 25 and Item 26 indicated that the students definitely need more communicative grammar tasks in order to improve grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities. From personal observation also, the researcher realized during the experiment that the students needed more communicative grammar tasks to develop their grammatical accuracy.

Table 5.34: Attitude towards Communicative Grammar in the Context of Writing

No.	Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		No opinion		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
27	Learning communicative grammar is a waste of time.	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	6.67 %	98	93.33 %
28	I did not like communicative grammar tasks that I learnt during the experiment.	-	-	-	-	2	1.90 %	6	5.71 %	97	92.39 %
29	The communicative grammar tasks were less interesting than the exercises in our textbook.	-	-	-	-	3	2.86 %	6	5.71 %	96	91.43 %
30	During the experiment, the communicative grammar tasks were boring.	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	3.81 %	101	96.19 %
31	I enjoyed very much the communicative grammar tasks that I learnt during the experiment.	102	97.14 %	3	2.86 %	-	-	-	-	-	-

From the responses to Items 27, 28, 29, 30 and 31, it is possible to state that all students had a positive attitude towards communicative grammar in the context of writing. Moreover the interview results also revealed that the students really enjoyed the communicative grammar tasks during the experiment.

The last item required students to write general comments, regarding the teaching of communicative grammar in the context of writing. A significant number of the students (60 out of 105) reported that the grammar items found in lower grades and even in grade 11 are not contextualized. Thirty-six of the respondents suggested that they have now realized that grammar and writing have strong relationship and important to improve grammar accuracy in their writing. Four other students underscored the importance of learning grammar in the context of writing so that they would be able to improve their grammatical accuracy in writing. One student also expressed her feeling that even though she had ample opportunity to

practise the communicative grammar items in her writing, she was afraid to present her compositions (i.e. paragraphs or essays) to the whole class. She further said that she might need encouragement from her teacher to get this chance so that she could be motivated and do better. The remaining students reported that English language teachers should prepare additional communicative grammar and writing exercises. They agreed that they need an extra hour of learning and supplementary material other than the textbook to develop their grammar and writing skills. This is because their teachers are only guided by the textbooks and most secondary school teachers think that their responsibility is only to cover the textbook, and therefore they do not give additional exercises and practices. They also pointed out that the plasma lesson created a big problem for them as the plasma teacher is very fast and they did not have good background to follow her. They mentioned further that in the ‘plasma’ lesson, they did not learn grammar items in the context of writing.

5.3.5 Results of Student Interview

As noted in Section 4.5.1.3, the main purpose of the student interview was to investigate whether or not communicative grammar activities in the context of writing are helpful in improving students’ grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities (See Appendix J for interview questions). The results of the interview helped the researcher to crosscheck the data obtained from the student questionnaire. To this effect, out of 110 students, 10 students from each school, a total of 20 students, were randomly selected and interviewed. The findings of the interview are presented below under seven main headings:

- i. Attitude to communicative grammar in the context of writing;
- ii. Confidence in using the selected grammar items in writing;
- iii. Improving students’ grammatical accuracy in writing;
- iv. Integration of grammar with writing;
- v. Grammar teaching methods used during the experiment;
- vi. Problems encountered in the experiment; and
- vii. The importance of communicative grammar in the context of writing.

5.3.5.1 Attitude to Communicative Grammar in the Context of Writing

One purpose of the student interview was to find out students’ attitude towards communicative grammar in the context of writing. The students were asked if they had

enjoyed the communicative grammar tasks they had practised in their classes. Almost all the students (16 of them) reported that they liked all the grammar exercises, but one of the interviewees stated that he missed most of the experimental classes because he had serious conflict with the classroom English teacher. Besides, two students said that the grammar items practised were not enough. They also stated that it would be better if other grammar items were included. The remaining one student stated, 'A language without grammar is a bird without a wing.' The findings indicate that students are aware of the importance of grammar in English language learning. In this connection, Hudson (2001) says that grammar instruction integrated with writing could show positive effect on students' writing ability, and students could also develop positive attitude towards grammar and writing.

5.3.5.2 Confidence in Using the Selected Grammar Items in Writing

In relation to this item, a majority of the students said that they could confidently use the grammar items that were taught in their writing. However, three students pointed out that they would need more than four months to achieve grammatical accuracy in writing. Furthermore, two students reported that they did not complete most of the activities given in the experimental classes. Thus, they could not say that they had confidence to use the grammar items they learnt in their writing.

5.3.5.3 Improving Students' Grammatical Accuracy in Writing

For the third question, over half of the interviewees said that they could see some improvements in grammar accuracy in their writing. Five students reported that doing the grammar tasks enhanced their awareness of using relative clauses (defining and non-defining) in English because they had problems of using this grammar item when they were in Grade 10. Nevertheless, two of them indicated that they would need more practice in the remaining grammar items before they could see any solid improvement in their writing.

5.3.5.4 Integration of Grammar with Writing

Concerning the integration of grammar with writing, the majority of students (18) said that if grammar items were integrated with all writing tasks they would improve their writing skills to a great extent, so they regretted not having such an opportunity in secondary schools. This means in lower grades, students did not learn grammar in relation to writing. Two of them said that even if they had an opportunity to practise grammar in relation to writing, the time

was not enough to develop grammatical accuracy in their writing. Regarding this, Weaver (1996) points out that grammar instruction should be an integral part of the writing process.

5.3.5.5 Grammar Teaching Methods Used during the Experiment

To this Item, a significant number of students (14 of them) reported that EEE method helped them to improve grammar accuracy in their writing. Two students stated they preferred deductive method, and one student stated that she liked the inductive method. Three students reported that they did not worry about the grammar method, but what they needed was a lot of practice in writing. This might imply that in teaching grammar in the context of writing we have to consider different variables that could affect the teaching and learning process. This could mean that students would like to have an interesting lesson in the classroom so that they would be motivated and follow the lesson seriously.

5.3.5.6 Problems Encountered in the Experiment

Similar to the findings of the pilot study (See Section 5.2.5), ten students stated that the activities were not familiar to them and they found the tasks rather difficult. Four students said that they needed individual support from their teachers in order to improve grammatical accuracy in their writing. Two students stated that they did not have good background knowledge. As a result, they found the activities rather difficult. The other two students said that as they were busy preparing themselves for the final exam they could not give much attention to the tasks given. The remaining students suggested that the large class size was a big problem during the experiment because the teacher did not give them the support they expected from him.

5.3.5.7 The Importance of Communicative Grammar in the Context of Writing

To the last question, the students gave the response that grammar should be incorporated in all language skills. They felt that students would learn a language more effectively if emphasis was given to grammar accuracy especially in writing skills. Moreover they said that if they learnt grammar in relation to speaking, they would improve their grammar accuracy because writing and speaking are closely related. They liked all the grammar activities included in the

experiment but they regretted that they could not devote adequate time to these activities as they had to prepare themselves for the first semester final examination.

5.3.6 Results of Teacher Interview

As noted in chapter 4, the main objective of teacher interview was to find out the problems that the teachers encountered in the experiment. Besides, the interview was aimed at finding out teachers' attitude towards the communicative grammar and writing tasks prepared for this study. The researcher interviewed the two teachers who were involved in this study for half an hour each in their Department offices. The findings of the interview are presented below under five main headings:

- i. The effect of communicative grammar in improving grammar accuracy in students' writing;
- ii. The opportunity students get in practising the selected communicative grammar;
- iii. The role of communicative grammar in students' writing;
- iv. The problems that teachers encountered while teaching during the experiment; and
- v. Methods of grammar teaching used during the experiment.

5.3.6.1 The Effect of Communicative Grammar on the Grammatical Accuracy of Students' Writing

Regarding the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students' writing, the two teachers reported that communicative grammar tasks helped their students to improve grammar accuracy in their writing because students had scored fairly higher marks in the post-test. This was true only with those students who strictly followed all the experimental classes and those who completed and practised all the exercises and activities according to the instructions given in the teaching material prepared. Besides from the feedback they gave to their students in the experimental classes, the students were able to improve their grammar accuracy in their writing gradually. They also stated that grammar is a base for any language learning, and that writing is meaningless without grammar.

5.3.6.2 The Opportunity Students Get in Practising the Selected Communicative Grammar

In relation to the opportunity students get in practising the selected communicative grammar items, both of them said that the students had the opportunity of using the selected communicative grammar items during the experiment. From this experiment, the teachers felt that most of the students got relevant information and knowledge which they may be able to use in the future so that they would improve their grammar and writing skills.

5.3.6.3 The Role of Communicative Grammar in Students' Writing

With regard to the role of communicative grammar in students' writing, the two teachers agreed that communicative grammar tasks have great role in improving grammar accuracy while writing meaningful sentences, paragraphs and essays. But the problem is that the communicative grammar and writing tasks were given during students' free time. Had the activities been included in the grade 11 textbooks, the effect could have been more noticeable in helping students acquire mastery of grammar items.

5.3.6.4 The Problems that Teachers Encounter while Teaching during the Experiment

The other item is related to problems that teachers encountered while teaching during the experiment. The two teachers stated that they came across a number of problems when they taught the communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing. The teacher from Menilik Secondary School mentioned four major problems that he faced.

- i. The students did not get enough time because they had only two hours learning twice a week. To this effect, they did not finish writing their paragraphs, letters and essays.
- ii. Most of the students were not accustomed to working in groups or in pairs.
- iii. Most of the students did not have a good language background.
- iv. Large class size in Ethiopian secondary schools is also a problem, because it makes it impossible for the teacher to have individual contact with students.

Similarly, the teacher from Addis Ketema Secondary School stated that he experienced the following four problems when he taught the selected communicative grammar in the context of writing.

- i. The students did not do the exercises carefully. This means they were not attentive and rather careless.
- ii. They were not accustomed to hard work of such kind. In the experimental classes, some of the students were restless because they had to stay for two hours.
- iii. A number of students also missed the experimental classes by giving silly excuses (e.g. sick/ had another test).
- iv. They did not have good background knowledge.

5.3.6.5 Grammar Teaching Methods Teachers Used during the Experiment

Regarding the methods of grammar teaching used during the experiment, the two teachers reported that they used EEE method as it is a new method of grammar teaching. They also stated that this method was helpful for their students in improving their grammar accuracy in writing. The teacher from Menilik Secondary School stated that if this method was started in the elementary school, it would be more helpful for improving grammar accuracy in writing because students can learn a lot by practice. It is obvious that learning is more effective by a lot of practice. It could also help them develop confidence and participate actively in any task given to them.

5.3.7 Results of Classroom Observation

As discussed in Chapter 4, classroom observation was conducted in the main study using an observation check-list (See Appendix L for observation checklist). Classroom observation was mainly aimed at finding out the teachers' way of implementing the different methods of grammar teaching and at observing the various steps in process writing: pre-writing, drafting and post-writing activities. Furthermore, classroom observation was conducted in order to find out how students performed the grammar and writing activities in the main study. The researcher also observed the experimental classes in order to see whether the two teachers seriously conducted the experimental classes. This meant that if the teachers missed the extra hour teaching, the study would be greatly affected. All in all, the researcher felt that such regular checking was necessary to ensure that the experiment was properly conducted.

The two teachers involved in the main study were observed twice a week for four months and they were given feedback right after the class. As they informed the researcher, both teachers had participated in different workshops on ELT. As a result, they were well aware of the current theories and methods of English language teaching. The data gathered through classroom observation are presented in the form of a summary the most significant activities in the following pages.

The researcher took notes about what was going on in the classroom itself or completed the notes immediately afterwards. After each experimental class, the researcher had discussions for about 20-30 minutes with each teacher about the methods used to teach grammar and the stages in process writing. Since students in the experimental groups had two hours extra teaching twice a week, the researcher arranged the days in such a way that there would not be any clashes with their normal schedule. The sessions were held on Mondays and Tuesdays for Addis Ketema Secondary School and on Wednesdays and Thursdays for Menlik Secondary School. To this effect, each of the experimental classes was observed for two consecutive hours on different days.

As noted above, the purpose of conducting classroom observation was only to describe the most significant activities of the experimental classes. The researcher observed that students first learnt a grammar item through EEE grammar teaching method and then tried to use the grammar item they learned in the writing tasks given in the teaching material. This means that after the teaching of every grammar item in context, writing exercises were practised. Two significant classroom lessons viz., one on grammar teaching method (EEE method) and the other on the process writing (pre-writing, drafting and post writing) will be discussed below.

Grammar item: formation of simple present tense

Stage 1: Exploration stage

The students were given the following paragraph and were asked to identify the grammatical pattern.

My brother, Henok usually plays football on Saturday. He also likes to watch movies most of the time. However, my sisters study their lessons day and night. They advise Henok to be serious in his studies.

T: Now I want you to look at the blackboard. You will see a short paragraph. In some

sentences we add 's' to the verb, in some we do not. (T points at every sentence.)

What is the grammatical structure used in this paragraph?

S₁: Present

T: You mean simple present tense.

S₁: Yes.

T: Good. When do we use 's' and omit 's'?

S₂: We use 's' for singular subjects –'he', 'she', and we do not use 's' for plural subjects 'they', 'my sisters'.

T: Is she right?

The whole class: Yes.

T: Excellent!

Stage 2: Explanation stage

The teacher ended the first stage by telling the students about the explicit grammar rules. Then the teacher asked the students to open their material at page 6 and to go through the rule along with the teacher.

T: Very good. You proved to be very good students and found the rule correctly. In using simple present tense, we add 's'('es') to the verb for singular subjects.

Even though this technique sounds simple, it had great effect on the students. It served as a bridge between theory and practise. In the explanation stage, it is important to make connection between the examples and the rules.

After discovering the rules and providing students with models of their use, it was important to see how students used their knowledge in their own sentences.

Stage 3: Expression stage

T: Now, individually write about your brother, friends, relatives: where they live, where they work, what they like to do and so on. You can use your imagination , if you want, like if you do not have a brother, imagine that you have one and think about what he does.

Some of the activities are similar to the stages in process writing: Pre-writing, drafting and post-writing.

Stage of Process Writing

Stage 1: Pre-writing

In this stage, the students prepared themselves for actual writing through different activities. The most crucial stage in the writing process was brainstorming.

T: Now, I want you to think of things that involve different processes such as making coffee/tea.

S₁: Let's take tea, because we drink it every day.

T: You can take coffee or tea, no problem. Write things needed to make coffee/tea individually and discuss it in groups.

The researcher observed one of the groups.

S₁: We need coffee beans first.

S₂: What about water?

S₃: We also need sugar, is it not?

As seen from the brainstorming session, students had to generate ideas in groups before they wrote the first draft of their paragraph.

Stage 2: Drafting

After ten minutes, the teacher asked the students to write the first draft of their paragraph by using the notes they had made.

Stage 3: Post-writing

Now the teacher asked the students to edit their own writing. After that, they formed groups and tried to correct their friends' scripts. The teacher told them to give emphasis to the passive and active voice. Finally, they selected the best paragraph and the group secretary read the paragraph aloud to the whole class for further comments.

T: Of course you need to have one secretary who will read the best paragraph to the class.

As mentioned above, the classroom observation was conducted to find out the ways in which students performed the grammar and writing activities. At the beginning of the experiment, most students did not write an outline before they started writing their first draft. In fact, during the brainstorming session, they gathered different ideas from their peers and as a whole class, but they did not put down their ideas in an outline form which is a very important stage

in process writing. Gradually, with the help of the teachers, students started to write an outline before they wrote their first draft.

Another important observation the researcher made was that especially at the beginning of the experiment, students did not like peer feedback. Instead, after they had self-edited their work, they wanted to give their scripts to the teachers.

5.3.8 Summary of the Results of the Main Study

The main objective of this study was to find out the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students' academic writing. Various tools were used to collect data for this study: an experiment, student questionnaire, student and teacher interview, and classroom observation.

An experiment was conducted for 16 weeks in the first semester of 2005/06 in two secondary schools. The main purpose of the experiment was to find out if communicative grammar in the context of writing activities could enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their writing. In this study, a pre-test was given before the experiment began for both the control and the experimental groups (See the Pre-test in Appendix C). After the students in the experimental group were taught for 16 weeks using the communicative grammar and writing tasks (experimental group), and using grammar exercises of the grade Eleven textbook not in the context of writing (control group) again both groups were given a post-test in order to see if there was any significant difference in the grammatical accuracy in the writing produced by the control and experimental groups (See the Post-test in Appendix D). A t-test was used to compare the average scores of the two groups.

The results showed a significant difference in performance between the experimental and the control groups in grammatical accuracy as measured by the post-test. This suggests that the experimental groups improved grammatical accuracy in their writing as a result of integrating communicative grammar with writing. This means that communicative grammar in relation to writing proved to be a powerful tool for improving students' achievement in grammatical accuracy in their writing.

As indicated above, a questionnaire was administered to the students at the end of the main study. The data obtained from student questionnaire showed that the majority of the students had a positive attitude towards communicative grammar and writing activities prepared for the study. They also reported that they liked the activities. The students further reported that the activities improved grammatical accuracy in their writing. The teachers on their part suggested that the communicative grammar and writing activities were very helpful for their students in developing their grammar and writing skills.

However, both teachers and students reported some problems they encountered during the experiment. For instance, a significant number of students suggested that they had too poor background to perform the activities in the experiment. The teachers also stated the large class size created a problem during the experiment. The interview results also substantiate the data gathered through the student questionnaire.

During the classroom observation, it was noted that the teachers used EEE (Exploration, Explanation, and Expression) grammar teaching method. The students also performed the writing tasks following the steps in process writing: pre-writing, drafting and post-writing. This process helped the students to interact and share valuable ideas with their peers. As a result of all these, students could see some improvements in grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities.

Thus, the researcher believes that the communicative grammar and writing activities are worthwhile and beneficial in improving students' grammatical accuracy in their writing due to the following reasons:

- i. Using EEE grammar teaching method helped students to improve their grammatical knowledge in a meaningful way;
- ii. The grammar items were presented in context (communicative grammar);
- iii. The grammar items were integrated with writing;
- iv. Students had a lot of practice in both communicative grammar and writing activities.

In the next chapter, a general summary, conclusions, recommendations and implications of the study will be presented.

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The main objective of this research project was to investigate whether communicative grammar in the context of writing could help students achieve grammatical accuracy in writing. In order to collect data for the study, four methods of data collection were used: pre-test and post-test, a questionnaire, interviews with both students and teachers and classroom observations. This chapter has three sections: general summary, conclusions and recommendations. In the first section, the procedures used in this study and the major findings obtained will be touched up on. In the second section, conclusions drawn from the study will be presented. In the third section, recommendations will be given based on the findings and conclusions. Finally, implications of the study will be indicated.

6.2 General Summary

Many ELT scholars (See for example, Weaver, 1996; Chin, 2000; Hudson, 2001) believe that grammar in the context of writing could bring about grammar accuracy in writing. Hence, a research study in this regard has been conducted to find out the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students' academic writing in the Ethiopian context. This section discusses the procedures used both in the pilot and in the main study, and the major findings obtained.

6.2.1 Procedures of the study

In this sub-section, the procedures used in the pre-pilot study, the pilot study and the main study will be dealt with.

- i. In this study, a pre-pilot study which had two main purposes was conducted. The first one was to identify the weakness of students' written work in order to prepare grammar lessons in the context of writing. The second one was to check the reliability of the pre- and post-tests used in this study before piloting.
- ii. According to Chin (2000), planning an effective grammar lesson requires English language teachers to identify the weakness of their students' written work. Therefore, prior to preparing the teaching material used in the pilot and the main

study, the researcher prepared communicative grammar items in the context of writing activities for students in order to identify the level of grammatical accuracy in their writing (See section 4.7.1). Thus, the pre-pilot study helped the researcher to select the communicative grammar items that the students in the experimental groups need to practice. To this effect, the following grammar items were selected in this study: ‘simple present tense and present continuous tense’, ‘present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense’, ‘possessive pronouns and reflexive pronouns’, ‘the passive and the active voice’, and ‘the relative clauses’. As indicated in Chapter four, these grammar items were selected for the following three reasons. Firstly, they are emphasized in Grade 11 textbooks. Secondly, the performance of students during the Pre-pilot study showed that students have serious problems in the selected grammar items. Finally, these grammar items are frequently used in students’ writing (See section 4.5.1.1.1).

- iii. Teaching materials on communicative grammar in the context of writing were prepared for the experimental groups while the control groups used the grammar exercises appended to the Grade 11 English textbooks. The grammar items in the teaching material are integrated with writing tasks. Two main sources were consulted for ideas and communicative grammar and writing tasks in the teaching material used in the pilot and the main study: Grade 11 English Textbooks (Book 1 and Book 2) and international English course books such as *Studying Strategies* (1982), by B. Abbas and I. Freebairn, *Crossroad* (1987), by Hinton, M. and Marsden, R., *Headway* (1990), by Soars, L. *Focus on Grammar* (1995), by Fuchs, M. and Bonner, M. to mention some. The researcher also used internet as another source for preparing teaching material for this study.
- iv. Students’ grammatical accuracy in their writing before and after the experiment was assessed on the basis of the pre- and post-test results. Before administering the pre-and post-tests, the test/re-test reliability of the tests was established.
- v. The test/re-test reliability was used to assess the consistency of a pre-test and post-test from one time to another (in a week’s time). Thus, out of ten preparatory secondary schools in Addis Ababa during 2004/05 academic year, one secondary school, Abiyot Kirs was randomly selected. Two Grade 11 sections (11-4 and 11-7) were randomly selected from the seven sections of Grade 11 students in the

school in that academic year. Hence, the researcher administered the pre-and post-tests in the first week of the semester before students began their regular class and received no language lesson when they took the tests for the second time after a week. And then the test papers were marked by the researcher and the correlation coefficients were calculated for both the pre- and post-tests. It was found out that the scores of the pre-and post-tests on two different occasions for the same group were highly consistent ($P=0.739$ pre-test; $P=0.682$ post-test). Thus, it has been proved that both pre-and post-tests were reliable.

- vi. Out of the ten preparatory secondary schools in Addis Ababa at the time, one secondary school, Yekatit 12 was selected for the pilot study. Likewise two secondary schools: Menelik and Addis Ketema were randomly selected out of the remaining secondary schools for the main study.
- vii. After obtaining the lists of the Grade 11 sections in each school, two sections of Grade 11 were randomly selected from each school. One section was randomly designated as the control group and the other as the experimental group.
- viii. A pre-test was administered to both the control and experimental groups to establish whether there was a significant difference between the two groups concerning the grammar accuracy in students' writing abilities prior to the experiment (see Appendix C for the pre-test).
- ix. The students were taught for six weeks in the pilot study and 16 weeks in the main study. The control groups were taught the grammar exercises appended to the current Grade 11 English textbooks not in the context of writing (See Appendix O for grammar exercises appended to Grade 11 English textbooks and the teaching material for the control group). The experimental groups were taught using the teaching material on communicative grammar in the context of writing tasks prepared for this research project (See Appendix N for communicative grammar in the context of writing teaching material).
- x. The researcher taught both the control and the experimental groups for six weeks during the pilot study. Two English teachers with similar qualifications and teaching experience taught both the control and the experimental groups in the two

secondary schools selected for the main study. With the help of the two English teachers of each school an extra two hour teaching, twice a week was arranged both for the control and experimental groups.

- xi. After six weeks of the pilot study and sixteen weeks of the main study, a post-test was administered to both groups to find out whether the communicative grammar in the context of writing could enhance students' grammatical accuracy in their writing.
- xii. In this research project, mark/re-mark reliability has been considered very significant. As a result, the researcher gave the pre-and post-test papers of the students for remarking using analytic scoring method to two scorers. The marks given by each marker were correlated. That is a statistical analysis of the two scorers was made to find out the inter-rater reliability. The inter-rater correlation of all the groups was highly consistent. It has been proved that there is no significant difference between the scores given to the same paper by two different markers. The average score was, therefore, taken for further analysis (comparison of mean).

6.2.2 Major Findings of the Study

In this sub-section, the major findings obtained through the four methods discussed so far will be presented briefly.

- i. Pre-and post-test results were the core data used in this study. A T-test was used to compare the average scores of the control and experimental groups. The results of the pre-test showed that there was no significant difference between the average scores of the control and the experimental groups at 0.05 level of significance (See section 5.3.3)
- ii. The results of the statistical analysis of the independent sample test in the post-test showed that the students in the experimental groups improved grammar accuracy in their written compositions in all cases ($P < 0.05$) at 0.05 level of significance. This implies that communicative grammar in the context of writing did improve the students' grammatical accuracy in their writing abilities.

- iii. In this study, an attempt has been made to show whether there were differences in the performances of the aggregate sample of the control and experimental groups of Menilik and Addis Ketema Secondary Schools. Hence, before computing the aggregate sample of the two secondary schools selected for the main study, the researcher had to find out whether there were any differences in the performances of the control and experimental groups of Menelik and Addis Ketema Secondary Schools in pre-and post-test. It was found out that in all cases Menelik and Addis Ketema secondary schools made no significant difference in pre- and post-test results (See Tables 5:17 and Table 5:18).
- iv. Thus, the aggregate sample was taken for further analysis in pre-and post-tests. The Aggregate correlated sample T-test MAC+MAE in pre-and post-tests showed that the post-test mean scores of the control groups made no significant difference over its pre-test results. This shows that although the control groups were taught grammar items appended to the Grade 11 textbooks (Book 1 and Book 2), they did not improve their grammatical accuracy in their post-test results. On the other hand, the experimental groups (MAE) outperformed in grammar accuracy in post-test results as a result of practising communicative grammar in the context of writing (See Table 5.19).
- v. In order to find out students' attitude towards communicative grammar in the context of writing, and the problems that the students encountered during the experiment, 105 students were asked to fill in the questionnaire meant for this purpose. The data revealed that a majority of students (89%) enjoyed the tasks practised during the experiment. This means students had a positive attitude towards communicative grammar in the context of writing. This finding is supplemented by interview with students and teachers. Regarding the problems students faced in the experiment, a significant number of respondents reported that the activities were not familiar to them as they did not get any opportunity to practise communicative grammar in relation to writing in lower grades. They also stated that shortage of time was a limitation to their learning as they were very busy preparing themselves for the final exam. Moreover, 10 students were interviewed in the pilot study and 20 students were interviewed from each school in the main study (i.e. 10 students from each school). The findings of the student interviews substantiated the responses of the students' to the questionnaire.

- vi. In response to Item 9 in the questionnaire (See Appendix I), a significant number of students (79%) stated that in lower grades (Grade 9 and Grade 10), they did not get an opportunity to use the grammar items they learnt in their writing. This implied that students have a strong desire to improve grammar accuracy in their writing abilities. Relatively speaking, after students practised different communicative grammar tasks in relation to writing, they started to develop confidence in using the grammar items they learnt in the paragraph and essay writing.
- vii. The responses of the students to items of the questionnaire (Item 13, Item 14, Item 24, and Item 25) implied that the students need more communicative grammar in the context of writing tasks in order to improve grammar accuracy in their writing abilities. The findings suggest that the students have realized after using the material prepared for the experimental groups, the significance of integrating the two important skills (i.e. communicative grammar and writing). Furthermore, they emphasized that rather than simply practising the grammar items in isolated sentences, it is better for them to engage in contextual and purposeful activities. This could improve their writing competence and performance.
- viii. To an open-ended question, a significant number of students pointed out that they have now realized the importance of communicative grammar in the context of writing. They noted that they have, to some extent, achieved grammar accuracy in their compositions. The students felt that the communicative grammar and writing tasks are important for independent study. They also said that the writing topics in the teaching material encouraged them to do more individual writing at home.
- ix. The two teachers involved in the main study were interviewed whether communicative grammar in the context of writing helped the students to improve grammar accuracy in their writing. Both teachers reported that integrating communicative grammar with writing tasks helped their students to improve grammar accuracy in their writing of compositions. They also noted that integrating grammar with writing is an essential way to improve students' grammar accuracy in their writing.

- x. All in all, as can be seen from the independent and correlated sample T-test tables, it has been found out that the teaching material prepared for the experimental groups revealed that communicative grammar in the context of writing will help students achieve grammar accuracy in their writing. This finding is also supported by the students' responses to the questionnaire and in the interview. A majority of the students emphasized that after the experiment, they had seen some improvements in their compositions as far as grammar accuracy is concerned. This finding is further strengthened by the teachers' responses to the interview. Thus, based on the results of the analysis of the pre-and post-tests, the null hypothesis (H_0) was rejected and the alternative hypothesis (H_1) was proved valid.

6.3 Conclusions

In general, the results from this research project suggest the following important points:

- i. In this study, grammar items were presented in context for students to practise the selected grammar items in meaningful and purposeful activities.
- ii. The communicative grammar items were integrated with writing tasks in this study. As shown in the experiment, communicative grammar in the context of writing could improve students' grammar accuracy in their writing abilities.
- iii. Moreover, the communicative grammar tasks integrated with writing activities were focused on paragraph and essay levels. They were presented in dialogue form. This helped the students to use their knowledge of form in meaningful contexts by engaging themselves in purposeful practices. This improved their grammar accuracy in their written compositions.
- iv. During the experiment, pair and group work activities were used. This gave the students the opportunity to interact with each other in the communicative grammar tasks and in process writing. As a result, there was significant improvement of their grammar accuracy in their writing.

This research project, therefore, concludes that grammar items should be presented in context. The communicative grammar activities have to be integrated with writing skills so that students can develop grammar accuracy in their writing. On the basis of the

findings, it may be reiterated that students in the experimental group have significantly improved their grammar accuracy in their writing after using the communicative grammar in the context of writing tasks. From the results of the pre-and post-tests, the students' responses to the questionnaire and interview, the teachers' responses to the interview and from the classroom observations, it is reasonable to conclude that integrating communicative grammar with writing tasks is valuable in improving students' grammar accuracy in their writing abilities in Grade 11 preparatory secondary schools in Ethiopia.

6.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this research, the following recommendations are made:

- i. Grammar items should be presented in context so that students could be engaged in meaningful and purposeful activities.
- ii. In the present study, the communicative grammar activities are integrated with writing tasks and, as a result, they are found to be essential in enhancing students' grammar accuracy in their writing abilities. Therefore, grammar activities should be integrated with writing skills in the English syllabus in Ethiopia, particularly at the high school and tertiary levels.
- iii. Secondary school English teachers have an important role to play in helping students develop grammar accuracy in their writing abilities. Thus, teachers in high schools should be given different seminars and workshops on current ELT approaches and theories in order to upgrade their knowledge and skills in English language teaching.
- iv. Based on the findings of the study, the researcher strongly recommends the integration of communicative grammar in the context of writing not only for Grade 11 English textbooks but also in the English syllabus of the Ethiopian elementary and secondary schools in general. The new textbook for Grade 11 has been developed by the Ministry of Education, and yet the grammar items appended are not presented in context and the grammar exercises are not also integrated with the writing exercises. Therefore, the concerned bodies, with the assistance of experts in language teaching, should attempt to develop textbooks

in which grammar is integrated with writing tasks. The grammar items should also be presented in context.

- v. Grammar exercises in the Grade 11 textbooks need not be appended. The exercises should be incorporated in the major skills practised in the book particularly with writing. This is because students need a lot of practice on the grammar items appended to the Grade 11 textbooks.
- vi. The Ministry of Education has to do something in the transmission of Plasma Display Panel. This is because English Language teachers need sufficient time to make their students practise activities like communicative grammar in the context of writing.
- vii. Secondary school students should be encouraged to participate actively in the English clubs in their schools so that they can practise grammar skills through writing articles, essays, short stories and so on, in order to develop grammar accuracy in their writing.

6.5 Implications of the Study

This research project is a first attempt of its kind to investigate the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students' academic writing. Thus, the researcher feels that there might be other aspects that need to be investigated: for example, integrating grammar with other major skills, especially with speaking. Moreover, conducting further research to examine the effect of communicative grammar on the grammatical accuracy of students' academic writing at the tertiary level might also be a useful area for further research.

Finally, it should be stated that the present study is only programmatic and is data-based. Hence, it does not make any claims either of comprehensiveness or of exhaustiveness. The findings, conclusions and recommendations given above are based on its underlying assumptions and the analysis of corresponding data.

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APPENDICES

Appendix-A

Pre-pilot Grammar and Writing Tasks

Pre-pilot study

Name _____ School _____

Part 1: Writing Description of People

Put the verbs in brackets in the passage below in the correct form.

Of all my relatives, I like my Aunt Almaz the best; she is my mother's youngest sister. She has never married and (1) _____ (live) alone in a small Village near Debre Zeit. She (2) _____ (be) in her late fifties, but she is quite young in spirit. She (3) _____ (have) a fair complexion, thick brown hair which she (4) _____ (wear) in a bun, and dark brown eyes. She has a kind face, and when you (5) _____ (meet) her, the first thing you notice is her smile. Her face is a little wrinkled now, but I think she is still rather attractive. She is the sort of person you can always go to if you have a problem.

She (6) _____ (like) reading and gardening, and she still (7) _____ (go) for walks over the hills. She is a very active person, either she's making something, or mending something, or doing something to entertain herself. She is extremely generous but not very tolerant with people who (8) _____ (do/not) agree with her. I hope I (9) _____ (be) as contented as she (10) _____ (be) when I'm her age.

Part 2: Edit the following essays for subject-verb agreement, sentence fragment and wrong tense.

A: My Little Brother Daniel

I have a little brother whom name is called Daniel. Oh! What a sweet bundle of amusement he is and what a mixture of joy and irritation he is for me.

Daniel is just about two years old, and everyone in the family are all the time engrossed in watching his antics. As he is at the age of learning. he is all the time and everyday learning new things and thus keeps all of us busy. He draws the attention of each member of the family especially my mother. Elders, visitors and neighbors all find his the center of attraction in our family.

My brother, Daniel is such a cute darling that I love to play with him though I am ten years older than him. He also love me as he start shouting with excitement. When I comes from school or from the playground. I remember once I had went for a three day's excursion from school, and at that time I was tell that Daniel would all the time sit near my chair for hours daily playing with my games or fidgeting with mine books.

B: Top-down Tourism

For a long time it was accepted that the only sensible approach to tourism development was through what we now call top-down or international tourism. It is true that this approach has bring some economic benefits to many developing countries. Tourists have spend large amount of foreign currency in tourist locations. New roads have constructed, hotels have been built, airports have been improved and business have been opened. Furthermore international tourism has increase understanding and friendship between peoples of different cultures. It has provided opportunities for tourists to meet people in the countries they are visiting and in this way it has encouraged international peace and cooperation.

However, protests against international tourism become louder in the 1980s as insensitive nature of top-down tourism gradually became more apparent. It is now accept that top-down tourism has inflicted great damage on many countries economically, socially and environmentally. Many countries which have encouraged the growth of tourism has profited very little up to now. Tourism development has often impeded genuine economic

Appendix- B

Results of Pre and Post-tests (Pre-pilot Study)

Table 1: Test/re-test Results of the Pre and Post-tests

Subject code	Section 11-4		Section 11-7	
	Pre-test Week1 (50%)	Pre-test Week 2 (50%)	Post-test Week1 (50%)	Post-test Week2 (50%)
1	23	26	12	18
2	9	15	22	16
3	12	10	7	9
4	19	16	15	11
5	32	28	18	22
6	14	10	8	6
7	26	19	16	13
8	17	19	27	30
9	20	23	13	17
10	8	11	20	16
11	15	10	25	20
12	21	18	10	12
13	22	16	2	5
14	13	16	21	19
15	3	2	13	24
16	18	20	22	26
17	12	16	19	10
18	28	14	24	20
19	25	30	17	25
20	16	20	14	21

Appendix- C

Pre-Test

Name _____ School _____ Section _____

Part 1: Controlled Writing

Hellen's niece, Bezawit is in Nazareth. Complete her letter to Hellen by writing the correct form of the verbs in brackets.

Nazareth
Sunday, 20th June

Dear Hellen,

I (1) _____ (leave) Dire Dawa at the end of April and I (2) _____ (get) closer to Addis Ababa every day! I (3) _____ (arrive) in Nazareth two days ago and I am now staying with Aunt, Aster, and her family. They (4) _____ (have got) a villa near the city center.

Aster (5) _____ (have got) a job in Midroc Company. She (6) _____ (get up) very early every morning and (7) _____ (leave) the house before six o'clock. It's not my sort of job!

Last night we (8) _____ (go) to graduation party. It (9) _____ (be) great fun. You ever (10) _____ (eat) real roasted meat? It's delicious! I (11) _____ (drink) a lot of beer and we (12) _____ (not get home) until after midnight. Tomorrow I (13) _____ (see) 'Sodera' and on Wednesday I (14) _____ (go) to Debre Zeit for a few days.

I hope everything is going well with you. I (15) _____ (look) forward to staying with you in Addis Ababa next month.

With Love,

Bezawit

Appendix- D

Post-Test

Name _____ School _____ Section _____

Part 1: Controlled Writing

A) : Put the verbs in brackets in the passage below in the correct form.

My brother, Alemu(1).....(have) a job in a small factory. He doesn't like the work much, but he(2)(enjoy) the relationships with the other workers, and he(3).....(get) on well with the boss. He belongs to a trade union and(4).....(help) to organize sometimes he has a chance to travel on business which he enjoys very much.

His wife, Almaz,(5).....(be) unemployed for the last two years. She (6).....(stay) at home and(7).....(look) after the house. After getting their six- year-old daughter Hanna ready and driving her to school, she attends to the housework. Although she (8).....(like) being on her own; she(9).....(find) housework boring and doesn't like to stay at home all day. So she(10).....(try) to get through the washing up, ironing, the shopping and so on as quickly as possible. This(11).....(take) her anywhere between two and three hours; after that she usually has lunch. She(12).....(not like) to waste time, so after lunch she(13).....(go) off to the public library and reads books on politics or history until it's time to fetch Hanna from school. In the evening Alemu and Almaz(14).....(share) the cooking.

At weekends they(15).....(try) to spend some time out doors. They often go walking in the country, or take Hanna on trips to places like Sodere and Langanu.

Money(16).....(be) a big problem. Alemu does not earn a very good salary, and their income is hardly enough for three people to live on, so they have to be very careful about what they spend. They cannot really afford to keep the car, and will have to get rid of it soon, but they (17).....(decide) to put off selling it until Hanna is old enough to go to school by bus. They(18).....(be) just not able to save money, and they are extremely

worried about their old age. Hanna(19).....(want) to be a teacher or a nurse when she(20).....(grow) up but Alemu and Almaz hope she will do something where she can earn enough money to live a better life than her parents.

Part 2: Guided Writing

Breakfast is usually quite a small meal for me. I usually have just a slice of bread and coffee. I have breakfast at around 7 o'clock and then I leave for office. Lunch is not a very big meal for me either. I usually have lunch in the office canteen at about 12.30 p.m. Sometimes I bring sandwiches from home and just buy a soft drink. At other times I buy something from the canteen, such as spaghetti or a hamburger, with something to drink. The evening meal is the biggest meal of the day for me. I usually have dinner with my family at around 7 o'clock in the evening. We always have meat or fish with 'injera', and several vegetable dishes served with rice or potatoes. Sometimes we have a dessert as well, such as fresh fruit, ice cream, or cake. After dinner I like to drink a cup of strong black coffee.

Write a description like the above one about what you usually have for breakfast, lunch and dinner.

- Mention the size of the meal (big, quite big, quite small)
- Which is the biggest meal of the day?
- What do you drink with each meal?
- What time do you have each meal?
- Who you eat with
- the time you eat the meals, etc.

Appendix-E

Results of Pre-test and Post-test by the two Raters (Pilot Study)

**E-1- Table 2: Results of the Pre-test by the two Raters
(Pilot Study)**

Subject code	Control Group		Experimental group	
	Pre-test Rater 1 (50%)	Pre-test Rater 2 (50%)	Pre-test Rater 1 (50%)	Pre-test Rater 2 (50%)
1	17	18	14	13
2	15	13	21	20
3	20	22	10	13
4	31	29	31	32
5	16	15	22	21
6	18	19	27	29
7	17	20	31	30
8	22	18	16	18
9	26	27	34	30
10	13	15	20	19
11	30	28	16	18
12	23	26	15	14
13	13	10	20	18
14	19	21	10	12
15	17	19	23	25
16	23	24	15	17
17	13	15	19	16
18	2	3	11	13
19	9	11	10	12
20	29	26	13	15
21	18	17	18	16
22	13	15	15	17
23	26	27	30	31
24	15	13	27	28
25	29	30	22	20
26	20	18	22	22
27	23	24	19	17
28	13	15	26	28
29	11	9	19	20
30	17	18	13	14

**E-2-Table 3: Results of the Post-test by the two Raters
(Pilot Study)**

Subject code	Control Group		Experimental group	
	Post-test Rater 1 (50%)	Post-test Rater 2 (50%)	Post-test Rater 1 (50%)	Post test Rater 2 (50%)
1	23	20	26	24
2	10	12	19	16
3	20	18	30	34
4	27	23	16	17
5	16	17	32	35
6	20	18	27	23
7	19	16	43	41
8	18	18	29	30
9	21	17	29	26
10	20	17	29	26
11	24	22	29	24
12	23	19	20	21
13	12	17	29	30
14	23	21	22	18
15	22	24	24	25
16	17	19	13	11
17	19	16	28	26
18	2	5	14	17
19	12	11	13	12
20	20	18	27	30
21	13	20	31	28
22	14	10	29	25
23	28	23	42	41
24	20	18	34	29
25	33	27	29	30
26	25	28	24	19
27	21	19	27	28
28	10	13	25	24
29	13	10	28	30
30	20	16	17	18

**E-3-Table 4: Average Results of the Pre-test and Post-test
(Pilot Study)**

Subject code	Control Group		Experimental group	
	Pre-test (50%)	Post-test (50%)	Pre-test (50%)	Post test (50%)
1	17.5	21.5	13.5	25
2	14	11	20.5	17.5
3	21	19	11.5	32
4	30	25	31.5	16.5
5	15.5	16.5	21.5	33.5
6	18.5	19	28	25
7	18.5	17.5	30.5	42
8	20	18	17	29.5
9	26.5	19	32	27.5
10	14	18.5	19.5	27.5
11	29	23	17	26.5
12	24.5	21	14.5	20.5
13	11.5	14.5	19	29.5
14	20	22	11	20
15	18	23	24	24.5
16	23.5	18	16	12
17	14	17.5	17.5	27
18	2.5	3.5	12	15.5
19	10	11.5	11	12.5
20	27.5	19	14	28.5
21	17.5	16.5	17	29.5
22	14	12	16	27
23	26.5	25.5	30.5	41.5
24	14	19	27.5	31.5
25	29.5	30	21	29.5
26	19	26.5	22	21.5
27	23.5	20	18	27.5
28	14	11.5	27	24.5
29	10	11.5	19.5	29
30	17.5	18	13.5	17.5

Appendix- F

Results of Student Questionnaire (Pilot Study)

F-1 Table 5: Attitude to Learning Grammar

No	Item	Yes		No	
		Freq	%	Freq	%
1	Do you like to learn grammar in English classes?	36	90%	4	10

F-2 Table 6: The Importance of Grammar in Writing

No	Item	Yes		No		To some extent	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
3	Do you think grammar is important in your writing activities?	34	85%	2	5%	4	10%

F-3 Table 7: Awareness of Grammar Items Learnt and Their Impact on Students' Writing

No	Item	Simple present & pres. continuous		Present perfect & pres. perfe. cont.		All items	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
5	Which of the following grammatical items did you learn when you were in Grade 9 and Grade 10?	1	2.5%	1	2.5%	38	95%
	Item	Yes		No			
		Freq	%	Freq	%		
6	Did the grammar items you learnt in Grade 9 and Grade 10 help you to improve your writing skills?	10	25%	30		75%	
7	When you were in Grade 9 and Grade 10, did you have the opportunity to use the grammar items you learnt in your writing?	9	22.5%	31		77.5%	

F-4 Table 8: Feeling Comfortable Using the Grammar Items Learnt

No	Item	Yes		No	
		Freq	%	Freq	%
9	Do you now feel comfortable to use the grammar items that you learnt in Grade 9 and Grade 10 in your writing?	6	15%	34	85%

F-5 Table 9: Presentation of Grammar Items in Grades 9 and 10

No	Item	Yes		No			
		Freq	%	Freq	%		
11	Are the grammar items in the Grade 9 and Grade 10 text books presented only through rules and abstract explanation?	23	57.5%	17	42.5%		
12	Do you think the grammar items in Grade 9 and Grade 10 are presented in context (in dialogue or text form) in the textbook?	15	37.5%	25	62.5%		
13	How are the grammar items presented in Grade 9 and Grade 10?	Traditional		communicative		Both	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
		3	7.5%	2	5%	-	-

F-6 Table 10: Adequacy of Communicative Grammar Items

No	Item	Yes		No	
		Freq	%	Freq	%
14	Do you think that there are adequate communicative grammar tasks in Grade 11 textbook that could help you to improve your writing skills	5	12.5%	35	87.5%
15	If your answer to question No. 14 is 'no', do you want to have supplementary communicative grammar activities in order to improve your writing skills?	35	87.5%	-	-
16	Apart from the textbook, do your English teachers use supplementary communicative grammar activities to teach writing skills?	1	2.5%	39	97.5%
17	If your answer to question No. 16 is 'yes', do you think the activities are motivating and relevant to improve your writing skills?	1	2.5%	-	-

F-7 Table 11: Components of Writing Skills

No	Item	Grammar		Organization		content		All	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
18	Which of the following components do you think are relevant in writing skills?	32	80%	3	7.5%	2	5%	3	7.5%

F-8 Table 12: Grammar Teaching Methods Used during the Experiment

No	Item	EEE Method		Inductive Method		Deductive Method	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
19	Which grammar teaching method used in the experiment was helpful for improving grammar accuracy in writing?	20	50%	5	12.5%	15	37.5%

F-9 Table 13: Problems Encountered during the Experiment

No	Item	Yes		No	
		Freq	%	Freq	%
20	Did you encounter any problems when you practiced the selected communicative grammar items in the experiment?	23	57.5%	17	42.5%

F-10 Table 14: Grammar Items Practiced in the Experiment

No	Item	Present tense & present continuous tense		The passive & the active		Relative pronoun		All of them	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
22	Which of the following language items did you practice in the experiment?	2	5%	1	2.5%	1	2.5%	36	90%

F-11 Table 15 Awareness of the Role of Communicative Grammar in the Context of Writing.

No	Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		No opinion		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
23	During the experiment, I learnt grammar rules through context(paragraph/dialogue)	34	85%	4	10%	2	5%	-	-	-	-
24	I feel it is helpful to know explicit grammar rules, which I could use later in my writing.	30	75%	6	15%	4	10%	-	-	-	-
25	Communicative grammar tasks helped me to remember grammar rules.	33	82.5%	4	10%	3	7.5%	-	-	-	-
26	I feel comfortable practicing communicative grammar tasks so that I can use them in my writing.	20	50%	5	12.5%	6	15%	9	22.5%	-	-
27	I have had more opportunities to improve grammar in my writing when I frequently practice communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing.	19	47.5%	7	17.5%	3	7.5%	6	15%	5	12.5%

F-12 Table 16: Awareness of the Need for More Communicative Grammar Tasks in the Context of Writing.

No	Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		No opinion		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
28	I need to learn more communicative grammar tasks in the future in order to improve my writing	38	95%	2	5%	-	-	-	-	-	-
29	I feel I do not need any supplementary communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing.	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	7.5%	37	92.5%

F-13 Table 17: Attitude to the Communicative Grammar in the Context of Writing

No	Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		No opinion		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
30	Learning communicative grammar is a waste of time.	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	5%	38	95%
31	I did not like communicative grammar tasks that I learnt during the experiment.	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	25%	30	75%
32	The communicative grammar tasks were less interesting than the exercises in our text book.	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	15%	34	85%
33	During the experiment, the communicative grammar tasks were boring.	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	10%	36	90%
34	I enjoyed very much the communicative grammar tasks that I learnt during the experiment.	35	87.5 %	5	12.5 %	-	-	-	-	-	-

Appendix- G

Results of Pre-test and Post-test of Menilik and Addis Ketema Secondary Schools (Main Study)

**G-1-Table 18: Results of Pre-test and Post-test of
Menilik Secondary School (Main Study)**

Subject code	Control Group		Experimental group	
	Pre-test (50%)	Post-test (50%)	Pre-test (50%)	Post test (50%)
1	12	20	36	39
2	30	26	29	25
3	16	9	23	28
4	14	27	16	22
5	36	33	23	34
6	24	22	20	27
7	22	23	16	23
8	18	17	25	32
9	19	8	23	23
10	25	28	20	24
11	16	18	26	22
12	24	18	28	36
13	20	18	16	30
14	23	24	19	16
15	20	12	24	26
16	14	9	36	44
17	35	34	20	30
18	20	10	12	32
19	16	19	15	28
20	24	25	31	30
21	18	20	26	36
22	32	26	24	39
23	30	21	14	15
24	42	37	19	17
25	38	34	35	36
26	8	7	28	23
27	18	16	32	35
28	28	32	28	18
29	16	24	19	27
30	40	38	16	17
31	19	27	12	10
32	26	28	20	25
33	15	27	17	27
34	16	21	22	39
35	25	22	26	37

36	18	27	30	34
37	17	20	18	21
38	22	19	22	40
39	21	23	12	18
40	34	32	35	30
41	30	31	20	26
42	14	19	17	28
43	19	18	16	23
44	25	17	36	37
45	15	11	31	28
46	12	14	16	23
47	20	12	22	19
48	18	16	14	16
49	22	20	36	43
50	37	23	25	38
51	10	9		
52	26	27		
53	25	28		
54	14	19		
55	24	31		
56	18	11		
57	18	17		
58	20	18		
59				
60				

G-2- Table 19: Results of Pre-test and Post-test of Addis Ketema Secondary School (Main Study)

Subject code	Control Group		Experimental group	
	Pre-test (50%)	Post-test (50%)	Pre-test (50%)	Post test (50%)
1	24	19	17	20
2	28	31	21	19
3	22	15	18	30
4	28	30	31	25
5	29	21	17	28
6	21	18	23	32
7	24	28	20	38
8	4	6	21	39
9	26	24	24	32
10	20	23	20	18
11	23	30	5	8
12	18	23	24	30
13	22	24	21	23
14	16	17	13	26
15	25	29	27	27
16	18	27	26	27
17	20	25	27	31
18	23	18	39	41
19	8	6	20	32
20	18	20	15	27
21	16	18	10	16
22	23	16	23	32
23	21	23	17	23
24	19	20	24	28
25	20	28	18	24
26	14	22	20	26
27	18	20	22	35
28	23	18	25	23
29	26	28	22	34
30	15	17	27	31
31	25	28	20	22
32	21	22	32	45
33	31	33	23	32
34	26	40	20	28
35	25	30	22	36
36	21	26	38	27
37	18	20	20	19
38	20	30	20	24
39	26	17	26	28
40	23	18	31	36

41	22	24	23	27
42	27	19	22	24
43	24	26	22	28
44	25	24	24	32
45	26	20	25	39
46	23	14	21	32
47	26	22	20	28
48	33	32	16	24
49	24	18	24	34
50	30	26	26	22
51	19	16	25	30
52	30	23	28	33
53	39	27	25	24
54	26	22	43	45
55	14	16	26	28
56	18	20	21	24
57			18	22
58			16	20
59			22	27
60			15	20

**G-3-Table 20: Results of the Pre-test by the two Raters
Menilik Secondary School (Main Study)**

Subject code	Control Group		Experimental group	
	Pre-test Rater1 (50%)	Pre-test Rater2 (50%)	Pre-test Rater1 (50%)	Pre-test Rater2 (50%)
1	12	10	36	25
2	30	26	29	27
3	16	18	23	18
4	14	15	16	19
5	36	34	23	20
6	24	28	20	18
7	22	17	16	13
8	18	25	25	28
9	19	16	23	20
10	25	20	20	16
11	16	22	26	28
12	24	18	28	24
13	20	15	16	15
14	23	27	19	23
15	20	18	24	27
16	14	17	36	32
17	35	33	20	17
18	20	18	12	14
19	16	20	15	13
20	24	22	31	29
21	18	16	26	28
22	32	28	24	26
23	30	22	14	17
24	42	38	19	22
25	38	40	35	28
26	8	6	28	21
27	18	20	32	33
28	28	19	28	20
29	16	18	19	22
30	40	37	16	18
31	19	25	12	8
32	26	31	20	23
33	15	10	17	22
34	16	13	22	19
35	25	26	26	23
36	18	17	30	28
37	17	25	18	16
38	22	21	22	24

39	21	13	12	10
40	34	29	35	33
41	30	32	20	25
42	14	16	17	23
43	19	22	16	14
44	25	18	36	29
45	15	19	31	30
46	12	10	16	19
47	20	22	22	25
48	18	15	14	16
49	22	24	36	33
50	37	33	25	27
51	10	8		
52	26	28		
53	25	23		
54	14	17		
55	24	28		
56	18	22		
57	18	25		
58	20	16		
59				
60				

**G-4-Table 21: Results of the Post-test by the two Raters
Menilik Secondary School (Main Study)**

Subject code	Control Group		Experimental group	
	Post-test Rater1 (50%)	Post-test Rater2 (50%)	Post-test Rater1 (50%)	Post-test Rater2 (50%)
1	20	24	39	36
2	26	22	25	27
3	9	7	28	32
4	27	20	22	19
5	33	28	34	28
6	22	24	27	32
7	23	21	23	19
8	17	19	32	27
9	8	10	23	25
10	28	22	24	22
11	18	17	22	18
12	18	20	36	38
13	18	16	30	26
14	24	25	16	14
15	12	10	26	28
16	9	6	44	40
17	34	31	30	32
18	10	13	32	28
19	19	17	28	25
20	25	22	30	27
21	20	24	36	31
22	26	21	39	40
23	21	18	15	13
24	37	31	17	19
25	34	36	36	32
26	7	8	23	20
27	16	14	35	33
28	32	30	18	19
29	24	22	27	24
30	38	40	17	15
31	27	22	10	9
32	28	18	25	23
33	27	29	27	28
34	21	26	39	34
35	22	20	37	35
36	27	28	34	28
37	20	19	21	17
38	19	15	40	38
39	23	20	18	22
40	32	31	30	26

41	31	28	26	17
42	19	16	28	30
43	18	15	23	21
44	17	20	37	36
45	11	9	28	19
46	14	16	23	22
47	12	13	19	24
48	19	20	16	13
49	20	15	43	40
50	23	21	38	36
51	9	10		
52	27	22		
53	28	25		
54	19	16		
55	31	32		
56	11	8		
57	17	16		
58	18	20		
59				
60				

**G-5-Table 22: Results of the Pre-test by the two Raters
Addis Ketema Secondary School (Main Study)**

Subject code	Control Group		Experimental group	
	Pre-test Rater1 (50%)	Pre-test Rater2 (50%)	Pre-test Rater1 (50%)	Pre-test Rater2 (50%)
1	24	23	17	19
2	28	25	21	25
3	22	18	18	19
4	28	29	31	33
5	29	32	17	15
6	21	18	23	24
7	24	27	20	25
8	4	8	21	17
9	26	30	24	26
10	20	17	20	21
11	23	25	5	8
12	18	23	24	22
13	22	20	21	18
14	16	18	13	15
15	25	24	27	22
16	18	16	26	23
17	20	13	27	29
18	23	27	39	40
19	8	10	20	18
20	18	21	15	16
21	16	19	10	8
22	23	20	23	25
23	21	25	17	19
24	19	16	24	27
25	20	22	18	20
26	14	12	20	13
27	18	19	22	27
28	23	17	25	21
29	26	23	22	25
30	15	18	27	29
31	25	22	20	18
32	21	24	32	31
33	31	30	23	25
34	26	23	20	18
35	25	23	22	26
36	21	26	38	32
37	18	14	20	19
38	20	18	20	25
39	26	23	26	24

40	23	21	31	35
41	22	27	23	27
42	27	25	22	20
43	24	29	22	24
44	25	20	24	21
45	26	30	25	28
46	23	27	21	19
47	26	22	20	23
48	33	31	16	19
49	24	25	24	27
50	30	34	26	29
51	19	22	25	28
52	30	26	28	30
53	39	37	25	23
54	26	29	43	40
55	14	17	26	23
56	18	20	21	20
57			18	19
58			16	13
59			22	21
60			15	18

**G-6-Table 23: Results of the Post-test by the two Raters
Addis Ketema Secondary School (Main Study)**

Subject code	Control Group		Experimental group	
	Post-test Rater1 (50%)	Post-test Rater2 (50%)	Post-test Rater1 (50%)	Post-test Rater2 (50%)
1	19	17	20	22
2	31	28	19	16
3	15	16	30	28
4	30	25	25	31
5	21	28	28	24
6	18	20	32	26
7	28	26	38	36
8	6	8	39	40
9	24	26	32	35
10	23	21	18	23
11	30	28	8	10
12	23	20	30	23
13	24	28	23	27
14	17	15	26	22
15	29	32	27	28
16	27	29	27	25
17	25	30	31	30
18	18	15	41	41
19	6	4	32	36
20	20	23	27	18
21	18	16	16	13
22	17	21	34	29
23	22	27	21	26
24	20	18	28	32
25	28	25	24	28
26	22	26	26	22
27	20	17	35	38
28	18	22	23	25
29	28	30	34	28
30	17	13	31	33
31	28	25	22	25
32	22	26	45	44
33	33	30	32	35
34	40	38	28	19
35	30	26	36	33
36	26	28	27	25
37	20	18	19	17
38	30	29	24	27
39	17	20	28	30
40	18	15	36	29

41	24	26	27	22
42	19	17	24	23
43	26	23	28	21
44	24	27	32	30
45	20	19	39	40
46	14	17	32	28
47	22	25	28	29
48	32	30	24	22
49	18	19	34	36
50	26	28	22	20
51	16	14	30	27
52	23	21	33	32
53	27	29	24	25
54	22	20	45	41
55	16	14	28	26
56	20	18	24	25
57			22	21
58			20	19
59			27	26
60			20	18

**G-7-Table 24: Average Results of Pre-test and Post-test
Menilik Secondary School**

Subject code	Control Group		Experimental group	
	Pre-test (50%)	Post-test (50%)	Pre-test (50%)	Post test (50%)
1	11	22	30.5	37.5
2	28	24	28	26
3	17	8	20.5	30
4	14.5	23.5	17.5	20.5
5	35	30.5	21.5	31
6	26	23	19	29.5
7	19.5	22	14.5	21
8	21.5	18	26.5	29.5
9	17.5	9	21.5	24
10	22.5	25	18	23
11	19	17.5	27	20
12	21	19	26	37
13	17.5	17	15.5	28
14	25	24.5	21	15
15	19	11	25.5	27
16	15.5	7.5	34	42
17	34	32.5	18.5	31
18	19	11.5	13	30
19	18	18	14	26.5
20	23	23.5	30	28.5
21	17	22	27	33.5
22	30	23.5	25	39.5
23	26	19.5	15.5	14
24	40	34	20.5	18
25	39	35	31.5	34
26	7	7.5	24.5	21.5
27	19	15	32.5	34
28	23.5	31	24	18.5
29	17	23	20.5	25.5
30	38.5	39	17	16
31	22	24.5	10	9.5
32	28.5	23	21.5	24
33	12.5	28	19.5	27.5
34	14.5	23.5	20.5	36.5
35	25.5	21	24.5	36
36	17.5	27.5	29	31
37	21	19.5	17	19
38	21.5	17	23	39
39	17	21.5	11	20

40	31.5	31.5	34	28
41	31	29.5	22.5	21.5
42	15	17.5	20	29
43	20.5	16.5	15	22
44	21.5	18.5	32.5	36.5
45	17	10	30.5	23.5
46	11	15	17.5	22.5
47	21	12.5	23.5	21.5
48	16.5	18	15	14.5
49	23	17.5	34.5	41.5
50	35	22	26	37
51	9	9.5		
52	27	24.5		
53	24	26.5		
54	15.5	17.5		
55	26	31.5		
56	20	9.5		
57	21.5	16.5		
58	18	19		
59				
60				

**G-8- Table 25: Average Results of Pre-test and Post-test
Addis Ketema Secondary School**

Subject code	Control Group		Experimental group	
	Pre-test (50%)	Post-test (50%)	Pre-test (50%)	Post-test (50%)
1	23.5	18	18	21
2	26.5	29.5	23	17.5
3	20	15.5	18.5	29
4	28.5	27.5	32	28
5	30.5	24.5	16	26
6	19.5	19	23.5	29
7	25.5	27	22.5	37
8	6	7	19	39.5
9	28	25	25	33.5
10	18.5	22	20.5	20.5
11	24	29	6.5	9
12	20.5	21.5	23	26.5
13	21	26	19.5	25
14	17	16	14	24
15	24.5	30.5	24.5	27.5
16	17	28	24.5	26
17	16.5	27.5	28	30.5
18	25	16.5	39.5	41.5
19	9	5	19	34
20	19.5	21.5	15.5	22.5
21	17.5	17	9	14.5
22	21.5	18.5	24	30.5
23	23	25	18	24.5
24	17.5	19	25.5	30
25	21	26.5	19	26
26	13	24	16.5	24
27	18.5	18.5	24.5	36.5
28	20	20	23	24
29	24.5	29	23.5	31
30	16.5	15	28	32
31	23.5	26.5	19	23.5
32	22.5	24	31.5	44.5
33	30.5	31.5	24	33.5
34	24.5	39	19	23.5
35	24	28	24	34.5
36	23.5	27	35	26
37	16	19	19.5	18
38	19	29.5	22.5	25.5
39	24.5	18.5	25	29

40	22	16.5	33	32.5
41	24.5	25	25	24.5
42	26	18	21	23.5
43	26.5	24.5	23	24.5
44	22.5	25.5	22.5	31
45	28	19.5	26.5	39.5
46	25	15.5	20	30
47	24	23.5	21.5	28.5
48	32	31	17.5	23
49	24.5	18.5	25.5	35
50	32	27	27.5	21
51	20.5	15	26.5	28.5
52	28	22	29	32.5
53	38	28	24	24.5
54	27	21	41.5	43
55	15.5	15	24.5	27
56	19	19	20.5	24.5
57			18.5	21.5
58			14.5	19.5
59			21.5	26.5
60			16.5	19

- d) If you have any other suggestion, please state.....
5. Which of the following grammatical items did you learn when you were in Grade 9 and Grade 10? Please respond by marking (✓) in the boxes provided. If you did not learn any of the grammar items below, mark (x).
- a) simple present and simple past tense
 - b) present perfect and past perfect tense
 - c) Conditional sentences
 - d) the passive and the active voice
 - e) relative clauses
 - f) reported speech
 - g) present continuous and past continuous tense
 - h) I have learned all of them in junior and secondary school
 - i) If you have any other suggestion, please state.....
- 6) Did the grammar items you learned in Grade 9 and Grade 10 help you to improve your writing skills?
- a) Yes
 - b) No
- 7) When you were in Grade 9 and Grade 10, did you have the opportunity to use the grammar items you had learnt in your writing?
- a) Yes
 - b) No
- 8) If your answer to question No. 7 is 'no', what do you think the reason might be?
- a) I did not learn them in grade 9 and grade 10.
 - b) I did not understand how to use the grammar items in my writing.
 - c) I did not practise writing exercises related to the grammar item I learnt.
 - d) If any other please state _____
- 9) Do you now feel comfortable to use the grammatical items that you learnt in Grades 9 and 10 in your writing?
- a) Yes
 - b) No
- 10) If your answer to question No. 9 is 'no', what do you think the reason might be? _____
- _____
- _____
- 11) Are the grammar items in the Grade 9 and Grade 10 textbooks presented only through rules and abstract explanation?
- a) Yes
 - b) No
- 12) Do you think the grammar items in Grade 9 and Grade 10 are presented in context (in dialogue or text form) in the textbook?
- a) Yes
 - b) No
- 13) How are the grammar items presented in Grade 9 and Grade 10?
- a) traditional
 - b) communicative
 - c) both

- 14) Do you think that there are adequate communicative grammar tasks in Grade 11 textbook that could help you to improve your writing skills?
 a) Yes b) No
- 15) If your answer to question No. 14 is 'no' do you need to have supplementary communicative grammar activities in order to improve your writing skills?
 a) Yes b) No
- 16) Apart from the textbook, do your English teachers use supplementary communicative grammar activities to teach writing skills?
 a) Yes b) No
- 17) If your answer to question No. 16 is 'yes', do you think, the activities are motivating and relevant to improve your writing skills?
 a) Yes b) No
- 18) Which of the following components do you think are relevant in writing skills?
 a) grammar b) organization c) content d)----,----(any other)
- 19) Which method used during the experiment was helpful for improving grammar accuracy in writing?
 a) Explicit b) Implicit
 c) EEE method (exploration/explanation/ expression)
- 20) Did you encounter any problems when you practised the selected communicative grammar items in the experiment?
 a) Yes b) No
- 21) If your answer to question No. 20 is 'yes', what do you think the reason might be?

- 22) Which of the following language items did you practise in the experiment?
 a) Simple present and present continuous tense
 b) Present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense
 c) Possessive pronouns and reflexive pronouns
 d) Relative pronouns
 e) The passive and the active voice
 f) All of the above
 g) None of the above

PART 2: An Evaluative Questionnaire

Please give your answers to each of the following questions below using one of the choices given. Put a (✓) only once for one question except when the question requires written responses.

No	Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		No opinion		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
23	During the experiment, I learnt grammar rules through context (paragraph/dialogue).										
24	I feel it is helpful to know explicit grammar rules, which I could use later in my writing.										
25	Communicative grammar tasks helped me to remember grammar rules.										
26	I feel comfortable while practising communicative grammar tasks so that I can use them in my writing.										
27	I have had more opportunities to improve grammar in my writing when I frequently practice communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing.										
28	I need to learn more communicative grammar tasks in the future in order to improve my writing.										
29	I feel I do not need any supplementary communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing.										
30	Learning communicative grammar is a waste of time.										

31	I did not like communicative grammar tasks that I learnt during the experiment.										
32	The communicative grammar tasks were less interesting than the exercises in our text book.										
33	During the experiment, the communicative grammar tasks were boring.										
34	I enjoyed very much the communicative grammar tasks that I learnt during the experiment.										

35) Any comments you may have on the teaching of grammar in the context of writing, please state.

- g) Grammar is a tool for writing as well as for other skills.
- h) If you have any other suggestion, please state.....

5. Which of the following grammatical items did you learn when you were in Grade 9 and Grade 10? Please respond by marking (✓) in the boxes provided. If you did not learn any of the grammar items below, mark (x).

- a) simple present and simple past tense
- b) present perfect and past perfect tense
- c) Conditional sentences
- d) the passive and the active voice
- e) relative clauses
- f) reported speech
- g) present continuous and past continuous tense
- h) I have learned all of them in junior and secondary school
- i) If you have any other suggestion, please state.....

6) Did the grammar items you learned in Grade 9 and Grade 10 help you to improve your writing skills?

- a) Yes
- b) No

7) When you were in Grade 9 and Grade 10, did you have the opportunity to use the grammar items you had learnt in your writing?

- a) Yes
- b) No

8) If your answer to question No. 7 is 'no', what do you think the reason might be?

- e) I did not learn them in grade 9 and grade 10.
- f) I did not understand how to use the grammar items in my writing.
- g) I did not practise writing exercises related to the grammar item I learnt.
- h) If any other please state _____

9) Do you now feel comfortable to use the grammatical items that you learnt in Grades 9 and 10 in your writing?

- a) Yes
- b) No

10) If your answer to question No. 9 is 'no', what do you think the reason might be?

11) Are the grammar items in the Grade 9 and Grade 10 textbooks presented only through rules and abstract explanation?

- a) Yes
- b) No

12) Do you think the grammar items in Grade 9 and Grade 10 are presented in context (in dialogue or text form) in the textbook?

- a) Yes
- b) No

13) Do you think that there are adequate communicative grammar tasks in Grade 11 textbook that could help you to improve your writing skills?

- a) Yes
- b) No

- 14) If your answer to question No. 14 is 'no' do you need to have supplementary communicative grammar activities in order to improve your writing skills?
a) Yes b) No
- 15) Which of the following components do you think are relevant to writing skills?
a) grammar b) organization c) content d)----,----(any other)
- 16) Which method used during the experiment was helpful for improving grammar accuracy in writing?
a) Explicit b) Implicit
c) EEE method (exploration/explanation/ expression)
- 17) Did you encounter any problems when you practised the selected communicative grammar items in the experiment?
a) Yes b) No
- 18) If your answer to question No. 17 is 'yes', what do you think the reason might be? _____
- 19) Which of the following language items did you practise in the experiment?
a) Simple present and present continuous tense
b) Present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense
c) Possessive pronouns and reflexive pronouns
d) Relative pronouns
e) The passive and the active voice
f) All of the above
g) None of the above

PART 2: An Evaluative Questionnaire

Please give your answers to each of the following questions below using one of the choices given. Put a (✓) only once for one question except when the question requires written responses.

No	Item	Strongly Agree		Agree		No opinion		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
20	During the experiment, I learnt grammar rules through context (paragraph/dialogue).										
21	I feel it is helpful to know explicit grammar rules, which I could use later in my writing.										
22	Communicative grammar tasks helped me to remember grammar rules.										
23	I feel comfortable while practising communicative grammar tasks so that I can use them in my writing.										
24	I have had more opportunities to improve grammar in my writing when I frequently practise communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing.										
25	I need to learn more communicative grammar tasks in the future in order to improve my writing.										
26	I feel I do not need any supplementary communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing.										
27	Learning communicative grammar is a waste of time.										
28	I did not like communicative grammar tasks that I learnt during the experiment.										

29	The communicative grammar tasks were less interesting than the exercises in our textbook.										
30	During the experiment, the communicative grammar tasks were boring.										
31	I enjoyed very much the communicative grammar tasks that I learnt during the experiment.										

32) Any comments you may have on the teaching of grammar in the context of writing, please state

Appendix- J

Experimental Group Student Interview Questions

- 1) Did you enjoy the communicative grammar tasks you practised during the experiment?
- 2) Do you feel that you got ample opportunity to use the selected communicative grammar items in the experiment? Do you now feel more confident in using the grammar items you practised in your writing?
- 3) Did the communicative grammar tasks help you improve grammar accuracy in your writing?
- 4) Do you think that the integration of communicative grammar with writing helped you to improve your writing?
- 5) Which method used during the experiment was helpful for improving grammar accuracy in writing? Deductive? Inductive? EEE (Exploration/Explanation/Expression) method?
- 6) Did you encounter any problems when you practised the selected communicative grammar items in the experiment? If yes, what problems did you face when you practised the selected communicative grammar items in the experiment? How did you cope with the problems?
- 7) Do you think communicative grammar tasks in the context of writing are important in developing your writing skills?

Appendix K

Experimental Group Teacher Interview Questions

1. Did the communicative grammar tasks help your students improve grammar accuracy in their writing?
2. Do you feel that your students got enough opportunity to use the selected communicative grammar items in the experiment?
3. What role do you think communicative grammar has played in enhancing students' writing abilities in the experiment?
4. Did you encounter any problems when you teach the selected communicative grammar items in the experiment? Why?
5. If yes, what problems did you face when you taught the selected communicative grammar items in the experiment?
6. How did you cope with the problems?
7. Which method used during the experiment was helpful for improving grammar accuracy in students' writing? Explicit? Implicit? EEE (exploration/explanation/expression) method?

Appendix L Observation checklist

Name of school: _____

Subject: _____

Grade _____

Week: _____

Writing as a process	Example
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Brainstorming activity 2. Planning / outlining stage 3. Drafting 4. Revision / editing (self-editing, peer-editing) 5. Writing final draft 6. Teachers collecting the writing assignment for feedback. 	
Method of grammar teaching	Example
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Inductive method 2. Deductive method 3. EEE method 	

Appendix- M

Teaching Material for the Pilot Study

Subject: English

Topic: Communicative Grammar and Writing Tasks for Grade 11

Lessons: 5

No	Lesson Title	Time	Active Learning Methods	Assessment Methods
1	Present Simple and Present Continuous Tense	4 hrs.	-brainstorming -individual /pair work -group discussion	-answer to questions -completion of tasks - write a description of a typical day in your life -feedback -write short paragraphs
2	Present Perfect Tense and Present Perfect Continuous Tense	4 hrs.	"	- answer to questions -complete a conversation -write a paragraph -write a letter -feedback -write an essay
3	Possessive Pronouns and Reflexive Pronouns	4 hrs.		-completion of tasks -answer to questions -write a paragraph about a famous person -write an essay -feedback
4	The Passive Voice and the Active Voice	4 hrs.	"	-answer to questions -completion of tasks -write a paragraph -complete the flow chart -write an essay -feed back
5	Relative Clauses	4 hrs	"	-completion of tasks -answer to questions -write a paragraph -write an essay
6	Revision and Reflection	4hrs	"	

LESSON PRO FORMA

INTRODUCTION

In Grades 9 and 10, you learnt different grammar items such as ‘infinitive’, ‘gerund’, ‘used to’, ‘conditional sentences’, ‘reported speech’, and ‘relative clause’ and so on. In this teaching material, you will revise a few communicative grammar items in the context of writing.

Thus, in this material the following language items are included: ‘simple present tense and present continuous tense’, ‘present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense’, ‘possessive pronouns and reflexive pronouns’, ‘the relative clauses’, ‘the passive and the active voice.’ Moreover, you would learn how to use the above grammar items in different paragraphs, dialogues, letters, and essays.

Objectives: At the end of this lesson, you should be able to:

- Use simple present tense and present continuous tense in writing short paragraphs.
- Use present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense writing letters and essays.
- Use possessive pronouns and reflexive pronouns in writing letters and essays.
- Use the relative clauses in writing short paragraphs.
- Use the passive and the active voice in completing flow chart.

Activities:

Speaking

- Explaining the rules of each grammar item
- Discussion on how to use the grammar items in paragraphs, dialogues, letters and essays.

Reading

- reading sample paragraphs given
- reading texts given and completing tasks.

Writing

- Preparing outlines
- Writing paragraphs using notes.
- Writing well organized paragraphs.
- Writing from reading paragraphs
- Writing letters

- Writing essays

Mode of presentation: individual, pair and small group works.

Assessment

Peer assessment: you will cross check your writings at sentence, Paragraph, and essay levels with your partners.

Group evaluation: you will create outlines and write Paragraphs, letters and essays.

Teacher evaluation: written texts and assignments.

Assignments: you will write a number of paragraphs, letters and essays.

Resource: handout, blackboard, chalk.

Lesson 1: Present Continuous and Present Simple

Present Continuous

The present continuous tense (also called the present progressive tense) is commonly used in English for actions happening right now, or in the near future. In other words, we use the present continuous when the action is happening now (at the time of speaking). This lesson will explain the rules for forming the tense with regular verbs. This tense is formed using two components: the verb BE (in the present tense), and the -ING form of a verb.

e.g.: Please don't make so much noise. I am working. ('not I work.')

Let me go out now. It isn't raining any more. (not 'it doesn't rain.')

I'm tired. I'm going to bed now. Good night!

We use the present continuous when we talk about things happening in a period around now (for example/today/this week/this evening etc.)

e.g.: 'You're working hard today.' 'Yes I have a lot to do.' (not 'You work today.')

We use the present continuous when we talk about changes happening around now.

e.g.: The population of the world is rising very fast. (not 'rises')

Is your English getting better? (not 'Does your English get better?')

Study this example situation:

Almaz is in her car. She is on her way to work. She is driving to work.

This means: She is driving now at the time of speaking. The action is not finished.

Am/is/are-ing is the present continuous:

I am (=I'm)	driving
He/she/it is (=he's etc)	working
We/you/they are (=we're etc)	doing etc

We use present continuous tenses only for actions and happenings (they are eating/ it is raining etc.)

In English there are verbs that are not normally used in the Continuous Tense, because they describe rather state than an action. They are called **state verb (stative verbs, non-progressive verbs)**. This means some verbs (for example, know and like) are not action verbs. You cannot say "I am knowing" or "they are liking." You can only say 'I know', 'they like.'

The following verbs are not normally used in continuous tenses:

like	love	want	need	prefer	behave
know	realize	suppose	mean	understand	remember
become	contain	consist	depend	seem	

e.g.: I'm hungry. I want something to eat. (not I'm wanting)

Do you understand what I mean?

When think means 'believe'; do not use the continuous

What do you think (believe) will happen?

(Not 'what are you thinking')

But we can say,

A: You look serious. What are you thinking about?

(= What is going on in your mind?)

B: I'm thinking of giving up my job. (=I am considering)

Simple Present Tense

My brother, Henok usually plays football on Saturday. He also likes to watch movies most of the time. However, my sisters study their lessons day and night. They advise Henok to be serious in his studies.

What is the grammatical structure used in this paragraph?

We use the present simple to talk about things in general. We are not thinking only about now. We use it to say that something happens all the time or repeatedly or that something is true in general. It is not important whether the action is happening at the time of speaking:
Nurses look after patients in hospitals.

I usually play football at weekends.

The earth goes round the sun.

Study this example situation:

Alex is a bus driver, but now he is in bed asleep, so: he is not driving a bus. (He is asleep,) but he drives a bus. (He is a bus driver.)

Drive(s) work(s)/do (es) etc. is the present simple:

I/we/you/they	drive/work/do etc.
He/she/it	drives/works/does etc.

We use the present simple when we say how often we do things:

e.g.: Almaz gets up at 8 o'clock every morning. (not I'm getting.)

Almaz doesn't drink tea very often.

In summer Almaz usually plays tennis once a week.

Study the explanations and compare the examples:

Present Continuous (I am doing)	Present Simple (I do)
Use the continuous for something that is happening at or around the time of speaking. The action is not finished.	Use the simple Present tense for things that happened repeatedly.
The water is boiling. Can you turn it off? I'm going to bed now. Good night Use the continuous for a temporary situation: I'm living with some friends until I find a flat.	Water boils at 100 degrees celsius. I always go to bed before midnight. Use the simple present tense for a permanent situation: My parents live in Addis Ababa. They have lived there all their lives.

Task 1

Complete the sentences by changing the verbs in brackets into present continuous or present simple where necessary. You may have to change the word order. Then discuss your answers with your partner.

Tourists (1) _____ (come) to Lalibela all the year round. They usually (2) _____ (respect) the feelings of the inhabitants and (3) _____ (not cause) problems. And of course they (4) _____ (bring) a lot of trade to the town. However the shopkeepers continually (5) _____ (complain) about them. They say they always (7) _____ (drop) litter and the children forever (8) _____ (come) into the shops eating and making a mess. This sometimes (9) _____ (make) me angry. Our shopkeepers (10) _____ (seem) to forget all the benefits they (11) _____ (get) from the tourists.

Task 2

Fill in the blanks in the following passages with the present form of the verb 'be' or 'have'. Then, discuss your answers in groups.

- a) Swans large birds-almost 4 feet tall. They long necks. Some swans very tame. They often come near people for food. Females usually about six babies which are called cygnets. Cygnets grey in colour and very small wings but when they are fully grown they large and strong wings and white in colour. Swans can live to be 40.
- b) Jean de Brunhoff wrote the first Babar book for children in 1931. Babar the name of the hero. He an elephant. He a friend called Zephir who a monkey. He also a cousin called Arthur and a wife called Celeste. Babar polite, friendly and reliable. He and the other elephants many adventures in the jungle and in the city called Celesteville. The Babar books have been translated from French into many languages. There now a cartoon series which is shown all over the world.

- c) Water the most important compound on Earth. It can exist in three states- vapour, liquid and solid (ice). About 2½ per cent of the Earth's water in glaciers. Most of the rest liquid.
- d) Electricity the most useful form of energy. It easy to produce; it easy to transmit over long distances; it clean and no smell. Above all it very convenient.

Task 3

Fill in the blanks in the following passages with is/are or has/have. Then discuss your answers with your partner.

Nuts a dried fruit in a shell and full of goodness – protein and vitamins. They a high fibre content. Almonds a high calcium content. They also full of protein. They many uses in cooking and can also be eaten raw. Brazil nuts full of zinc, protein and vitamin B1. They very hard shells. Cashews not nuts. They Legumes, like peanuts. They a delicate flavour and delicious cooked with fish and rice dishes. Peanuts the best known and most widely eaten nuts in the world but they not actually nuts at all. They very high in protein and the eight essential amino acids. Peanuts also high in calories.

Task 4 Dictogloss

Language points: Present simple tense and contractions

- A) Sit in pairs and ask each pair to find out your partner's names, where he/she comes from, how long he/she has been here, his/her age, whether he/she is married, and whether she/he likes studying Germany.

You will find the following words in the text you are going to listen shortly.

Pre-text Vocabulary:

Single (adj.) not married

To share (a house with) (v) to live with other people

- B) You will hear a short talk about Yonas who lives in Germany. You will hear the talk twice. During the first talk, try to identify the overall idea. During the second talk take detail notes.

- C) In groups compare your notes and then write the first draft individually.

- D) Now, work in groups to write a final draft of the text. And then, you compare your text with the original.

The text

I'm Yonas and I come from Ethiopia. I've been in this country for three years and I really like being here. I'm twenty years old and I'm single. I share a house with two other boys. I am a student and I really like learning Germany.

Task 5 Writing short paragraphs using the facts and figures given below.

1. Study carefully the following facts and figures together with the model paragraph constructed from the given facts and figures.

Hungary

- between Austria and Rumania
- to the north of Czechoslovakia
- and Yugoslavia to the south
- population—30,200,000 people
- capital –Budapest—on the river Danube—population—2,900,000

Model paragraph constructed from the above facts and figures

Hungary is located between Austria and Rumania. Czechoslovakia is to the north and Yugoslavia is to the south. It has a population of about 30,200,000 people. Budapest is the capital city. It is built on the river Danube. Budapest has a population of about 2,900,000.

Writing from Reading

A Typical Day in My Life

Read the following text and do the tasks that follow.

My day usually begins at 6:30 a.m. I get up and do some exercises for about fifteen minutes. Then I take a shower. After shower I get dressed and have breakfast with my family. I usually have a light breakfast, consisting of toast and coffee. At seven thirty I leave for school.

I generally take the bus to school. I catch the bus near my house and then walk from the bus stop to school. It takes about thirty minutes to get from my home to school. My first class is at eight thirty and I usually finish school at three. Sometimes I stay late to play a game of volleyball or to work in the library.

I usually reach home at around four o'clock. When I get home I like to watch TV for a while. Then I start my homework. I have dinner at seven o'clock. After that I often have more work to do. Sometimes I watch TV or go out with friends. I generally go to bed around ten thirty.

Task 6

Write a description of a typical day in your life using the passage above as a model. Mention the following:

1. getting up from bed
2. things you do before breakfast
3. breakfast
4. leaving for work or school
5. arriving at work or school
6. how long your work or school day is
7. when you get home after school
8. what you do when you reach home
9. before dinner
10. after dinner
11. going to bed

Moreover, the present perfect continuous refers to an **unspecified time** between 'before now' and 'now'. The speaker is thinking about something that started but perhaps did not finish in that period of time. He/she is interested in the **process as well as the result**, and this process may still be going on, or may have just finished.

This means we use the present perfect continuous for an activity that has recently stopped or just stopped. There is connection with now:

e.g.: You're out of breath. Have you been running?

(You're out of breath now)

Dawit is very tired. He's been working very hard.

(He's tired now.)

Study this example situation

A: Is it raining?

B: No, but the ground is wet

A: It has been raining.

Present Perfect Tense

We use the present perfect (have been /have traveled etc) when we talk about a period of time that continues from the past until now.

Study this conversation between Dawit and Almaz.

Dawit: Have you traveled a lot, Almaz?

Almaz: Yes, I've been to lots of places.

Dawit: Really? Have you ever been to China?

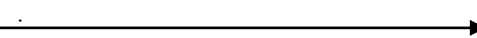
Almaz: Yes, I've been to China twice.

Dawit: What about India?

Almaz: No, I haven't been to India.

Here, Dawit and Almaz are talking about the places Almaz has visited in her life (which is a period that continues until now).

<p>Almaz' s life (a period until now)</p>

Past  Now

We use the present perfect with today / this morning / this evening etc./ when these periods are not finished at the time of speaking.

e.g.: I have drunk four cups of coffee today. (It is now lunch time. Perhaps I'll drink more before today is finished)

I haven't seen Dawit this morning, have you?

Present Perfect Continuous and Present Perfect Tense

We can use both the present perfect simple and the present perfect continuous to speak about situations that started in the past and are still continuing and also about situations that have just finished and affect the present. The difference between the two tenses in both these situations is one of focus.

If we say:

I've been writing letters all morning.

We are focusing on the action of writing itself, and thinking of it as an extended activity that may not have finished yet.

If we say:

I've written six letters this morning.

We are focusing on the idea that the six letters have already been completed.

Another difference is that we use the present perfect continuous to speak about more temporary situations and actions, and the present perfect simple to speak about more permanent situations and actions.

e.g. The television has been playing up lately.

That television has never worked, as far as I can remember

TASK 1

Put the correct present perfect form of the verbs in brackets in the blanks in the following passages. Then compare your answers with those of your group members.

- (a) Spain and its people (make) a lasting impression on me. I went there as a young journalist 70 years ago and stayed for two years. Since then I.....(return) often. I..... (never forget) my first sight of the plateau of Castille and the mountains that cross it. I.....(be) to every part of the country and(visit) every large city in the country. Since I first fell in love with the country in 1920. I (be) a regular visitor and I(never be) disappointed.
- (b) Robert Zimmerman changed his name to Bob Dylan but he.....(also call) himself Tedham Porterhouse, Elmer Johnson, Robert Milkwood and Blind Boy Grunt. He(receive) a doctorate from Princeton University and.....(become) a commander of Arts and Letters in France. Many colleges.....(start) Dylan Studies course. He.....(make) three films and.....(travel) all over the world.
- (c) Tropical reef.....(exist) for more than 500 million years. Because lands that once lay in the tropics.....(drift) with time, ancient reefs are often found in regions that are temperate today. In more recent times , changes in sea level

.....(affect). The (be) at its present level only in the past 5000 years. Fifteen thousand years ago, the sea was 120 meters lower than it is today.

Task 2

The explorer Tessema Lemma, is living in the Balle jungle. A television team is interviewing him. Complete the conversation. Use the present perfect simple and the present perfect continuous.

Interviewer: Tessema , what are you doing here in the jungle?

Tessema: I'm studying the birds, animals, insects ...

Interviewer: I see. And how long (you live) have you been living here?

Tessema: Three months, I think. Yes, nearly three months.

Interviewer: And 1 (you live) _____ in that tree-house all that time?

Tessema: Yes, I have.

Interviewer: And 2 (you look) _____ for any special kind of bird, insect or animal?

Tessema: Yes, I 3 (try) _____ to find the giant Peruvian bat-parrot. I 4 (search) _____ the whole area three times.

Interviewer: And you 5 (not catch) _____ one yet?

Tessema: No, I 6 (not even see) _____ one.

I 7 (find) _____ three rare monkeys, two new snakes and an enormous spider ... but I 8 (not find) _____ a giant bat-parrot.

Interviewer: Well, Mr.Tessema -I think this is your lucky day! Look out!

Task 3: Dictogloss: Smoking

Language points: Present perfect tense

E) Sit in groups and discuss the dangers of smoking.

You will find the following words in the text you are going to listen shortly.

Pre-text Vocabulary:

Risk (n) danger

To be aware of (v) to know about

To ban (v) to prohibit

Passive (adj.) not active

F) You will hear a short talk about smoking. You will hear the talk twice. During the first talk, try to identify the overall idea. During the second talk take detail notes.

G) In groups compare your notes and then write the first draft individually.

H) Now, work in groups to write a final draft of the text. And then, you compare your text with the original.

The text

For a long time, people have known about the dangers of smoking. Recently, they have become aware of the risk of passive smoking. Passive smokers do not smoke but share their air space with smokers. As a result, Government Departments have banned smoking in the work place.

Present perfect tense with ‘for’ and ‘since’

Since is used for a point in time. This means that since is used ‘from that time to the time referred to’. It is often used with a present perfect tense or past perfect tense.

e.g.: He has been here since Monday. (from Monday till now)

He wondered where Almaz was. He had not seen her since their quarrel.

Since can also be an adverb.

e.g.: He left school since 1983.

Since can also be a conjunction of time.

e.g.: He has worked for us ever since he left school.

It is two years since I last saw Kebede= I last saw Kebede two years ago/ I haven’t seen kebede for two years.

For is used for a period of time: for six years, for two months, for ever.

e.g.: Bake it for two hours.

He traveled in the desert for six months.

For + a period of time can be used with a present perfect tense or past perfect tense for an action which extends up to the time of speaking:

e.g.: He has worked here for a year. (He began working here a year ago and still works here.)

For used in this way is replaceable by **since** with the point in time when the action began:

e.g.: He has worked here since this time last year.

Task 3

Put in 'for' or 'since'. Then discuss your choices with a partner.

A: How long has it been raining?

B: It's been raining..... Lunch time.

A: How long has your father been doing the same job? He is a teacher, isn't he?

B: Yes he is. He has been teaching.....20 years.

A: How long have you been learning English?

B: I've been learning English.....a long time?

A: How long has Sara lived in London?

B: She's lived in London.....1985.

A: How long has Kebede been looking for a job?

B: He has been looking for a job.....he left school.

Task 4

Yohannes borrows things from his friends, but he forgets to give them back. He still has all these things. How long has he had them?

e.g.: keep Bezawit's record - three weeks.

He has kept Bezawit's record for three weeks.

1. have Daniel's pen – 2 months ,

2 .borrow Yonas's cassette player – 6 weeks

3.keep Henok's cassettes- 4 weeks.

4.have Emebet's computer game – a month.

5 .borrow Solomon's tennis racket – 3 months

6. keep Wossen's camera _ 5 weeks.

7. have Dereje's Chess – six months

8. borrow Workneh's English dictionary-3weeks

Present perfect +since (a point in time)

Task 5

Complete these Conversations. Then discuss your answers with a partner.

e.g.: Johnny /live in Addis Ababa –1940

A: How long has Johnny lived in Addis Ababa?

B: He has lived in Addis Ababa since 1940.

1. Kenny Denton | play for Liver pool - 1982

A _____

B _____

2. Micky | be a boxer – 19 84.

A _____

B _____

3. Workneh | play in New York symphony Orchestra –August.

A _____

B _____

4. Yordanos / have a broken nose _ last summer.

A _____

B _____

5. Gebre Egziabher / hold the world Championship – 1987.

A _____

B _____

Task 6: Yowebdar and her husband Sisay are on holiday in Langano. They arrived on the 1st August. Use Yewbdar's notes to Complete her letter to her friend Mekdes.

1. The rain (not stop) – for six days
2. We (stay) in the hotel – the day we came
3. Sisay (feel) sick _ three days
4. He (not eat) – two days
5. I (have) a cold – Thursday
6. We (not understand).

e.g.: We (be) on Langano _ Tuesday

We have been in Langano since Tuesday.

Write your first draft. Then exchange it with your friend, comment on it. Work together to discuss the strengths and weakness of your letter.

Read the following letter and do the tasks that follow.

Writing from Reading Applying for a job

Mozart Strasse,25
Vienna
Austria

The Staff Manager
Continental Tours Ltd
6 Dover Street
London W1

Dear sir,

I am an Austrian student, and am seeking some interesting form of employment for the summer vacation this year, and I have been advised to write to you to offer my service as a guide to British tourists visiting Europe.

Briefly, my relevant experience and qualifications are as follows: I have studied English for ten years, first at school and since that at Vienna University. I have visited Britain several times, and in 1979 I spent ten weeks in the United States. My experience of speaking English is therefore quite considered. I have also traveled extensively within Europe and have a good working knowledge of French and Italian in addition to my native language, German. My studies have included the history of Europe Art and Architecture as well as the languages I have just mentioned.

I have worked as a tourist guide on two previous occasions and I am familiar with the nature of the work. I have had to deal with many of the various problems and difficult situations that can arise during a tour- mistake in hotel booking, lost passports, illness, etc. Last year, I accompanied a party of American on a tour of Italy, and a month ago I acted as guide to a group of Irish businessman visiting Vienna. I have always found this kind of work interesting and enjoyable and have had a good relationship with the clients who have been in my care.

I look forward to hearing from you. Needless to say, I will be glad to supply you with any further information you may need, including references from my previous employers

Yours faithfully
Antony Mayerhofer

Writing Task

- 1) You are going to write a letter of application for any other job that you'd like to have, and make brief notes under these heading:
 - Name, age, occupation
 - Education, qualifications
 - Relevant experiences
- 2) Compare your notes with your friends
- 3) From your notes, write your letter of application

Lesson 3: Possessive Pronouns and Reflexive Pronouns

Possessive Pronouns: mine, yours, his etc.

Reflexive Pronouns: yourself, herself, myself, themselves etc.

A possessive pronoun indicates that the pronoun is acting as a marker of possession and defines who owns a particular object or person. The possessive personal pronouns are ‘mine,’ ‘yours,’ ‘hers,’ ‘his,’ ‘its,’ ‘ours,’ and ‘theirs.’ Reflexive Pronouns refer back to the subject. The singular form-self is used with singular object pronouns my, your, him, her, and it:

e.g.: I wanted to do it myself but Almaz insisted on helping me.

Almaz fell off the ladder and injured herself.

You can use a **reflexive pronoun** to refer back to the subject of the clause or sentence.

The reflexive pronouns are ‘myself,’ ‘yourself,’ ‘herself,’ ‘himself,’ ‘itself,’ ‘ourselves,’ ‘yourselves,’ and ‘themselves.’ Personal pronouns have different form for subject, object and possessive forms. The chart below sets out the different forms:

Subject	Object	Possessive
I	Me	Mine
You	You	Yours
He	Him	His
She	Her	Hers
It	It	Its
We	Us	Ours
They	Them	Theirs

Note: possessive pronouns my, your, his, her, its, our, their which come before a noun are possessive determiners/or adjectives.

Reflexive Pronouns

Myself/yourself/themselves etc.

Study this example:

Kebede cut himself when he was shaving this morning.

We use myself/yourself/themselves etc. (reflexive pronouns) when the subjects and objects are the same:

Subject Kebede cut himself. ←object

The reflexive pronouns are:

Singular: myself/ yourself (one person) himself/herself/itself

Plural: ourselves/ yourselves (more than one Person) themselves

e.g.: I don't want you to pay for me. I'll pay for myself.(not I'll pay for me')

Hanna had a great holiday. She enjoyed herself very much.

Task 1

Complete the answers to the questions in the dialogue using myself/yourself /itself etc. Then discuss your answers with your partner.

1. A: Who repaired the bicycle for you?
B: Nobody. I repaired it myself.
2. A: Did Girma have his hair cut by a hairdresser?
B: No. He cut _____
3. A: Do you want me to post that letter for you?
B: No, I'll _____
4. A: Who told you that Almaz was getting married?
B: Almaz _____
5. A: Can you phone John for me?
B: Why can't you _____?

Task 2

Fill in the blanks in the following passages with my, you, her, his, its, one's, our or their. Then discuss your choices with a partner. Try to explain why you have chosen.

- a) Some years ago two experts decided to print design on.....phone cards. The result is craze for.....cards and some rare ones are now worth up to 3000 dollars.
- b) Rudolf Nureyev was born on a Trans-Siberian Railway train near Irkutsk, USSR, on the 17 March 1938.mother was on 14-day train trip back from visiting.....husband in the army.Passport records..... place of birth as station Razdolnaia.family was very poor and some of the stories he told of.....childhood are very sad. Nureyev Margot Fonteyn hold the record for curtain calls-there were 89 after.....performance of 'Swain Lake' in Vienna in October 1964.
- c) Most moving things stop when they run out of energy: runners stop when.....bodies are tired and a car stops when.....petrol tank is empty.

Lesson 4: The Passive Voice and the Active Voice (is done/was done)

Actions described by verbs in English typically involve two people or things: the person or thing that performs the action (sometimes referred to as the agent), and the person or thing that is affected or produced by the action of the verb.

In English the agent is often put at the beginning of a sentence or clause, in subject position. The person or thing affected or produced then forms the object of the verb. This is what we refer to as an **active** sentence, as illustrated below, where My uncle is the agent (subject) and this house is the object:

e.g. My uncle built this house twenty years ago.

In an **active** sentence, the focus is on the agent, the person or thing that performs the action (my uncle), placed at the beginning of the sentence. If however we want to change the emphasis so that the sentence focuses on the person or thing affected or produced by the action, i.e.: the object in the sentence above (this house), we use a **passive** form to bring that element of the sentence to the beginning, so that the sentence becomes:

e.g. This house was built by my uncle twenty years ago.

The passive of an active tense is formed by putting the verb to be into the same tense as the active verb and adding the past participle of the active verb. The subject of the active verb becomes the 'agent' of the passive verb. The agent is very often not mentioned. When it is mentioned it is preceded by '**by**' and placed at the end of the clause.

The passive voice is (is/was/have been etc.) + the past participle (done/cleaned/seen etc.)

We use the passive voice:

1) The agent is common knowledge:

George Washington was elected in 1789. After serving two terms, he decided not to run again. A custom was established at that time to serve for no longer than two terms. It was not until President Roosevelt was elected to his third and fourth terms that this custom was changed.

2) The agent is unimportant:

Mount Vernon was built not far from Washington, DC on the Potomac River. Historians do not know exactly when the house was constructed; however, we do know that it was owned

by many generations of the Washington family before George lived there. Many sections were planned and added when the first president lived there.

3) The agent is unknown:

Most of our coins are minted in Philadelphia, but some are minted in Denver. Many minerals are used to make coins: copper, zinc, and silver. Pennies are made mostly of copper. Gold isn't used in coins any more, and dimes and quarters have no silver.

Task 1

Write out the following paragraphs, putting the verbs in brackets into the correct form. Then discuss your choices with a partner. Try to explain why you have chosen each form.

Entries in most encyclopedias (1)..... (contain) short articles on particular subjects and(2)..... (arrange) in alphabetical order from A to Z. Each entry(3)..... (write) by an expert on the subject with which it(4)..... (deal). The entry(5)..... (serve) as a useful introduction to the subject. Often the entry(6)..... (include) a short bibliography. Sometimes it(7)..... (cross-reference) to other related matter on the same subject in the encyclopedia. Most important of all, the information which an encyclopedia(8)..... (contain) always(9)..... (present) very clearly and concisely.

The author's initials usually(10)..... (print) at the end of the entry. However, the name of the author(11)..... (find) in most cases by(12)..... (look) at the list of contributors, usually at the beginning or end of the encyclopedia.

Perhaps the most widely known encyclopedia is the Encyclopedia Britannica, but an increasing number of good encyclopedias (13)..... (publish) in the past few years. Many encyclopedias (14).....(issue) a year book(15)..... (contain) short articles on events which(16)..... (take place) during the past twelve months.

Task 2

Rewrite this short paragraph, so that the words underlined become the focus.

Philip wrote the book early in 1989. The public liked it and it became a bestseller. His publishers asked Philip to write a sequel. They would publish the sequel a year later. All this frightened Philip. He didn't think he could work that fast and he had no ideas. But his wife thought it was a good idea. She encouraged him to sign the contract.

For example:

The book was written by Philip early in 1989.

Task 3: Dictogloss Man-The Enemy

Language points: Passive voice

1. Sit in groups and list wildlife you think may be in danger and the causes you think of for the danger.

You will find the following words in the text you are going to listen shortly.
Pre-text Vocabulary:

- Skin (n) the outer covering of an animal or human
- To endanger (v) to put at risk
- To hunt (v) to look for with the intention of killing

2. You will hear a short talk about Man-the Enemy. You will hear the talk twice. During the first talk, try to identify the overall idea. During the second talk take detail notes.

In groups compare your notes and then write the first draft individually.

3. Now, work in groups to write a final draft of the text. And then, you compare your text with the original.

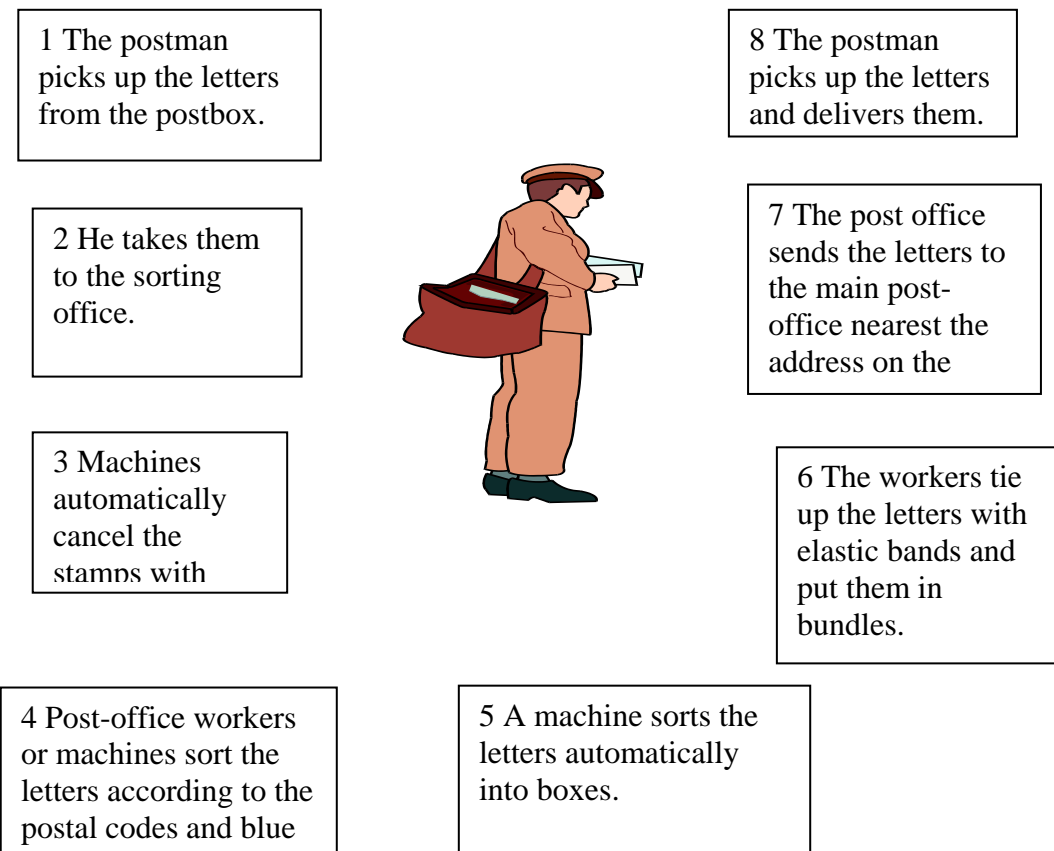
The text

Man is an enemy to many animals. The Walia ibex is hunted for food. Corcodile are tracked down and their skins are used for handbags and shoes. Elephants are destroyed for their ivory which is used for jewellery. Whales are hunted for their oil. Whole species are being endangered for fashion.

Task 4

Read this flow chart and complete the description below. Use the passive form of the present simple and any other words that are necessary. Discuss your answers in pairs.

Delivery of letters



First the letters are picked up from the postbox, and then they 1_____ 2_____ to the sorting office. Here the stamps 3_____ automatically 4_____ with blue dots and the date. The letters 5_____ then 6_____ either 7_____ post-office workers or by machines which read the blue dots or postal code. Next the letters 8_____ 9_____ automatically into boxes. They are then 10_____ with elastic bands and 11_____ into bundles. After that, they are 12_____ to the main post-offices nearest their destinations. Finally, they 13 _____ 14 _____ by the postman and 15 _____.

Lesson 5: Relative Clauses (who, which, that, whom, whose)

A relative clause is a part of a sentence beginning with a relative pronoun. In other words, a relative clause is a part of a sentence that describes a person or thing we are talking about and is connected to other clauses in the sentence via a ‘relative pronoun’, who, which or that. Sentences can be divided into parts called clauses.

How to Form Relative Clauses

Imagine, a girl is talking to Henok. You want to know who she is and ask a friend whether he knows her. You could say:

A girl is talking to Henok. Do you know the girl?

That sounds rather complicated, doesn’t it? It would be easier with a relative clause: you put both pieces of information into one sentence. Start with the most important thing – you want to know who the girl is.

Do you know the girl ...

As your friend cannot know which girl you are talking about, you need to put in the additional information – the girl is talking to Henok. Use the ‘girl’ only in the first part of the sentence, in the second part replace it with the relative pronoun (for people, use the relative pronoun ‘who’). So the final sentence is:

Do you know the girl **who** is talking to Henok?

There are two kinds of relative clauses: defining and non-defining relative clauses.

Defining relative clauses describe the preceding noun in such a way as to distinguish it from other nouns of the same class. A clause of this kind is essential to the clear understanding of the noun. Non-defining relative clauses are placed after nouns which are definite already. They do not therefore define the noun, but merely add something to it by giving some more information about it. Unlike, defining relative clauses, they are not essential in the sentence and can be omitted without causing confusing.

The following relative pronouns are used in defining and non-defining relative clauses:

	Person	Thing	Place	Time	Reason
Subject	who/that	which/that			
Object	who/whom/that/ø	which/that/ø	where	when	why
Possessive	whose	whose			

DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

As the name suggests, these clauses give essential information to define or identify the person or thing we are talking about. Obviously, this is only necessary if there is more than one person or thing involved. A defining relative clause gives essential information about the noun or noun phrase it modifies, without which the sentence wouldn't make sense as the listener or reader would not be able to identify the noun in the sentence. Commas are not used in defining relative clauses.

Note:

1. The relative pronoun stands in place of a noun.

This noun usually appears earlier in the sentence:

The woman	who/that	spoke at the meeting	was very knowledgeable
Noun, subject of main clause	relative pronoun referring to 'the woman', subject of 'spoke'	verb + rest of relative clause	verb + rest of main clause

NON-DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

The information in these clauses is not essential. It tells us more about someone or something, but it does not help us to identify them or it. For example, John's mother, **who lives in Addis Ababa**, has 6 grandchildren. (We know who John's mother is, and he only has one. The important information is the number of grandchildren, but the fact that she lives in Addis Ababa might be followed with the words 'by the way' - it is additional information).

Punctuation

Non-defining relative clauses are always separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. The commas have a similar function to brackets. For instance, My friend John has just written a best-selling novel. (He went to the same school as me) > My friend John, **who went to the same school as me**, has just written a best-selling novel.

In non-defining clauses, you cannot use *that* instead of *who*, *whom* or *which*.

Remember: Avoiding the use of relative clauses in your writing will limit you to simple structures which are unlikely to be adequate to express complex ideas and which will detract from the overall style of your writing.

Task 1

Choose from the list and put the correct relative pronouns in the blank spaces in the following sentences. Then re-write the paragraph about a bank robbery in your exercise books. Discuss your answers in pairs.

Who which whose

1. This is the bank _____ was robbed yesterday.
2. A boy _____ sister is in my class was in the bank at that time.
3. The man _____ robbed the bank had two pistols.
4. He wore a mask _____ made him look like Mickey Mouse.
5. He came with a friend _____ waited outside in the car.
6. The woman _____ gave him the money was young.
7. The bag _____ contained the money was yellow.
8. The people _____ were in the bank were very frightened.
9. A man _____ mobile was ringing did not know what to do.
10. A woman _____ daughter was crying tried to calm her.
11. The car _____ the bank robbers escaped in was orange.
12. The robber _____ mask was obviously too big didn't drive.
13. The man _____ drove the car was nervous.
14. He didn't wait at the traffic lights _____ were red.
15. A police officer _____ car was parked at the next corner stopped and arrested them.

Task 2

Choose from the list and put the correct relative pronouns in the blank spaces in the following paragraph. Then re-write the paragraph in your exercise books. Discuss your answers in pairs.

Which

That

Whom

Who

Once there was a man lived in a small hut. At night he went to bed and said good night to the cat.....lived with him. He loved the dog.....he had but the dog stayed outside in the garden.....belonged to the hut. The man thought about his daughter.....now lived in the next village. She was the daughter.....he loved best. But the man was poor and one day a rich man asked for the daughter.....was so quiet and strong. Now at night the man thought about his daughter.....he loved. The dreams.....he had been sweet but every

morning he felt cold and sad. He thought of his daughter.....went off with the rich man and he felt really poor in his heart.

Task 3

Insert the following words in the spaces provided in the text.

Which	whose	where
Who	whom	that

We decided to spend the weekend, 1).....was part of a long independence holiday, in a small hotel (2)... .. was in the hills (3)..... it would be cooler. We arrived late on Friday evening went straight to bed. On the Saturday morning, (4)... .. was again very warm and sunny, we went to a nearby pool,(5)... .. the hotel owner recommended. It was surrounded by rocks and seemed to be very private. Soon after we arrived, a lot of children came. They were followed by their mothers. The children, (6)... .. mothers were carrying large bundles of clothes, quickly undressed and jumped into the pool. Then their mothers threw them some large bottles. The bottles contained some soapy water (7)... .. the children poured over themselves. Then the mothers undid the bundles of clothes (8)... ..they had brought with them and started to wash them and scrub them on the rocks nearby. From being a place for a quite swim, the pool became a place,(9)... ..was both a bathroom and a laundry. The children were very happy, and laughed and shouted as they washed each other. The mothers sang quietly as they washed their clothes. We sat quietly at the edge of the pool. We didn't know what to do.

Task 4

- a) Exchange ideas with your partners a place you have visited.
- b) Make an outline using phrases and words rather than sentences.

Write a short paragraph like the one above about a place you know well or have visited.

Appendix- N

Teaching Material for the Main Study

Subject: English

Topic: Communicative Grammar and Writing Tasks for Grade 11

Lessons: 5

No	Lesson Title	Time	Active Learning Methods	Assessment Methods
1-3	Present Simple and Present Continuous Tense	12 hrs.	-brainstorming -individual /pair work -group discussion	-answer to questions -completion of tasks - write a description of a typical day in your life -feedback -write short paragraphs
4-6	Present Perfect tense and present Perfect Continuous Tense	10 hrs.	"	- answer to questions -complete a conversation -write a paragraph -write a letter -feedback -write an essay
7-9	Possessive pronouns and Reflexive Pronouns	10 hrs.		-completion of tasks -answer to questions -write a paragraph about a famous person -write an essay -feedback
10-11	The Passive Voice and the Active Voice	10 hrs.	"	-answer to questions -completion of tasks -write a paragraph -write an essay -feed back
12-14	Relative Clauses	10 hrs	"	-completion of tasks -answer to questions -write a paragraph -write an essay
15-16	Revision and Reflection	12 hrs	"	

LESSON PRO FORMA

INTRODUCTION

In Grades 9 and 10, you learnt different grammar items such as ‘infinitive’, ‘gerund’, ‘used to’, ‘conditional sentences’, ‘reported speech’, and ‘relative clause’ and so on. In this teaching material, you will learn a few communicative grammar items in the context of writing.

Thus, in this material the following language items are included: ‘simple present tense and present continuous tense’, ‘present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense’, ‘possessive pronouns and reflexive pronouns’, ‘the relative clauses’, ‘the passive and the active voice.’ Moreover, you would learn how to use the above grammar items in different paragraphs, letters, and essays.

Objectives: At the end of this module you should be able to:

- Use simple present tense and present continuous tense in writing dialogues and short paragraphs.
- Use present perfect tense and present perfect continuous tense in writing paragraphs, letters and essays.
- Use possessive pronouns and reflexive pronouns in writing letters and essays.
- Use the relative clauses in writing short paragraphs.
- Use the passive and the active voice in writing paragraphs, letters and essays.

Activities:

Speaking

- Explaining the rules of each grammar item
- Discussion on how to use the grammar items in paragraphs, letters and essays.

Reading

- reading sample paragraphs given
- reading texts given and completing tasks.

Writing

- Preparing outlines
- Writing paragraphs using notes.
- Writing well organized paragraphs.
- Writing from reading paragraphs
- Writing letters

- Writing essays

Mode of presentation: individual, pair and small group works.

Assessment

Peer assessment: you will cross check your writings at sentence, Paragraph, and essay levels with your partners.

Group evaluation: you will create outlines and write Paragraphs, letters and essays.

Teacher evaluation: written texts and assignments.

Assignments: you will write a number of paragraphs, letters and essays.

Resource: handout, blackboard, chalk.

Lesson 1: Present Continuous and Present Simple

Present Continuous

The present continuous tense (also called the present progressive tense) is commonly used in English for actions happening right now, or in the near future. In other words, we use the present continuous when the action is happening now (at the time of speaking). This lesson will explain the rules for forming the tense with regular verbs. This tense is formed using two components: the verb BE (in the present tense), and the -ING form of a verb.

e.g.: Please don't make so much noise. I am working. ('not I work.')

Let me go out now. It isn't raining any more. (not 'it doesn't rain.')

I'm tired. I'm going to bed now. Good night!

We use the present continuous when we talk about things happening in a period around now (for example/today/this week/this evening etc.)

e.g.: 'You're working hard today.' 'Yes I have a lot to do.' (not 'You work today.')

We use the present continuous when we talk about changes happening around now.

e.g.: The population of the world is rising very fast. (not 'rises')

Is your English getting better? (not 'Does your English get better?')

Study this example situation:

Almaz is in her car. She is on her way to work. She is driving to work.

This means: She is driving now at the time of speaking. The action is not finished.

Am/is/are-ing is the present continuous:

I am (=I'm)	driving
He/she/it is (=he's etc)	working
We/you/they are (=we're etc)	doing etc

We use present continuous tenses only for actions and happenings (they are eating/ it is raining etc.)

In English there are verbs that are not normally used in the Continuous Tense, because they describe rather state than an action. They are called **state verb (stative verbs, non-progressive verbs)**. **This means** some verbs (for example, know and like) are not action verbs. You cannot say "I am knowing" or "they are liking." You can only say "I know", "they like."

The following verbs are not normally used in continuous tenses:

like	love	want	need	prefer	behave
know	realize	suppose	mean	understand	remember
become	contain	consist	depend	seem	

e.g.: I'm hungry. I want something to eat. (not I'm wanting)
Do you understand what I mean?
When think means 'believe'; do not use the continuous
What do you think (believe) will happen?
(Not 'what are you thinking')

But we can say,

A: You look serious. What are you thinking about?

(= What is going on in your mind?)

B: I'm thinking of giving up my job. (=I am considering)

Simple Present Tense

My brother, Henok usually plays football on Saturday. He also likes to watch movies most of the time. However, my sisters study their lessons day and night. They advise Henok to be serious in his studies.

What is the grammatical structure used in this paragraph?

We use the present simple to talk about things in general. We are not thinking only about now. We use it to say that something happens all the time or repeatedly or that something is true in general. It is not important whether the action is happening at the time of speaking:
Nurses look after patients in hospitals.

I usually play football at weekends.

The earth goes round the sun.

Study this example situation:

Alex is a bus driver, but now he is in bed asleep, so: he is not driving a bus. (He is asleep,) but he drives a bus. (He is a bus driver.)

Drive(s) work(s)/do (es) etc. is the present simple:

I/we/you/they	drive/work/do etc.
He/she/it	drives/works/does etc.

We use the present simple when we say how often we do things:

e.g.: Almaz gets up at 8 o'clock every morning. (not I'm getting.)

Almaz doesn't drink tea very often.

In summer Almaz usually plays tennis once a week.

Study the explanations and compare the examples:

Present Continuous (I am doing)	Present Simple (I do)
Use the continuous for something that is happening at or around the time of speaking. The action is not finished.	Use the simple Present tense for things that happened repeatedly.
<p>The water is boiling. Can you turn it off?</p> <p>I'm going to bed now. Good night</p> <p>Use the continuous for a temporary situation:</p> <p>I'm living with some friends until I find a flat.</p>	<p>Water boils at 100 degrees celsius.</p> <p>I always go to bed before midnight.</p> <p>Use the simple present tense for a permanent situation:</p> <p>My parents live in Addis Ababa.</p> <p>They have lived there all their lives.</p>

Task 1

Complete the sentences by changing the verbs in brackets into present continuous or present simple. You may have to change the word order. Then discuss your answers with your partner.

Tourists (1) _____ (come) to Lalibela all the year round. They usually (2) _____ (respect) the feelings of the inhabitants and (3) _____ (not cause) problems. And of course they (4) _____ (bring) a lot of trade to the town. However the shopkeepers continually (5) _____ (complain) about them. They say they always (7) _____ (drop) litter and the children forever (8) _____ (come) into the shops eating and making a mess. This sometimes (9) _____ (make) me angry. Our shopkeepers (10) _____ (seem) to forget all the benefits they (11) _____ (get) from the tourists.

Task 2

Fill in the blanks in the following passages with the present form of the verb 'be' or 'have'. Then, discuss your answers in groups.

- a) Swans large birds-almost 4 feet tall. They long necks. Some swans very tame. They often come near people for food. Females usually about six babies which are called cygnets. Cygnets grey in colour and very small wings but when they are fully grown they large and strong wings and white in colour. Swans can live to be 40.
- b) Jean de Brunhoff wrote the first Babar book for children in 1931. Babar the name of the hero. He an elephant. He a friend called Zephir who a monkey. He also a cousin called Arthur and a wife called Celeste. Babar polite, friendly and reliable. He and the other elephants many adventures in the jungle and in the city called Celesteville. The Babar books have been translated from French into many languages. There now a cartoon series which is shown all over the world.

c) Water the most important compound on Earth. It can exist in three states- vapors, liquid and solid (ice). About 2½ per cent of the Earth’s water in glaciers. Most of the rest liquid.

d) Electricity the most useful form of energy. It easy to produce; it easy to transmit over long distances; it clean and no smell. Above all it very convenient.

Task 3

Fill in the blanks in the following passages with is/are or has/have. Then discuss your answers with your partner.

Nuts a dried fruit in a shell and full of goodness – protein and vitamins. They a high fibre content. Almonds a high calcium content. They also full of protein. They many uses in cooking and can also be eaten raw. Brazil nuts full of zinc, protein and vitamin B1. They very hard shells. Cashews not nuts. They Legumes, like peanuts. They a delicate flavour and delicious cooked with fish and rice dishes. Peanuts the best known and most widely eaten nuts in the world but they not actually nuts at all. They very high in protein and the eight essential amino acids. Peanuts also high in calories.

Task 4 Dictogloss

Language points: Present simple tense and contractions

- 1. Sit in pairs and ask each pair to find out your partner’s names, where he/she comes from, how long he/she has been here, his/her age, whether he/she is married, and whether she/he likes studying Germany.**

You will find the following words in the text you are going to listen shortly.

Pre-text Vocabulary:

Single (adj.) not married

To share (a house with) (v) to live with other people

- a) You will hear a short talk about Yonas who lives in Germany. You will hear the talk twice. During the first talk, try to identify the overall idea. During the second talk take detail notes.

- b) In groups compare your notes and then write the first draft individually.

2. Now, work in groups to write a final draft of the text. And then, you compare your text with the original.

The text

I'm Yonas and I come from Ethiopia. I've been in this country for three years and I really like being here. I'm twenty years old and I'm single. I share a house with two other boys. I am a student and I really like learning Germany.

Task 5 Writing short paragraphs using the facts and figures given below.

1. Study carefully the following facts and figures together with the model paragraph constructed from the given facts and figures.

Hungary

-between Austria and Rumania

-to the north of Czechoslovakia

-and Yugoslavia to the south

-population—10,200,000 people

-capital –Budapest—on the river Danube—population—1,900,000

Model paragraph constructed from the above facts and figures

Hungary is located between Austria and Rumania. Czechoslovakia is to the north and Yugoslavia is to the south. It has a population of about 10,200,000 people. Budapest is the

Writing from Reading

A Typical day in my life

Read the following text and do the tasks that follow.

My day usually begins at 6:30 a.m. I get up and do some exercises for about fifteen minutes. Then I take a shower. After shower I get dressed and have breakfast with my family. I usually have a light breakfast, consisting of toast and coffee. At seven thirty I leave for school.

I generally take the bus to school. I catch the bus near my house and then walk from the bus stop to school. It takes about thirty minutes to get from my home to school. My first class is at eight thirty and I usually finish school at three. Sometimes I stay late to play a game of volleyball or to work in the library.

I usually reach home at around four o'clock. When I get home I like to watch TV for a while. Then I start my homework. I have dinner at seven o'clock. After that I often have more work to do. Sometimes I watch TV or go out with friends. I generally go to bed around ten thirty.

Task 6

Write a description of a typical day in your life using the passage above as a model. Mention the following:

- getting up from bed
- things you do before breakfast
- breakfast
- leaving for work or school
- arriving at work or school
- how long your work or school day is
- when you get home after school
- what you do when you reach home
- before dinner
- after dinner
- going to bed

e.g.: You're out of breath. Have you been running?

(You're out of breath now)

Dawit is very tired. He's been working very hard.

(He's tired now.)

Study this example situation

A: Is it raining?

B: No, but the ground is wet

A: It has been raining.

Present Perfect Tense

We use the present perfect (have been /have traveled etc) when we talk about a period of time that continues from the past until now.

Study this conversation between Dawit and Almaz

Dawit: Have you traveled a lot, Almaz?

Almaz: Yes, I've been to lots of places.

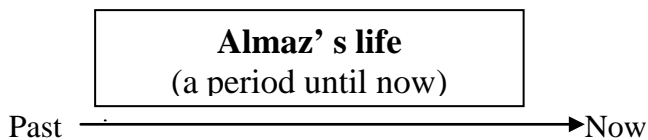
Dawit: Really? Have you ever been to China?

Almaz: Yes, I've been to China twice.

Dawit: What about India?

Almaz: No, I haven't been to India.

Here, Dawit and Almaz are talking about the places Almaz has visited in her life (which is a period that continues until now).



We use the present perfect with today / this morning / this evening etc./ when these periods are not finished at the time of speaking.

e.g.: I have drunk four cups of coffee today. (It is now lunch time. Perhaps I'll drink more before today is finished)

I haven't seen Dawit this morning, have you?

Present Perfect Continuous and Present Perfect Tense

We can use both the present perfect simple and the present perfect continuous to speak about situations that started in the past and are still continuing and also about situations that have just finished and affect the present. The difference between the two tenses in both these situations is one of focus.

If we say:

I've been writing letters all morning.

We are focusing on the action of writing itself, and thinking of it as an extended activity that may not have finished yet.

If we say:

I've written six letters this morning.

We are focusing on the idea that the six letters have already been completed.

Another difference is that we use the present perfect continuous to speak about more temporary situations and actions, and the present perfect simple to speak about more permanent situations and actions.

e.g. The television has been playing up lately.

That television has never worked, as far as I can remember

TASK 1

Put the correct present perfect form of the verbs in brackets in the blanks in the following passages. Then compare your answers with those of your group members.

- a) Spain and its people (make) a lasting impression on me. I went there as a young journalist 70 years ago and stayed for two years. Since then I.....(return) often. I..... (never forget) my first sight of the plateau of Castille and the mountains that cross it. I.....(be) to every part of the country and(visit) every large city in the country. Since I first fell in love with the country in 1920. I (be) a regular visitor and I(never be) disappointed.
- b) Robert Zimmerman changed his name to Bob Dylan but he.....(also call) himself Tedham Porterhouse, Elmer Johnson, Robert Milkwood and Blind Boy Grunt. He(receive) a doctorate from Princeton University and.....(become) a commander of Arts and Letters in France. Many colleges.....(start) Dylan Studies course. He.....(make) three films and.....(travel) all over the world.
- c) Tropical reef.....(exist) for more than 500 million years. Because lands that once lay in the tropics.....(drift) with time, ancient reefs are often found in regions that are temperate to day. In more recent times, changes in sea level(affect). The (be) at its present level only in the past 5000 years. Fifteen thousand years ago, the sea was 120 meters lower than it is today.

Task 2

The explorer Tessema Lemma, is living in the Balle jungle. A television team is interviewing him. Complete the conversation. Use the present perfect simple and the present perfect continuous.

Interviewer: Tessema , what are you doing here in the jungle?

Tessema: I'm studying the birds, animals, insects ...

Interviewer: I see. And how long (you live) have you been living here?

Tessema: Three months, I think. Yes, nearly three months.

Interviewer: And 1 (you live) _____ in that tree-house all that time?

Tessema: Yes, I have.

Interviewer: And 2 (you look) _____ for any apECIAL kind of bird, insect or animal?

Tessema: Yes, I 3 (try) _____ to find the giant Peruvian bat-parrot. I 4 (search) _____ the whole area three times.

Interviewer: And you 5 (not catch) _____ one yet?

Tessema: No, I 6 (not even see) _____ one.

I 7 (find) _____ three rare monkeys, two new snakes and an enormous spider ... but I 8 (not find) _____ a giant bat-parrot.

Interviewer: Well, Mr.Tessema -I think this is your lucky day! Look out!

Task 3: Dictogloss: Smoking

Language points: Present perfect tense

3. Sit in groups and discuss the dangers of smoking.

You will find the following words in the text you are going to listen shortly.

Pre-text Vocabulary:

Risk (n) danger

To be aware of (v) to know about

To ban (v) to prohibit

Passive (adj.) not active

4. You will hear a short talk about smoking. You will hear the talk twice. During the first talk, try to identify the overall idea. During the second talk take detail notes.

5. In groups compare your notes and then write the first draft individually.

6. Now, work in groups to write a final draft of the text. And then, you compare your text with the original.

The text

For a long time, people have known about the dangers of smoking. Recently, they have become aware of the risk of passive smoking. Passive smokers do not smoke but share their air space with smokers. As a result, Government Departments have banned smoking in the work place.

Present perfect tense with ‘for’ and ‘since’

Since is used for a point in time. This means that since is used ‘from that time to the time referred to’. It is often used with a present perfect tense or past perfect tense.

e.g.: He has been here since Monday. (from Monday till now)

He wondered where Almaz was. He had not seen her since their quarrel.

Since can also be an adverb.

e.g.: He left school since 1983.

Since can also be a conjunction of time.

e.g.: He has worked for us ever since he left school.

It is two years since I last saw Kebede= I last saw Kebede
two years ago/ I haven’t seen kebede for two years.

For is used for a period of time: for six years, for two months, for ever.

e.g.: Bake it for two hours.

He traveled in the desert for six months.

For + a period of time can be used with a present perfect tense or past perfect tense for an action which extends up to the time of speaking:

e.g.: He has worked here for a year. (He began working here a year ago and still works here.)

For used in this way is replaceable by **since** with the point in time when the action began:

e.g.: He has worked here since this time last year.

Task 3

Put in 'for' or 'since'. Then discuss your choices with a partner.

A: How long has it been raining?

B: It's been raining..... Lunch time.

A: How long has your father been doing the same job? He is a teacher, isn't he?

B: Yes he is. He has been teaching.....20 years.

A: How long have you been learning English?

B: I've been learning English.....a long time?

A: How long has Sara lived in London?

B: She's lived in London.....1985.

A: How long has Kebede been looking for a job?

B: He has been looking for a job.....he left school.

Task 4

Yohannes borrows things from his friends, but he forgets to give them back. He still has all these things. How long has he had them?

e.g.: keep Bezawit's record - three weeks.

He has kept Bezawit's record for three weeks.

1. have Daniel's pen – 2 months ,

2 .borrow Yonas's cassette player – 6 weeks

3.keep Henok's cassettes- 4 weeks.

4.have Emebet's computer game – a month.

5 .borrow Solomon's tennis racket – 3 months

6. keep Wossen's camera _ 5 weeks.

7. have Dereje's Chess – six months

8. borrow Workneh's English dictionary-3weeks

Present perfect +since (a point in time)

Task 5

Complete these Conversations. Then discuss your answers with a partner.

e.g.: Johnny /live in Addis Ababa –1940

A: How long has Johnny lived in Addis Ababa?

B: He has lived in Addis Ababa since 1940.

1. Kenny Denton | play for Liver poor - 1982

A _____

B _____

2. Micky | be a boxer – 19 84.

A _____

B _____

6. Workneh | play in New York symphony Orchestra –August.

A _____

B _____

7. Yordanos / have a broken nose _ last summer.

A _____

B _____

8. Gebre Egziabher / hold the world Championship – 1987.

A _____

B _____

Task 6: Yowebdar and her husband Sisay are on holiday in Langano. They arrived on the 1st August. Use Yewbdar's notes to Complete her letter to her friend Mekdes.

1. The rain (not stop) – for six days
2. We (stay) in the hotel – the day we came
3. Sisay (feel) sick _ three days
4. He (not eat) – two days
5. I (have) a cold – Thursday
6. We (not understand).

e.g.: We (be) on Langano _ Tuesday

We have been in Langano since Tuesday.

Now write to someone you know closely in this class and ask him/her if you can have lunch/dinner together. In your note to him write your name/date/your address/where you would like to have lunch.

Read the following letter and do the tasks that follow.

Writing from Reading
Applying for a job

Mozart Strasse,25
Vienna
Austria

The Staff Manager
Continental Tours Ltd
6 Dover Street
London W1

Dear sir,

I am an Austrian student, and am seeking some interesting form of employment for the summer vacation this year, and I have been advised to write to you to offer my service as a guide to British tourists visiting Europe.

Briefly, my relevant experience and qualifications are as follows: I have studied English for ten years, first at school and since that at Vienna University. I have visited Britain several times, and in 1979 I spent ten weeks in the United States. My experience of speaking English is therefore quite considered. I have also traveled extensively within Europe and have a good working knowledge of French and Italian in addition to my native language, German. My studies have included the history of Europe Art and Architecture as well as the languages I have just mentioned.

I have worked as a tourist guide on two previous occasions and I am familiar with the nature of the work. I have had to deal with many of the various problems and difficult situations that can arise during a tour- mistake in hotel booking, lost passports, illness, etc. Last year, I accompanied a party of American on a tour of Italy, and a month ago I acted as guide to a group of Irish businessman visiting Vienna. I have always found this kind of work interesting and enjoyable and have had a good relationship with the clients who have been in my care.

I look forward to hearing from you. Needless to say, I will be glad to supply you with any further information you may need, including references from my previous employers

Yours faithfully
Antony Mayerhofer

You can use a **reflexive pronoun** to refer back to the subject of the clause or sentence.

The reflexive pronouns are ‘myself,’ ‘yourself,’ ‘herself,’ ‘himself,’ ‘itself,’ ‘ourselves,’ ‘yourselves,’ and ‘themselves.’ Personal pronouns have different form for subject, object and possessive forms. The chart below sets out the different forms:

Subject	Object	Possessive
I	Me	Mine
You	You	Yours
He	Him	His
She	Her	Hers
It	It	Its
We	Us	Ours
They	Them	Theirs

Note: possessive pronouns my, your, his, her, its, our, their which come before a noun are possessive determiners/or adjectives.

Reflexive Pronouns

Myself/yourself/themselves etc.

Study this example:

Kebede cut himself when he was shaving this morning.

We use myself/yourself/themselves etc. (reflexive pronouns) when the subjects and objects are the same:

Subject Kebede cut himself. ←object

The reflexive pronouns are:

Singular: myself/ yourself (one person) himself/herself/itself

Plural: ourselves/ yourselves (more than one Person) themselves

e.g.: I don't want you to pay for me. I'll pay for myself.(not I'll pay for me')

Hanna had a great holiday. She enjoyed herself very much.

Task 1

Complete the answers to the questions in the dialogue using myself/yourself /itself etc. Then discuss your answers with your partner.

4. A. Who repaired the bicycle for you?

B. Nobody. I repaired it myself.

5. A: Did Girma have his hair cut by a hairdresser?

B: No. He cut _____

3. A: Do you want me to post that letter for you?

B: No, I'll _____

4. A: Who told you that Almaz was getting married?

B: Almaz _____

5. A: Can you phone John for me?

B: Why can't you _____?

Task 2

Fill in the blanks in the following passages with my, you, her, his, its, one's, our or their. Then discuss your choices with a partner. Try to explain why you have chosen.

- a. Some years ago two experts decided to print design on.....phone cards. The result is craze for.....cards and some rare ones are now worth up to 3000 dollars.
- b. Rudolf Nureyev was born on a Trans-Siberian Railway train near Irkutsk, USSR, on the 17 March 1938.mother was on 14-day train trip back from visiting.....husband in the army.Passport records..... place of birth as station Razdolnaia.family was very poor and some of the stories he told of.....childhood are very sad. Nureyev Margot Fonteyn hold the record for curtain calls-there were 89 after.....performance of 'Swain Lake' in Vienna in October 1964.
- c. Most moving things stop when they run out of energy: runners stop when.....bodies are tired and a car stops when.....petrol tank is empty.
- d. Good teachers use.....knowledge and experience as a tool to help.....students learn well. They are interested in students and find ways to guidelearning. They are not afraid to say there are gaps in..... knowledge but they never stop trying to fill in the gaps.

Task 3

Find out some facts about an interesting person you know or about a famous person in your country. Then write a short biography about this person and his or her friends and family.

Read the following to help you as an example.

My best teacher was an English teacher who was more interested in her subject than she was in her students. We always knew that our needs were not very important and that she was not very worried about whether we could pass our exams or not. But her interest in English was so great that she made all of us share in her study of English and its development. Few students joined her classes but this made our very small group more interesting and very hardworking. One thing about this teacher that increased our fascination was that her eyes were different colours. One was blue, and the other was half green and half yellow.

Write your first draft. Then exchange it with your friend to comment on. Work together to discuss the strengths and weakness of your paragraph.

Lesson 4: The Passive Voice and the Active Voice (is done/was done)

Actions described by verbs in English typically involve two people or things: the person or thing that performs the action (sometimes referred to as the agent), and the person or thing that is affected or produced by the action of the verb.

In English the agent is often put at the beginning of a sentence or clause, in subject position. The person or thing affected or produced then forms the object of the verb. This is what we refer to as an **active** sentence, as illustrated below, where My uncle is the agent (subject) and this house is the object:

e.g. My uncle built this house twenty years ago.

In an **active** sentence, the focus is on the agent, the person or thing that performs the action (my uncle), placed at the beginning of the sentence. If however we want to change the emphasis so that the sentence focuses on the person or thing affected or produced by the action, i.e.: the object in the sentence above (this house), we use a **passive** form to bring that element of the sentence to the beginning, so that the sentence becomes:

e.g. This house was built by my uncle twenty years ago.

The passive of an active tense is formed by putting the verb to be into the same tense as the active verb and adding the past participle of the active verb. The subject of the active verb becomes the 'agent' of the passive verb. The agent is very often not mentioned. When it is mentioned it is preceded by '**by**' and placed at the end of the clause.

The passive voice is (is/was/have been etc.) + the past participle (done/cleaned/seen etc.)

We use the passive voice:

1) The agent is common knowledge:

George Washington was elected in 1789. After serving two terms, he decided not to run again. A custom was established at that time to serve for no longer than two terms. It was not until President Roosevelt was elected to his third and fourth terms that this custom was changed.

2) The agent is unimportant:

Mount Vernon was built not far from Washington, DC on the Potomac River. Historians do not know exactly when the house was constructed; however, we do know that it was owned by many generations of the Washington family before George lived there. Many sections were planned and added when the first president lived there.

3) The agent is unknown:

Most of our coins are minted in Philadelphia, but some are minted in Denver. Many minerals are used to make coins: copper, zinc, and silver. Pennies are made mostly of copper. Gold isn't used in coins any more, and dimes and quarters have no silver.

Task 1

Write out the following paragraphs, putting the verbs in brackets into the correct form. Then discuss your choices with a partner. Try to explain why you have chosen each form.

Entries in most encyclopedias (1)..... (contain) short articles on particular subjects and(2)..... (arrange) in alphabetical order from A to Z. Each entry(3)..... (write) by an expert on the subject with which it(4)..... (deal). The entry(5)..... (serve) as a useful introduction to the subject. Often the entry(6)..... (include) a short bibliography. Sometimes it(7)..... (cross-reference) to other related matter on the same subject in the encyclopedia. Most important of all, the information which an encyclopedia(8)..... (contain) always(9)..... (present) very clearly and concisely.

The author's initials usually(10)..... (print) at the end of the entry. However, the name of the author(11)..... (find) in most cases by(12)..... (look) at the list of contributors, usually at the beginning or end of the encyclopedia.

Perhaps the most widely known encyclopedia is the Encyclopedia Britannica, but an increasing number of good encyclopedias (13)..... (publish) in the past few years. Many encyclopedias (14).....(issue) a year book(15)..... (contain) short articles on events which(16)..... (take place) during the past twelve months.

Task 2

Rewrite this short paragraph, so that the words underlined become the focus.

Philip wrote the book early in 1989. The public liked it and it became a bestseller. His publishers asked Philip to write a sequel. They would publish the sequel a year later. All this frightened Philip. He didn't think he could work that fast and he had no ideas. But his wife thought it was a good idea. She encouraged him to sign the contract.

For example:

The book was written by Philip early in 1989.

Task 3: Dictogloss Man-The Enemy

Language points: Passive voice

- 1. Sit in groups and list wildlife you think may be in danger and the causes you think of for the danger.**
-
-

You will find the following words in the text you are going to listen shortly.
Pre-text Vocabulary:

Skin (n) the outer covering of an animal or human
To endanger (v) to put at risk
To hunt (v) to look for with the intention of killing

- 2. You will hear a short talk about Man-the Enemy. You will hear the talk twice. During the first talk, try to identify the overall idea. During the second talk take detail notes.**
-

- 3. In groups compare your notes and then write the first draft individually.**
-
-
-

- 4. Now, work in groups to write a final draft of the text. And then, you compare your text with the original.**
-
-
-
-
-
-
-
-
-
-

The text

Man is an enemy to many animals. The Walia ibex is hunted for food. Corocodile are tracked down and their skins are used for handbags and shoes. Elephants are destroyed for their ivory which is used for jewellery. Whales are hunted for their oil. Whole species are being endangered for fashion.

Task 4

Think of things that involve different processes such as coffee/tea making.

1. What things are needed to make coffee/tea?
2. In what order are they needed/ Which of them should be made available first?

For example:

First, coffee beans are bought

Then,-----

After that-----

Next,-----

Discuss your answers in groups and agree on the order you think is appropriate.

- a. For coffee making
- b. For tea making

Task 5

Have you ever seen the modern process of milk production? Discuss your answers with friends.

Activity 1

The following words summarize the various steps in the modern process of milk production. Look at these words and then do the exercises below using the passive voice.

The word pasteurize means: to heat a liquid (especially milk) in a certain way in order to destroy germs.

- | | | | | |
|---------------|------------|-----------|---------|-------------|
| 1. produce | 2. deliver | 3. weigh | 4. test | 5. separate |
| 6. pasteurize | 7. cool | 8. bottle | 9. pack | 10. deliver |

Use these words to complete the following sentences. The first one has been done for you as an example.

1. Milk is produced on dairy farms.
2. The milk _____ to a factory by a tanker.
3. At the factory, the milk _____.
4. The milk _____.
5. The milk _____ into cream and milk.
6. The milk _____ at a temperature of 65^oc.
7. The milk _____.
8. The milk _____.
9. The milk _____ into crates.
10. The milk _____ to customers.

Now compare your answers with a partner. Then plan and write a paragraph of about 150 words on the modern process of milk production.

Lesson 5: Relative Clauses (who, which, that, whom, whose)

A relative clause is a part of a sentence beginning with a relative pronoun. In other words, a relative clause is a part of a sentence that describes a person or thing we are talking about and is connected to other clauses in the sentence via a 'relative pronoun', who, which or that. Sentences can be divided into parts called clauses.

How to Form Relative Clauses

Imagine, a girl is talking to Henok. You want to know who she is and ask a friend whether he knows her. You could say:

A girl is talking to Henok. Do you know the girl?

That sounds rather complicated, doesn't it? It would be easier with a relative clause: you put both pieces of information into one sentence. Start with the most important thing – you want to know who the girl is.

Do you know the girl ...

As your friend cannot know which girl you are talking about, you need to put in the additional information – the girl is talking to Henok. Use the 'girl' only in the first part of the sentence, in the second part replace it with the relative pronoun (for people, use the relative pronoun 'who'). So the final sentence is:

Do you know the girl **who** is talking to Henok?

There are two kinds of relative clauses: defining and non-defining relative clauses.

Defining relative clauses describe the preceding noun in such a way as to distinguish it from other nouns of the same class. A clause of this kind is essential to the clear understanding of the noun. Non-defining relative clauses are placed after nouns which are definite already. They do not therefore define the noun, but merely add something to it by giving some more information about it. Unlike, defining relative clauses, they are not essential in the sentence and can be omitted without causing confusing.

The following relative pronouns are used in defining and non-defining relative clauses:

	Person	Thing	Place	Time	Reason
Subject	who/that	which/that			
Object	who/whom/that/ø	which/that/ø	where	When	why
Possessive	whose	whose			

DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

As the name suggests, these clauses give essential information to define or identify the person or thing we are talking about. Obviously, this is only necessary if there is more than one person or thing involved. A defining relative clause gives essential information about the noun or noun phrase it modifies, without which the sentence wouldn't make sense as the

listener or reader would not be able to identify the noun in the sentence. Commas are not used in defining relative clauses.

Note:

1. The relative pronoun stands in place of a noun.

This noun usually appears earlier in the sentence:

The woman	who/that	spoke at the meeting	was very knowledgeable
Noun, subject of main clause	relative pronoun referring to 'the woman', subject of 'spoke'	verb + rest of relative clause	verb + rest of main clause

NON-DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

The information in these clauses is not essential. It tells us more about someone or something, but it does not help us to identify them or it.

e.g. John's mother, **who lives in Addis Ababa**, has 6 grandchildren. (We know who John's mother is, and he only has one. The important information is the number of grandchildren, but the fact that she lives in Addis Ababa might be followed with the words 'by the way' - it is additional information).

Punctuation

Non-defining relative clauses are always separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. The commas have a similar function to brackets.

e.g. My friend John has just written a best-selling novel. (He went to the same school as me) > My friend John, **who went to the same school as me**, has just written a best-selling novel.

In non-defining clauses, you cannot use 'that' instead of *who*, *whom* or *which*.

Remember: Avoiding the use of relative clauses in your writing will limit you to simple structures which are unlikely to be adequate to express complex ideas and which will detract from the overall style of your writing.

Task 1

Choose from the list and put the correct relative pronouns in the blank spaces in the following sentences. Then re-write the paragraph about a bank robbery in your exercise books. Discuss your answers in pairs.

Who which whose

1. This is the bank _____ was robbed yesterday.
2. A boy _____ sister is in my class was in the bank at that time.
3. The man _____ robbed the bank had two pistols.
4. He wore a mask _____ made him look like Mickey Mouse.
5. He came with a friend _____ waited outside in the car.
6. The woman _____ gave him the money was young.
7. The bag _____ contained the money was yellow.
8. The people _____ were in the bank were very frightened.
9. A man _____ mobile was ringing did not know what to do.
10. A woman _____ daughter was crying tried to calm her.
11. The car _____ the bank robbers escaped in was orange.
12. The robber _____ mask was obviously too big didn't drive.
13. The man _____ drove the car was nervous.
14. He didn't wait at the traffic lights _____ were red.
15. A police officer _____ car was parked at the next corner stopped and arrested them.

Task 2

Choose from the list and put the correct relative pronouns in the blank spaces in the following paragraph. Then re-write the paragraph in your exercise books. Discuss your answers in pairs.

Which

That

Whom

Who

Once there was a man lived in a small hut. At night he went to bed and said good night to the cat.....lived with him. He loved the dog.....he had but the dog stayed outside in the garden.....belonged to the hut. The man thought about his daughter.....now lived in the next village. She was the daughter.....he loved best. But the man was poor and one day a rich man asked for the daughter.....was so quiet and strong. Now at night the man thought about his daughter.....he loved. The dreams.....he had been sweet but every morning he felt cold and sad. He thought of his daughter.....went off with the rich man and he felt really poor in his heart.

Task 3

Insert the following words in the spaces provided in the text.

Which
Who

whose
whom

where
that

We decided to spend the weekend, 1).....was part of a long independence holiday, in a small hotel (2)... .. was in the hills (3)..... it would be cooler. We arrived late on Friday evening went straight to bed. On the Saturday morning, (4)... .. was again very warm and sunny, we went to a nearby pool,(5)... .. the hotel owner recommended. It was surrounded by rocks and seemed to be very private. Soon after we arrived, a lot of children came. They were followed by their mothers. The children, (6)... .. mothers were carrying large bundles of clothes, quickly undressed and jumped into the pool. Then their mothers threw them some large bottles. The bottles contained some soapy water (7)... .. the children poured over themselves. Then the mothers undid the bundles of clothes (8)... ..they had brought with them and started to wash them and scrub them on the rocks nearby. From being a place for a quite swim, the pool became a place,(9)... ..was both a bathroom and a laundry. The children were very happy, and laughed and shouted as they washed each other. The mothers sang quietly as they washed their clothes. We sat quietly at the edge of the pool. We didn't know what to do.

Task 4: A person you know very well

Activity 1

- a) How much do you know about the student who is sitting next to you now?
 - His/her name?
 - His appearance, height/weight?
 - His favorite school subject?
 - His mother-working? What is her job?
 - His father-working? What is his job?
- b) What you like most about him/her?
- c) What you like him to improve in the future?

Activity 2

- 1) Make a list of points you would like other people to know about yourself/
 - a) your family member (sister, mother, father etc)
 - b) About your friends in elementary school
 - c) About your present friends here

- 2) Which of the points you listed above would like students next to you to know?

- 3) Write a paragraph about a person that you know very well.

- 4) Which of the people you discussed earlier, do you admire most?

- 5) Write a paragraph to explain why you admire the person you choose above.

- 6) Do you have any person you admire in your country? (like Haile G/Silassie, Derartu Tulu)? Plan and write a three paragraph essay about the person you admire most in Ethiopia.

Task 5

Activity 1

1. Do you have friends from other schools?
2. Do they know about your school?
3. Make a list of things you would like them to know about your school. Include points like-location, beauty of the school compound etc.

Discuss your points with your friends.

4. Now plan and write a paragraph about your school.

Activity 2

- a) Exchange ideas with your partners a place you have visited.
- b) Make an outline using phrases and words rather than sentences.

Write a short paragraph like the one above about a place you know well or have visited.

Activity 3: Free Writing

- a) **The place that I have visited: write whatever thoughts enter to your head and write a paragraph of 150 words about the place that you have visited.**

Appendix- O

Teaching Material for the Control Group (Grade 11 English Textbook: Book 1 and Book 2)

Grammar Revision

1. The Present Simple and Present Continuous Tense

Exercise 1

Write the correct form of the words in brackets. There is no need to write out the whole sentence.

1. They (collect) water from the river every morning.
2. He (always get up) while it is still dark.
3. What (Mulu do)? She (wash) her hair. She (wash) it twice a week.
4. In a power station steam (drive) a turbine which is attached to electricity generator.
5. As air (move) it (carry) heat and moisture around the earth.
6. My aunt and uncle (not have) any sons but they (have) five daughters.
7. Listen! The baby cry. Most babies cry when they are hungry.
8. Colds are caused by virus that (attack) your nose and throat.
9. When electricity is passed through water, hydrogen gas (form) at the cathode and oxygen at the anode.
10. You are always in school when the bell rings. (You come) by bus?

Exercise 2

Write the correct form of the words in brackets. There is no need to write out the whole sentence.

1. My brother (go) to the university next year. He (want) to study chemistry.
2. (You like) coffee? No, I (prefer) tea.
3. Tamrat has worked very hard this semester. He (deserve) to pass the exam.
4. He (hate) getting up in the morning.
5. I often see you walking home with Ali. (He live) near you?
6. "Do you think Yohannes will come tomorrow?" "I (doubt) it. I (think) he (go) to the football match."
7. They (listen) to the radio every evening.
8. What (you look) at?
9. "How is your cold?" "Oh, it (get) better thank you."
10. Be quite! I (try) to finish my homework.

The present simple tense is used for

1. General truths

These are things that are always or generally true.

The sun rises in the east.

We come to school five days a week.

She doesn't speak French.

- ❖ It is wrong to use the present continuous tense in these sentences.

Exercise 3

Write the correct form of the words in brackets. There is no need to write out the whole sentence.

1. She usually (wear) a sweater when she (go) to school.
2. Some birds (travel) thousands of kilometers when they (migrate).
3. He never (work) on Sundays.
4. They (not eat) meat when they are fasting.
5. (He always arrive) late?
6. An ionic bond (happen) when an atom (lose) or (gain) one or more electrons from its outer shell.

2. Verbs that are not normally used in a continuous form

These verbs are sometimes called 'state verbs'. They include:

a) Verbs of the senses

For example: hear, see, smell, taste, notice, recognise
We see with our eyes.
This food tastes nice.
Do you recognize anyone here?

b) Verbs of thinking

For example: think, know, believe, understand, agree, remember, forget, mean, hope
He thinks he is very clever.
My dog understands everything I say to him.
I forget what she asked me to do.

c) Verbs of liking and disliking

For example: like, dislike, prefer, love, detest, hate
I like your new dress, but I prefer the one you were wearing yesterday.

d) Verbs of wanting

For example: want, wish, desire, need, require
He wants us to go to his party.
The flowers need watering.

e) Verbs of belonging

For example: belong to, own, have, possess, contain, consist of, include
This book belongs to my sister.
Do you have any money? Yes, I have ten birr.

f) Other state verbs include: refuse, mean, deserve, depend, cost, owe, sound, seem

Exercise 4

Write the correct form of the words in brackets. There is no need to write out the whole sentence.

1. That food (smell) nice.
2. I (notice) you are wearing your new shoes.
3. (You know) where Bogale (live).
4. She's very beautiful. Yes, I (agree).
5. He (hate) the smell of tobacco smoke.
6. I (wish) you wouldn't do that.
7. This box (contain) all the money I (possess).
8. My uncle (own) a pastry shop.
9. This matter (require) your urgent attention.
10. The bicycle (cost) too much. I can't afford it.

The present continuous tense is used for

1. Actions that are happening now

What are they doing? They are waiting for the bus to arrive.

Look! The bus is coming now.

- ❖ It is wrong to use the present simple tense in these sentences.

2. Actions in progress but not necessarily happening now.

I am reading 'Things Fall Apart' by Chinua Achebe.

She is making arrangements for her wedding.

3. Planned actions in the future

They are getting married in December.

I am visiting Kenya next month.

Exercise 5

Write the correct form of the words in brackets. There is no need to write out the whole sentence.

1. "What (you do)?" "I'm (write) a letter to my pen-friend"
2. I like the dress that Kidist (wear).
3. Because of global warming, the Earth's climate (get) warmer.
4. We (study) the Second World War in our history lessons.
5. "What (you do) on Sunday?" "I (go) to visit my grandparents."
6. "Shall we go to the market tomorrow?" "Sorry, I (take) my brother to see the doctor."

Exercise 6

Using the present simple or the present continuous tenses, write the correct form of the words in brackets. There is no need to write out the whole sentence.

Dear Margarete,

Thank you very much for your letter. I was sorry to hear that you have been ill but I'm glad that you (1. get) better.

I am very well and I (2. work) very hard at school. I (3. study) for the tests which we usually (4. sit) in the middle of each semester. I have been very lazy recently so I (5. not deserve) to do well. This will disappoint my father as he (6. always expect) me to get high marks. He (7. think) I am a genius. I (8. realize) now that I should spend more time studying at home. Instead I (9. go) out walking with my friends every evening. My father (10. say) this is a waste of time.

What (11. you do) in the evenings? (12. you like) any particular sport? We (13. not have) any sports activities in our village but some of us (14. try) to start a sports club. However, we (15. need) the support of the kebele. We (16. go) to ask the committee to help us. I (17. hope) they will agree.

I must stop now as my father (18. remind) me to do my homework. Please write soon.
Yours sincerely,

2. The Present Perfect and Present Perfect Continuous Tenses

Exercise 1

Write the correct form of the words in brackets using 'have' or 'has'. There is no need to write out the whole sentence.

1. Mulu and Markos (pass) their exams.
2. Our teacher (just return) to school. He (have) a bad cold.
3. I (already spend) the money you lent me.
4. Our dog (kill) one of our neighbor's chickens.
5. My uncle (recently buy) a new car.
6. They (not visit) us for over a month.
7. I (not have) anything to eat all day.
8. (You find) your pen yet?
9. (Your brother and sister leave) school?
10. (He tell) you what to do?

- ❖ The present perfect tense is formed by using 'have' or 'has' + the past participle of the verb. We only use 'has' with the third person singular.
- ❖ This tense is used when we wish to talk about an action which took place in the past but which is closely connected in some way with the present. For example:
 - a) He has broken his leg. (He broke his leg in the past but it is still broken.)
 - b) I have lived here since 1989. (I still live here.)
- ❖ The adverbs 'just', 'already', 'often', 'never', 'recently', 'nearly', 'almost', 'and 'finally' are often used with the present perfect tense. They are normally placed between 'have' or 'has' and the past participle. For example:
 - a) She has just finished her homework.
 - b) I have often wondered where he lives.
 - c) He has nearly finished.

Exercise 2

Change the words in brackets using the present perfect tense.

- A. (You finish) your composition yet?
- B. I (nearly finish) but I (not check) it through yet.
- A. Well hurry up. I (just remember) that Sofia (ask) us to meet her at the coffee shop.
- B. I won't be long. I don't think I (made) many mistakes.
- A. (You decide) what you are going to do when you (leave) school?
- B. Yes, I (decide) to train as a teacher. (You decide) what you are going to do?
- A. Not really. I (ask) my uncle if I can work in his shop, but it (not be) very successful lately. He (already sack) two workers.
- B. Yes, I know them. They (both decide) to train as teachers too.

Exercise 3

Change the words in brackets using the present perfect tense. There is no need to write out the whole sentence.

- 1. Can you help me please? I (lose) my way.
- 2. Look! Someone (break) that window.
- 3. I (never see) an elephant.
- 4. I (met) that girl before, but I can't remember her name.
- 5. I (often travel) by plane, but I (never ride) a horse.
- 6. He (recently return) from a visit to England.
- 7. She (finally agree) to pay back the money she borrowed.
- 8. They (just finish) building the new bridge.
- 9. Do they still live in Debre Zeit? No, they (move) to Nazaret.
- 10. I (break) my glasses. I can't read without them.
- 11. May I borrow your book for a few more days? I (not finish) reading it yet.
- 12. He (not sleep) since Tuesday.
- 13. (You never play) tennis?
- 14. You look different. (You change) your hair style?
- 15. I (not see) Tamirat since this morning. Where (he go)?

We shall now revise the Present Perfect Continuous tense.

- ❖ The Present Perfect Continuous tense is formed by the Present Perfect of the verb 'to be' + the present participle of the verb.
e.g I have been waiting.
- ❖ This tense is used when we wish to talk about an action which began in the past and has been continuing up to the present, e.g.
 - c. Ato Solomon has been teaching at our school for over ten years.
 - d. They have been working in the fields since early morning.
 - e. Abaynesh hasn't been feeling well today.

Exercise 4

Change the words in brackets using the present perfect tense.

- A. I (try) to find Yohannes. Do you know where she is?
- B. I don't know. I (look) for her too. She (not feel) well today. Perhaps she has gone home.
- A. May be she (have) a lot of headaches lately.

- B. Well, I hope she told her teacher. He (complain) about students who go home without permission.

Exercise 5

Change the words in brackets into the present perfect continuous tense. There is no need to write out the whole sentence.

1. She looks very unhappy. I think she (cry).
2. Our teacher is very pleased with us. We (study) hard this semester.
3. Where have you been? I (wait) for you all day.
4. What's the matter with Yohannes? He (not come) to school lately.
5. I (learn) English since I was seven years old.
6. She (work) in the post office since she left school.
7. I think his phone is out of order. I (try) to get in touch with him for over a week.
8. The crops will be ruined. It (rain) continuously for two months.
9. I'm sorry I'm late. How long (you wait)?
10. What (you do)? You've got mud all over your clothes.

‘For’ and ‘since’

Exercise 1

Put either ‘for’ or ‘since’ in the spaces in each of the sentences. There is no need to copy out the whole item.

1. He's very lazy. He hasn't done any homework-----three weeks.
2. She has worked as a secretary-----she left school.
3. We've been living here-----many years.
4. We've been living here-----1989.
5. He has been a teacher-----over ten years.
6. He has been a teacher-----he left university.

‘For’ and ‘since’ are often used with the present perfect tenses.

‘For’, but not ‘since’, can also be used with the past simple.

❖ ‘For’ is followed by a period of time. For example:

They have lived in Kenya for five years.

I haven't seen him for a long time.

I've been waiting for three hours.

They lived in Kenya for five years.

❖ ‘Since’ is followed by a point in time. For example:

They have lived in Kenya since 1985.

I haven't seen him since October.

I've been waiting since two o'clock.

Exercise 2

Using first ‘for’ and then ‘since’, give short answers to each of the following questions.

1. How long have you been living here?
2. How long have you been attending this school?
3. How long have you been studying English?

4. How long has your teacher been at the school?
5. How long have you been in this lesson?

Exercise 3

Complete the following sentences in a suitable way.

1. I haven't seen my brother for----
2. She's been studying French since-----
3. The old man has lived in that house for-----
4. Markos hasn't come to school since-----
5. We've known each other since-----
6. He hasn't visited us for-----
7. She has been working in the market for-----
8. She has been working in the market since-----
9. I've had these shoes for-----
10. I've had these shoes since-----

3. Pronouns and Possessive Adjectives

Subject Pronoun	Object Pronoun	Possessive Adjectives	Possessive Pronoun	Reflexive Pronoun
I	Me	My	Mine	Myself
You	You	Your	Yours	Yourself
He/she/it	Him/her/it	His/her/its	His/hers	Himself/herself
				Itself
We	Us	Our	Ours	Ourselves
You	You	Your	Yours	Yourselves
They	Them	Their	Theirs	Themselves

Personal Pronouns

1. Personal Pronouns are used instead of nouns. They are often used to avoid repetition.

For example, instead of saying:

Tamirat comes from Lalibela. Tamirat has lived there all his life.

It is better to say:

Tamirat comes from Lalibela. He has lived there all his life.

Instead of saying:

The teacher gave the students some work. The teacher told the students to finish the homework at home.

It is better to say:

The teacher gave the students some work. He/she told them to finish it at home.

When we use personal pronouns it should be clear what nouns they refer to.

2. I, you, he, she, it, we and they are used as subjects before verbs.

Me, you, him, her, it, us and them are used as objects.

It is wrong to use object pronouns instead of subject pronouns.

For example:

Him is coming. x

Solomon and me are good friends. X

3. The personal pronouns you, one, we and they can be used to refer to people in general. For example:
 - You - Are you allowed to smoke on a bus?
 - One - One should always listen to the advice of teachers.
 - We - We are often upset when people criticize us.
 - They - They say he is very rich.
4. 'I' and 'me'
 - a) It is a mistake to say:
 - He asked Ali and I to help him. X
 - 'I' is just a subject pronoun.
 - The correct sentence is:
 - He asked Ali and me to help him.
 - b) When two people are mentioned including 'I' and 'me', it is considered to be more polite to put 'I' and 'me' after the other person.
 - For example:
 - My brother and I went to the market. (Not 'I' and my brother----X)
 - He asked my friend and me to help him. (Not '---me and my friend.X)

Exercise 1

Choose the correct personal pronoun.

1. Yosef and (I/me) are good friends. (We/us) have known each other for many years.
2. The director is very angry with (I/me). (He/Him) wants (I/me) to go and see (he/him) straight away.
3. (She/Her) thinks (he/him) wants to marry (she/her).
4. Did (they/them) meet (he/him) at the bus station?
5. (He/Him) is afraid to speak to (she/her).
6. Why can't (they/them) leave us alone?
7. My father and (I/me) went to the market.
8. The teacher gave the book to Ali and (I/me).

Exercise 2

Use pronouns to replace the nouns in italics.

1. Kidist asked Mulu where Mulu was going.
2. Ato Bogale has a new dog. Ato Bogale feeds the new dog twice a day.
3. My father met my mother in 1976. My father and my mother were married the following year.
4. Ato Solomon and Woizero Abaynesh visited South Africa. The people made Ato Solomon and Woizero Abaynesh very welcome. Ato Solomon and Woizero Abaynesh thought South Africa was a very beautiful country.
5. Ali met Marcos and Muhammed yesterday. Ali told Marcos and Muhammed about his new job.
6. The students admire the new teacher. The students think the new teacher is very intelligent.

Possessive Adjectives

Possessive Adjectives are: my, your, his, her, its, our, and their. They are used to show that something belongs to someone or that something is closely connected to someone in some way.

In English possessive adjectives refer to the possessor and not the thing which is possessed. For example, we say:

He loves his mother. (NOT 'her mother' X)
She loves her husband. (NOT 'his husband' X)

When we refer to something which belongs to a baby or to an animal, we normally use 'its'. For example:

The baby is crying for its mother.
The dog was wagging its tail.

However, if we are sure that the baby or animal is male or female, we can use a more exact possessive adjective. For example,

The baby is crying for his/her mother.
The dog was wagging his/her tail.

Remember not to spell the possessive adjective 'its' with an apostrophe; 'it's is short for 'it is'. Note also the spelling of 'their' (NOT 'there' or 'they're').

Exercise 3

Put the correct possessive adjective in each space.

1. I have left _____ homework at home.
2. He enjoys _____ work on the farm.
3. Thank you for _____ letter.
4. She gave _____ father a birthday present.
5. Derartu is married now. _____ husband works in a bank.
6. The kitten is looking for _____ mother.
7. Ato Yotona lives in Mega, but _____ daughter lives in Yabello.
8. I know Ato Mikael well, but I've never met _____ wife.
9. The baby is crying for _____ mother.
10. The committee held _____ first meeting last week.

Possessive pronouns

When we want to say that something belongs to someone, we often use a possessive pronoun. Instead of saying: "This is my book." We say "This book is mine."

We often use a personal pronoun when we have just mentioned something, but wish to show that something of the same kind belongs to someone else. For example:

I showed my composition to my friend and then he showed me his. (i.e. his composition)

This avoids repetition.

Possessive pronouns are also used to contrast two things of the same type. For example:

Your house is bigger than **mine**.

It's my fault, not **yours**.

Exercise 4

Complete the following conversation using either a possessive adjective or a possessive pronoun.

A. It's a nice day. What shall we do?

B. Let's go for a walk. We can take _____ dogs with us.

A. I don't think that's a good idea. _____ dog isn't well-behaved and neither is _____.

B. _____ dog is very obedient, but I'm not sure about _____. Didn't he bite someone recently?

A. Yes, but it wasn't _____ fault. Someone threw a stone at him.

B. Why don't we ask Abdissa and Abrehet to come? They can bring _____ dogs too.

A. I don't think we should let them bring _____ dogs. They might fight with _____.

B. I think we should leave _____ dogs at home. Then we won't have to worry about them.

Exercise 5

Add possessive adjective or possessive pronouns to the following sentences.

1. I know _____ address but he doesn't know _____.

2. I've just found some money. Is it _____ ?

3. She has two brothers but I don't know _____ names.

4. Do you know that girl? Is she a friend of _____ ?

5. I only have one brother and a sister. _____ family is much bigger than _____.

6. We lent them some of _____ firewood to add to _____.

7. Please don't interfere. It's none of _____ business. It's _____ Problem.

8. I like _____ dog. What's _____ name?

9. I've borrowed some money from a friend of _____.

10. Lemecha is happy because he now has _____ own bedroom.

Reflexive Pronouns

The reflexive pronouns are myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves and themselves.

Reflexive pronouns are used as objects of a verb when the action of the verb 'reflects on', or returns to, the doer. In this case the subject and the object of the sentence are the same. For example:

She blamed herself for the accident.

He locked himself in the room.
We enjoyed ourselves at the wedding.

Reflexive pronouns are often used after a verb followed by a preposition such as 'at', 'by', 'for', 'to', and 'from'. For example:

He looked at himself in the mirror.
She went to the market by herself.
Did you pay their bus fares? No they paid for themselves.

Reflexive pronouns are also used after nouns for emphasis. For example:
The Director himself supervised the examination.
Since no-one offered to help me I cleaned the house myself.

Exercise 6

Complete each of the following sentences by adding a reflexive pronoun.

1. Have you got a bandage? I've cut _____.
2. It was a wonderful party. We really enjoyed _____.
3. Be careful! You may hurt _____.
4. The baby is very clever. He's trying to feed _____.
5. I can't go there _____. Someone else will have to go.
6. The old man lives by _____.
7. When they are alone some people talk to _____.
8. Did you cook this food _____?
9. We _____ are to blame.
10. Did anyone help you? No, I did it _____.

Exercise 7

Put a suitable pronoun or possessive adjective in each space.

1. The teacher told us to correct the work _____.
2. I like your shoes. I prefer them to _____. _____ are much stronger.
3. She is always looking at _____ in the mirror.
4. There is no need to help me. I'd rather do it _____.
5. They are identical twins. _____ look so alike that _____ can't tell the difference between _____.
6. I hope you will all enjoy _____ at the wedding.
7. A. I've cut _____ finger. Can you get me some ointment to put on _____?
B. I'm sorry, I'm very busy. _____ will have to get _____.
8. The children are making too much noise. Tell _____ to behave _____.
9. The bridge was so badly damaged that-----are going to build a new one.
10. My sister and-----washed all the dishes-----

4. Relative Clauses

A relative clause usually begins with relative pronoun. These are: who, that, which, whom and whose.

There are two types of relative clause: ‘defining relative clauses’ and ‘non-defining relative clauses’

A defining relative clause defines, or identifies exactly, the noun which it refers to. For example:

The man who stole the money has been arrested.

A non-defining relative clause simply provides extra information about the noun which it refers to. For example:

Cairo, which is the capital of Egypt, has a population of over six million. Sentences containing a non-defining relative clause have a comma before and after the relative clause.

Relative Pronouns used in Defining Relative Clause

	Subject	Object	Possessive
People	who, that	who, whom, that or ‘nothing’	whose
Things	which, that	which, that or ‘nothing’	whose

- ❖ In a defining relative clause, the relative pronoun can be omitted when it refers to the object of the sentence. For example:

The man she is going to marry is very wealthy.
The meat you bought is very tasty.

Relative Pronouns used in Non-defining Relative Clause

	Subject	Object	Possessive
People	Who	whom	whose
Things	Which	which	whose

- ❖ In a non-defining relative clauses we
 - cannot use ‘that’.
 - can never omit the relative pronoun.
 - must use commas.

Relative clauses are a useful way of joining sentences. For example:

The man bought our goats. He lives in the next village.
The man who bought our goats lives in the next village.
(Defining relative clause)

'War and Peace' was written by Tolstoy. It is one of the world's greatest novels.

'War and Peace', which was written by Tolstoy, is one of the world's greatest novels. (Non-defining relative clause)

Exercise 1 Practicing Defining Relative Clauses

Make sentences containing defining relative clauses. In each sentence add a relative clause which defines the noun printed in italics.

For example:

The people are very friendly.

Answer: The people who live in the forest are very friendly.

1. The watch is broken.
2. A person is called a tailor.
3. Do know the man?
4. I've finished reading the book.
5. All the students were punished.
6. The man was my uncle.
7. Did you see the photographs?
8. He doesn't like people.
9. Don't you like the shoes?
10. The students will win the prize.

Exercise 2 Practicing Non-defining Relative Clauses

Make sentences containing defining relative clauses. In each sentence add a relative clause which defines the noun printed in italics.

For example:

His father has been taken to hospital.

Answer: His father, who was badly injured in a road accident, has been taken to hospital.

1. Neil Armstrong was the first man to set foot on the moon.
2. He introduced me to his uncle.
3. Ato Yohannes will be teaching us biology.
4. She was wearing her new shoes.
5. Mount Everest is in the Himalayas.
6. The new clinic will be opened next month.
7. He comes from Nairobi.
8. He is going to marry Saba.
9. The River Nile is the longest river in the world.
10. My eldest brother is coming to visit us.

Exercise 3 Testing Relative Clauses

Join each pair of sentences using either a defining relative clause or a non-defining relative clause. After each answer write in brackets whether the sentence was defining or non-defining.

1. That's the dog. It bit me.
2. His journey was over 600 km. It lasted five days.
3. He is the man. His car was stolen.
4. The people welcomed us. They were very friendly.
5. He is marrying a woman. She is very beautiful.
6. The judge was a very wise man. He ordered that the prisoner should be released.
7. She is the girl. He intends to marry her.
8. Have you finished reading the book? You borrowed it from me.
9. The Chinese invented paper. The Chinese were also the first to use paper money.
10. He was wearing a hat. The hat was much too big for him.

5. The Passive and Active Voice

Exercise 1

Write the correct form, active or passive, of the verbs in brackets.

1. They (take) to school by bus each day.
2. They (not see) in the village for many months.
3. Yesterday she (go) to see her grandfather, who (live) in Sodo.
4. As soon as the visitors (arrive), they (take) to the Director's office.
5. Food poisoning (cause) by bacteria.
6. Helicopters (use) to carry people and supplies to places where aircraft cannot land.
7. The craters on the moon and planets (made) millions of years ago by meteorites.
8. Most milk (come) from cows, but it (also take) from goats, buffaloes, sheep and camels.
9. Someone (steal) two of his goats.
10. Two his goats (steal).

In English there are two ways of talking about something. We can either express an idea using an active form of the verb, or we can express the idea using a passive form of the verb.

If we use the active form, we focus attention on the 'doer' of the action. (The doer is sometimes called the 'agent'.) For example:

The dog chased the thief. (Active)

However, if we use the passive form, we focus attention on the person or thing affected by the action. For example:

The thief was chased by the dog. (Passive)

We often use the passive form when it is not necessary to mention the doer of the action (the agent). We do this when the agent is not known, when the agent is not important, when the identity of the agent is obvious, or when the agent is 'people in general'.

For example:

- a) All the money was stolen. (We don't know who stole it.)
- b) Have you been paid yet? (We are not interested in who does the paying.)
- c) She has been married for five years. (It is obvious that she has been married to her husband.)
- d) Ostriches are seen in many parts of Africa. (People in general see them.)

The passive is often used in descriptions of processes and scientific experiments. **For example:**

The Functions of the Liver

The liver receives blood full of digested food from the gut. Any food which is not needed immediately by the cells is taken to the liver where it is stored. The liver contains enzymes which help it to perform a variety of functions. Excess proteins are broken down to release a waste product called 'urea', which is taken to the kidneys. The urea is excreted in the urine. Poisons such as alcohol and medicines are also removed by the liver. This is why we have to take medicines at regular intervals-because the liver keeps removing them. All these activities produce heat, which is spread around the body in the blood.

The Form of the Passive

The Passive is formed by using the tense of the verb 'to be' which corresponds to the tense of the active form of the verb plus the past participle of the verb. Here is the table which shows the active and passive forms of the third person singular-he/she/it-of the main tenses of the verb 'to take'.

Tense	Active	Passive
Present Simple	takes	is taken
Present Continuous	is taking	is being taken
Past Simple	took	was taken
Past Continuous	was taking	was being taken
Present Perfect	has taken	has been taken
Future	will take	will be taken
Conditional	would take	would be taken

Exercise 2

Say whether the verbs in these sentences are active or passive.

- 1. The bridge will be repaired next month.
- 2. They are waiting for the bus.
- 3. Hyenas are sometimes seen on the streets of the city.
- 4. Each night the windows are closed and the doors are locked.
- 5. I haven't seen her since the wedding.
- 6. He has been taken to the hospital in an ambulance.
- 7. Has the water boiled?
- 8. Will the crops be harvested before the rains begin?
- 9. They are taking the cattle to market tomorrow.
- 10. The plane was delayed by bad weather.

11. The new clinic will be built by the end of the year.
12. He has forgotten to do his homework.
13. he has been punished for forgetting to do his homework,
14. Before the industrial Revolution in Europe most people lived in the country and worked on land.
15. Many languages are spoken in Ethiopia.

Exercise 3

Change the verbs in brackets into a suitable passive form.

- A. Where is Tamrat today?
- B. He (take) to the clinic.
- A. Why? (he hurt) in a road accident?
- B. No. He (bite) by a snake
- A. Is it serious?
- B. No. He'll be OK after he (give) an injection.
- A. He's been very unlucky recently. Last week he (bite) by a dog.
- B. And the week before that he (attack) by a swarm of bees.
- A. And last month he (chase) by a bull.
- B. I think he should stay at home for a while!
- A. I think my pen (steal)
- B. Are you sure it (steal)? Perhaps you dropped it somewhere.
- A. No, it has (definitely take) by someone. I left it on my desk. I think it (steal) when I went to the toilet.
- B. Oh. I remember. The teacher borrowed it. He said it (return) to you when he has finished marking our books.
- A. I hear that the Minister of Education will visit the school next week.
- B. Yes I (ask) to help with the arrangements.
- A. That's interesting. What plans (made) for her visit?
- B. First, she (meet) at the school entrance by a welcoming group.
Then she (take) to the Director's office where she (give) some refreshments.
- A. (she show) around the school?
- B. Of course. After she has addressed the teachers she (show) the new science laboratories and the library.
- A. I expect she (tell) about some of our problems.
- B. Yes. These (explain) to her by the Director. Amongst other things she (ask) if the government can let us have some more money so that the school can (paint).

Exercise 4

Supply the correct passive forms of the verbs in brackets.

1. Sofie isn't here. She (send) home because she was feeling ill.
2. The tree next to our house fell down last night. It (strike) by lightning.
3. He is a dangerous criminal. He should (put) in prison.
4. He's one of the best runners in the world. He (never beat)
5. (you invite) to the wedding?
6. A tortoise's body (protect) by a very strong shell.
7. The next meeting (held) in two weeks' time.
8. I know he wasn't here last night. His bed (not sleep) in.

9. This meat (not properly cook).
10. (we allow) to go home now?

Exercise 5 Testing

Complete the following passages by supplying the correct passive form of the verbs in brackets.

1. Zinc is a type of metal. It (make) from mineral ores such as zinc blende and smithsonite, which (mine) mostly in North America and Australia. Zinc (use) as a coating for iron and steel products. For example, corrugated iron sheets and buckets and some parts of cars (dip) into molton zinc. This (then leave) to harden. Then, even if the zinc (scratch), the metal underneath does not rust. Coating iron and steel in this way (call) 'galvanizing'.
2. Hydro-electricity (generate) by water moving at speed through a machine called a turbine which (connect) to a dynamo. Turbine (design) to take energy from the moving water. Hydro-electric power stations (often build) in hilly regions where there is plenty of rain. A lake of reservoir (use) to store the water high above the power station. Dams (usually build) to hold back the water. The amount of power that (produce) depends on the volume and speed of the water.
3. Soap (make) by adding plant oil or animal fat to an alkali at a high temperature. When this (do), soap and a substance called 'glycerine' (produce). The liquid soap (then pour) into a machine. Perfumes and dyes (add) and (mix) with the soap. Finally, the liquid soap (cool) and (either cut) or (mould) to the required shape.
4. The stars are so far away from the Earth that their distance from us (measure) in 'light-years', not kilometers. One light-year is the distance traveled by light in one year-this is about 9,646,000,000,000 kilometers. The closest star that can (see) with the naked eye is Alpha Centauri, which is just over four light years away. Because the stars are so far away they must (study) with telescopes. Millions of stars (observe) in this way. The most distant stars that can (see) through telescopes are thousands of millions of light-years away. There must be millions more which (not see).

Appendix- P

The Summary of Grammar Items Taught in Grades 9 and 10 Textbooks

No	List of grammar items found in Grades 9 and 10 textbooks
1	Using 'and' and 'but'
2	Using 'there is' and 'there are'
3	Using pronouns and possessive adjectives to avoid repetition
4	Verbs followed by the 'Infinitive' and Verbs followed by '-ing'
5	Ways of Expressing purpose
6	Conditional sentences
7	The passive voice
8	Used to
9	Using 'because', 'since' and 'as' to express Reason
10	Reported speech
11	Use 'must' to say what you believe to be true
12	The use of 'since' and 'for'
13	That clauses as the objects of verbs
14	The uses of ago
15	Adjective of quantity
16	Expressing result
17	The present perfect tense
18	The present perfect continuous tense
19	The simple present tense
20	Non-continuous verbs
21	Relative clauses
22	Expressing contrasts
23	The position of adverbs
24	The past perfect tense
25	Comparatives and superlatives
26	Using 'may' and 'might' to express possibility
27	Correlative connective
28	Order of adjectives
29	Participle phrase
30	Time clause