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Introduction to English First Additional Language

Learning an additional language can often feel like hard work but it doesn’t have to be. Treat it like any other skill that you are good at: learn how to use it, and then practise. The more you practise the better you will become.

We hope that you will use this Study Guide to develop your language skills in all the skill areas – Listening and speaking, Reading and viewing, and Writing. Of course, when you learn a language you need to know something about the way it works. The section on language structures and conventions will give you all the information you need. In the final section of this Study Guide you will find some complete examination papers to help you check that you are on top of everything. Enjoy developing this important skill!

Assessment in Grade 11

You will be assessed informally and formally throughout the year. You will complete 12 Tasks. Two of these tasks are made up of the mid-year and final exams. Each of the tasks will be discussed in the relevant sections in this Study Guide. The structure of the exams is as follows:

PAPER 1 LANGUAGE IN CONTEXT
2 hours
Marks: 80

Section A: Comprehension (30 marks)
Section B: Summary (10 marks)
Section C: Language (40 marks)

PAPER 2 LITERATURE
2 hours
Marks: 70
PAPER 3 WRITING
2 hours
Marks: 100

A: Essay – One essay (50 marks)
B: One text – Longer Transactional text (30 marks)
C: One text – Shorter Transactional text (20 marks)

PAPER 4 ORALS
Reading Prepared reading (20 marks)
Speaking: Prepared speech (20 marks)
Listening (10 marks)
Overview

During your Grade 11 year, you will need to develop your listening and speaking skills. Listening is vitally important in everyday life, and also at school. Not only does listening allow you to develop your language skills further, it is also one of the most important ways that you learn new things in all your subjects. Pre-listening skills allow you to activate your previous knowledge of a topic so as to focus your attention on what you are about to hear.

You will need to develop the skills to:

- listen for specific information
- listen for critical analysis and evaluation
- listen for information so that you can interact with others
- listen for appreciation.

You will be able to test that you have listened well by answering questions correctly, checking that the notes you have taken are accurate, and seeing if you have been able to use information to do things like label diagrams or summarise what you have heard. Sometimes you will need to come to a conclusion based on what you have heard, or you might have to evaluate information critically. Your listening skills will be assessed in a number of ways, but one of the important methods your teacher will use is the listening comprehension.

When someone speaks to us, we often have to speak to them in return. In Grade 11, you are going to develop a number of informal and formal speaking skills.

To develop your informal speaking skills, you will take part in conversations, dialogues, discussions in group work and do some unprepared reading aloud. You will also learn how to speak in formal situations like interviews, speeches, formal discussions, and debates.
Listening comprehension

The aim of a listening comprehension is to assess how well you listen to a text. You are expected to listen carefully and then answer questions on what you have heard. You could listen for different purposes.

Listening for specific information

Here you will listen for the main points and examples so that you can make short notes in your own words. You might also need to listen to information to transfer it to another form. For example, listen to a text and fill in a table, or create a mind map.

Listening critically

This could involve listening for:

- appreciation so that you can explain what you liked or disliked
- a viewpoint in a text, so that you can explain it. You would pay attention to:
  - bias
  - prejudice
  - attitude
  - position

Some useful tips

- Focus your full attention on what you are hearing. Some learners find they are able to pay more attention when they close their eyes. Other learners like to doodle (draw or scribble aimlessly) while they are listening. Find out what helps you to listen best.
- Pay attention to the content of what you are listening to, but don’t try to memorise everything. Listen out for the main points.
- Write clear answers based on what you have heard – don’t make anything up.
We develop our speaking skills whenever we speak. Use all the opportunities you are given in class to improve your skills.

These opportunities include:
- discussions about topics in group work
- conversations and dialogues with other learners
- unprepared reading aloud.
Formal speaking skills

Speeches

Speeches are presented on many different occasions. A well-prepared and well presented speech for which appropriate research has been done is always successful.

Prepared speech

A prepared formal speech is very similar to an essay. It requires you to present your ideas in a logical way. Prepared speeches are often based on careful research. Follow the same steps you would take when you are writing an essay (see Section 3 Writing for more), and take note of these important points.

Structure

- Use an introduction that grabs the attention of your audience. Ask a question. Tell a short story that relates to your topic. Surprise your audience.
- In the body develop each of your ideas logically. Develop appropriate topic sentences and make sure that each idea is linked to the next one. Be careful of being too serious, or of trying too hard to be funny. Match your content to your audience.
- Your conclusion should sum up the ideas in your speech. Don’t introduce anything new in your conclusion. Leave your audience with something to think about.

Language

- Make sure that you have identified who your audience is and use language and content that is appropriate to that audience.
- Always use formal language, but remember that you can choose the words you use so that your ideas are easily understood (see Section 4 Language structures and conventions for more).

Presentation

- Prepare and practise before your presentation.
- Pace yourself. Offer important points slowly, and speed up when you are giving examples.
• Pause. Give your audience time to think about your important points.
• Pay attention to your posture. Stand up straight, shoulders back, feet slightly apart so that you are comfortable, and don’t sway. Don’t put your hands in your pockets.
• Use gestures and facial expressions naturally.
• Make eye contact with your audience. It shows you are confident, and it makes it easier to convince them of your point of view.

Unprepared speech

Unprepared or informal speeches usually happen on the spot and you do not have much time to prepare. Often you are asked to ‘say a few words’ at a function.

Work hard to follow all the steps for a formal speech, but, of course, you will not have time to prepare and practise.

Remember:
• to structure your speech carefully
• to use language and content that suits the audience and the occasion
• to present confidently.

Reading aloud

We do not often get the chance to read aloud in public, but when someone reads aloud well, everyone is impressed. You, too, can impress others if you follow these useful hints.

Some useful tips
• Choose your text carefully. Try to read something that will be interesting for others to hear. Because you will not have a long time, choose a passage that makes sense when it is taken from a longer piece.
• Make sure you understand the meaning of all the words – if you are uncertain of what a word means your audience will hear it in your voice.
• Make sure you understand what the text is about. You may have to answer questions on it. Also, if you don’t know what you are reading, you will not be able to read confidently.
• Practise reading aloud so that you can:
  o make eye contact with your audience
  o enhance meaning by using your voice
  o project your voice clearly (speak loudly enough for everyone to hear without shouting, or hurting your vocal chords)
  o use pace (speed of delivery) to express meaning
  o become confident and fluent in your delivery.
• Use hand gestures when it is appropriate to do so.
• Stand up tall, feet a little apart when you read. This confident posture will help you to read aloud easily.
• Pay attention to how you will be assessed in Unit 4 of this Section.

Interview

The aim of an interview is to get specific information or the expression of a point of view from someone. Interviews are not only about getting a job; politicians and famous people as well as educators and learners are often interviewed for their input on various subjects and for their opinions.

Some useful tips
A good interviewer (the person who does the interviewing):
• prepares for the interview by
  o deciding what she or he wants from the interview
  o planning questions
  o finding out a little about the interviewee (the person being interviewed)
• builds trust in the interviewee by listening carefully to what is being said
• listens to what is being said and responds to the interviewee
• asks questions that gather relevant information in a respectful way
• thanks the interviewee.

The interviewer may wish to take notes during the interview.
Giving directions and instructions

Directions
When you give directions, you are explaining to someone how to get from one place to another. Your directions must be clear, brief and easy to follow.

Some useful tips
- Think carefully before you speak. Go over the route carefully in your mind – try to see it.
- Be clear about the instructions. Refer to the specific direction and use words like left, right, straight ahead.
- Include landmarks that someone will easily recognize. For example, ‘Turn right at the statue of O.R. Tambo.’
- Include distances. You can either give approximate distances – about 100 metres – or exact measurements – go for six blocks.
- Use the imperative form (commands). ‘Walk straight for seven blocks. Turn left.’
- Speak slowly.
- If possible, check that your listener understands. Repeat any steps in the directions that your listener is unsure of.

Instructions
We give instructions so that someone can complete a task. Offer logical, step-by-step points that are brief and exact. Remember, the listener has to know exactly what to do.

Some useful tips
- Think carefully about what has to be done. Be sure to get all the steps in the right order.
- Describe all the things that are needed.
- Speak slowly.
- Be precise and use the appropriate vocabulary and technical language.
- Use words like first, second, next, then to sequence the instructions logically.
• Include all necessary details, but don’t add in too much or you will confuse your listener.
• Remember to check that your listener understands. Repeat any instruction that your listener is unsure of.

Debating

A debate is a formal event in which two teams explain their viewpoints on a motion (a formal proposal on a specific topic) and try to convince each other and their audience that they have the stronger argument. The audience gets involved in the debate.

Who is involved?

Two teams, a chairperson and the floor (the audience) take part in a debate, and each has a particular role to play.

The chairperson

The chairperson will:
• introduce the motion and perhaps give some background to it
• introduce each speaker in the correct order (see the procedure below)
• manage the time of each speaker
• manage the discussion when the debate is opened to the floor (the audience)
• call for a vote (if appropriate)
• end the debate.
The debating teams

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>The Proposing team presents arguments supporting the motion.</th>
<th>The Opposing team presents arguments opposing the motion.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First speaker</td>
<td>introduces the proposer’s arguments.</td>
<td>introduces the opposing argument, rebuts (disproves or argues against) the first speaker.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second speaker</td>
<td>builds on the team’s argument, presents new arguments, and rebuts the points made by the opposing team’s first speaker.</td>
<td>builds on the team’s arguments, presents new arguments, and rebuts the previous speaker’s points.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third speaker</td>
<td>repeats the team’s main arguments and tries to persuade the floor to vote for the motion and gives reasons for this. The third speaker may also rebut previous arguments.</td>
<td>repeats the team's main arguments and tries to persuade the floor to vote against the motion and gives reasons for this. The third speaker may also rebut previous arguments.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The floor

The audience (or floor) listens to both sides of the argument. Floor members may ask questions or provide comment at the appropriate time.

If allowed, the floor will be able to vote ‘For’ or ‘Against’ the motion at the end of the debate.

What is the procedure?

A particular order is followed:

1. First speaker for the proposition
2. First speaker for the opposition
3. Second speaker for the proposition
4. Second speaker for the opposition
5. The Chairperson opens the motion to the floor for discussion and questions.
6. Third speaker for the opposition
7. Third speaker for the proposition
8. The debate is concluded and a result obtained by audience vote when the motion is put to the vote, or by a judge.
Introducing someone

We often have to introduce someone to an audience. This could be the guest of honour or someone who is going to make a speech. The aim is to give your audience information about the person.

Some useful tips

- Talk to the person before you have to introduce her or him. Find out something interesting about this person – a personal story, something she or he is proud of – anything that you can use to create interest when you introduce her or him. Find out about the person's achievements.
- Be formal when you introduce the person. Pay attention to your register and vocabulary.
- Do not make fun of the person or make a joke at her or his expense.
- Be brief and to the point, but make sure that you have given your audience enough information.
- Create interest by using the interesting information you have learned.
- Use your voice and pace to create and maintain interest.
- Conclude confidently.
How are listening and speaking assessed?

You will complete three formal speaking and listening tasks in Grade 11.
Term 1 – Task 1: Listening Comprehension
Term 2 – Task 5: Formal researched speech
Term 3 – Task 9: Prepared reading

You will also be assessed informally.

How am I assessed?

Reading: Prepared reading

This is for 20 marks.

Your teacher will assess you according to:
- your understanding of the text
- how you convey meaning using your voice
- how well you read (your reading skills)
- how you use gestures, body language and facial expression
- how you answer questions on what you read
- how effectively you interpret the text
- your choice of text
- how well you prepared for the reading
- how much audience eye contact you make.
Speaking: Prepared speech

This is for 20 marks.

Your teacher will assess:
- the quality of your research skills
- how well you planned and organized your speech and your presentation skills
  - your use of voice and tone
  - your use of gestures, body language and facial expression
  - your awareness of your audience
  - your eye contact with your audience
- your use of language
- your choice, design and use of audio and/or audio-visual aids.

Listening

This is for 10 marks.

Your teacher will assess:
- your comprehension of the text
- your evaluation of the content.
Opportunities to practise listening and speaking

1. Listen to a radio or TV news broadcast and take down the main points. If possible, record the news broadcast so that you can compare your notes to the full broadcast, or listen to the next broadcast and see if you got all the important points. (Listen for information.)

2. Imagine that a teacher from another school has come to talk to your class about a setwork that you have to study for the exams. Introduce him or her to the class. (Introduce someone.)

3. Listen to a radio talk show with a friend. Listen carefully for the speakers’ points of view. Take down notes. Compare notes with your friend. Were you able to identify the speakers’ opinions? (Listen for opinion.)

4. Imagine that you have been asked to talk to the Grade 9s about how wonderful literature is. Select a favourite literary text (it can be a poem, a novel, a short story or a play that you have read) and tell them what you think of it and why. (Give opinion on a literary text)

5. Choose a photograph or an advertisement from a magazine. Write a short speech in which you say whether you like the photograph or the advertisement or not, and why. (Give opinions.)

6. Listen to a popular song with a friend. Talk to your friend about it. Do you like it? What appeals to you about the song? Or why don’t you like it? Do you find it meaningful to you? (Give opinions.)

7. Look carefully at the following visual text and explain it to a friend.
Reasons for dissatisfaction with Pop's Pizza delivery service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key</th>
<th>Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The pizzas are cold when they arrive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Not every branch of Pop’s Pizza offers this delivery service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Pop’s Pizza website link to their delivery service is very slow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Level of satisfaction with Pop's Pizza delivery service

- Very satisfied (9%)
- Satisfied (13%)
- Unsure (30%)
- Dissatisfied (48%)
8. Share a joke and a cartoon with a group of friends.

9. With a group of friends prepare and hold a formal discussion on one of the following topics:
   a. Dealing with HIV awareness
   b. Taking care of the elderly
   c. Teenage alcohol abuse

10. Prepare and present a debate on the following topics with some friends:
    a. Learners in Grade 11 should attend school on Saturdays.
    b. Boarding schools are good for learners with social behaviour problems.
    c. University education should be compulsory.

11. Give instructions to a learner in Grade 6 on how to build a simple set of shelves with two planks and four bricks.

12. An aunt and uncle you have not seen in a while have phoned to say they are coming to visit. Give them directions from the main road to your house.

13. Prepare and present a formal speech on one of these following topics:
    a. All learners should play sport.
    b. My favourite movie (Don’t just tell the story. Explain why it is your favourite film.)
    c. The future of South African education

14. Select a passage from a book or magazine or from a newspaper article and read it aloud to an audience (your family, social or church group).
Overview

The texts that are read in this part of the curriculum can be divided into two sections – literary texts and non-literary texts. The literary texts are the texts that we think of as literature: novels, short stories, plays and poetry.

The non-literary texts are made up of a number of different types of texts such as:

- informative texts like newspaper articles, magazines, editorials, speeches, among others
- visual texts like graphs, diagrams, photographs, films, cartoons, comic strips, illustrations, and advertisements etc.
- computer technology texts like emails, SMS texts and twitter messages (tweets).

In this Study Guide we will examine these different types of texts and talk about how to study them. We will also develop our skills in Critical Language Awareness by looking at texts that have a particular purpose or agenda and will ask, ‘Who gains from this text? Who loses? How?’
Types of literary text

When we study literature, we study four major types or genres of text:

1. poems
2. short stories
3. novels
4. drama (plays).

Defining poetry

A poem, written by a poet, is a word composition that is often characterised by rhythm, vivid language and imagery all of which help to convey meaning and emotion. There are a number of forms of poetry – sonnets, odes, haiku etc. Each form adds something different to a poem and so is carefully chosen by the poet. Poets use poetic devices to help create the poem.

Defining a short story

A short story is a short piece of prose that is written from a particular narrative (story-telling) point of view. Short stories are fictional although they may be based on a real event. There is (most often) a plot, characters and some development of themes in the story.

Defining a novel

A novel can be defined as an extended or long piece of prose. Usually there is a plot and there are characters in a novel. Whereas in a short story the author does not have the time to develop the plot or to introduce sub-plots, or to develop the characters, the length of a novel allows for this. Often there are sub-plots that run at the same time as the main plot. Characters in novels can be developed in greater depth, and there are often many more themes than in a short story.
Defining drama

While they still tell a story, plays (drama) are written in a very different way to short stories or novels.

A play provides us with the actual words that the characters are saying in direct speech, and some stage directions. There are no descriptions of what is going on or what anyone is thinking nor are there explanations from the playwright. Everything we learn about the character and the action we find in the characters’ words or in the stage directions which tell the actors what to do. We learn about characters from what they say, from what others say about them and from what we see them do.

The characters’ words are set apart from each other. The character’s name is set on the left of the page, and her or her words are indicated next to the name.

The playwright indicates what must happen by giving stage directions. These are often in italics. The playwright will sometimes indicate the time and setting of the play, as well as the scenery on the stage.

Plays are divided into acts and scenes.

Important features of literary texts

A literary text has a great deal to offer us as readers. In order to experience all that we can from a piece of literature, it is important to understand some basic concepts that we use to study literature.

Plot

The plot is the action of the story – what happens, when and to whom.

The plot often follows a particular pattern:

- set-up: this is the start of the story at which time we are introduced to the characters and setting
• rising action: as we move further on into the story we see the movement towards the climax
• the climax: this is the peak of the action when the conflict between characters, characters and nature or other circumstances has reached breaking point
• falling-action: this is the part after the story in which things are resolved in one way or another, and the story comes to an end.

**Setting**

The setting is where the story takes place. It is both the physical (real or imaginary) place as well as the time in which the plot happens.

The setting almost always has an impact on the characters and on the themes of the work.

**Narrative point of view**

The narrator is the story-teller. The narrative point of view is usually of two main types:

1. The Third Person Omniscient (all-knowing) narrator: Here the story is told as though some outsider is watching the story unfold. The narrator tells us what is happening, and can also say what the characters are thinking. We will read: ‘The man thought it would be good to buy some flowers for his daughter who had been so understanding so he walked to the flower-shop after work. ...’
   Sometimes the third person narration is what we call dramatic or objective. Here the narrator acts like a camera: we are told what happens and what is said but we are not given any information about what the characters are thinking. We will read: ‘The man walked to the flower-shop after work to buy some flowers for his daughter. ...’

2. First Person narrator: Here the story is told from the point of view of one of the characters, usually the protagonist or a major character. We will read: ‘I thought it would be good to buy some flowers for my daughter – she had been so understanding – so I walked to the flower-shop after work. ...’ Sometimes this narrator is an observer of the action. We will read: “I saw him walk into the flower-shop. ...” Because we see all the action through this character’s eyes, we cannot know what other characters are thinking. We are limited to what the narrator knows and shares with us as readers.
Character
The characters are the people (or animals) in a story. We learn about the characters through what they say, what they do and what other people say about them.

The main character in a text will develop and grow in response to the setting, events in the plot and other characters. Less important characters will not change much at all.

Theme
Themes are the main ideas, concerns, or issues that are explored in the novel, short story or poem. The theme can also be a moral the writer wants us to be aware of.

Imagery
A writer will use imagery – pictures made up of words – to create the ideas and feelings he or she wants to convey in a poem or other piece of writing. The more vivid or alive the image, the more powerful the writing is for the reader. Writers use rhetorical devices or figures of speech to create these images.

Rhetorical devices or Figures of speech
Writing can be made more powerful and interesting through the use of figures of speech or rhetorical devices.

Similes
Similes are comparisons between two different things that share a common feature. Similes use ‘like’ and ‘as ... as ...’ A simile draws attention to a similarity that each thing shares to emphasise a point.

Example: He was as frail as a shadow. (Frailness (weakness) is the common feature that both the man and the shadow share.)

Metaphors
Metaphors are comparisons between two different things that share a common feature. However, the one thing is said to be the other, rather than like the other.
Example: He was a shadow of his former self. (He is frail and weak compared with how he used to be.)

**Hyperbole**
Hyperbole is an extreme exaggeration for effect.

Examples: Someone who has missed one meal says, ‘I am starving.’ Someone who is feeling hot says, “I am dying from this heat.”

**Personification**
Personification is the treatment of inanimate objects or animals as if they were human.

Example: The thunder roared like an angry man and the rising hungry river sucked at the canoe.

**Antithesis**
Antithesis is the bringing together of two very different things to emphasise the contrast between them. It is important that there is a balance between the two parts.

Example: Alexander Pope, a poet, said ‘To err is human, to forgive, divine.’ (To err means to make a mistake.) Martin Luther King Jr said, ‘We must learn to live together as brothers or perish together as fools.’

**Oxymoron**
An oxymoron is created by putting two words that mean the opposite next to each other to show the contrast.

Examples: ill health; clearly confused; working holiday; alone together

**Irony**
Irony occurs when the writer says one thing but means the opposite. This draws attention to the point the writer wants to make.

Examples: Someone who is sending Mxit messages types, ‘I think Mxit is a big waste of time!'; a poor person is described as living in a tin, canvas and cardboard palace.
Euphemism
Euphemism is used when a writer wants to write about something unpleasant or socially unacceptable in a more pleasant or less direct way.

Examples: Pregnant women used to be described as being in an ‘interesting condition.’ Soldiers who are accidentally shot to death by their own forces are said to have been killed by ‘friendly fire.’ The word ‘died’ in an obituary is often is replaced by ‘passed on’ or ‘met her maker’.

Assonance
Assonance is the repetition of vowel sounds for sound effect.

Examples: ‘Rage, rage against the dying of the light’ (Dylan Thomas, poet); We walked round and round in the out-of-bounds.

Alliteration
Alliteration is the repetition of consonants for sound effect.

Examples: Doubting, dreaming dreams no mortal ever dared to dream before (Edgar Allan Poe, poet); Solly sold sea-shells surreptitiously.

Onomatopoeia
Onomatopoeia is the use of words that sound like the things they name or like the sound these things make.

Examples: sizzle, buzz, crunch, drip

Tone and Register
Tone is the way in which the writer conveys his or her attitude toward the subject being written about. Tone may be playful, angry, serious, ironic, depressed, etc. Register is the level of formality. This may be formal or informal.

Voice
Voice is the writing style of the author that we can identify by the way the writer uses language (choice of words, use of punctuation and structure of sentences) and literary techniques (discussed above).
Informative texts

Informative texts include newspaper articles, magazine articles, editorials, speeches or any other pieces of non-fiction writing. You need to be able to talk about the content of the text as well as the style in which the text has been written. You will also explore the point-of-view of the writer, what the writer is likely to have wanted to achieve when she or he was writing the text. (We cannot always be sure of this.) You can also examine critical language issues in the text like bias and stereotyping, etc. (See Unit 3 Critical Language Awareness.) Informative texts often form part of the Comprehension section of Paper 1.

How to answer a comprehension test

Comprehension tests assess your ability to read for meaning and understanding, and to examine a text carefully. There are six kinds of questions.

Types of questions that can be asked

Knowledge questions test your ability to respond to the text’s literal meaning. For example, ‘Name the characters in this story.’

Comprehension questions test your ability to work out what is happening in the text. For example, ‘Explain in your own words...’ Content or factual questions and comprehension questions have answers that can be found in the text.

Application questions test how well you can apply other knowledge to a text. For example, ‘Explain the metaphor in these lines...’

Analysis questions ask you to say what you think about a text in relation to notions of difference or similarity, for example. Such a question might be: ‘How does the setting of this episode relate to the overall theme?’

Synthesis questions ask you to combine different things. For example, ‘Now that you have seen the changes in Lady Macbeth explain what kind of a person she has become.’
Opinion, personal response and judgement questions require you to respond based on your personal opinion and thoughts. Evaluation questions ask for your personal opinion or interpretation.

Application, Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation questions test your understanding of the text and how it is presented. You will look at:

- the purpose of the text
- the use of language (including choice of words (diction) and register) and punctuation
- the writer’s style (how he or she expresses him or herself)
- tone (the writer’s attitude to the subject)
- genre or type of text.

As you answer questions based on the text you must support your answers with reference to the text.

**Follow these steps**

1. Read through the text quickly to get a general sense of what it is about. See if you could tell someone what it is about in a few sentences.
2. Reread the text more carefully. If there are any words you don’t understand try to work out their meaning by looking at the context (sentence or paragraph) in which you find them.
3. Identify:
   - the text’s main idea
   - why you think the writer wrote the text
   - what you think the writer’s attitude to the subject is
   - the audience the writer wrote for
   - the register (level of formality) of the language (formal or informal)
   - the tone (serious, light-hearted, ironic etc.)
   - the diction (choice of words)
   - where the text comes from (for example, a magazine, a novel, etc.).
4. Now read the questions.
5. Read the passage for a third time thinking about the questions as you read.
6. Now begin answering the questions making sure you understand how you need to answer (multiple choice, one word answers, a sentence, a longer response). The mark allocation should be your guide to the length of your answers, and you should use your own words unless you are asked to quote.

7. You will find that the questions start with reference to the beginning of the text and move through in sequence to the end.

8. Interpretive questions tend to be asked at the end.

**Visual texts**

There are a number of different visual texts that you are already familiar with, especially from other subjects.

**Graphs**

Graphs provide information in a graphic form. You need to read all the information on the graph – title and key – and then the data before you interpret the information.

A bar graph
Diagrams
There are a great many different types of diagrams, but they all provide information in a visual way, often with additional text. Read all the written information carefully and then look at how it fits with the visual information.

Photographs
A photograph is analysed by looking at the way in which the subject matter is shown in the frame or picture.

Composition of the shot in the frame
This is how the various things are put into the frame. There are some general rules.
Things at the top of the frame are more powerful than things at the bottom.

The left of the frame is more ‘morally good’ than the right side of the frame.

Two frames showing importance of where the subject is.
**Camera shot**

Shots can be categorised by the distance of the object from the camera and how much of the object is visible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shot</th>
<th>Use or effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Establishing shot or Extreme Long Shot</td>
<td>Establishes scene or place and atmosphere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long shot</td>
<td>General information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full shot</td>
<td>Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium shot</td>
<td>Information, conversation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close up</td>
<td>Emotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extreme close up</td>
<td>Emotion, special attention, disorient the viewer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Camera angle**

Camera angles are categorised by the placement of the camera and how it relates to the subject.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Angle</th>
<th>Use or effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overhead</td>
<td>Information, location, show vulnerability or weakness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High angle</td>
<td>Inferiority of object or figure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eye level</td>
<td>Information, conversation, real-life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low angle</td>
<td>Dominance of object or figure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Camera focus**

The focus is the sharpness of the image in the frame.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Use or effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sharp focus</td>
<td>Natural, normal situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soft focus</td>
<td>Romance, visual difficulty, weakness, drunk or drugged</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Lighting**

The way in which the subject is lit in the frame is important, and you must consider this in your analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lighting</th>
<th>Use or effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bright (daylight, bright lights)</td>
<td>Natural, normal situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dim</td>
<td>Romance, visual difficulty, weakness, drunk or drugged</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Films**

Films are made up of many frames (24 frames per second) and so we start analysing a film using the same techniques as we do for a camera shot.

Read this section and the section on photographs.
**Camera movement**

The way the camera moves provides the director with ways to make the scene come alive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Movement</th>
<th>Use or effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Panning</td>
<td>Sweep of a scene, follow object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tilt</td>
<td>Information, show disorientation, imbalance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dolly</td>
<td>Includes viewer in the movement of the subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracking</td>
<td>Suggests viewer is sharing in the movement of the subject, viewer becomes more involved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point of view shot</td>
<td>Seeing through the character’s eyes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zoom</td>
<td>Movement in and out to focus attention, provide more information</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Costume and setting**

The costume and setting in a film are important to understanding what is happening, and why. Pay careful attention to what they show and how they do this.

**Music**

Music is often used in films to create an atmosphere and mood. By linking the music to the character, the director will increase our emotional response. Think of the music played in a horror film!

**Cartoons and comic strips**

A cartoon could consist of a single frame containing a drawing or a series of frames. Cartoons are often found in newspapers and magazines. A comic strip is always a series of drawings.
Comic strips are meant to be read for enjoyment, and cartoons mostly have the intention to educate, or to offer comment on a social situation. They do this by drawing our attention to the situation and making us laugh about it.

Newspaper cartoons are often satirical: they use irony, humour or exaggeration to expose society’s problems or shortcomings.

**Remember these terms**
Frame – the individual picture (often with a frame around it) in a cartoon. Some cartoons have only one frame.

![Speech bubble](image)

![Thought bubble](image)

Two cartoon frames showing speech and thought bubbles

**Follow these steps in analysing a cartoon**
1. Study the text carefully, paying attention to the drawings as well as to the speech bubbles or captions.
2. Look carefully at the characters in the cartoon. Examine their facial expressions, body language and movement. How are they being shown? Are there any exaggerations?
3. Examine the setting (where the action takes place).
4. Read the text. Is there anything to notice about the word choice and the use of punctuation?
5. Now read the questions. You will be asked to identify:
   - satire
   - parody (exaggeration for comic effect)
6. Answer the questions as you would answer any comprehension questions.

Advertisements

We are all aware of advertisements around us, and the different forms they come in. You can be asked to answer questions based on this type of text. You can read more about how advertisements work in Section 2: Writing and presenting.

How to respond to advertisements

1. Study the advertisement carefully. Look at any pictures and the written text.
2. Decide on the purpose of the advertisement. Does it want to promote an idea or sell a product or service?
3. Decide who the target audience is. The target audience can be broken down into: age, sex, race, earning capacity, location, etc.
4. Look at the layout carefully. Pay attention to:
   - font
   - font size
   - how the text and images link
   - headlines and slogans and where they are placed.
5. Examine the language carefully. Look out for:
   - emotive language
   - figures of speech
   - puns
6. Identify the persuasive techniques that have been used (see Unit 4 for more information):
   - giving facts and statistics so that they appear to be scientific truth
   - personal endorsement of a product by someone famous
   - personal stories
   - stereotypes
   - repetition
Computer technology texts

Computer technology texts include emails, SMS texts and Tweets.

Email

Email is an electronic form of a letter. You can read more about how to write them in Section 3: Writing and presenting.

SMS texts

SMS is an acronym for Short Messaging Service. SMSs are sent from cellphones. (Notice how you write the plural form of SMS.) They can use only up to 160 characters including spaces. It is common to use ‘SMS language’ – a language made up of abbreviations and slang. While this may be acceptable language for an SMS, it is important not to use it when you are writing formally.

Tweets

A tweet is sent from the twitter social media service. It is an electronic message that has a maximum of 140 characters. A tweet can be a message or a search query for information.

You can follow people on Twitter. This means that you can read any tweet they send. Your followers will be able to read all your tweets. Celebrities use Twitter as a way of increasing their popularity.
Critical language awareness examines how power works in texts. People in power will write and say things in ways that will lead you, the reader, to believe that they should stay in power. Critical language awareness will give you the tools to examine what people are saying, identify the ways they are using language to create their power and so be able to resist it.

Issues in Critical Language Awareness

Important questions to ask when you read a text

Who gains from this text? Who loses? How?

How are people named?

What has been included? What has been excluded?

What pronouns are used? Who are ‘they’?

Denotation and connotation

Denotation
All words mean something, and the meaning that we find in the dictionary is known as the denotative meaning.

Example: snake = a legless reptile

Example: red = a colour

Connotation
Often a word will have associations or emotional ideas linked to it. These associations will often not be found in a dictionary but will be made by a person who hears or reads the word.

Example: snake = a cold or dangerous person

Example: red = danger (or romance, depending on who is seeing the colour)
Why this is important
When writers make a text they will choose the words very carefully. If they want to influence the reader, to increase emotions, they can do this by choosing words that have strong connotations.

Point of view
A good definition of point of view is the position from which something is considered. Our point of view determines what we think about issues and the world we live in. When we establish what the writer’s point of view is, we get insight into the beliefs and attitudes the writer may have, and we can then look carefully at how these beliefs are put into the text.

Bias and stereotyping in language
A stereotype is a simple or general image of a specific type of individual – a popular belief based on assumptions about the group to which the individual belongs. You can stereotype others according to, for example, their sex, gender, sexuality, age, race, culture, physical abilities, occupation, political beliefs, economic class and country of origin.

Example: All young people are lazy.

A bias is a preference for or against a person or thing based on the stereotype you have of the group of people or things to which they belong.

Example: I won’t employ young people because they are all lazy.

A prejudice is a belief based on your biased ideas and stereotypes about someone that you have formed before you even know her or him. The prejudice is based on the stereotype you have of the group to which this person belongs.

Example: Young people are too lazy to work so they all steal.

Often people are not even aware of their biases or prejudices and this is seen in their speech and writing.
Word choice exposes bias and stereotyping
The words writers use expose their bias. For example, often writers use only the masculine pronoun as though women did not exist at all. You can use him and her, and she and he, for example. Alternatively you can use plural pronouns to avoid a gender bias.

Example: Scientists are working for the improvement of mankind. Note: Mankind excludes all women, so the word humankind is preferred. Scientists are working for the improvement of humankind.

Persuasive language
Language can be used to stir up emotions, to persuade or to manipulate people to think or believe something. Advertisers and propagandists like politicians often used persuasive language to achieve their goals. Critical Language Awareness helps us to become aware of this.

Persuasive language techniques

- Word choice. Pay attention to the connotation of words, the number of adjectives used, and the pronouns that have been used to include (we, us) and exclude (they, them).

- Rhetorical questions are questions that have no real answer and for which the questioner does not expect a response. Rhetorical questions are effective because they encourage the reader or listener to think about the answer.

  Example: “What do you think you are doing?” asked the teacher as she caught the learner cheating in an exam.

- Imagery is used to create pictures in our minds about what the speaker or writer wants us to see and believe. This is achieved through the use of adjectives, word-pictures and figurative language (especially to create comparisons).
Example: “I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the colour of their skin but by the content of their character.” Dr Martin Luther King Jr (The image of a different world is created.)

- Repetition allows the speaker or writer to reinforce the message. In his famous ‘I have a dream’ speech, Dr Martin Luther King Jr repeats the phrase “I have a dream” eight times, the word “free” five times and “freedom” nineteen times in only 1666 words.

- The agentless passive allows the speaker or writer to suggest things without making any active agent responsible. (See Section 4 Language Structures and conventions for more on the active and passive voice.)

Example: Sixty-four works have been laid off. (By whom?) If the writer or speaker does not say, we are left to come to our own answers which will have been prompted by the speaker or writer in the first place. The use of the passive can also make listeners or readers feel like victims: You are being manipulated!

**Emotive language**

Emotive language is language that has been deliberately structured to create emotions in the reader. Poets use emotive language to ensure that their poetry is vivid and interesting. Advertisers and politicians use emotive language to lead us to believe what they want us to believe. Emotive language uses a number of techniques that you have already examined in the sections on figures of speech, bias and prejudice, and persuasive language.
How are reading and viewing assessed?

Types of assessment

You will be assessed on the literature that you read and study in literature tests and exams, and assessed on the other text types you have studied in Comprehension and Language questions.

Literature

The literature that you study will be assessed with literature essays and contextual questions.

Literature essay

In a literature essay, you respond to a question about a literary text that you have studied. You have to have a thorough understanding of the text so that you can talk about plot, theme, character and setting and provide your own view on issues that the question raises. The most important thing to remember is that this is not the time to tell the story! You have to provide a carefully argued answer related to the question you are answering.

You will find out how to write a literature essay in Section 3 Writing and Presenting.

Contextual questions

In a contextual question you are given an extract from a literary text you have read and you are then asked questions.

The questions asked include:

- a question about where or when in the text the extract comes from
- ones to which you can find the answers in the extract
- ones about the setting of the text
- ones about characters and theme in the text.

The total for the question will be 35 marks. Each question requires a short answer. Use the mark allocation to guide you as to the length of your answer.
Tasks and exams

You will complete three formal reading and viewing tasks in Grade 11, as well as a final exam.

Tasks
Term 1 – Task 4: Test 1 Literature contextual questions
Term 2 – Task 6: Literature essay and contextual questions
  Task 7: Mid-year exam Paper 2
Term 3 – Task 10: Test 2 Literature essay and contextual questions
  Task 11: Literature essay and contextual questions
  Task 12: Final exams Paper 2

Non-literary texts

You will complete three formal reading and viewing tasks in Grade 11, as well as a final exam.

Tasks
Term 1 – Task 4: Test 1 Reading/viewing Comprehension, summary and integrated language study
Term 2 – Task 7: Mid-year exam (see structure below)
Term 3 – Task 10: Test 2 Comprehension, summary and integrated language study

The final exam
Language in context 2 hours
A: Comprehension (30)
(A range of texts can be used including visual and or graphic texts)

B: Summary: (10)
(Length of the text: 60–70 words)

C: Language
Language structures (words and sentences) assessed in context using a variety of texts.
Critical language awareness.
You will also be assessed informally.
Opportunities to develop reading and viewing skills

Literary texts

You will be studying a variety of texts chosen by your teacher. Use the ideas in this Study Guide when you are approaching the different questions that are set.

Non-literary texts

Practise your skills on all non-literary texts using the suggestions in this Study Guide on how to approach these texts. Your skills will improve and you will be able to answer any question that could be set.
Overview

In this Section we will focus on how to improve your writing skills. We will start off with a look at the process you should follow whenever you write something. The writing process helps you write better texts. After that, we will look at the various types of essay that you need to be able to write. We will explore ‘real-world’ transactional texts and see how important it is to match format and content. Finally we will look at how your writing will be assessed.
Effective writing is always the result of a careful process. Don’t fall into the trap many learners do – they think they do not have the time to work through the process. Unfortunately, their results show that if they had used the writing process they would have been more successful.

1. **Pre-writing**
   1. Read the topic and carefully analyse what you must do. Consider the format and structure, language features and register of the text you have chosen.
   2. Check that you know the text’s purpose, audience and context.
   3. Brainstorm your ideas. Here you can use a mind-map or whatever other method of brainstorming you like.
   4. Check that you know and understand the criteria you will be assessed on.
   5. If relevant, do research on the topic.

2. **Planning**
   1. Plan what you want to say, keeping all you learned in Stage 1 in mind.
   2. Identify the main ideas and the supporting information. Usually one idea is contained in a paragraph.
   3. Check that the sequence of your ideas is logical.

3. **Drafting**
   1. Write a rough first draft. Be sure to take into account
      a. the purpose of the text
      b. the audience
      c. the type of text (format and style is important here).
   2. Choose words that are appropriate to the level of formality of the writing as well as the topic. Work hard at being original and to create vivid pictures.
   3. Organise your ideas in a logical sequence so that the essay or story makes sense.
   4. Remember to use paragraphs in your work.
4. Revising, editing, proofreading and presenting

5. Read your first draft and look at
   a. Word choice
   b. Sentence structure
   c. Paragraph structure.
   How can you improve these?

6. Check the sequencing and linking of paragraphs. Does the essay flow? Is it logical? Does one paragraph link to the next?

7. Check grammar, spelling and punctuation.

8. Check the format.

9. Rewrite and rework until you are satisfied.

10. Present your text
What makes a good paragraph?

A paragraph is a unit of writing made up of sentences dealing with a single idea or topic. A good paragraph has a topic sentence. The topic sentence introduces the main idea of the paragraph. All the other sentences give extra details. You can put the topic sentence anywhere in the paragraph, but it is most often the first sentence.

A useful technique when you summarise is to identify all the topic sentences in the paragraphs. These will give you the basic summary of what you have read. When you plan your writing, you could also write your topic sentences as a plan, and then fill in the extra details in the sentences that make up the paragraph.

Practise writing paragraphs. This will improve your essay writing skills.

Types of paragraphs

Informative paragraph

An informative paragraph provides information about a topic. It is important that all the facts are correct, so you may need to do some research.

Follow the guidelines for writing a paragraph – use a topic sentence and follow up with supporting sentences. Your word choice will be determined by the topic you are writing about, and you may have to use a more formal register.

Imaginative paragraph

An imaginative paragraph is a short piece of fantasy or fiction writing. It could be a little story in itself, or a description. Once again, it will have a topic sentence that introduces the main idea, and then more sentences to fill in the details.

Use interesting vocabulary to make your paragraph exciting and readable.
**Explanation of how a common object is operated or works**

An explanatory paragraph is a factual paragraph that explains or describes the way something works. It must be factually accurate. Your topic sentence will say what process is being explained. Your supporting sentences will then describe in logical order how the object works.

Your register will be formal.

**An argument**

A paragraph that sets out an argument will follow the usual paragraph structure. The topic sentence will state your point of view on a subject, and then the supporting sentences will give evidence to show why your argument is correct. A final sentence will sum up the argument briefly.
An essay is an extended piece of writing (it has more than one paragraph) on a particular topic. An essay presents your ideas, thoughts, point of view or tells a story. Some essays are creative fiction and other essays demand factual accuracy.

Essay writing tests how well you can express yourself in writing. Your language skills are also shown in your writing.

**Types of essay**

In Grade 11, your essay will be between 200 and 250 words long. You are expected to be able to write a number of different types of essay. You should become familiar with what each essay type requires and practise writing these essays.

**Writing a Narrative essay**

The narrative essay tells a story, and is most often fictional. The story could be about something that happened in the past, a fantasy or science fiction. A good narrative essay:

- will have a strong, believable story-line or plot with a good conclusion that leaves the reader satisfied
- will use description to create the scene
- will have strong characters
- will often use dialogue.

**Writing a Descriptive essay**

A descriptive essay is a description of a person, place, situation or thing. It could also be a description of your feelings about something.
A good descriptive essay:

- creates pictures in words, so will use adjectives and adverbs effectively
- uses a lot of detail to capture what is being described
- uses words in interesting ways so that the writing does not become ordinary and clichéd
- is more than a string of descriptions – it builds the description carefully and completely.

**Writing an Expository essay**

An expository essay explains something or provides information about a topic. You should be familiar enough with the subject to be able to write with authority.

A good expository essay:

- is factually accurate
- is logical and well thought out.

**Writing an Argumentative essay**

The purpose of this type of essay is to argue or defend a point of view. The argumentative essay is subjective – it expresses and explains your point of view on a particular subject and shows where you stand on something.

A good argumentative essay:

- clearly states what you believe in the opening paragraph
- provides evidence to support your beliefs in the next paragraphs
- uses emotive language and personal statements, but is also logical and well thought out
- concludes with a statement that assures your reader that you are right.
You can present both points of view – your own, and the opposing view. If you do this, you can put each point of view in its own paragraph, or you can balance paragraphs with one idea and then show the opposite. Whichever way you choose to do it, make sure that you do it this way throughout the essay.

**Writing an essay based on a picture**

When you are given a picture to write about, you can choose to write any of the above types of essay. You can use the visual text as a whole or you could concentrate on one or two aspects that catch your attention.

Be sure to indicate the topic number clearly, and to give your essay a title.
UNIT 4

Longer transactional texts

A transactional text is a piece of writing that aims to communicate with a particular purpose in mind. The format of the transactional text is as important as the content. These texts are divided into longer and shorter texts based on their length.

In Grade 11 you need to write between 120 and 150 words in the longer transactional text.

Letters

In letter writing the layout is very important.

Writing a friendly letter

The purpose of this letter is to communicate with a friend or someone you know well.

Follow this structure.

- Include your address, the postal code and the date in the middle of the page.
- Begin with: Dear ... followed by the name or title of the person (Lerato, Grandmother, Mr Maseko)
- State your reason for writing in the first paragraph.
- Expand on this in the second paragraph.
- Conclude the letter with a short paragraph.
- Sign off with an appropriate ending. Your relationship with the person will determine the ending. For example, Yours sincerely, Your daughter, Kind regards, Love.
- Write your name. Write your first name only to a friend, but use your full name to someone you know less well.

Possible topic:

- letter of appreciation or thanks for something, or saying why you enjoyed an event
Writing a business letter or a letter to the press

This is a formal letter. It should be businesslike but polite and respectful. It contains only relevant details based on the reason you are writing the letter. The business letter could be, for example, to query something while the letter to the press could be in response to an issue raised in a newspaper.

Follow this structure.

- Include your address, the postal code and the date in the middle of the page.
- On the next line against the margin write the name of the person you are writing to, followed beneath that with their full address.
- Skip a line.
- Write Dear Sir/Madam or the name of the addressee. For a letter to the press write The Editor.
- Skip a line.
- Write a short subject heading that is underlined and explains the purpose of the letter. For example: Request for accommodation (no full stop) or Objection to claims made about the effects of climate change.
- Skip a line.
- State the problem or subject in the opening paragraph.
- Expand on this in the second paragraph.
- The concluding paragraph ties up the loose ends and asks for action or for a reconsideration of the points made in the earlier press article.
- Skip a line.
- The ending should be formal. Yours faithfully, followed by your signature. Print your name and your title under your signature.

Dialogues

A dialogue is a conversation between two or more people. Use the following format.

Name 1: I am enjoying reading this Study Guide!

Name 2: Yes, I have learned a great deal.
Name 1: Passing the exams is going to be easy.

**Some useful tips**
- Notice that although a dialogue is in direct speech, there are no inverted commas.
- Use a colon after each speaker’s name and start each speaker’s words on a new line.
- Use a register and vocabulary that matches the speakers’ backgrounds and the context of the dialogue.

**Reviews and Recommendations**
A review is a personal response to a work of art, a play, a film, CDs, paintings, drawings, books, and electronic games like Play Station, Nintendo, and X-Box. A restaurant could also be reviewed. You will present a personal opinion, and you will use emotive language to describe your personal response to what you are reviewing.

A recommendation is like a review, although here the focus is on saying why the reader should read or do something or visit a particular place.

**Some useful tips**
- Give all the necessary information about what you are reviewing. For example, give the name of the book, the author and the publisher.
- Give your impression of what you saw/read/visited. Use a lot of detail to describe your thoughts.
- State your personal recommendation – would you recommend this or not?

Possible topics include:
- review of a song
- review of a music video
- recommendation for a book.
In Grade 11 you need to write between 80 and 100 words in the shorter transactional text. It is very important that you keep to this word limit.

**Brochures or flyers**

The purpose is to promote or make known a service or event. A brochure could also present information about a topic. Brochures and flyers are very similar in layout and content to an advertisement.

Brochures are usually printed on both sides of a piece of paper, and are often folded into sections. A flyer is often printed on one side only of a sheet of paper.

**Some useful tips**

- Include all important information: what, where, when.
- Give contact details for more information.
- Read the section on advertisements later in this guide to get some more ideas.

**Posters**

The purpose of a poster is to promote a product or an event. It is similar to a brochure but because it is larger and printed on one side of the page only design is very important.

Some useful tips

- Include all important information: what, where, when.
- Pay careful attention to design. A poster must draw attention but also be easy to read. Layout of the information is important.
- Read the section on advertisements below in this guide to get some more ideas.

**Advertisements**

As you will know, a print advertisement aims to sell a product or an idea. The content as well as the design and layout are important.
You do not have to illustrate the advertisement: use different colours, change the font size or type, or, if you are making this by hand, write differently. Instead of using pictures, present your text in either a continuous piece or in a few linked paragraphs – this is an assessment of your language skills, after all.

**Some useful tips**

- Be creative in your word choice and your use of punctuation.
- Remember to use emotive language and figures of speech to make your advertisement more appealing.
- Pay attention to the notes on AIDA below.

A good advertisement uses the four elements in the acronym AIDA.

**ATTENTION** – attract the **Attention** of the target audience (those whom you want to buy the product or service).

- The image is eye-catching, drawing the reader’s attention.
- The layout is attractive and appealing.
- Colour is used effectively.
- The headline is bold, striking, catchy and/or appealing.
- The text adds to what the visual shows and promotes the product or service.

**INTEREST** – maintain the **Interest** of the target audience

- Pictures, diagrams, graphs, statistics, font type and size maintain interest.
- Layout is appealing and even unusual.
- Headline is used to attract attention. (Use size or content, such as a catchy question, a bold statement, a pun, etc.)
- Text refers to the service/product.
- The text will be aimed at a specific target audience.

**DESIRE** – Create the need in the target audience to have this service or product

- The advertisement appeals to our basic human needs and desires. We are made to feel that we cannot live without the product or service.
**ACTION** – Get the target audience to buy this service or product

- There is a clear call to take action. ‘Buy now.’ A telephone number, contact details etc make this possible.

**Diary Entries**

A diary is a personal, confidential piece of writing. You write a diary to record events, your personal thoughts, emotions and ideas. Usually the writer is the only audience.

**Some useful tips**

- Include the day and date.
- Use colloquial language and an informal register.
- Use the first person – ‘I’.
- Use the past tense to write about completed actions. Use the present tense to write about your current feelings.
- Try to write personally and honestly from the heart.
- Keep to the topic, and be sure to include the correct number of entries.

**Invitations**

The purpose of an invitation is to invite someone to an event. The invitation must provide all necessary information: what, when, where.

**Useful phrases to use:**

- You are invited/You are cordially invited
- RSVP (means please respond)

**Include the following information:**

- date and time
- full address of the venue
- the dress required, for example informal or formal
- how the person can confirm if he or she is attending (telephone number or email address)
- the latest acceptable date for a reply.
Directions and Instructions

See Formal Speaking Skills in this guide.

Filling in forms

We all need to fill in forms, but often do not take this seriously enough. Take your time and ensure that you complete all parts of the form accurately.

A possible topic includes filling in a form for a competition.

Writing an email

An email is an electronic form of communication that is similar to a letter. An email is shorter and does not have the same address requirements.

Some useful tips

- Use a meaningful subject line. Say what the email is about.
- Use a greeting. Use ‘Dear’ if it is formal and ‘Hi’ is acceptable if it is informal.
- Use proper spelling, grammar and punctuation.
- Use paragraphs.
- Do not write in CAPITALS.
- End off with a proper ending (Regards) and your name.
Writing a summary

When you summarise you read a passage and then sum up the main points in a certain number of words. You need to read with understanding, cut out all unnecessary information, detail and examples and then sum up the text in your own words. This is a skill you use all the time. You need to be able to simplify what you have read and express the content in your own words.

You could be asked to summarise in point form or as a continuous paragraph/passage.

If you write in point form or in paragraph summaries, the process is similar.

Follow this process

- Read the passage to get a broad sense of what it is about.
- Reread the passage for understanding.
- Highlight or underline the topic or key sentences as you read it for a third time.
- Write down the sentences that sum up the main points of the passage in your own words.
- *If you are required to write only a point summary, this is where you stop.*
- Write a rough draft in paragraph form.
- Remember you must shorten the text so:
  - remove any unnecessary words, information or detail.
  - take out all examples or illustrations.
  - change direct speech to indirect (reported) speech.
- Compare your draft to the original and make any changes to improve on your draft.
- Check and include the word count at the end of your summary.
- Give your summary a title, if required (the title is not included in the final word count).
- Do a final reread, checking for errors and use of language.
Literary essays

A literary essay is similar in many ways to an expository essay. You could describe a character and justify your opinion of the character, describe the setting of a novel or short story and explain its effect in the text, or you could identify a theme and say how it works.

The length of a literary essay in Grade 11 is 200 to 250 words.
Assessments during the year

You will complete three formal reading and viewing tasks in Grade 11, as well as a final exam.
Term 1 – Task 2: Narrative essay
    Task 3: Longer/shorter transactional text
Term 2 – Task 6: Essay and shorter transactional text
    Task 7: Paper 3: Writing (in May)
Term 3 – Task 8: Essay
    Task 11: End of year examinations: Paper 3: Writing

You will also be assessed informally.

The writing exam has the following sections.

A: Essay – One essay
B: One text – Longer Transactional text
C: One text – Shorter text

Marking essays and transactional writing

You can use the following ideas to help you assess your own work. They are based on the rubrics that are used to assess writing by the Department of Basic Education.

Be honest when you assess your own work. Check each category and see where the quality of your work is. What do you need to do to improve?
## Essays

### Content

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 80 to 100% | - Content shows impressive insight into topic.  
- Ideas are thought-provoking, mature.  
- Excellent development of topic. Vivid detail.  
- Shows awareness of impact of language.  
- Evidence of planning and/or drafting has produced virtually flawless, presentable essay. |
| 70 to 79% | - Content shows thorough interpretation of topic.  
- Ideas: imaginative, interesting.  
- Logical development of details. Ideas are connected.  
- Shows awareness of impact of language.  
- Evidence of planning and/or drafting has produced a well crafted, presentable essay. |
| 60 to 69% | - Content shows a sound interpretation of topic.  
- Ideas: interesting, convincing.  
- Several relevant details developed.  
- Critical awareness of language evident.  
- Evidence of planning and/or drafting has produced a presentable and very good essay. |
| 50 to 59% | - Content: an adequate interpretation of topic.  
- Ideas: ordinary, lacking depth.  
- Some points, necessary details developed.  
- Some awareness of impact of language.  
- Evidence of planning and/or drafting has produced a satisfactorily presented essay. |
| 40 to 49% | - Content: ordinary. Ideas not always connected.  
- Ideas: mostly relevant. Repetitive.  
- Some necessary points evident.  
- Limited critical language awareness.  
- Evidence of planning and/or drafting that has produced a moderately presentable and coherent essay. |
| 30 to 39% | - Content not always clear, ideas not connected.  
- Ideas: few ideas, often repetitive,  
- Sometimes off topic. General line of thought difficult to follow.  
- Inadequate evidence of planning/drafting. Essay not well presented. |
| Below 30% | - Content irrelevant. Ideas not connected at all.  
- Ideas: repetitive, off topic.  
- Non-existent planning/drafting. Poorly presented essay. |
## Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Range</th>
<th>Language and Punctuation Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **80 to 100%**   | - Language, punctuation effectively used. Uses figurative language appropriately.  
                  - Choice of words highly appropriate.  
                  - Sentences, paragraphs well-constructed.  
                  - Style, tone, register highly suited to topic.  
                  - Text virtually error-free following proof-reading, editing.  
                  - Length meets requirements of topic. |
| **70 to 79%**    | - Language, punctuation correct and able to include figurative language correctly.  
                  - Choice of words varied and correctly used.  
                  - Sentences, paragraphs logical, varied.  
                  - Style, tone, register appropriately suited to topic.  
                  - Text largely error-free following proof-reading, editing.  
                  - Length correct. |
| **60 to 69%**    | - Language and punctuation mostly correct.  
                  - Choice of words suited to text.  
                  - Sentences, paragraphs well constructed.  
                  - Style, tone, register suited to topic in most of the essay.  
                  - Text by and large error-free following proof-reading, editing.  
                  - Length correct. |
| **50 to 59%**    | - Language simplistic, punctuation adequate.  
                  - Choice of words adequate.  
                  - Sentences, paragraphing might be faulty in places but essay still makes sense.  
                  - Style, tone, register generally consistent with topic requirements.  
                  - Text still contains errors following proof-reading, editing.  
                  - Length correct. |
| **40 to 49%**    | - Language ordinary and punctuation often inaccurately used.  
                  - Choice of words basic.  
                  - Sentences, paragraphs, faulty but ideas can be understood.  
                  - Style, tone, register lacking in coherence.  
                  - Text contains several errors following proof-reading, editing.  
                  - Length – too long/short. |
| **30 to 39%**    | - Language and punctuation flawed.  
                  - Choice of words limited.  
                  - Sentences, paragraphs constructed at an elementary level.  
                  - Style, tone, register inappropriate.  
                  - Text error-ridden despite proof-reading, editing.  
                  - Length – too long/short. |
### Longer and shorter transactional writing

#### Content

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Range</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Below 30%   | Language and punctuation seriously flawed.  
              Choice of words inappropriate.  
              Sentences, paragraphs muddled, inconsistent.  
              Style, tone, register flawed in all aspects.  
              Text error-ridden and confused following proof-reading, editing.  
              Length – far too long/short. |
| 80 to 100%  | Specialized knowledge of requirements of the text.  
              Disciplined writing – learner maintains thorough focus, no digressions.  
              Text fully coherent in content and ideas, and all details support the topic.  
              Evidence of planning and/or drafting has produced a virtually flawless, presentable text. |
| 70 to 79%   | Good knowledge of requirements of the text.  
              Disciplined writing – learner maintains focus, hardly any digressions.  
              Text is coherent in content and ideas, with all details supporting the topic.  
              Evidence of planning and/or drafting has produced a well crafted, presentable text. |
| 60 to 69%   | Fair knowledge of requirements of the text.  
              Writing – learner maintains focus with minor digressions.  
              Text is coherent in content and ideas, and details support the topic.  
              Evidence of planning and/or drafting has produced a presentable and good text. |
| 50 to 59%   | Adequate knowledge of requirements of the text.  
              Writing – learner digresses from topic but does not impede overall meaning.  
              Text adequately coherent in content and ideas and some details support the topic.  
              Evidence of planning and/or drafting has produced a satisfactorily presented text. |
| 40 to 49%   | Moderate knowledge of requirements of the text. Response to writing task reveals a narrow focus.  
              Writing – learner digresses, meaning is vague in places.  
              Text moderately coherent in content and ideas and has basic details which support the topic.  
              Evidence of planning and/or drafting that has produced a moderately presentable and coherent text. |
| 30 to 39%   | Elementary knowledge of requirements of the text. Response to writing task reveals a limited focus.  
              Writing – learner digresses, meaning is obscure in places.  
              Text not always coherent in content and ideas and has few details which support the topic.  
              Planning/drafting inadequate. Text not well presented. |
### Below 30%
- No knowledge of requirements of the text.
- Writing – learner digresses, meaning is obscure in places.
- Text not coherent in content and ideas and too few details to support the topic.
- Planning and drafting non-existent. Poorly presented text.

### Language

| 80 to 100% | • Has applied all the necessary rules of format.  
| • Text is grammatically accurate and well constructed.  
| • Vocabulary is very appropriate to purpose, audience and context.  
| • Style, tone, register very appropriate.  
| • Text virtually error-free following proof-reading, editing.  
| • Length correct. |

| 70 to 79% | • Has applied the necessary rules of format.  
| • Text is well constructed and accurate.  
| • Vocabulary is mostly appropriate to purpose, audience and context.  
| • Style, tone and register mostly appropriate.  
| • Text largely error-free following proof-reading, editing.  
| • Length correct. |

| 60 to 69% | • Has applied most of the necessary rules of format.  
| • Text is well constructed and easy to read.  
| • Vocabulary is appropriate to purpose, audience and context.  
| • Style, tone and register generally appropriate.  
| • Text mostly error-free following proof-reading, editing.  
| • Length correct. |

| 50 to 59% | • Has applied an adequate idea of the requirements of format.  
| • Text is adequately constructed. Errors do not impede flow.  
| • Vocabulary is adequate for the purpose, audience and context.  
| • Style, tone and register adequately appropriate.  
| • Text still contains few errors following proof-reading, editing.  
| • Length correct. |

| 40 to 49% | • Has a moderate idea of the requirements of format – some critical oversights.  
| • Text is basically constructed. Several errors.  
| • Vocabulary is limited and not very suitable for the purpose, audience and context.  
| • Lapses in style tone and register.  
| • Text contains several errors following proof-reading, editing.  
<p>| • Length – too long/short. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Range</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 30 to 39%   | - Has vaguely applied the necessary rules of format.  
- Text is poorly constructed and difficult to follow.  
- Vocabulary requires remediation and not suitable for purpose, audience and context.  
- Style, tone and register inappropriate.  
- Text error-ridden despite proof-reading, editing.  
- Length – too long/short. |
| Below 30%   | - Has not applied the necessary rules of format.  
- Text is poorly constructed and muddled.  
- Vocabulary requires serious remediation and not suitable for purpose.  
- Style, register and tone do not correspond with topic.  
- Text error-ridden and confused following proof-reading, editing.  
- Length – far too long/short. |
Opportunities to practise writing

Essays

Write between 200 and 250 words on your chosen topic.

1. Write an essay that contains the following words:
   If I had not left ...
   OR
   As the day came to an end, I could not believe ...
   NOTE: These words can appear anywhere in the essay.

2. There is more recognition of women in society today than ever before. Discuss your views.

3. AIDS orphans – whose responsibility are they?

4. Lessons I have learnt from my older brother/sister.

5. Our communities are no longer safe. Do you agree? Discuss your view in a well-substantiated essay.

6. If I were the principal of this school, I would ...

7. Sport is not what it used to be. Instead of going to the matches for the fun and excitement, we sit in front of the TV set. It’s not the same. Do you agree?

8. Grandmothers

9. Have the technological advances of the last ten years had a positive impact on the lives of young people?

10. Spring

11. Things I am grateful for

12. The pictures reproduced on the following pages may evoke a reaction or feeling in you or stir your imagination. Choose one and write an essay on it. Give your essay a title.
O P P O R T U N I T I E S  T O  P R A C T I S E  W R I T I N G


Longer transactional writing

Write between 120 and 150 words on your chosen topic.

**FRIENDLY LETTER**
Your best friend has won a talent contest. Write a letter to congratulate him/her on this achievement.

**BUSINESS LETTER**
You were shopping in a local shop recently and the shop assistant was very rude to you. Write a letter of complaint to the shop manager.
PERSONAL LETTER
At a social occasion your friend took offence to a joke you made at her expense. Write a letter to this friend in which you apologise for the unintended insult.

BUSINESS LETTER
You are planning to spend a holiday at a beach resort. Write the formal letter you would send to Wow Beach Resort to make a reservation. Remember to include specific dates and personal requirements.

Shorter transactional writing
Write between 80 and 100 words on your chosen topic.

DIARY ENTRIES
You have gone through a very happy/difficult period recently. You recorded your experience in a diary. Write out the diary entries for any three days.

INSTRUCTIONS
You have been asked to do a short oral presentation for a Life Orientation lesson on how to study effectively. Write down a list of five tips you would give your classmates in your presentation.

DIRECTIONS
Your grandfather will be attending your sports day. Write the directions that will enable him to drive from his home to the venue. In the directions, you should include at least three landmarks, as well as indications of distance and direction between these landmarks.

INFORMAL SPEECH
As part of the end-of-year celebrations, your school's Cultural Club invites Grade 10 learners to a dinner held at the school. At the end of the evening you are asked to make a short, informal speech to thank the organisers and sponsors, and to conclude the evening.

Write the speech you would make.
DIALOGUE
You recently had to admit to one of your parents that you did something wrong. Use the dialogue format to write this conversation.

Summaries

Question 1
Imagine that you are preparing a speech on healthy habits for teenagers. In your web research, you came across the article ‘Healthy Habits for teens’. Read the article below and extract SEVEN important points to include in your speech.

Instructions
1. Write your points in full sentences using NOT more than 70 words.
2. Number your sentences from 1 to 7 and write only ONE fact per line.
3. Write in correct sentences and use your own words as far as possible.
4. Indicate the number of words you have used in brackets at the end of your summary.
5. Note that you will be penalised if you ignore these instructions.

Healthy Habits for Teens
Nov 12th, 2009 by lynn5991
Health and hygiene needs change during adolescence. However, making wise food choices, exercising, and getting enough sleep are still the keys to good health.

Nutrition
Puberty has an impact on nutritional needs. A balanced diet of nutritious foods is needed to fuel growth, as well as normal body processes. Teens typically consume more calories than usual during growth spurts.

Eating correctly means not only avoiding foods high in fat, sugar, and salt, but also taking sensible portions. Overeating, especially of high calorie foods, can lead to obesity. Parents can help by making nutritious food choices available, setting a good example, and paying attention to portion sizes.
Exercise
A moderate amount of daily exercise is important for everyone, including teens. It builds strong bones and muscles and benefits the heart and blood vessels. Physical inactivity sets the stage for possible obesity and the development of other health problems later in life.
There are some ways teens can add exercise to their daily routine. Doing so helps the body cope with stress and strengthens muscles.

Sleep
Everyone needs adequate sleep. The body, especially the brain and nervous system, restores itself during sleep. Teens need at least eight and one half hours of sleep every night, but most only sleep about seven hours. They tend to go to bed late and then find it difficult to get up in the morning.

The negative effects of too little sleep include the following:
- Difficulty concentrating in school and lower marks
- Becoming irritated more easily and losing emotional control
- Decreased resistance to illness.

Some teens take on too many extracurricular activities or hold part time jobs during the school week. Others spend late nights on the computer or watching television. Good choices, time management skills, and a regular sleep schedule can help teens get enough rest.

(Adapted from http://www.bukisa.com/articles/190045_healthy-habits-for-teens User published content is licensed under a Creative Commons Licence.)

Question 2
Imagine that you are writing an argumentative essay on technology and teenagers. In your web research, you came across the post on CreateDebate.com. Read the post below and extract eight important points to include in your essay.

Instructions
1. Write your points in full sentences using NOT more than 70 words.
2. Number your sentences from 1 to 8 and write only ONE fact per line.
3. Write in correct sentences and use your own words as far as possible.
4. Indicate the number of words you have used in brackets at the end of your summary.

5. Note that you will be penalised if you ignore these instructions.

Post by SMCdeBater

Look, it is quite obvious that technology dominates the lives of various teenagers, myself included, and it is easy for mistakes to happen.

Take MSN for example; millions of teens worldwide use the internet to technologically chat to a friend or others. When you are chatting to someone online, there are dangers, and not just the obvious ones. This is where we see Cyber Bullying, and how it has affected the lives of thousands of teens from all parts of the world. If a teen is continuously bullied, depression is one common result, which can often, and has, lead to suicide. But why just limit Cyber Bullying to the Internet, when this similarly occurs on mobile phones and e-mails?

One other major harm that is highly evident with teenagers is technological addiction, which can occur within Internet chatting, gaming, online gaming, excessive downloading, website interests, etc. This involves repetitive uses of certain technology to an addictive extent. This is one of the leading causes of teenage obesity and is again a problem that can be seen worldwide (in some countries it may occur more than in others). Addictive habits towards technology do not promote any form of exercise, which is why a build up of excessive energy and fats are not removed from the body, and obesity is the result.

The above two problems are the most common when it comes to teenagers, and teenagers are suffering as a result of it. More teenagers need to start accepting that life isn't limited to technology and that anyone who believes so should get outside and get to know planet Earth. I am 15, and I am a regular user of the Internet, but I also play Basketball, Chess, Compete in School Debates, Compete in Public Speaking Competitions, and most of all, socialize with friends outside the Internet. It isn't hard to break away from technology, yet most teens are drawn into a life of technology one way or another. Some do it to "fit in," some do it to "try new things," and some do it "just because it is there to do." Like I said, it isn't hard to break away; some people just need more help doing this than others.
Possible answers to summaries

**Question 1**

1. Teenagers need to have a balanced diet to help their bodies grow.
2. Parents should help by offering teenagers healthy foods in the right size portions.
3. Teenagers need daily exercise.
4. Exercise builds muscles and bone and helps with stress.
5. Teenagers must have about eight and a half hours sleep every night.
6. Teenagers don’t sleep enough.
7. Sleep gives the body a chance to restore itself.

[70 words]

**Question 2**

1. Millions of teenagers use technology and chat on the internet.
2. Many teenagers’ lives are taken over by technology negatively.
3. Teenagers get involved to fit in or to try new things.
4. There are dangers of online chatting.
5. One danger is Cyber Bullying.
6. Another danger is becoming addicted to technology.
7. Technologically addicted teenagers do not exercise.
8. It is possible to avoid being addicted.

[69 words]
Overview

In this section we are going to revise the language you need for your examinations. Remember, you need to understand the rules and know how to apply them. You do not have to learn this as if it were theory.
Nouns

Types of nouns

Nouns are the names of people, places, things and emotions or feelings. There are four types of noun:

1. a common noun names things
   Example: books, pens, schools, teachers

2. a proper noun names a specific person or a specific place or a specific thing
   Example: Mr Zuma, Cape Town, Freedom Square, *The Great Gatsby*

3. an abstract noun names emotions or feelings that cannot be touched, seen, heard, or tasted
   Example: love, hate, happiness

4. a collective noun names a group of things
   Example: a pride of lions, a team of soccer players, a school of fish

Number

Most nouns have a singular and a plural form.
Usually in English we add an ‘s’ to make the singular noun plural.

Example: desk – desks

Some nouns have an irregular plural form.

Examples: man – men, foot – feet, wife – wives
You need to study the irregular forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>For most nouns, add an ‘s’</th>
<th>cars, schools, jobs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For nouns ending in ‘ch, x, s, or ‘s’-like sounds, add ‘es’</td>
<td>churches, foxes, buses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For nouns ending in ‘f’ or ‘fe’, change to ‘ve’</td>
<td>elves, loaves, thieves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For most nouns ending in ‘o’, add an ‘s’</td>
<td>pianos, videos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some nouns ending in ‘o’, add ‘es’ (learn these)</td>
<td>heroes, potatoes, tomatoes volcanoes,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For most nouns that end in a vowel and ‘y’, add ‘s’</td>
<td>boys, days, keys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For nouns that end in a consonant and ‘y’, change ‘y’ to ‘ies’</td>
<td>babies, countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some nouns change a vowel sound when they become plural</td>
<td>mice, geese, men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some nouns have forms from Old English</td>
<td>children, oxen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some nouns don’t change</td>
<td>species, sheep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The apostrophe is never used to form a plural.</td>
<td>SMSs, photos, 1940s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Countable and uncountable nouns**

**Countable nouns**
Most nouns can be counted and have singular and plural forms.
Examples: car – cars, human – humans

**Uncountable nouns**
Some nouns are uncountable.
Examples: sugar, flour, meat, beef, pork, mutton, chicken (as a food), advice, algebra, work, homework, equipment, furniture.
You must learn which nouns are uncountable so that you do not make them plural.

**Determiners – articles**

Articles are special adjectives that are used before nouns.
- Indefinite article: a book, an apple
- Definite article: the book, the furniture, the apples
When a particular noun is mentioned two or more times, we usually use the indefinite article (a or an) for the first mention and the definite article (the) for the second and further mention of the noun.

Example: A man walked into the shop. The man (the same man as in the previous sentence) bought a newspaper.

If the noun is well-known or is meant to be specially noted, then the definite article can be used.

Examples: The Koran is a religious text.

Pronouns

Pronouns take the place of a noun and must refer back to the noun. For this reason it is important that the correct pronoun is used to replace the noun.

Types of pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal pronouns</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal pronoun as subject of a clause</td>
<td>Possessive pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>First person</strong></td>
<td>I</td>
<td>me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Second person</strong></td>
<td>you</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Third person</strong></td>
<td>she, he, it</td>
<td>her, him, it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are used to refer back to the subject of the clause.
Examples:
He gave **himself** enough time to wash the car and water the garden.
You gave **yourselves** no chance of winning!

**Possessive pronouns**
Possessive pronouns show ownership.

Examples:
The bag is **mine**.
The lunch boxes are **theirs**.
The ball belongs to the dog. It is **its** ball. (Not it's!)

**Interrogative pronouns**
Interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions. The interrogative pronouns are: who, what, whose, which.

**Relative pronouns**
Relative pronouns are used to refer back to people or things that have already been mentioned in a different clause in a sentence. The relative pronouns are: who, which and that.

**Adjectives**

Adjectives give us information about nouns. They are placed before the noun or after verbs.

**Descriptive adjectives**
Descriptive adjectives tell us more about the noun.
Examples: Green roofs, yellow bricks

**Demonstrative adjectives**
Demonstrative adjectives point to a specific noun.
Examples: **This** dog, **that** cat
Possessive adjectives
Possessive adjectives say who owns an object.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If it belongs to</th>
<th>Possessive adjective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>me</td>
<td>my</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (singular and plural)</td>
<td>your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>him</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>her</td>
<td>her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it</td>
<td>its</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>us</td>
<td>our</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>them</td>
<td>their</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparison of adjectives
Adjectives change when you compare things. When an adjective is not being compared to anything, we say it is in the positive degree.
The adjective takes on the comparative degree when two things are being compared.
The adjective takes on the superlative degree when three or more things are being compared.
| Adverbs |
|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Adverbs give us more information about verbs (they say how something is done) and more information about adjectives and other adverbs. |
| They are usually formed by adding ‘ly’ to the end of the adjective, although there are important exceptions you must look out for. |
| Types of adverb |
| There are five types of adverb, and they are always placed in the sentence in this order: |
| **Adverbs of time** |
| These adverbs tell us when something happens: today, yesterday, later, now. |
| **Adverbs of manner** |
| These adverbs tell us how something is done: slowly. |

| Table: Forming Degrees of Adjectives |
|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| For most adjectives e.g. big | add ‘er’ bigger | add ‘est’ biggest |
| For most adjectives that end in ‘y’ e.g. happy | change the ‘y’ to ‘i’ and add ‘er’ happier | change the ‘y’ to ‘i’ and add ‘est’ happiest |
| If an adjective is long and would sound strange if you add ‘er’ or ‘est’ e.g. honest | add the word more before the adjective more honest | add the word most before the adjective most honest |
| Some adjectives are irregular, and you need to learn their comparative and superlative degrees. good bad many | better worse more | best worst most |
Adverbs of place
These adverbs tell us where something happens: inside, outside.

Adverbs of frequency
These adverbs tell how often something happens: always, usually, often, sometimes, seldom, rarely, never.

Adverbs of reason
These adverbs tell us why something happens: because.

Prepositions

Prepositions show the relationship between two nouns or pronouns.
Common prepositions include: above, across, at, below, behind, by, from, for, in, near, through, over, under, and with.

Some prepositions consist of more than one word. These compound prepositions need to be learned.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>up to</th>
<th>according to</th>
<th>as of</th>
<th>in place of</th>
<th>because of</th>
<th>out of</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>next to</td>
<td>in reference to</td>
<td>out of</td>
<td>by way of</td>
<td>on account of</td>
<td>in spite of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prior to</td>
<td>with respect to</td>
<td>instead of</td>
<td>in front of</td>
<td>ahead of</td>
<td>apart from</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Verbs

A verb tells us what action is being performed (or was performed or will be performed) by the noun or pronoun.
Verbs also say what state the noun or pronoun is (or was or will be) in
Thabo is happy.
   He was unhappy.
   He will be unhappy when he gets his report.
Transitive and intransitive verbs

**Transitive verbs**
Transitive verbs are verbs that have an object.
Example: The cows ate the grass. *(Ate is the verb, the grass is the object.)*

**Intransitive verbs**
Intransitive verbs do not have an object.
Example: The girl walked.

Finite and non-finite verbs

Verbs can be finite or non-finite.

**Finite verbs**
Finite verbs have a subject, have been conjugated to match that subject and have a tense.
Example: The learner (singular subject) leaves late (third person singular conjugation, present tense) for school every day.

**Non-finite verbs**
Non-finite verbs have no subject and have no tense. There are two types of non-finite verbs.

1. The participle is formed by adding –ing to the verb
   Examples: climbing the mountain; walking the dog
2. The infinitive or base form of the verb (often has to in front of it)
   Examples: to cry; to laugh

**Auxiliary verbs**
An auxiliary verb (or helping verb) is a verb that works with a non-finite verb to form a finite verb. Important auxiliary verbs are: be, can, do, must, may, have.
Verb tenses

The tense of the verb indicates when the action took place (past tense), is taking place (present tense) or will take place (future tense).

The present tenses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Present continuous</th>
<th>Simple present</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- for talking about temporary situations</td>
<td></td>
<td>- for talking about:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- for talking about something that is</td>
<td></td>
<td>- habits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happening at the moment of speaking</td>
<td></td>
<td>- things that are generally true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- for talking about permanent situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>be + present participle (The present participle has the form verb+ing.)</td>
<td>the 'usual form' of the verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example</td>
<td>They are learning.</td>
<td>The sun rises.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The past tenses

The past participle is used to form the past tense. We form the past participle of most verbs by adding ‘ed’ to the end of it.

Example: climb – climbed

Some verbs are irregular in the past tense. You should learn these.

For example:

Go – went

Come – came

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Past continuous</th>
<th>Simple past</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for talking about something that was happening at a past time but had not finished at that time</td>
<td>for talking about actions or situations in the past</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>was + present participle</td>
<td>Verb + 'ed' or irregular verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>were verb + present participle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example</td>
<td>They were climbing the fence earlier.</td>
<td>I wanted to win the prize.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>She ate all the crisps.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# The future tenses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Future will</th>
<th>Future going to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Use</strong></td>
<td>- for talking about what we think or believe will happen in the future.</td>
<td>- for talking about something in the future which we can see as a result of something in the present.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We use ‘will’ when we decide to do something at the moment of speaking.</td>
<td>- for talking about what we intend to do in the future. The decision has been made.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Form</strong></td>
<td>will + verb</td>
<td>am going to + verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>are going to + verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>is going to + verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example</strong></td>
<td>They will win the prize.</td>
<td>He is going to climb Mount Everest.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# The perfect tenses

A tense is a perfect tense when the action is over and complete. Compare this to the continuous tenses above. The continuous tenses show that the action is still continuing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Present perfect</th>
<th>Present perfect continuous</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Use</strong></td>
<td>- for action started in the past and continues to the present. The action is finished.</td>
<td>- for action that may be finished or not finished.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- for talking about what has been achieved in a period of time.</td>
<td>- for situations that are more temporary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- for situations that are more permanent</td>
<td>- for talking about how long something has been happening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Form</strong></td>
<td>have + verb + ‘ed’</td>
<td>have been + present participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>has + verb + ‘ed’</td>
<td>has been + present participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example</strong></td>
<td>They have talked about this already.</td>
<td>She has been studying very hard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past perfect</td>
<td>Past perfect continuous</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Use</strong></td>
<td><strong>Use</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for talking about an event (B) that happened before another event in the past (A)</td>
<td>for talking about an event (B) that started before another event in the past (A) and has been happening up to the point we are talking about (A)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Form</strong></td>
<td><strong>Form</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>had + verb + ‘ed’ or irregular verb</td>
<td>had + been + present participle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example</strong></td>
<td><strong>Example</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When she arrived (A), I had already gone to school (B).</td>
<td>The wind had been blowing for an hour (B) when it started to rain (A).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future perfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Use</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Form</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Concord**

Concord occurs when the number of the subject agrees with the number of the verb.

1. Single subjects (for example: I, you, he, she, it, the learner, Mrs Maki) take verbs in their singular form
   
   Examples:
   
   I learn. (first person singular)
   
   You learn at school. (second person singular)
   
   Mary sings. (third person singular)

2. Plural subjects (for example: we, you [plural], they, the dogs) take verbs in their plural form

   Example:
   
   We run in the rain. (first person plural)
   
   You walk in the rain. (second person plural)
   
   The dogs bark in the rain. (third person plural)

3. If the subject of a sentence is composed of two or more nouns or pronouns connected by and you must use a verb in its plural form.

   Example: Jack and Thabo walk to school every morning.
4. If two or more singular nouns or pronouns are connected by or, use a verb in its singular form.
   Example: Jack or Thabo must write on the board.
5. When collective nouns are the subject of the sentence they take a singular verb. Collective nouns are words that imply more than one person or thing (herd, flock, crowd) but are considered singular and take a singular verb.
6. When the words each, each one, either, neither, everyone, everybody, anybody, anyone, nobody, somebody, someone, and no one are used they require verbs in their singular form.
7. When sentences begin with there is or there are, the subject follows the verb. Because there is not the subject, the verb agrees with what follows.

Modals

Modals are verbs that contain the speaker or writer’s subjective view within their meaning.
Example:
Thato is a teacher. (Certainty is created by the simple present tense.)
Thato may be a teacher. (Doubt is created by the modal. He may or not be a teacher.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose of modal</th>
<th>Strength moves from least certainty, possibility, probability</th>
<th>to</th>
<th>most certainty, possibility, probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To make a statement</td>
<td>could be/might be</td>
<td>may</td>
<td>must</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To instruct someone to do something</td>
<td>could</td>
<td>might</td>
<td>must</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To predict something</td>
<td>could/might</td>
<td>may/should</td>
<td>will</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To give advice</td>
<td>might/could</td>
<td>had better</td>
<td>must</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Active and Passive voice

The voice of the verb tells us whether the subject is doing the action (active voice) or whether the subject has the action done on or to it (passive voice).
For example:
Active voice: Enoch Sontonga wrote the hymn.
Passive voice: The hymn was written by Enoch Sontonga.

The passive voice can be in any of the tenses that we have discussed.

Agentless passive
The agentless passive occurs when the agent, or who did the action, is not stated.
Examples: I have been let down. (By whom?) It has been decided. (By whom?) The fridge door was left open. (By whom?)
The agentless passive is often used in scientific writing, persuasive writing and to avoid responsibility.
Examples:
The experiment was performed on the plants. (Notice that there is no-one who is seen to have actually performed the experiment.)
The window was broken. (Nobody is identified so nobody can be held responsible.)

Logical connectors

Logical connectors are used to join or connect two ideas that have a relationship to each other. These relationships can be time, cause, and reason and purpose.

Logical connectors that signal time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conjunctions</th>
<th>Prepositions</th>
<th>Adverbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>until, after, before, when, while,</td>
<td>during, after, before, since</td>
<td>then, next, after that, following</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>since, once, whenever, as soon as,</td>
<td>until, upon</td>
<td>that, before that, afterwards,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as long as, by the time</td>
<td></td>
<td>meanwhile, beforehand</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Logical connectors that signal cause, reason and purpose

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conjunctions</th>
<th>Prepositions</th>
<th>Adverbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>because, as, since, now that, as</td>
<td>due to, in order to, because of</td>
<td>therefore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long as, such that, in order that</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Abbreviations and acronyms and texting symbols

Abbreviations

Abbreviations are the short forms of words that we use in writing.
Rule: If the abbreviation ends on the same letter as the last letter of the original word, do not add a full stop.
Examples: Doctor becomes Dr but March becomes Mar.

Acronyms

Acronyms are words formed from the first letters or syllables of words that make up a longer name.
For example:
SADTU – South African Democratic Teachers’ Union
UN – United Nations
WHO – World Health Organisation

Vocabulary: research meaning of words in reading – dictionary

Dictionaries provide a great deal of information about words and how they should be used and spelled.
The common features of dictionaries are:
technology /tek-nəlˈa-dʒi/  
the practice of any or all of the applied sciences that have practical value and/or industrial use; technical methods in a particular area of industry or art; technical nomenclature; technical means and skills characteristic of a particular civilization, group or period.  
[Gr technē art, skill, and -logy]  
(Extract from The Chambers Dictionary and Thesaurus on CD-ROM v1.0)
Phrases

A phrase is a group of words that must be part of a sentence. You cannot leave a phrase on its own. Phrases in a sentence work as a part of speech. They work as verbs, adjectives, prepositions, adverbs and nouns.

**Verb phrase**
This phrase does the work of a verb.
Example: This afternoon I will be reading for the test tomorrow.

**Adjectival phrase**
This phrase gives more information about a noun.
Example: The man with the big white hat knocked at the door.

**Prepositional phrase**
This phrase connects nouns and pronouns (and noun phrases) to other nouns, pronouns and noun phrases.
Example: This afternoon I will be studying for the test tomorrow.

**Adverbial phrase**
This phrase gives more information about a verb.
Example: Thabo will run with pride at the race on Saturday. (three phrases)

Clauses

A clause is phrase that contains a finite verb.

Independent clauses can stand alone as a simple sentence.
Example: The pen fell on the floor.

Dependent clauses must be joined to an independent clause so that they can make sense.
Examples: when they left; because he wanted to
Types of dependent clauses

1. Noun clauses perform the same function as nouns.
   
   Example: What the young girl did saddened her parents.

2. Adverbial clauses answer:

   o Why?
     
     Example: She failed because she did not study.

   o When?
     
     Example: He began to train as soon as he bought running shoes.

   o Where?
     
     Example: He began to run where he found open spaces.

   o For what purpose?
     
     Example: He started to train so that he could win his race.

   o With what consequence?
     
     Example: He ran so fast that nobody could keep up with him.

   o Under what conditions?
     
     Example: He cannot win unless he trains every day.

3. Adjectival clauses give us more information about a noun. Adjectival clauses are also called relative clauses. There are two types of adjectival clause:

   o defining adjectival clauses give us more information about the noun so that we can understand better
     
     Example: The learner who lives in the squatter camp works very hard.

   o Non-defining adjectival clauses give us more information, but this information is not important to our understanding
     
     Example: Learners, who come to school using different types of transport, arrive late every day.

Sentence types

A simple sentence is a group of words that contains a finite verb and makes sense.

Examples: She fed the dog. They will all leave their homes at the same time.
Statements
Statements end with a full stop and state a fact or opinion or make an arrangement.
Examples: It is cold.

Questions
Questions end with a question mark and are intended to find out information.
Example: Why is the sky blue?

Commands
Commands end with an exclamation mark and are an order to do something.
Example: Come here!

Exclamations
Exclamations are expressions of surprise or a loud cry.
Example: Ow!

Compound and complex sentences

Compound sentences
Compound sentences are made up by joining two sentences with a conjunction.
Example:
   She read. She ate.
   She read and ate.

Complex sentences
Complex sentences are made up using an independent and a dependent clause.
Examples: We could not study because the noise was too loud.

The subject, object and predicate of a sentence
A sentence can be divided up according to what function each part plays in the sentence.

Subject
The subject of the sentence is who or what does the action.
Example: The girl hit the ball.
To find the subject of a sentence ask: Who or what did the verb?
Answer: The girl

**Predicate**
The predicate of a sentence is the verb and object together. If there is no object then the predicate is simply the verb.

Examples: The boy climbed the fence.
Subject = The boy
Predicate = climbed the fence

Thabo laughed.
Subject = Thabo
Predicate = laughed.

**Object**
The object of the sentence is to whom or to what the action is being done.
Example: The boy climbed the fence.
To find the object of a sentence ask: subject verb whom or what?
The boy climbed whom or what?
Answer: the fence.
There are two types of object:

1. The direct object is used when the action of the verb affects the person or thing.
   
   Example: The girl wrote her notes.
   
   Subject = The girl
   
   Did the action of the verb affect an object? Yes, the notes were written.
   
   Direct object = her notes

2. The indirect object is the person for whom or the thing for which the action of the verb and its object is done.

   Example: The boy gave his friend some money.
   
   Subject = The boy
   
   Did the action of the verb affect an object? Yes, the money was given.
   
   Direct object: some money
   
   Was there a person for whom or thing for which the action of the verb and its object were done? Yes, his friend.
   
   Indirect object: his friend
In spoken language we have no punctuation. We listen for pauses to know when
something ends, and can hear by the speaker’s voice that he or she is asking a
question. In writing we need punctuation to make the writing easier to read and
understand.

**Punctuation at the end of sentences**

**Full stop**
The full stop is used to indicate the end of a statement or to show that a word has
been abbreviated.

**Question mark**
A question mark indicates that the sentence is a direct question.

**Exclamation mark**
The exclamation mark is used to show a sharp cry, a loud statement or an emotional
outburst.

**Ellipsis**
Ellipsis is used to show an incomplete thought or idea.
Example: She walked into the square, thinking that ...

**Quotation marks or inverted commas**
Quotation marks are used to show the exact words that were used by a speaker or
writer.

They are also used to show the title of a poem or short story.
Punctuation within sentences

Comma
The comma is used to separate words or phrases in a list. The comma is used in direct speech to show that a speech is about to start.

Ellipsis
Ellipsis can also be used to show that words have been left out of a quotation in a sentence.

Dashes
Dashes are used to bracket words or phrases from the rest of the sentence. Example: He ran – no matter the weather – every night. Dashes can also be used to show that there has been a change of idea or thought. Example: She left – does it really matter?

Colons
Colons are used to show that a list is starting. Example: She bought: books, pencils, pens, paper, scissors, ink and a ruler. Colons are used in plays or dialogues after the speaker or character’s name to show who is speaking. We use a colon if we offer an explanation after a clause that can stand on its own as a complete sentence. Example: You need to leave right now: it is getting dark.

Parenthesis
Parenthesis is used to separate words, phrases or clauses from the rest of the sentence that are not needed to make the sentence grammatically correct. Brackets, commas and dashes can be used for parenthesis. Example: The learners asked the principal (Mr Jacobs) to talk to them.
Punctuation within words

Apostrophe

The apostrophe is used to show that letters have been left out of a word.
The apostrophe is also used to show possession when it is used with ‘s’.
Examples: The book of Thabo = Thabo’s book (When the name ends in an ‘s’
you don’t need to add an ‘s’: Thomas’ book)
The books of the girls = the girls’ books

Hyphens

Hyphens are found inside words and are used to form compound words.
Example: father-in-law

Bold print and italics

Bold type is most used to highlight important information.
Italics are used to show the name of a book, play or film title.
They can also be used in an English text to show that a word is a foreign one: status quo.
When we are writing direct speech italics can be used to show the way in which the speaker said something. The italics emphasise the word.
When we write, we underline words that would be in bold or in italics.
Direct and indirect speech

Direct speech
We use direct speech to record the exact words spoken by someone.

Follow these rules
1. Use quotation marks to indicate actual words.
2. Put the punctuation mark inside the quotation marks.
3. If the speech is introduced with words like said, asked, etc., put a comma after the word.
4. Start the speaker’s words with a capital letter.

Indirect speech
We use indirect speech to report what someone said.

Changing direct speech into indirect speech

Follow these rules
1. Remove the quotation marks.
2. Insert ‘that’ before the original words that were spoken.
3. Change the personal pronouns to third person pronouns.
4. Change the tense so that it is one tense back in time.
5. Change questions to statements. Use words like asked, queried, etc. to show that it was a question in the original. Change exclamations to statements.
6. Change demonstrative adjectives (this, these) and possessive adjectives (my, your) one step further away.

This becomes that; these becomes those; my becomes his or her
7. Change adverbs of time and place correctly. Indirect speech is always one step away from the direct speech. For example, *today* becomes *that day*.

8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct speech</th>
<th>Indirect speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>today</td>
<td>that day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yesterday</td>
<td>the day before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tomorrow</td>
<td>the next day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this week/month/year</td>
<td>that week/month/year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>next week/month/year</td>
<td>the following week/month/year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>last week/month/year</td>
<td>the previous week/month/year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>here</td>
<td>there</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figurative language

Figurative language is language that is used in a creative, non-factual way. Figurative language is used in literary texts and advertising. It creates images in our minds that makes the text more interesting and vivid. Political persuasive writing also uses figurative language to achieve its goal. (See Section 2 Reading and viewing in this Study Guide for more on figures of speech.)

Idioms and proverbs

Idioms

Idioms are distinct expressions that are peculiar to a language and whose meaning may not be easily understood simply by looking at the words that make it up. In English, for example, the following idiomatic expressions mean ‘to die’: to kick the bucket, to go to a better place, to go to the other side, to pass on, to meet your maker.

Proverbs

Proverbs are short sayings that aim to teach a life lesson. They are specific to a language and are often misunderstood because they cannot be taken literally. Example: Don’t cry over spilt milk. This advises us not to waste time being sorry for what has already happened.

Register

Register is the form of language used in specific contexts and situations. Register runs on a scale from low register to high register. Register in a text can be identified by the choice of words – the more complex the words, the higher the register – and the length of sentences – the more complex the sentence structure, the higher the register.
Jargon

Jargon is the use of terms and language specific to an occupation, hobby or sport. Between and among members of the same group these words are called terminology. But, to an outsider who is excluded because she or he does not understand, the words are called jargon.

Examples: curriculum, assessment – educational terminology to a teacher but jargon to a person not in the education sector

Slang

Slang is made up of words and phrases that are used in informal speech. It is often specific to particular social groups and will not be easily understood by people from outside the group.

Slang is often used in computer texts like SMSs and Tweets.

Colloquial language

Colloquial language is informal language and includes expressions and words that are not acceptable in formal speech and writing.

Example: Howzit? (Hello, how are you?) I’m gonna go to the shop. Wanna come with me?

Colloquial language is different to slang because colloquial expressions are often used by many speakers of a language whereas slang is limited to specific social groups.
How are language structures and conventions assessed?

Language is assessed in use. This means that you must understand how to use the language, but you will not be asked to define terms or explain a language term.

**Tasks**

You will complete three formal reading and viewing tasks in Grade 11, as well as a final exam.

Term 1 – Task 4: Test 1 Reading/viewing Comprehension, summary and integrated language study

Term 2 – Task 7: Formal researched speech

Term 3 – Task 10: Task 10: Test 2 Comprehension, summary and integrated language study

**The final exam**

Language in context 2 hours
A: Comprehension (30)
(A range of texts can be used including visual and or graphic texts)

B: Summary: (10)
(Length of the text: 60–70 words)

C: Language
Language structures (words and sentences) should be assessed in context using a variety of texts.
Critical language awareness.

You will also be assessed informally.
SECTION A: COMPREHENSION

QUESTION 1
Read the following passage and answer the questions.

Nelson Mandela's response to the terrible effects of Apartheid was to become a lawyer. He went to Fort Hare University. He and his friend Oliver Tambo were expelled from the university in 1940 for leading a strike. He finished his degree at the University of South Africa. In 1942 Mandela joined the ANC and in 1944, with Oliver Tambo and others, helped form the ANC Youth League. In 1947 he was elected Secretary of the organisation and became President of the Youth League two years later. In 1948 the National Party won the general (for whites only) election in South Africa.

The 1950s were busy years for Mandela. He founded South Africa’s first black legal partnership with Oliver Tambo. He helped to get what was called the M-Plan up and running. This plan organised the ANC members into an underground network – a hidden and secret group of people connected to each other. He was arrested, banned and imprisoned during the ten years of this decade.

The ANC was outlawed in 1961 following the Sharpeville Massacre in 1960. In 1961 Mandela went underground as an ANC member and he formed the ANC’s military section – Unkhonto we Sizwe(The Spear of the Nation). In 1964, Mandela and seven other ANC leaders were found guilty of trying to overthrow the National Party Government. They were all sentenced to life imprisonment. While he was in prison on Robben Island he became famous. South Africans and other people who did not agree with Apartheid saw him as a symbol of equal rights, justice and freedom from Apartheid. He refused to give up his political beliefs in exchange for freedom. He said, “Only free men can negotiate. Prisoners cannot enter into contracts.”
Mandela was freed from prison in 1990 and the first national conference of the ANC was held in South Africa in 1991. Mandela was elected president of the ANC and Oliver Tambo became the national chairperson.

In 1993 he shared the Nobel Peace Prize with F W de Klerk who was then the President of South Africa. Mandela replaced him in 1994 as the first elected black president of South Africa. Signing South Africa’s new constitution, that ensures human rights for all its people, in 1996 was the crowning achievement of Mandela’s political life.

Adapted from http://www.tokencoins.com/mandela.htm

QUESTIONS

1.1 Explain in your OWN WORDS why Nelson Mandela decided to become a lawyer (paragraph 1). (2)
1.2 Explain how Mandela and Tambo’s leading of the strike prepares us for the rest of this short biography (life story) (paragraph 1). (2)
1.3 What does the abbreviation ‘ANC’ stand for? (1)
1.4 Explain the meaning of ‘up and running’ (2)
1.5 Name TWO things that Mandela did in the 1950s (paragraph 2). (2)
1.6 Quote a word from paragraph 2 that means the same as:
   1.6.1 joined or attached (1)
   1.6.2 a ten year period (1)
1.7 Explain why Mandela became a symbol of equal rights, justice and freedom from Apartheid. (2)
1.8 Read the following statement and answer the questions: In 1964, Mandela and seven other ANC leaders were all sent away to spend the rest of their lives in prison.
   1.8.1 Is the statement TRUE or FALSE? (1)
   1.8.2 Give a reason using information from the passage to support your answer. (1)
1.9 In each case say if the statement is a FACT or an OPINION and give a reason for your answer:
1.9.1 Everybody in South Africa believed that Mandela should be released from prison.  

1.9.2 Members of Unkhonto we Sizwe (The Spear of the Nation) wanted to free Mandela from prison.  

1.10 Complete the passage below by filling in the correct form of the word in brackets.  

In paragraph 4 Oliver Tambo is referred to as the national chairperson of the ANC. The writer is correct in using the word chairperson because the words (chair... 1.10.1) and chair... 1.10.2) are regarded as sexist terms.  

1.11 Why are the words Unkhonto we Sizwe (The Spear of the Nation) written in italics (paragraph 3)?  

1.12 Read the following statement and answer the questions: Mandela refused the Nobel Peace prize (paragraph 4).  

1.12.1 Is the statement TRUE or FALSE?  

1.12.2 Quote a phrase of not more than six words from paragraph 5 to support your answer.  

1.13 Do you agree that signing South Africa’s new constitution in 1996 was the crowning achievement of Mandela’s political life? Give a good reason for your answer.  

1.14 Quote ONE word from paragraph 3 that means the opposite of agreed.  

1.15 Explain why the facts about Mandela’s political life are important to the history of South Africa.  

1.16 Give the passage a suitable title that summarises what the passage is about.  

TOTAL SECTION A: 30
SECTION B: SUMMARY WRITING
QUESTION 2

There are many different kinds of food that people who study nutrition believe to be good for us.

INSTRUCTIONS AND INFORMATION
• Read the article, ‘Superfoods that help prevent illness.’
• Choose any THREE foods MENTIONED IN THE PASSAGE that you would be willing to consume.
• In point form, using full sentences, summarise the advantages of these THREE foods.
• Your whole summary should not be more than 60 words in length.

Superfoods that help prevent illness

Fish
Special omega-3 fatty acids are found in fatty or oily fish like pilchards, sardines, fresh tuna, mackerel and salmon. These fatty acids help to protect consumers from cancer and heart attacks. Non-oily fish like sole, hake and tinned tuna are also good for you. Nutritionists advise us to eat oily fish at least once a week and non-oily fish once a week.

Whole Grains
The entire seed of a plant has three layers. The bran is the outer skin, the germ is the embryo which could grow into a new plant, and the endosperm is the food supply of the germ. The process of refining grain, like making flour smooth and white, for example, removes the bran and the germ and this removes 25% of the protein and seventeen of the nutrients. Whole grains provide us with more vitamins, minerals, fibre and protein.

Broccoli
This green vegetable, which looks a bit like cauliflower, contains a chemical called sulforaphane. Studies done on animals show that this chemical helps stop the formation of cancerous growths. Broccoli also contains a substance called
kaempferol that helps prevent allergies in consumers. Eating a cup of steamed broccoli five times a week will help to keep you healthy.

**Turmeric**
This is a spice that comes from India. It has been used medically for centuries. Turmeric contains a substance called curcumin which helps to reduce swelling. Animal studies have shown that it helps to prevent cancer. It is also used in creams to help cure skin diseases and is also used to help people who have bad colds. Adding turmeric to the spices that you use could help to improve your health.

**TOTAL SECTION B: 10**
SECTION C: LANGUAGE IN CONTEXT
QUESTION 3: VISUAL LITERACY
ANALYSING A CARTOON

Study the following cartoon and answer the questions that follow.

(Source: http://mg.co.za/madamve/fullcartoon/283 14 November 2005)
Note: Eve Sisulu is the black domestic worker. The madam – the younger white woman – is Gwen Anderson and the older white woman is the grandmother – Edith Anderson.

QUESTIONS
3.1 Who is the leading, more dominant figure for most of the cartoon?

3.1.1 Prove your answer by summarising what is SAID in Frames 3, 4, 5, 7 and 8. (2)
3.1.2 Prove your answer by referring to what you SEE in Frames 3, 4, 5, 7 and 8. (2)
3.2 How does Eve’s point of view change from frame 3 to frame 6 and from frame 7 to 10? (2)

3.3 Explain why the exclamation AH-HA (frame 10) is printed in bold capital letters. (1)

3.4 Edith Anderson, the grandmother, uses informal language in frame 6.
   Quote this example of informal language used in the cartoon. (1)

3.5 Quote a word from the cartoon that means the same as earlier. (1)

3.6 Rewrite the news announcer’s words in frame 10 starting with the words: Parliament raised... (2)

3.7 Rewrite 'Here we go again!' (frame 9) in more formal language. (2)

[13]

QUESTION 4: USING LANGUAGE CORRECTLY
Read the text and answer the questions based on it.

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT IS UNLAWFUL BUT IS STILL BEING USED IN SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS

Although school corporal punishment – most often in the form of teachers hitting, beating, pinching, kicking, pushing learners – is unlawful in South Africa, hundreds of cases are reported every year. Childline South Africa (www.childlinesa.org.za) says that many thousands of cases are not reported because learners and their parents and/or caregivers fear being victimised by teachers. Also, many adults in South Africa believe that corporal punishment is the most effective way to discipline learners.

Few adults seem to understand how dangerous corporal punishment can be. Children are often severely injured by teachers. Recently four teachers were arrested for beating a learner so badly that he needed stitches. Another teacher hit a learner on the head so hard that the learner lost his hearing in one ear for a few days. Learners have been admitted to hospital with internal bleeding from beatings that teachers have given them. Imagine a child whose mass is 40 kg being beaten by a teacher more than twice his size and you will have good reason to think again about whether or not corporal punishment is a good thing.
QUESTIONS

4.1 Choose the most likely answer from the list below.
   The extract has been taken from...
   A  a magazine.
   B  a high school textbook.
   C  an encyclopaedia.
   D  a report.  (2)

4.2 Considering the heading, what do you think the author’s aim was in writing the text?  (3)

4.3 Complete the following sentences by adding the missing question tags:
   For example: All learners need discipline, don’t they?
   4.3.1 Corporal punishment is wrong, ... ...?  (1)
   4.3.2 Teachers should not hit learners, ... ...?  (1)

4.4 Combine the following sentences using the word 'and':
   Parents fear being victimised by teachers. Many adults believe that corporal punishment is necessary.  (2)

4.5 Rewrite the sentence below, starting with the words given.
   Do not change the meaning of the sentence.
   Another teacher hit a learner on the head.
   A learner was ....  (2)

4.6 Complete the following passage by:
   • Giving the correct form of the word;
   • Filling in the missing word; or
   • By choosing the correct word from those given.
   Give only the number and the correct answer.
   When I realised how (4.6.1 danger) corporal punishment can be, I (4.6.2 decide/decided) to find out (4.6.3 which/witch) teachers were (4.6.4 hit) the learners. I felt that at least I was doing something and that this (4.6.5 might/may) be (4.6.6 ...) help to learners who were too afraid to come forward.  (6)
QUESTION 5: DICTIONARY AND LANGUAGE SKILLS

Study the following dictionary entry concerning the word ‘discipline’ which is used in the previous passage, and answer the questions that follow.

discipline / n / 1 area of study in Education: English and Life Sciences are disciplines that we can study.
2 a punishment: They decided to enforce discipline to teach him to obey the rules. 3 a state of control in a classroom: The discipline in the teacher’s classroom was evident.
discipline / v / 1 to punish someone: They disciplined their children by punishing them when they failed to be obedient. 2 to teach obedience or appropriate behaviour: They disciplined their children so that they would behave well in company.

QUESTIONS

5.1 Read the sentence below and answer QUESTIONS 5.1.1 to 5.1.2.

Also, many adults in South Africa believe that corporal punishment is the most effective way to discipline learners.

5.1.1 Is the underlined word used as a noun or as a verb? (2)
5.1.2 Quote the dictionary definition that gives the correct meaning of the word 'discipline' as it is used in the sentence above. (2)

5.2 Explain why the word 'discipline' has been printed in bold letters in the dictionary entry above. (2)

5.3 What is the function of the sentences that have been printed in italics in the dictionary entry? (2)

5.4 In the dictionary entry, what do ‘v’ and ‘n’ stand for? (2)

TOTAL SECTION C: 40

GRAND TOTAL: 80

[Adapted from ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE P1 NOVEMBER 2006, Department of Education]
Exam papers

Paper 3  Writing  2 Hours

INSTRUCTIONS AND INFORMATION
1. Start each section on a NEW page.
2. Write neatly and legibly.
3. Pay attention to spelling, sentence construction and language.
4. Number the answers correctly according to the numbering system used in this question paper.

CHOICE OF ANSWERS
1. This question paper consists of THREE sections, namely SECTION A, SECTION B and SECTION C.
   SECTION A: Creative writing (50 marks)
   SECTION B: Longer transactional writing (30 marks)
   SECTION C: Shorter pieces (20 marks)
2. You are required to answer ONE question from EACH section.
3. There must be evidence that you have planned, proof-read and edited your work.
SECTION A: CREATIVE WRITING

QUESTION 1

Write an essay of 200–250 words (approximately 1½ to 2 pages) on ONE of the following topics. Number your essay correctly and give it a title.

There must be evidence that you have planned, proof-read and edited your work.

1.1 My plans for the next ten years
1.2 Write an essay containing the following words:
   I have never been as shocked and surprised as I was that day.
1.3 Shops should be closed on Sundays and Public Holidays. Discuss.
1.4 Write a story called: They arrived from Space.
1.5 Write an essay on a topic that comes to mind when you look at one of the pictures below. Give your essay a title.

1.5.1
TOTAL SECTION A: 50

SECTION B: LONGER TRANSACTIONAL WRITING

QUESTION 2

Choose ONE of the following topics.
The body of your response should be between 120–150 words (approximately 15–20 lines).
There must be evidence that you have planned, proof-read and edited your work.

2.1 FRIENDLY LETTER

Hanna Shiburi, the well-known pianist and singer who used to be a learner at your school came to talk to your class about making and playing music as a career. She was very friendly and asked you all to call her by her first name.

Write a letter thanking her for visiting your class.
2.2 BUSINESS LETTER
You were extremely well treated by an employee, Thomas Shibango, of ABC Computer Supplies who went out of his way to help you. He was friendly and courteous as well as very efficient. Write a letter to his manager, Ms Samuels, complimenting her on Thomas’s excellent customer care.

TOTAL SECTION B: 30 MARKS

SECTION C: SHORTER PIECES

QUESTION 3

Choose ONE of the following topics.
The body of your response should be between 80–100 words.
There must be evidence that you have planned, proof-read and edited your work.

3.1 POSTER
Design a poster to encourage people to save water.

Note: No illustrations are required. Write only the text for the poster.

3.2 DIARY ENTRY
You are away on a camping trip in the Namib desert and are keeping a diary.

Write the diary entries of the first three days.

3.3 DIRECTIONS
Your parents have invited the parents of your best friend to dinner at your house.

Write them careful directions from their house to your house.

TOTAL SECTION C: 20

[Adapted from Via Afria Study Guide English First Additional Language Grade 10: 2010]
SECTION A: COMPREHENSION

QUESTION 1 (No language penalty unless learners must quote directly)

1.1 Mandela decided to become a lawyer so that he could fight against Apartheid. (2)
1.2 We expect the rest of the biography to tell us more about how Mandela opposed the government/laws at that time. (Award 0 or 2) (2)
1.3 African National Congress (1)
1.4 Working/doing its job/being successful (Award 0 or 2) (2)
1.5 He founded the first black lawyer partnership. He got the M-Plan organised and working. (TWO answers = 1 + 1) (2)
1.6
1.6.1 connected (1)
1.6.2 decade (1)
1.7 Learners’ own responses are required and a variety of answers can be expected.
   Marker discretion is advised. Marks are awarded for the ability to argue a point.
   Example: Mandela was seen to be a victim of South African Apartheid laws. (2)
1.8
1.8.1 True (1)
1.8.2 We read that they were all sentenced to life imprisonment. (1)
1.9.1 Opinion (Not everyone thought this. If they had thought so, Mandela would not have been in prison. (2)
1.9.2 Opinion (1) we have no evidence of this. (2)
1.10.1 Chairman (1)
1.10.2 Chairlady/Chairwoman (1)
1.11 It is the title of an organisation. (1)
1.12.1 False (1)
1.12.2 “he shared the Nobel Peace prize” (Learners should use quotation marks but do not penalise if they get the answer correct.) (1)
1.13 Learners’ own responses are required and a variety of answers can be expected. Marker discretion is advised. Marks are awarded for the ability to argue a point. NB: It must be clear that learners understand the meaning of “crowning achievement”. Example: Yes, it was the finest thing that he could have done. (2)

1.14 “refused” (Do not penalise if learners have not used quotation marks.) (1)

1.15 Learners’ own responses are required and a variety of answers can be expected. Marker discretion is advised. Marks are awarded for the ability to argue a point. Example: If we do not know these facts we cannot fully understand the history of South Africa. (2)

1.16 A variety of answers can be expected. The answer should be a summary of the content of the text. Examples: Mandela’s political highlights/A short political life of Mandela (1)
Criteria for marking TRUE/FALSE questions

1. If True or False is correct and there is a quote/substantiation, but it is wrong – candidate gets 1 mark.
2. If True or False is incorrect – NO mark irrespective of correct quote/substantiation.
3. If True or False is correct and quote/substantiation is correct – 2 marks.
4. If candidates are asked to quote, words must be quoted from the passage and not contextualised. If True or False is correct but contextualisation is given – candidate gets 1 mark.
5. If only True or False and no quotation/substantiation – no marks.
6. If Yes or No instead of True or False – no marks.
7. If T or F instead of True or False – AWARD MARKS
8. Words contained in the quotation MUST be spelt 100% correctly.
9. If only the quotation/substantiation is given without True/False – NO MARKS.

TOTAL SECTION A: 30
SECTION B: SUMMARY WRITING

QUESTION 2

Points to look for: (ANY 3)

1. Fish
2. Whole grains
3. Broccoli
4. Turmeric

Points must be given in full sentences. Points need not be written in the first person (I would choose to...)

Example:
Look for the meaning and not the exact words reflected in the alternatives given below.

1. Omega-3 fatty acids, found in oily fish, protect consumers from cancer and heart attacks.

2. Whole grains contain more vitamins, minerals, fibre and protein. Refining these removes 25% of the protein and seventeen nutrients.

3. Broccoli contains sulforaphane that helps stop the formation of cancerous growths, and kaempferol that helps prevent allergies in consumers.

4. Turmeric contains curcumin which helps to reduce swelling, prevent cancer, cure skin diseases and help people who have bad colds.
MARKING INSTRUCTIONS

- Award 2 marks for each correct point given.
- Note that learners need NOT use their own words.
- Award 4 marks for language and cohesion, according to the grid below.
- Consider each incomplete sentence as a language error. (10)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mark allocation</th>
<th>Descriptors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Very good use of language with no more than 3 errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good cohesion, logic and flow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fairly good use of language with no more than 5 errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Points mentioned in a sensible manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Poor language with more than 5 errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Points are disjointed or incorrect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Unintelligible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total misinterpretation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not attempted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PENALTIES

- NB! Count the number of words up to the maximum word limit of 60 and draw a double slash (/ /). Do not award marks to points given after the word limit has been reached.
- Each incomplete sentence must be treated as a language error.
- The mark awarded for language may not exceed the marks obtained for the content.
- Deduct 1 mark from the total if the summary is written in paragraph form.

TOTAL SECTION B: 10
SECTION C: LANGUAGE IN CONTEXT

QUESTION 3: VISUAL LITERACY (No language penalty)

3.1  Eve Sisulu

3.1.1 She speaks the most./She talks down to Gwen and Edith Anderson./She questions what the TV announcer is saying./She criticises the way in which metaphors suggest that white is good and black is bad     (2)

3.1.2 In Frames 3, 4 and 7 Gwen and Edith Anderson look up at Eve, who is talking, and away from the TV screen./In Frame 5 Gwen and Edith Anderson look surprised and stunned as Eve talks. In Frame 8 Gwen and Edith Anderson look at each other as they listen to what Eve is saying.     (2)

3.2  In Frame 3 Eve is adamant/inflexible in her argument but in Frame 6 she thinks about what Edith is saying. In Frame 7 she is again adamant but in Frame 10 she is quiet as Gwen and Edith are triumphant. (Learners must make a comparison.)     (2)

3.3  AH-HA is printed in bold capital letters because Gwen and Edith see the reference to the Gautrain becoming a white elephant as a denial of Eve’s point that only black things, not white things, are seen to be bad.     (1)

3.4  “I dunno” (Need not use quotation marks)     (1)

3.5  “previously” (Need not use quotation marks)     (1)

3.6  Parliament raised concerns that the planned 20 billion rand Gautrain linking Pretoria and Johannesburg could end up becoming a huge, expensive white elephant.     (2)

3.7  This is about to happen again.     (2)

[13]
ANSWERS TO EXAM PAPERS

SECTION 6

QUESTION 4: USING LANGUAGE CORRECTLY

4.1 D/A report

4.2 The author’s aim is to point out that unlawful corporal punishment is being carried out in South African schools. (Accept something similar.)

4.3.1 Corporal punishment is wrong, isn’t it? (Comma and question mark must be correct.)

4.3.2 Teachers should not hit learners, should they? (Comma and question mark must be correct.)

4.4 Parents fear being victimised by teachers and many adults believe that corporal punishment is necessary.

4.5 A learner was hit on the head by another teacher.

4.6 SPELLING MUST BE CORRECT

4.6.1 dangerous

4.6.2 decided

4.6.3 which

4.6.4 hitting

4.6.5 might

4.6.6 of

[16]
Questions 5: Dictionary and Language Skills

5.1.1 noun (2)

5.1.2 "a punishment (Learners need not use quotation marks.) (2)

5.2 It is the head word. / It is in bold letters so that it can be seen easily by the reader when she or he is using the dictionary. (2)

5.3 They show how the words are used in a sentence. / They distinguish the definitions from the examples. (2)

5.4 "v" stands for "verb" and "n" stands for "noun". (2)

TOTAL SECTION C: 40

Paper 3  Writing

Use the rubrics in Section 3, Unit 7 to assess your writing. You may wish to ask a friend to do this for you for an objective response.

[Adapted from Via Afrika Study Guide English First Additional Language Grade 10: 2010]