A PROPOSAL FOR A CORE ESL CURRICULUM FOR INTERMEDIATE (FIFTH FORM) SECONDARY STUDENTS IN FRANCOPHONE CAMEROON

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To

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ABSTRACT

This monograph addresses itself to the issues involved in the design and implementation of an ESL curriculum for intermediate (fifth form) secondary students in francophone Cameroon. The study seeks to fill a vacuum at this level by suggesting teaching-learning activities necessary to ensure the language growth of pupils just emerging from a series of ESL courses in the first cycle of their secondary school career.

The major thrust in the study is that of developing in students receptive (reading) and productive (writing) controls over some of the basic lexical devices used in English narrative and expository rhetoric. The central dimensions that have been examined relate to the formulation of performance objectives, the selection, analysis and progression of content, the organization of content for classroom instruction, and a strategy for evaluating the outcomes of learning. The external supports (pedagogical, administrative and financial) necessary to ensure the success and efficacy of the proposed curriculum are also examined.

INTRODUCTION

The geopolitical history of the United Republic of Cameroon constitutes a fascinating, rather complex and unique episode in the mainstream of the political evolution of modern nation states in Africa. It has become customary for most discourses on aspects of national life in the country to start off with brief reviews of the historical processes that have contributed to shaping the present "personality" of the country. This is perfectly legitimate since the impact of these historical processes on the character of Cameroon national life has been profound, and in fact constitutes the very raison d'etre of the country. While these processes are by no means simple, and detailed accounts of their multi-faceted implications will not be attempted here, brief characterizations of their major trends seem appropriate for some perspective into the variables that have operated in time and space in shaping and orienting the interacting forces of educational change in the country.

Like all African states, the Cameroon is the creation of the activities of European colonial powers, but unlike the rest of Africa, the country underwent a number of metamorphoses in her colonial experiences that are nowhere replicated on the continent. In the first place, the name 'Cameroon' is of foreign origin, derived from the Portuguese expression 'Rio dos Cameroes' meaning 'River of Prawns'. Some 15th century Portuguese sailors are reported to be the first Europeans to touch on the coast of the country at the mouth of the Wouri River, probably in 1472. They were struck by an abundance of shrimps in the Wouri estuary - hence

the name 'Rio dos Cameroes' from which 'Cameroon' was subsequently coined (LeVine, 1971).

Secondly, and more importantly, the "personality" of present-day Cameroon is largely the product of the various forms of alien rule, international tutelage and nationalist political independence movements in the late 19th and the first six decades of the 20th centuries to which the country had been subjected in the course of its political evolution (Rubin, 1971). The Berlin conference of 1884 - a conference convened to systematize European scramble for territories in Africa at the time - recognized the territorial claims of Germany over the Kamerun. The outbreak of the First World War in 1914 brought an abrupt end to German rule over Kamerun when a combined force of British and French troops invaded the territory. The League of Nations partitioned the country into two parts, placing the much larger section under the surveillance of France as a mandated territory (known from thence as Cameroon) and the smaller section, two discontinuous blocks of territories (referred to as British Northern and Southern Cameroons) under Britain, also as a mandate. This arrangement ushered the birth of the current controversy on European bilingualism in English and French, a problem that will be examined in Chapter One.

At the end of the Second World War, the United Nations that replaced the defunct League of Nations continued to recognize the

proprietorships of Britian and France over their respective territories of former German Kamerun but now under the status of trusteeships. For purposes that Britain thought convenient she administered British Cameroons as an adjunct of neighbouring Federation of Nigeria.

The 1940's and 50's witnessed the rise of nationalist political movements in Africa that demanded political independence from their respective colonial ~~rulers~~ rulers. The Cameroon was, of course, not left out in the mainstream of ensuing developments. In French Cameroon the road to independence was rather thorny. The political parties that sought independence from France had conflicting political ideologies and engaged in bitter conflicts in an effort to control the government at the eventual departure of France. On January 1, 1960 the UC (Union Camerounaise) party backed by France and led by the present president of the country, Alhaji Ahmadou Ahidjo, won independence for French Cameroun, thereafter known as Republic of Cameroun.

Developments in British Cameroons were less dramatic. With Nigeria's independence on October 1, 1960, the status of British Northern and Southern Cameroons had to be decided later, on October 1, 1961, in a UN - supervised plebiscite since, in the opinion of the UN, the territories were not sufficiently viable to stand as an independent unit. The question posed to the inhabitants of these territories at the plebiscite was simple - to

decide for a merger with either Nigeria or Cameroun Republic. British Northern Cameroons opted for political integration with Nigeria while Southern Cameroons preferred a union with Cameroun Republic. The union of British Southern Cameroons (about one fifth the size of Cameroun Republic both territorially and demographically) with Cameroun Republic led to the birth of the Federal Republic of Cameroon. In the federal arrangement the English-speaking section of the country was rechristened West Cameroon and the French-speaking section East Cameroon.

After nearly eleven years of a federal system of government the people of the Federal Republic of Cameroon were called upon on May 20, 1972 to vote in a referendum for the adoption of a new constitution instituting a unitary state. The results of the referendum revealed an overwhelming support for the government-prepared package - hence the birth of present day United Republic of Cameroon.

A few fingertip facts about the country at this point seems appropriate. The figures cited below are taken mainly from "Cameroun: Guide de Renseignements" published by the Canadian International Development Agency, Ottawa, June, 1975.

AREA: 474,000 square kilometres stretching from the hot, humid, wet-dry equatorial forest region in the south through a variety of transitional ecological and landscape mixes to the near arid zone in the vicinity of Lake Chad in the north. The dominant landscape feature is Mount Cameroon in the extreme south-west portion of the country near the coast, towering to a height of about 4,070 metres.

POPULATION: About 6.1 million (1973 estimate) out of which about 1.8 million inhabitants live in former West Cameroon. About 82% of the total population is rural, deriving their sustenance from agricultural activities. Urbanization is modest and rural-urban migration is a problem.

ECONOMY: Largely agricultural, coffee, cocoa, cotton, banana constituting the main export crops. Industrialization is very modest, industries being largly import-substitution and producing such consumer goods as aluminum, cement, coffee and cocoa beverages; beer, soft drinks and wine; shoes, bicycles (assembly).

EDUCATION:

Primary level:	750,000 students
Secondary level:	65,000 students
Technical:	20,000 students
Higher:	4,000 students

It is in this background that the problems related to Cameroon development, in particular with respect to language in use and its educational implications, can be appreciated.

CHAPTER ONE

Language, Schools and Curriculum in the Cameroon, and the Object of the Monograph

The language question has, since the reunification of former British Southern Cameroons and Cameroun Republic, posed a rather vexing problem in the definition of national purpose and orientation of cultural values in the country. As Johnson (1970, pp. 293-294) highlights the issues that have been involved,

> Language became a focal element in the discussion concerning national purpose and the role of the two federated communities in its definition and pursuit... Was the country to evolve an integrated culture or not? And if so, could this be achieved on the basis of bilingualism (in English and French) or would it be desirable or necessary to have a genuine lingua franca, a single national language, spoken throughout the country? If one language was to become a lingua franca, which language, one of the two official European ones or one of the vernaculars.

Apart from English and French which are, in any case, spoken in an articulate manner by only the educated who constitute a very small percentage of the total population, there are a number of indigenous languages and dialects the exact number of which is unknown. In the northern parts of the country Hausa and Fulfuldé, belonging to the semitic group of languages, are widely spoken among other languages (Vernon-Jackson, 1967). But in the more thickly populated south one finds, in the words of Ngou quoted by Asongwed (1975, p.56) "a bewildering variety of ethnic groups amidst a splintered profusion of linguistic aggregates".

This situation has led to the production of a number of different, rather arbitrary, estimates of the number of ethnic groups and their associated languages. As Asongwed, (1975, p.56) notes "Mbassi Manga has written that Cameroon has ten languages and two hundred and eighty-five dialects. F.X. Tchoungui states that there exist about fifty tribes that speak over one hundred languages while Le Tableau de la population du Cameroun, IRCAM (1965) shows that Cameroon has over one hundred and seventy-three ethnic groups.

Superimposed upon these diverse languages and dialects is pidgin English, a hybrid language with a varied base of English, French, Dutch, Spanish, Portuguese and many indigenous lexical items and expressions spoken mainly in the southern parts of the country.

Given this rather complex linguistic mix it is not suprising that a number of prescriptions have been suggested for resolving Cameroon's linguistic impasse. Common to these prescriptions is the recognition of the inextricable connection between language and culture. However, the precise notion of 'culture' and its relation to language in the context of Cameroon have been given different interpretations with the result that apparently divergent and conflicting views have been expressed as to how the various linguistic possibilities available in the country could be harnessed for a sustained and meaningful creation of national identity.

At one end there are those who decry the corrosive effects that European languages seem to have had on the evolution and manifestation of African cultural values. Faure (1973, p.61) and his associates,

in their most insightful survey of the current general state of affairs in world education, have noted that "among the peoples of former colonies the rehabilitation of the indigenous mother tongue is a means of reasserting a personality smothered by the hegemony of imported written language", and have cited Mardjane as providing justification for this reaction,

> The colonial culture 'names' the world in its own way, substituting for the 'word' that the colonized individual desperately needs in order to express his own world, the word which it uses as an instrument of domination.

In the Cameroon efforts at propagating the need for the adoption of an indigenous 'word' or 'words' to replace the colonial ones have been championed notably by Pierre Ngijol and Marcel Bot Ba Njok (Johnson, 1970; Asongwed, 1975). Pierre Ngijol, Johnson (1970, p.295) observes, argues out the point by stressing the ideal that "language is more then merely the means of expressing a civilization - 'c'est la civilisation même'". Asongwed (1975) reiterates Bot Ba Njok's suggestion that Cameroon be partitioned into major language zones and the languages delineated taught in primary schools.

While the idea of an indigenous language or languages for wider communication among Cameroonians may sound plausible, the magnitude and implications of the imponderables involved seem to be underrated. In the first place, as Johnson (1970, p.296) observes, "What the advocates of indigenous national languages fail to clarify, however, is the specific vernacular languages which are widespread or politically and ethnically neutral enough to peaceably serve the purpose of national integration". Cameroon has had its

share of inter-tribal conflicts arising from ethnolinguistic parochialisms, and to suggest the imposition of one indigenous language on the speakers of other languages will only create further incisions in a country that has been striving, since independence, for concerted action in politics in order to come to grips with the imperatives of economic development and social justice.

Secondly, the argument for the adoption of an indigenous code by speakers of other codes stresses the link between language and culture. This argument, in fact, serves to reinforce the primordial attachments that already exist among the speakers of the various languages and dialects. As Johnson (1970, p.297) elaborates this point, "the logic of this argument justifies fears among every tribal group that it must guard its language in order to preserve its identity and its culture".

These considerations lead to a more specific question already raised, namely, the precise meaning of culture in language for Cameroon. This question poses the same dilemma for Cameroon as for most Third World African countries that have been subjected to Western colonial domination - a dilemma arising among such alternatives as total rejection of European culture in favour of indigenous ones (a decision already shown to be replete with problems), total adoption of inherited European cultures (certainly unpalatable to many) or the synthesis of European cultures and indigenous ones. The last option has been considered by many African leaders

to have the greatest potential for adoption since, having already been exposed to the proselytizing influences of western culture and now faced with the problems of political unity and economic and technological development, the people of Africa have to rely to a considerable extent on the West for the technical know-how necessary for the resolution of many of these problems. Here the already inherited European languages will not only provide the desperately needed neutral media for wider communication among the diverse African peoples, but also constitute the vehicles for transmitting the technical knowledge needed for economic progress. As Dr. Foulon notes (Johnson, 1970, p. 297), in Cameroon, as in many other African countries, there is no African language "developed enough to offer itself as an effective all-round instrument of modern technical progress".

The possibilities of an integrative approach to resolving Cameroon's language-culture problem represent a second prescriptive remedy that has been examined and proposed. The leading spokesman of the integrationists is Dr. Foulon who maintains,

> The historic opportunity to effect an integration of these three cultures (African, English and French)... has invested Cameroon with the singular, enviable mission to pilot the rest of Africa into continental unity. It would be a curious lack of a sense of history to be indifferent to an enterprise of these dimensions. (Johnson, 1970, p. 291).

Vernon-Jackson (1967, p. 19) quotes Dr. Foulon as further proposing,

> The target to aim at, for us (in Cameroon), should be not merely State bilingualism, but individual bilingualism: that every child that passes through our education system shall be able to speak and write both English and French.

A one-time minister of education in Cameroon, William Eteki-Mboumoua, is also quoted by Vernon-Jackson (1967, p. 23) as contending,

> Cameroon must become the crucible where, fed by the fire of our faith, the eminent physical, intellectual and moral values of our races, nourished on the Anglo-Saxon and French cultures, will dissolve and merge.

It is within the framework of such pronouncements cited above that the promise of the achievement of a meaningful national culture via languages for Cameroon has been considered feasible. These pronouncements represent the present government position on the language-culture issue.

To be sure, the actual procedures to be adopted in bringing about the hoped-for cultural synthesis still pose a number of problems. Already there are apprehensions being expressed about the eventual status of English vis-a-vis French, given the dominant role of the French language in government and other institutions (Vernon-Jackson, 1967; Asongwed, 1975). Again, what steps are to be taken to ensure that in the process of evolving a unique Cameroonian culture through the instrumentalities of English and French, the authenticity of the indigeuous cultures are not unduly distorted or even completely ignored for that matter?

The solutions to these problems are very intimately related to political decision-making processes since, in a political monolith like Cameroon, the State is the source of almost all the energy, inspiration and direction necessary for resolving problems that affect national character. No attempt will be made here to examine the politics of the language-culture problem, but the role of the school in bringing about a cultural synthesis via language will be considered.

In the Cameroon the school has been utilized as an institution in effecting specific language policies of the various colonial governments and the missionaries. Vernon-Jackson (1967) has briefly sketched the historical ties that have developed between language, schools and government in the country, noting that the early missionaries used the school for purposes of introducing the natives around the coast to the novelties of western education and for evangelization, employing both local vernaculars and English; the Germans used the school for producing local clerks for the colonial administration and German business firms engaged in trading and plantation agriculture. After the expulsion of the Germans, the British encouraged the use of English in their section of Cameroon largely through the missionaries. They, however, adopted a somewhat light-hearted attitude to the language-in-school question in contrast to the French who considered themselves as crusaders on a civilizing mission. To the French, the French language was "la porte

ouverte vers la culture, vers l'avenir, vers le progres" and consequently had to be taught with dispatch in a pure, systematic fashion to indigenous peoples. As Vernon-Jackson (1967, pp.18-19) compares and contrasts the British and French attitudes to the language question,

> The work of the schools (in the French sector) was enhanced by the presence of a comparatively large number of French settlers, printing presses for local publications in French, and a lack of tolerance for vernacular that encouraged learning French in school. In the British zone---no language policy was emphasized apart from the use of English by government officials arriving from Nigeria--- English became the official language, and although the government encouraged the use of vernaculars in (primary) schools, this was to be followed by English after the first two years.

Today the government continues to regard the school as the main institution for effecting its language policy of bilingualism in English and French. It must be pointed out, however, that before children come to school they are already equipped with one or more indigenous codes along with some knowledge of French or standard English or pidgin English depending on geographic area. Before discussing how bilingualism functions in the schools it would be necessary to attempt a brief description of the school system in the country.

The current school system in the Cameroon is a direct offshoot of practices in Britain and France with very slight modifications here and there to reflect local circumstances. Four levels of schooling are easily identifiable and these include preschool (kindergarten), primary, secondary and higher (Jakande, 1968).

Preschools are found only in the major cities and are available mainly to the children of upper and middle-class families. The admission age is from one to three years. When the child attains the age of five or six he or she is transferred to a primary school.

Primary education is ubiquitous in both the cities and villages, and is available to almost all children who have attained the age of five or six in those localities where schools exist, especially in the southern parts of the country. The duration of primary schooling is seven years in anglophone Cameroon and six years in the francophone area. In the final year of their primary school career, the pupils take a government-administered examination and successful candidates are awarded the First School Leaving Certificate, known in French as C.E.P.E. (Certificat d'Etudes Primaires Elémentaires).

Secondary education, the bottle-neck of the system, provides opportunities for further studies to primary school graduates. Admission, especially to government-run secondary schools, which offer free education, is based on a competitive entrance examination. In government-run schools there is a strict age limit imposed on candidates who apply to write the competitive entrance examination, only those who are fourteen or below being allowed to do so. The private secondary schools are less strict on entry requirements with respect to qualification and age, the crucial admission criterion being the ability of candidates to pay their fees.

There are basically two types of secondary education, namely, general and technical. In the anglophone area general secondary education is a five-year enterprise at the end of which the students take the London University G.C.E. (General Certificate of Education) Ordinary level in the Arts, Sciences and Commercial subjects. A further two-year study, available only in three institutions, leads to the G.C.E. Advanced level in the Sciences and Arts. There are technical/vocational secondary schools in the anglophone area that offer four-year terminal programs in a number of options. In addition one also finds a number of post-primary institutes that offer sundry courses in typing and shorthand, home economics including sewing and knitting etc.

In the francophone area secondary general education is offered in two cycles. The C.E.G.'S (Colleges l'Enseignement General) provide a four-year general offering in the first cycle leading to the award of the B.E.P.C. (Brevet d'Etude du Premier Cycle). Lycées, on the other hand, provide integrated seven-year programmes of studies in both the first and second cycles. Programmes of studies in the second cycle are oriented either to the Arts, Physical and Mathematical Sciences, and Natural Sciences but still general in nature in terms of the spread in subject areas included in the respective programmes. The duration of studies in the second cycle is three years, the students taking the Probatoire examination in the sixth form and the Baccalaureat in the seventh and final form. The B.E.P.C., Probatoire and Baccalaureat examinations are conducted by the Ministry of National Education in Yaounde, the capital city.

Technical secondary education is offered in some C.E.G.'s, Lycées and technical institues. The options include pure technical (mechanical, electrotechnology, civil engineering), home economics, commercial studies with some general education. The duration of the various technical-vocational programmes is four years and the certificate awarded on successful completion is the C.A.P. (Certificat d'Aptitude Professionnel). More advanced technical studies are offered in the second cycle in technical Lycées leading to the Baccalaureat technique certificate.

Teacher training for primary school teachers is offered both to the primary school and secondary graduates at a number of Teacher Training Colleges in the anglophone area and Ecoles Normales in the francophone area.

The University of Cameroon in Yaounde provides higher education in the Faculties of Letters, Science, Medicine (The University Centre for Health Sciences). The university also houses the ENS (Ecole Normale Superieure) that provides professional training in education to prospective secondary school teachers. Admission to the university is based on success in the Baccalaureat or G.C.E. Advanced Level, and the duration for a degree is four years. Other institutions of higher learning in the country include the Higher School of Agriculture, Ecole Camerounaise d'Administration et de Magistrature, Ecole Polytechnique, Ecole Interarmes Militaire.

It is within the context of the above school system that the government of Cameroon has attempted to effect its bilingual policy. The actual strategies being used could be characterized

as "substractive" at Kindergarten and primary school level, and "additive" at the post-primary level.

In the "subtractive" strategy a child, on entering Kindergarten or primary school, follows what d'Anglejan & Tucker (1971) term "program of home-school language switch". Here English or French replaces the child's mother tongue as a medium of instruction. The "additive" dimension of bilingualism is introduced at the post-primary level where the pupil is taught English as a second language if he had his primary education in French, and French as a second language if his primary studies had been in English. The government would wish to replace this "subtractive-additive" approach with an immersion-type bilingual programme right from the day the child enters primary school but the lack of qualified teachers and cost militate against this possibility. It is therefore at the post-primary level, especially the secondary school, that the government hopes to shape a Cameroonian personality in English and French language moulds.

However, since reunification in 1961 very little real progress has been made to create conditions in secondary schools that will facilitate the emergence of a truly authentic bilingual Cameroonian personality. Until recently, very little serious thought has been given to the formulation of explicit goals for secondary school second language instruction to reflect the specific realities of the Cameroon situation. Also related to the above question is the uncertainty that still persists as to the effective ways of using the European languages not as media for perpetuating the cultural complexes they embody, but as vehicles for capturing those "World

View" patterns indigenous to the Cameroonian peoples. In this latter point lies the ultimate success or failure of the attempt to produce a Cameroonian personality via English and French, for unless these languages are used in transmitting cultural values that are Cameroonian in content, the notion of achieving an African civilization based on them will remain an illusion. It is therefore not surprising that the recommendation at the SCASS (Scientific Council for Africa South of the Sahara) meeting of specialists on the teaching of a second European language held in Yaounde in November, 1961, quoted by Vernon-Jackson (1967), that "... in Cameroon the special conditions make research an urgent task, and in particular make it essential to produce course, text-book, and audio-visual materials especially designed to meet the particular needs of the Cameroon", has remained largely in the pages on which it was written.

This situation exists largely because curricular practices in language instruction, in particular English as a foreign language, has been influenced by the now outmoded colonial concept of elitism, restricting foreign language study to classical and literary works based on the grammar-translation teaching model, while at the same time ignoring those aspects of cultural life that concern most people most of the time. While this approach did serve the needs and objectives of the Franch, it is now evident that its pedagogical prescriptions are obviously anachronistic in the present Cameroon circumstances. What is needed now in Cameroon for speakers of

French is English as a second language (for effective oral and written communication) and not English as a foreign language for factual information about the language.

In francophone Cameroon instruction in English as a foreign language (EFL) has been in practice ever since the French took control of the area but despite this fairly long history of EFL in the area there are very few products of the curricula that have been employed who can use the language for effective communication.

It is true that language can be acquired and used in spite of a pedagogy, such factors as attitudes, motivation, occasion for use playing very crucial roles. On the other hand, it is also argueable that a curriculum that clearly specifies learning experiences taking into consideration the needs, aptitudes, abilities of the learners in addition to exploiting the factors mentioned above, will greatly enhance the rate at which such learners acquire the language for use in communication.

In the present Cameroon situation the curriculum, as pedagogical grammars - PG,s (Noblitt, 1972), offers one of the most effective avenues, if not the most effective avenue, for actualizing the government's bilingual policy since, to all intents and purposes, only the educated are the major determinants and beneficiaries in "power" distribution processes in the country. (By "power" is meant accessibility to the modern economic base of the nation, participation in the social life of contemporary Cameroonian people and accessibility to educational opportunities of the schools).

Just as if to head off for an area that holds out some foolproof promise, one finds, however, that the field of curriculum itself is currently in a state of ferment and disquiet (Henchey, 1974). This situation, as Henchey (1974, pp. 6-7) perceives it, arises from the inability of the discipline to resolve such crucial issues as "the clarification of the scope and terms of curriculum theory, the establishment of ties between curriculum theory and other approaches to the study of education, the analysis of relationships implicit in the design and development of curriculum at all levels, the creation and testing of integrated models of curriculum, not only in elementary and secondary education but also in post-secondary education". With respect to such a basic question as the definition of the concept Curriculum, Babin (1974, p. 41) notes:

> A recent perusal of 25 curriculum text-books gave 25 different definitions of curriculum. To some of the authors, curriculum still means what is taught, that is, subject matter. To others curriculum is the outline or guide of what to teach. Others include the instructional arena-the process; others such as Goodlad exclude the learning experiences. Some authors refer to life itself when they talk about curriculum.

Given this multiplicity of definitions it becomes conceptually difficult for a student of curriculum to pin down the range of issues involved in curriculum study, unless, of course, he decides to stick to one of the rather narrow or broad, nebulous definitions. However, as Babin further observes, the P.J. definition of curriculum in the Ontario context offers "a most rational and meaningful" operational definition of the concept. According to the P.J. definition,

> Curriculum is all those experiences of the child for which the school is responsible. It is concerned not only with what should be experienced, but why, when and how particular kinds of learning should take place and the atmosphere in which the learning occurs. Curriculum is concerned with all the human relationships in the school, with the respect with which children are held, with the values, aims and objectives and decisions of the school community (p.41).

The P.J. definition seems to provide further insights into the major preoccupations that should be staked out when a curriculum (and by implication a P.G.) is being designed in the context of formal education. These preoccupations concern the elaboration of such correlated areas as the formulation of objectives, the selection and analysis of learning experiences, the organization of these learning experiences, and a strategy for evaluating the outcomes of learning (Noblitt, 1972). The decisions embodied in these areas have to be related not only to the programme of studies, the programme of activities and the programme of counselling and guidance, but also pitched to such external variables as the needs of the learners, the physical environment in which learning is to take place, the resources available, and the socio-political logic of the society in which the school operates.

It must be mentioned, however, that a curriculum, by its very nature, is an ongoing process. It has a diachronic base and, as such, must reflect the dynamics of change in knowledge, education and society. The curriculum, once drawn up, should not be regarded as a devine, foolproof panacea for all educational problems but

rather as a hypothesis-testing mechanism, itself subject to change or modifications.

Novertheless, since curriculum design implies decision-making at a point in time, its ultimate success and durability will depend on the relevant research insights that were brought to bear on the resulting curriculum plan.

In a recent ministerial circular issued by the minister of education in the Cameroon entitled "English Syllabus and Instructions for Secondary Schools in Francophone Provinces", (Bidias à Ngon, 1974, p. 1) two principal objectives for the teaching of English in the French-speaking areas of Cameroon have been specified namely, "to contribute to the development of a bilingual culture in which the majority of the citizens are able to express themselves in both English and French and can truly share a common heritage; --- to contribute to the young francophone's intellectual growth by the acquisition of a language which is so significant in the fields of literature, philosophy and science". As the circular further elaborates,

> At the practical level, the teaching of English must aim at the command of current English as a means of communication, first oral, then written... This will lead to a great variety in the use of English, involving some or all of the following abilities:
>
> - to understand and answer questions which require explanations or information
> - to understand radio or television broadcasts or advertisements in English
> - to read and understand passages such as directions or announcements, then passages of greater difficulty from newspapers and books
> - to appreciate the culture of other anglophone countries
> - to pursue advanced studies in English.

In pursuance of the spirit of the objectives for ESL instruction in francophone Cameroon secondary schools specified on the previous page, this monograph presents a proposal for a core ESL pedagogical grammar for intermediate (fifth form) secondary students. The study has been motivated by the need to provide some guidelines for teachers at this level regarding the kinds of teaching-learning endeavours that will provide a logical continuity in the growth in skills already acquired by the students.

This need seems urgent for three reasons. In the first place, there are at the moment no pedagogically coherent, meaningful and relevant materials for ESL activities at this level. The practice hitherto has been for teachers to use the officially recommended textbook (Richard, P.M. & Hall, W. "L'Anglais Par La Littérature: Classe de Seconde", Paris: Classiques Hachette), a text that has been in use since the French colonial era and which now is obviously anachronistic in view of its almost total inadequacy in meeting the communicative needs of the students and the objectives of ESL instruction referred to above.

Secondly, students at this level are just emerging from a coherent series of ESL courses ("Today's English", Paris: Hatier, 1969 - three books in the series developed by CLAD, i.e., Centre de Linguistique Appliquée de Dakar) based essentially on the audio-lingual approach to second language teaching. It would, therefore, seem necessary to provide learning experiences that will exploit

the skills the students have already acquired and ensure the sustained linguistic growth of the students.

Thirdly, and finally, the need for a core ESL pedagogical grammar stems from the diverse academic, professional and vocational pursuits in which the students have now directed their energies. At this level the students have just completed the first cycle of their secondary shcool career and are now beginning the final three-year phase of their secondary education in the second cycle where they are expected to engage in more focused studies in preparation for their future occupations (see p.10). While teaching-learning activities in ESL would entail the choice of "registers" appropriate for the student's academic and professional needs, the core P.G. will provide those common points of departure whose implications for language competence and performance seem to be all-pervasive.

The objectives of the proposed core ESL pedagogical grammar therefore are:

1. To formulate a set of core performance objectives that all intermediate students will be expected to attain. The skills and competencies embodied in these objectives are directed mainly to the expressive aspects of language use (reading/writing).
2. To select and analyse the structures of content for the attainment of the objectives formulated, and to specify possible ordering contingencies for the structures of content.

3. To specify the instructional strategies for presenting the structures of content.
4. To determine the strategy for evaluating the outcomes of learning.
5. To outline the possible pedagogical, administrative and financial implications of this proposal for implementation.

CHAPTER TWO

The Setting re Fifth Form ESL in Francophone Cameroon

The fifth form marks an important turning point in the secondary school education of students in Francophone Cameroon. As already noted, the students at this level are required to engage in career-oriented studies (see pp.10-11). This necessarily implies that the ESL needs of the students would be different in view of their already defined academic and professional goals. However, a more broad-based core ESL program for the fifth form clientele would enrich and perfect the receptive and productive skills already acquired for, although they can listen and understand, read, communicate orally and in writing fairly well in English under situations of general import, this is not without some significant comprehension difficulties and morpho-syntactic deviations from acceptable patterns. Moreover, since the students have three years more to go in their secondary education, a core ESL program in the fifth form will provide them further skills and competencies of a tactical nature that will be useful for cracking some of the ESL nuts that will be encountered in more focused activities in forms VI and VII.

In terms of current language facts already acquired, the students are supposed to be carrying in their heads about one thousand seven hundred and eighty lexical items together with a number of fundamental English grammatical structures as presented in the three CLAD books with accompanying teacher's manuals used in the first cycle. One would have thought that a four-year ESL course would cover vocabulary items in the

neighbourhood of double the amount included, but as the writers of CLAD series justify this rather limited inclusion of words, "il s'agit ici d'un vocabulaire qui a les meilleures chances d'etre effectivement fixé et qui est donc parfaitement disponible à tout moment."

CLAD Book I covers five hundred and thirty lexical items. The grammatical categories presented in the book include the verb "to be" in the present tense together with other most frequently used verbs in the forms described by George (1963): plain item (as in straightforward imperative, after "do" auxiliary and "can" defective and other modals such as "will", "shall", "must", "may" in the affirmative and negative), to+stem, stem+ -ing (in present progressive and expressing the immediate future), stem + -s (in third person singular); personal pronouns subjects and objects; definite and indefinite articles; adjectives including possessives; interrogatives involving question words, tag-ends, "do-does" forms, defective "Can"; comparatives; formulas ("of course", "all right", "don't worry"); "some/any" with count and mass nouns. The simple past tense of regular (stem + -ed) and irregular verbs, and the simple future are also included in Book I.

In Book II six hundred and ninety-five new lexical units are presented, exploiting the grammatical structures taught in Book I and including new, more complex structural categories such as if-conditional, modals, passive voice, subordinate clauses of time, the present perfect; temporal and causal indicators such as "since", "for", "ago"; frequentative

form ("used to"); relatives ("who", "whom"); superlatives; double comparative; pluperfect tense; compound adjectives; verbs taking -ing forms (e.g. "can't help thinking", "it's no use going") etc.

Book III contains five hundred and fifty-five vocabulary items and utilizes essentially the structures presented in Books I and II but in more elaborate and complex morphosyntactic and semantic combinations. Some of the new structural forms included here are modals for expressing conditionals, the unreal past; "Hardly...when, No sooner...than" constructions; the future perfect etc.

The basic context employed by the CLAD series for presenting language facts is the dialogue. Each dialogue centres on a specific concept, notion, feeling or situation. As the gradation and spiral sequencing of structural elements constitute the guiding principles in the design of the course, each dialogue utilizes a set of specific structural patterns (including many contracted forms) and relevant lexical units for capturing the experience being conveyed. The pedagogical techniques for the teaching and learning of the dialogues involve presentation, repetition, memorization, dramatization, fixation (pattern drilling) and exploitation, very much in keeping with the audiolingual tradition.

Each dialogue is followed by a set of questions on dialogue content and exercises on the grammatical structures utilized in the dialogue. These are done first, orally in class and then in writing as homework. The questions on the dialogues in all the three books are devoted mainly to content comprehension at the literal level. However, essay topics, particularly in Books II and III provide activities at the applicative level of comprehension.

In Books II and III there are a number of short prose texts (fiction and non-fiction). These texts, according to the series developers, are included to provide further authentic, enriching versions of language in use in relation to more complex combinations of new vocabulary items and grammatical structures already encountered. Incidentally, there are no questions or exercises accompanying these texts, the hope being expressed that the class teacher will provide the reading-study activities necessary for the comprehension of these texts.

In this teaching-learning process, both the receptive (listening, understanding, reading) and productive (speaking, writing) skills are supposedly forged in the students.

To further appreciate the current status of the ESL facts and skills possessed by the fifth form clientele, it would seem necessary to examine briefly the selections in the CLAD series in the light of the selectional criteria for language materials specified by Mackey (1966)since these criteria seem to conform to those used by the series developers. According to Mackey, selections of items for language courses have generally been based on five central criteria and these include frequency, range, availability, coverage, and learnability. These criteria are, in turn, affected by the purpose, level and duration of the course for which selections of language items are made.

Since the CLAD series was developed for initiating young francophone African secondary (first cycle) students in Senegal to ESL, the lexical and grammatical items included in the course portray the kinds of language material most frequently heard or read in English. The material, in the main, derives from the British dialect of English. The register,

that is, what the language is used for, is general and varied. Books I and III, in general, include lexicogrammatical categories of general language value, capturing experiences that are of relevance to African learners, but Book II, completely devoted to British setting, utilizes many lexicosemantic categories that seem to acquire little or no valence in the average African pupil's psychological field. The use of such culture-bound lexicosemantic categories as snow, snowmen, snowballs, sledge, Christmas-carols, Father Christmas, Santa Claus, Yorkshire pudding, peaches, mantlepiece (to mention a few) in the dialogues around which they are deployed is of very dubious utility to the average African Cameroonian pupil. This problem is further compounded by the fact that pedagogical practice is rendered difficult, if not impossible, since the majority of ESL teachers are Africans educated locally and consequently most probably unfamiliar with the settings in which these word categories are used. It is therefore highly questionable whether the claim "il s'agit ici d'un vocabulaire qui a les meilleurs chances d'etre effectivement disponible a tout moment" will be realized in CLAD Book II, given the context of the learning experiences.

The style of the language material is both colloquial and literary (in the prose texts). Since the method is audiovisual, there is a higher frequency of words in the spoken medium than in the literary medium.

The range (i.e. the number of samples or texts in which an item is found) of the language items (lexicon) included in CLAD seems to be loaded especially with respect to nouns, in the sense that they are restricted to those categories that occur most frequently in ordinary daily experience. A perusal of the pattern drills in the teacher's

manuals reveals that already familair vocabulary is mostly used to illustrate a new grammatical structure pattern. This accounts for the limited number of vocabulary items included in the course as a whole. Nouns tend to be more loaded in the concrete category. Structure words, adverbs, adjectives, verbs show a much wider range of occurrence and this is understandable in view of their ubiquity in the English language system irrespective of sample or text.

With respect to the criterion of availability (i.e. the appropriateness and usefulness of words or structures for certain situations or contexts) the CLAD series does deploy those items that seem indispensable in the various dialogue situations presented. This criterion relies heavily on previous knowledge and sprial sequencing, hence the loaded tendency and limited vocabulary noted above. Availability as the degree to which "a word (or structure) corresponds to the readiness with which it is remembered and used in a certain situation" (Mackey, 1966, p.183), seems to be more effective in Books I and III than in Book II for the same reasons noted under the frequency criterion.

The coverage or covering capacity of the items in CLAD (i.e. the number of things one can say with a specific item) relates somewhat to the loaded factor already mentioned. This manifests itself mainly in the noun and adjective classes where words that capture a wider range of concepts, notions, feelings are used in place of more specific words. Evidence of this is more obvious in Book I where many words and sentences serve as blanket versions of a wider range of meanings. Books II and III, on the other hand, are much more differentiated as to the specificity of the lexicogrammatical categories used to express meaning.

Finally, on the criterion of learnability (i.e. the ease with which an item is learned), CLAD selections, in general, adhere to the principles of gradation and spiral sequencing. The controlling factors that influence the use of these principles seem to conform to those specified by Mackey (1966). These factors include similarity, as in the use of cognates common to English and French; clarity, as in the use of items easily explainable in concrete terms; brevity, as in the use of minimally complex words from points of view of recognition and pronunciation; regularity, as in the teaching of regular, most frequent verbs in the simple present tense before proceeding to the future, past, perfect tenses in regular and irregular verb forms; and learning load, as in the general control of new vocabulary items introduced in a given unit. Also, the learnability of the items is further enhanced by the inclusion of figurines in the series to aid the teaching-learning process.

On the whole, the CLAD series does provide the basic and essential language experiences necessary for forging elemental receptive and productive skills at the beginning stages of the language learning spectrum. Although the cultural and interest values of certain aspects of the selections are dubious in terms of their relevance, both immediate and potential, to the communicative needs of the francophone Cameroonian pupils, one can safely say that the pupils have broken sufficiently into the language to establish what Lado (1964) calls "a linguistic beachhead."

The age of the fifth form clientele varies from 15 to 18 years. Their attitudes and associated motivations to the study of English are

quite positive. Tucker & Lambert (1973) have observed that the attitudinal and resultant motivational correlates of second language learning manifest themselves "in at least two forms, an instrumental in contrast to an integrative orientation."

Among the Cameroonian francophone secondary students, the instrumental dimension of their attitudinal-motivational orientation to English language study derives from their unmitigated desire to obtain the required academic grades so crucial for survival in the secondary school. The placement of students via grades employs a system of weighted raw scores (notes sur 20 coefficiés) for all subjects from which a final average (GPA) indicative of a student's overall performance is calculated. In this grading system the student's overall performance is not only a function of raw grades obtained in the various subjects but also of the relative weight (coefficient) attached to each subject. In the second cycle these weights, ranging from one to four, vary with respect to the individual subjects of the option chosen, the core subjects of the option carrying the highest weights. As far as English is concerned, the weight attached to it in the technical and science options is two, while in the Arts a weight of two is ascribed to Anglais Normal option and four to Anglais Renforcé option.

Given this relative strength of English in the secondary school programs of studies it is not surprising that the students are on the whole, instrumentally motivated to achieve in the subject to improve their GPA standing.

The integrative aspect of the students' attitudes and motivations to English language study is just beginning to manifest itself in the increasing awareness of the need to communicate with fellow educated anglophone Cameroonians who are becoming fairly numerous in various milieus. Since the institution of the United Republic of Cameroon there has been considerable movement of educated anglophone working-class families to the francophone areas. This phenomenon has provided some potential contact situations for the students to meet and exchange ideas in English with their fellow anglophone countrymen.

At a more pragmatic level, the holiday youth camps organized by the government offer practical forums where both anglophone and francophone students meet and interact in the two languages. Again, the popularity of pidgin English among many of the students, especially in the southern parts of francophone Cameroon, provides a further integrative element in that it does not only serve as a common identification denominator for initial contact with the anglophone, but provides the potential transitional medium in which perfection of, and interaction in standard English could be strived for (Schumann, 1974).

On the whole, the instrumental dimension of the attitudinal and motivational orientation of the students is more potent than the integrative dimension in view of the general paucity of occasions for English language use.

In the area of available resources for fifth form ESL activities, three resource variables can be delineated that condition the nature of these activities. These include the software (i.e. the instructional

materials such as textbooks and visual aids), the hardware (i.e. the physical space in which teaching-learning takes place with available furnishings such as seats, chalkboards, electronic equipment), and personnel (i.e. the teaching staff).

The main, if not the only, fifth form ESL software currently in use is the officially recommended textbook, Richard & Hall's L'Anglais Par La Littérature, Paris: Classiques Hachette. This book is an anthology of predominantly literary, unabridged excerpts from different sources some of which date as far back as the 16th century. Both from teaching and learning standpoints the book presents a number of imponderables. For African students just completing CLAD, it is certainly an unsuitable course text for further studies in ESL.

The limitations of Richard & Hall's book become more apparent if its content is examined in the light of the text qualities outlined by Stevick (1972). According to Stevick three contrasting pairs of text qualities (i.e. strength/weakness, lightness/heaviness, and transparency/opacity) could serve as one useful set of interrelated guidelines or criteria for evaluating a textbook, even a lesson unit for that matter, designed for ESL activities.

The most cursory survey of Richard & Hall's book would reveal that most of the reading texts in the anthology are lacking in "strength" in the sense that they do not carry their "own weight by means of the rewards that (they make) available" in relation to the values, experiences, needs of the fifth form clientele. This is borne out by the fact that many of the texts lack story interest, dealing with events and situations many of which are totally unfamiliar and meaningless to the students. The pedagogical implication of this is obvious - obliteration of motivation to learn.

Closely related to the "strength" factor is the somewhat "heavy" tone of most of the texts. "Heaviness" here refers to such features as unusually long passages, rigid and archaic literary style, complex syntactic structures and difficult vocabulary in long sentences.

Finally, and perhaps most importantly, at least from the point of view of effective pedagogical practice, there is the problem of "opacity" that runs through the entire textbook. This problem is exemplified by the rather jig-saw, incoherent, inadequate, apparently illogical fashion of organization of exercises in questions, vocabulary and grammar study based on the reading texts. For example, a text on page 27 has its related questions and explanations of unfamiliar words and expressions on page 34. This means a constant flipping of intervening pages back and forth while studying and this, apart from being tiring on the part of the students, could lead to frequent lapses in concentration and comprehension.

Another organizational feature that militates against the effective pedagogical use of the book is the lumping of scanty explanations of points of grammar at the end of the book with no reference whatsoever to the reading materials from which they derive, no adequate examples and no opportunities for the exploration of structural relationships that these points of grammar represent. The net result of these "opaque" features is the almost complete damage to the readability value of the reading selections. Coupled with this is the lack of specifications as to what specific language skills the students are expected to master. Even if these are implicit in the selections namely reading and writing, it is still not at all clear, given the format of the book, just how the teacher can set about inculcating these skills in his students.

The above limitations and weaknesses of Richard & Hall's book strongly suggest the need for alternative course materials for the post-CLAD fifth form students. Some of the reading selections in the book are, however, useful from points of view of story interest and authentic language in use and, as will be indicated later (see Chapter Four - Section II), these could provide some of the substance for specific reading-skill related activities.

With regard to available hardware, the classroom with traditional furnishings of desks, the chalkboard, teacher's table and chair is the typical physical set in which teaching-learning takes place. The average floor area of a typical classroom is about 600 sq. ft. in which from 40 to 50 students are crowded. This gives an average floor space of about 13 sq. ft. to a student. In the hot, humid south of Cameroon this overcrowding condition could really be depressing with deleterious consequences on the ability of the students to attend to, and participate in learning activities. To exacerbate these adverse physical conditions, students' seats are generally arranged in regimented rows, fastened together, bolted to the floor and facing the front. This arrangement is particularly prevalent in the private schools, although it is also to be found in some of the public schools. Physical movement is thus highly restricted especially in activities requiring group interaction.

The use of electronic hardware, even the fairly common, simple and handy ones such as the record player and tape recorder is a rarity. This is due to the presumed prohibitive cost of these aids and their accompanying software which many of the schools, particularly the privately-run ones, consider a luxury. Even in those schools where one finds record players

or tape recorders, there is a general lethargic attitude to their use in teaching, a phenomenon possibly explanable by lack of appreciation of their potentialities in enhancing pedagogical practice. On the whole, these observations underscore the general "not-important" attitude to the use of supporting ESL audiovisual aids that characterizes many school administrations, particularly the private schools.

As regards the available personnel for ESL instruction at the secondary level, Tables I(a) and I(b) depict, by province, the number of ESL teachers with qualifications. From these tables it is immediately evident that the public schools have better qualified teachers than the private schools, more than a half of the public school teachers (171 out of a total of 249) having received university training with Agr./Maît., CAPES, Lic., CAPCEG qualifications, while the majority of private school teachers (226 out of a total of 336) are holders of the secondary school G.C.E.A.L., Bac., G.C.E.O.L., and B.E.P.C. qualifications. In principle, only teachers with university training are authorized to teach in the second cycle. However, in actual practice, and mostly in the private schools, one finds teachers with lesser qualifications teaching in the second cycle. This poses a problem since these less qualified teachers do not have any formal training whatsoever in either education or language pedagogy. This problem is equally applicable, though to a lesser extent, to university-trained teachers, particularly those in the Licence bracket who are armed with degrees but with no pedagogical know-how. It is almost a truism that in educational practice knowledge of content alone on the teacher's part does not necessarily guarantee his efficient teaching.

TABLE I(a)

The Distribution of Public Secondary School (General and Technical) ESL Teachers with Qualifications by Province in Francophone Cameroon

Teachers' Qualifications	C.S.	LIT.	Provinces OUEST	NORD	EST	Total
AGR./MAÎT.	6	1	--	--	--	7
C.A.P.E.S.	10	6	5	3	3	27
C.A.P.C.E.G.	45	12	13	11	1	82
LIC.	20	21	8	3	3	55
2e YEAR	4	--	--	--	--	4
GD.II	8	--	2	1		11
G.C.E.A.L.	5	1	1	1	3	11
BAC.	3	2	--	--	--	5
PROB.	--	--	--	--	--	0
G.C.E.O.L.	--	--	--	1	--	1
B.E.P.C.	--	--	--	--	--	0
AT.	14	11	5	11	5	46

GRAND TOTAL:249

(Source: Data supplied through courtesy of Mr. Gérald Aubin, English Language Inspector, Ministry of Education, Yaounde.)

KEY: Teachers' Qualifications

AGR./MAIT: Agrégation/Maîtrise.
C.A.P.E.S.: Certificat d'Aptitude Professionnel pour l'Enseignement Secondaire.
C.A.P.C.E.G.: Certificat d'Aptitude Professionnel pour College l'Enseignement Général.
LIC.: Licence.
2e YEAR: (Possibly two years of University study).
GD. II: Teachers' Grade II Certificate
G.C.E.A.L.: General Certificate of Education at the Advanced Level.
BAC.: Baccalaureat.
PROB.: Probatoire.

KEY: Teachers' Qualifications (continued)

G.C.E.O.L.: General Certificate of Education at the Ordinary Level.
B.E.P.C.: Brevet d'Edude du Premier Cycle.
AT.: Attestation.

KEY: Provinces

C.S.: Centre-Sud
LIT.: Littoral

NOTE: The qualifications have been arranged in decreasing order of level of professional/academic sophistication. G.C.E.A.L. and BAC. are equivalent. "AT." implies a teacher had attempted studies at any one of the preceding levels but did not qualify for the award of a certificate.

TABLE I(b)

The Distribution of Private Secondary School (General and Technical) ESL Teachers with Qualifications by Province in Francophone Cameroon.

Teachers' Qualifications	Provinces C.S.	LIT.	OUEST	NORD	EST	Total
AGR./MAIT.	--	1	--	--	--	1
C.A.P.E.S.	2	3	--	--	--	5
C.A.P.C.E.G.	6	5	1	--	--	12
LIC.	13	6	2	1	--	22
2e YEAR	5	--	--	--	--	5
GD. II	--	4	--	--	--	4
G.C.E.A.L.	5	16	2	--	--	23
BAC.	16	4	12	--	4	36
PROB.	18	4	18	--	1	41
G.C.E.O.L.	30	15	23	--	1	69
B.E.P.C.	26	9	14	4	4	57
AT.	36	13	5	4	3	61

GRAND TOTAL: 336

(Source: Same as for TABLE I(a)
KEYS: Same as for TABLE I(a)
NOTE: Same as for TABLE I(a)

The above description of the fifth form setting re ESL provides further support for the rationale of this monograph. Also, the description offers further insights into the constrains that are bound to influence a P.G. proposal for the clientele. Before embarking upon the P.G. proposal proper, it would be necessary to review the current state of knowledge in the ESL profession. This constitutes the focus of the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

Current Trends in TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language)

The TESL profession, like any other second language (SL) teaching preoccupation, has been plagued by fashion changes in teaching styles over the centuries. These fashion changes, induced by shifting intellectual musings based on varying assumptions about man, language, knowledge, reality in the fields of linguistics, psychology, sociology and education, have been largely discrete and maladaptive in that they have not led to any discernible systematic accumulation of empirically validated research that could provide effective paradigms supportive of an autonomous theory of SL instruction. The result has been that methods of SL teaching have waxed and waned in cycles of changing pedagogical flux. As Diller (1971, pp. 2-3) puts this apparent unsystematic state of affairs,

> These histories (of SL teaching) are not very satisfactory because they usually fail to show any relationship between the various methods. All methods seem to have emerged full-blown from their creators' heads, with no debt to previous teachers and no effect on later ones. These histories seem to imply that there were no theoretical justifications for the older methods, and that the old-fashioned methods were all created unthinkingly for ad hoc situations. The net effect is not of history at all, but of a catalog of unrelated and apparently unsuccessful teaching methods.

This plethora of methodological styles replete with overlapping terminological thickets and teaching prescriptions defy any attempt at precise delineation of the typologies of methods in trends in the SL teaching profession. Anthony (1972), noting to his discomfiture what he describes as "the undergrowth of overlapping terminology that surrounds the profession (TESL)", has attempted "to impose system on three terms in the language-teaching lexicon" by identifying three hirarchically related terms namely,

approach, method and technique. He defines approach as "a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language and the nature of language teaching and learning"; method as "an overall (procedural) plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach"; and technique as "that which (implementationally) takes place in a classroom (in the forms of) a particular trick, strategem or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective."

It is at the level of approach as defined by Anthony (1972) with its associated theoretical assumptions in linguistics, psychology and pedagogy that the literature seems to be explicit in identifying the traditions which have provided sources of inspiration for the SL enterprise. Methods and techniques, on the other hand, seem to show somewhat varying degrees of diffusion throughout the dominant approaches which Wardhaugh (1968) has characterized from a historical perspective as prelinguistic (grammar-translation), linguistic (audiolingual) and post-linguistic (transformational-generative (TG) or cognitive-code). In terms of current trends, the last two traditions are the pivots around which theoretical argumentation and pedagogical prescriptions revolve, although vestiges of the assumptions underlying the first tradition are still implicit in some present-day classroom activities.

In its heyday, the grammar-translation approach derived much of its inspiration from the then prevalent concept of elitism which viewed an educated person essentially as one knowledgeable in the classics, mainly Latin and Greek. This elitist conception nurtured "a belief in the appropriateness of a universal Latinate model for all languages, and no real

search for theories which might account for the complexity of a natural language" (Wardhaugh, 1968). The language model used relied heavily on detailed prescriptive grammatical rules and paradigms replete with excpetions. The psychological model that supported the language model in teaching-learning was based on such notions as faculty, memory, remembering, forgetting.

When translated into actual pedagogical practice the language and psychological models yielded a teaching-learning process aimed at "inculcating an understanding of the grammar of the language...and at training the student to write the language accurately by regular practice in translating from his native language;...providing the student with a wide literary vocabulary, often of an unnecessarily detailed nature;... training the student to extract the meaning from foreign texts by translating into the native language"(Rivers, 1968, p. 16).

The main defects of this teaching-learning process, as Rivers (1968) notes, have been, inter alia, that "little stress is laid on accurate pronunciation and intonation; communication skills are neglected; there is a great deal of stress on knowing rules and exceptions, but little training in using the language actively to express one's own meaning, even in writing."

The outbreak of World War II and the need to produce servicemen, mainly in America, capable of speaking foreign languages initiated the decline of the grammar-translation approach and ushered in the birth of the audiolingual approach although earlier works such as those of Palmer, Jesperson, Sweet, Storm, Lundell incorporated many of the tenets usually associated with audiolingualism. (Bolinger, 1972; Diller, 1971). In the main, there was a shift from the acquisition of factual information about

a language to a greater concern for the use into which language is put, particularly in speech. The major theoretical, epistemological and psychological assumptions upon which audiolingualism was based, derive from empiricist philosophy, structural or descriptive linguistics of the Bloomfieldian type and behaviourist psychology either of the Pavlovian (respondent) or Skinnerian (operant) varieties.

In keeping with the empiricist tradition of structural linguistics the audiolingual approach views language essentially as a concatenation of the various observable phenomena associated with speech. The goal of linguistic study in language teaching must therefore seek to ascertain and specify those habitual features found in a natural language. These include the mutually contrasting units of sounds (phonemes), minimal meaning-bearing forms (morphemes), and the combinations of these features in phrases, clauses and sentences. Also, contrastive analysis of the target language and the native language of the learner must be undertaken to determine those areas where the two languages are maximally different for it is these areas that are most likely to pose learning difficulties.

Armed with this linguistic information the language teacher's task is primarily that of teaching the language first as speech and then secondarily as reading and writing.

The main principles of the psychoepistemological theory that underlies audiolingualism could be discerned from Skinner (1957). Here Skinner articulates the viewpoint that verbal behaviour can be analysed and consequently explained in terms of a paradigm specified by such variables and concepts as stimulus, response, reinforcement, deprivation, conditioning.

Thus, in this scheme, the complex verbal behavior syndromes that an individual exhibits can be accounted for in the contexts of sets of stimulus-response associations brought about by selective positive and negative reinforcement schedules provided by other persons in the specific linguistic environment. This process supposedly stamps in and automatizes the various verbal habits that are assumed to characterize normal language behavior.

It is largely under the umbrella of this general conceptual reasoning that underlies audiolingualism that there has been a proliferation of SL teaching styles, methods and techniques as exemplified in such variants as the Direct Method, the aural-oral method, the audio-visual method, Mimicry Memorization and Pattern Drill method, the Series Method, the Reading method etc. (Diller, 1971).

Lado (1964) perhaps represents one of the best classical embodiments of the tenets and pedagogical workings of audiolingualism in its most orthodox form. In conformity with the structural-behaviorist viewpoints outlined above, Lado conceptualizes language as a three-dimensional, culture-specific structural system used for verbal behavior in communication. The first dimension is expression made up of vocal noises. These phonic symbols or units per se do not make any sense. They acquire significance only because they form complex structures and larger sequences that follow specific patterns. They are cultural abstractions manifested in sounds (phonemes), morphemes, words, phrases, clauses, sentences as spoken, heard, felt or imagined independently of their meanings.

The second dimension relates to the content of the units of vocal sounds and their combinations. Any vocal noise is elicited by an event into which the noise fits. As Lado explains, "content is the system of classified

units of cultural meaning and their combinations and relations in a language."

Between units of expression and units of content is a two-way system of linkages known as associations. This constitutes the third dimension. Lado elaborates, "Associations are ties between expression and content; when units of expression are perceived, they elicit the associated units of content, and when units of content are experienced, they recall the associated units of expression."

On the basis of these assumptions on the nature of language, Lado then goes on to specify a set of a posteriori SL teaching-learning principles. The psychopedagogical beachhead of teaching-learning should be geared to presentation, imitation, repetition, memorization, reinforcement, analogy of graded elements of language. Pattern practice drills, in their multi-faceted forms, and with a major focus "on problem patters with attention on something other than the pattern itself," are to provide the basic gramework within which language elements are presented to learners. In this teaching-learning set the learner is expected, as Tucker & d'Anglejan (1971) put it, "to learn language qua language" with no errors in a listening-speaking-reading-writing sequence.

Within the past fifteen years or so, the theoretical and epistemological assumptions of audiolingual views of language teaching-learning have been vehemently challenged by the proponents of a more cognitive approach. This "new-fangled" approach, generally referred to as transformational-generative (TG) or cognitive-code, derives much of its theoretical inspiration from the works of Noam Chomsky, and is associated with rationalist philosophy, generative linguistics and the psychology of "cognition". It

has been most articulate at the theoretical front with insightful implications for SL pedagogy. Its actual applications, however,have so far been very modest.

Chomsky (1973, p. 30) questions the environmental-contingency assumption of audiolingualism that language is a "habit-structure", claiming on a priori grounds that "Ordinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and new patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy." This innovation or rule-governed creativity in linguistic behavior is brought about, Chomsky (1972, pp. 25-26)further claims, by the operations of psychic or mental processes in which "a system of propositions expressing the meaning of a sentence is produced in the mind as the sentence is realized as a physical signal, the two being related by...grammatical transformations. We can distinguish the surface structure of the sentence, the organization of categories and phrases that is directly associated with the physical signal, from the deep structure, also a system of categories and phrases with a more abstract character." Deriving from this conceptual view of language is a further distinction to be made between competence and performance, the former relating to knowledge of the abstract grammatical (transformational) rules of the language system and the latter representing the surface configuration of the actual behavior of the speaker in speech and writing. It would therefore seem that audiolingualism is overly concerned with overt language phenomena to the neglect of the base strings (transformational operations with associated deep structure constraints) which condition the nature and infinite potential of surface utterances (Jakobovits, 1968).

Perhaps the most significant theoretical contributions of TG linguistics to SL teaching-learning have been in the area of developmental

psycholinguistics as this pertains to the processes of language acquisition. Hitherto, and largely under the influence of empiricism and behaviorist psychology, it had been assumed that all children, starting off as blank slates (tabula rasa), acquired the phonological, syntactic and semantic components of their mother tongues (MT) largely through the operations of environmental contingencies brought about by adult manipulations of linguistic data in the external environment. (Jakobovits, 1968). These views have now been replaced, largely through TG thinking, by a more nativist proposition in which the burden of language acquisition is ascribed to the child rather than to the specific verbal contrivances found in the external environment (Slobin, 1973; Irvin, 1964; Brown & Bellugi, 1964). The child, in acquiring the full grammatical competence of his MT, is supposed to be aided in the process by an innately wired-in mechanism in the brain which has been characterized as language acquisition device, i.e. LAD (McNeil, 1970), or latent language structure (Lenneberg, 1967). This mechanism, as Slobin (1973) has demonstrated, cognitively presets the child "to recognize the physical and social events which are encoded in language and...to process, organize and store linguistic information."

As regards the actual processes of child language acquisition, current nativistic psycholinguistic research findings strongly support the notion that these processes conform to a biological time-table as the supposed innate LAD manifests itself in the drama of maturation. The stages involved exhibit a sequential, invariant, systematic, hierarchical order as the child attempts to come to grips with the phonological, syntactic and semantic adult norms associated with the language he is in the process of acquiring. This implies that at any given point in time in the acquisition process the child

possesses a qualitatively distinct transitional, interim or idiosyncratic grammar that is exotic, unique and self-contained in its own right but exhibiting features that portray minimal and/or maximal similarities to adult patterns.

Brown & Bellugi (1964) have identified three concomitant and mutually supportive developmental processes that characterize the child's approximative, active progression to adult language norms. These include imitation with reduction, imitation with expansion and induction of the latent structure. The first two processes indicate that children almost never repeat exactly the utterances they hear around them; their interaction with the adult speech specimens they encounter involves "a cycle of reductions and expansions" in which both the adult and child participate. The third process represents hypothesis-testing in which the child, through "mistakes", constantly searches out the threshold of applicability of the idiosyncratic rules that he formulates and is formulating. Instances of such hypothesis-testing "mistakes" are exemplified by over-regularization in past tense (talked, goed, doed), inflection/pluralization (fools, feets, mans).

Largely through extrapolations of findings in MT acquisition studies there seems to be considerable agreement that the SL learner utilizes essentially the LAD that was employed in MT acquisition in acquiring a second code (Cook, 1969; Stern, 1970). However, the workings and role of LAD in SL learning have been given varying interpretations and emphases by researchers interested in SL acquisition. The pivot around which many of the issues revolve, as Tucker & d'Anglejan (1971, p. 166) observe, seems to relate to "the implications of two facts: (1) nearly all children from diverse backgrounds with different IQ's, and with various physiological limitations, do become fluent speakers of some code, and (2) nearly all children who first

acquire one code but then move to a location where another is used very quickly become fluent speakers of the second (although, in fact, their parents may not.)"

It is with respect to the implications of the second fact raised by Tucker & d'Anglejan (1971) that there seems to be considerable controversy since this fact is somewhat related to the controversial critical period hypothesis posited by Lenneberg (1967). This hypothesis claims that after puberty LAD somewhat atrophies, so that an adult learner attempting to acquire a second code is bound to face an inordinate amount of difficulty and may, in fact, never acquire a degree of competency in the target code comparable to that of an adult native speaker of the code.

With respect to children, observations seem to confirm the viewpoint that a pre-puberty SL learner utilizes the same transitional, sequential strategies as those employed by a child-learning the language as a MT. (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Evvin-Tripp, 1974). The adult SL learner, on the other hand, poses problems as to the relative significance, nature and workings of the variables that control his mastery of, and performance in, a second language. Selinker (1972) observing that the majority of adult SL learners never attain a perfect degree of proficiency in the target code, has formulated a hypothetical inter-language -(IL) paradigm that attempts to specify the actual, sometimes terminal, approximative behavior events the adult SL learner exhibits in the process of acquiring the target language. He assumes the existence of LAD but a modified one which he calls "latent psychological structure (LPS)." It is this LPS that conditions the adult SL learner's IL utterances, manifesting itself in terms of fossilizable items, rules and subsystems in five main central processes which include language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of SL learning, strategies of

SL communication, overgeneralization of target language linguistic material.

Many researchers in the area of error-analysis in SL learning seem to subscribe in various ways to the operation of the five central processes in Selinker's IL model. Hocking (1973) notes that at the levels of phonology, syntax and lexis there are certain "errors" that could be attributable to MT interference; this calls for a sensitivity on the part of the teacher to such "errors" and the provision of adequate teaching prescriptions to counter them. Richards (1973a) provides a wealth of examples of non-MT related ESL "errors" which he calls intralingual and developmental exemplified in instances of "overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules, and the building of false (fossilizable) systems or concepts." Richards (1973b) endorses Selinker's IL model, noting that "people who speak second languages may not speak or write them with native-like fluency;....deficiencies in their knowledge may be the results of interference...; of strategies of learning,....of assimilation....and of strategies of communication. (p.133)." Scott & Tucker (1974), in an empirical study, found that among their Arab-speaking subjects who participated in an experiment to determine the subjects' oral and written production controls over certain grammatical categories in English at two points in time - T_1, T_2 (with intervening instruction), the "errors" made revealed not only progressive acquisition of approximative systems ("errors" at time T_2 "being a closer approximation to adult native English"), but also some "errors" tended to be persistent (fossilized); again, some errors such as the frequent omission of the auxiliary and the copula, incorrect use of prepositions and articles, repetitions of subjects and objects tended to be due to MT interference.

Taylor (1974), however, disagrees with the notion of language transfer and transference and argues that there is no qualitative difference between MT and SL acquisition processes, age not withstanding, inasmuch as LAD is the underlying mechanism that governs the acquisition of languages. He considers over generalization and rule simplification as more psychologically valid and generally predictable learning strategies than language transfer in accounting for a SL learner's approximative linguistic behavior. The role of the psychoaffective variables of attitudes, motivation, biculturism examined in various perspectives by Tucker & Lambert (1973), Gardner (1973) is further invoked by Taylor as being crucial in determining the degree of adult proficiency in a second language; the more positive and ongoing these variables are, the greater are the chances that an adult SL learner will acquire the target code with native-like facility.

While the theoretical dispute between innate-generative predisposition and learning via environmental programming and culture still rages on, it would seem rewarding both intellectually and humanistically to adopt an eclectic attitude to the question "in which learning cooperates with heredity in the ... mastery of language" (Tucker & D'Anglehan, 1971, p. 165). In SL teaching-learning this dispute has, somewhat unthinkingly, manifested itself in the recent clashes between audiolingualism and the so-called cognitive-code approach, a situation which is obviously undesirable and misleading since the two approaches have useful insights to offer the SL teacher in his efforts to come to grips with the multiplicity of variables that impinge on his profession (Carroll, 1971; Rivers, 1968, 1972).

To be sure, current findings in generative linguistics and developmental psycholinguistics do have some usefel implications and applications for SL pedagogy. For example, the generative grammarian's distinction between deep structure and surface structure is a useful insight that should sensitize the SL teacher to some of the deep-seated semantic variants that condition the communicative import of surface utterances. Many audiolingual pattern drills, as Rutherford (1968) has illustrated, have the tendency to be overly concerned with the mass consumption of surface utterances to the almost utter exclusion of consideration of deep-seated constraints in the namifestations of semantic content. The obvious crippling result is that with deep-structure contrasts (underlying contrasts in meaning) either obliterated or obfuscated in the mad rush to instill automaticity, the learner is led to internalize utterances the communicative implications of which he is totally unaware of.

Again, the TG concepts of "Kernel" (i.e. minimally complex) sentences and "transforms" (subordinate devices) provide a further viable possibility in SL pedagogy. Here the focus is on transformationally-oriented actitivites in which learners are made to appr^eciate, anticipate, infer the various syntactic possibilities used in capturing specific units of "Kernel" meaning through the mediation of transforms. (Reid 1973; Rutherford, 1974). This learning set will most certainly activate the innate latent language mechanisms of the learners as they simultaneously discover latent grammatical structure, formulate and reorganize their idiosycratic or transitional rule systems in the light of the functional language material they are exposed to.

It must be mentioned, however, that the indiscriminate use of most TG a priori abstract language models in the SL classroom are of dubious pedagogical utility (Lakoff, 1972). Rivers (1972, pp. 9-10), in a more pragmatic vein and with the interests of the SL teacher in mind, has indicated that Chomsky's distinction between linguistic and pedagogic grammars should make it evident that,

> A linguistic grammar ... expressed in terms of an abstract model... does not necessarily represent, and may not even attempt to parallel, the psychological processes of language use;... methods of linguistic description do not per se provide any guidance as to how a student may learn to communicate in a foreign language. This is the preoccupation of the writer of a pedagogic grammar who, in the light of what the linguistic grammar has established about the subject matter, decides what are psychologically (and therefore pedagogically) the most appropriate ways of arranging and presenting the material to the students.

It would therefore seem appropriate for the teacher to be constantly sensitive to what works in the light of individual learner variables (aptitude, needs, cognitive and learning styles, goals); he has to bear in mind also, that the common goal he shares with all involved in the process of education is cognitive-affective-psychomotor-developmental in which learners are provided stimulations that move them into higher orders of cognitive, affective, psychomotor functioning (Kohlberg & Mayer, 1972). If the notion of interlanguage has any pedagogical meaning at all, this lies in the challenge it presents the SL teacher of providing suitable learning experiences that will ensure the progressive language development of the student.

In this regard, and in an effort to seek a pedagogic praxis between the audiolingual structural behaviorist and cognitive-code

contentions, Rivers (1973, pp.13-14) has further noted that the elements of language operate basically at two levels namely, the manipulative and the expressive. As she elaborates,

> certain elements of language remain in fixed (manipulative) relationships in small, closed systems so that once the system is invoked in a particular way a succession of interrelated formal features appears (e.g. inflection of person and number, agreements of gender. fixed forms for interrogation or negation, formal features of tenses) ... For these features, intensive practice exercises of various kinds can be very effective learning procedures ... At the second (expressive) level, decisions more intimately connected with contextual meaning may bring into play any of a variety of syntactic structures, so that students will be continually reusing what they have learned. A decision at this higher level has structural implications beyond the word or the phrase, often beyond the sentence.

The above characterization of the functioning of language elements by Rivers reflects in a general way current trends in the design of ESL pedagogical grammars. A survey of such ESL pedagogical grammars as the Lado Series, English this Way, the Quebec Government "Programme D'etudes Des Ecoles Secondaires: Anglais, Langue Seconde", reveals that at the initial stages of learning, corresponding to about the first four years of secondary education, students are introduced to the elements of language essentially at the manipulative level. Here the audiolingual techniques of imitation repetition, pattern practice, dialogue memorization and dramatization, are used to forge in students automatic receptive and productive controls over those elements of language that operate in fairly restricted, recurrent systems.

While the intermediate level (approximately fifth form secondary level) still poses transitional problems as to pedagogical emphases,

there seems to be increasing contention that teaching-learning activities here should be directed at the expressive level (Anderson, 1968; Kaplan, 1967; 1972). The major thrust of a pedagogical grammar here will necessarily involve specifications in three basic correlated areas namely, skills, content and process (Noblitt, 1972).

In the area of skills, the development of reading and writing facilities is considered to be the major preoccupation of the teacher. This in no way implies that listening and speaking are to be neglected, their continued development being ensured in exercises associated with reading and writing. In reading the intermediate student is expected to begin to independently derive meaning from connected discourses in print while in writing he is expected to learn to express in written, coherent fashion his own personal meaning and experiences as felt or imagined with due attention, in the words of Anderson (1968, p. 173) to "the conventional patterns which we call style".

With respect to content, the raw material necessary for developing reading and writing skills, the intermediate pedagogical grammar has to provide learning experiences in authentic reading selections in pre-literature forms such as narrative, description, exposition, instruction (anderson, 1968; Kaplan, 1967, 1972). These selections, in addition to possessing the qualities of strength, lightness and transparency indicated by Stevick (1972) (see pp. 30-31), have to reflect some transformational potential for alternate ways of expressing the units of meaning conveyed together with the conventional stylisted patterns (and their associated lexical devices) that are employed in organizing these units of meaning into coherent paragraphs. Also, the cultural value of these selections

has to be borne in mind. For the fifth form clientele considered in this study, the cultural content of their pedagogic reading selections has to reflect, in the main, significant cultural features that represent their own "world view" in the context of Cameroon. Whatever issues, topics, interests of general world culture that are introduced have to be viewed in the light of their potential in enriching the students primordial cultural values. This will enable them to cope with their changing society which, to all intents and purposes, has derived, and continues to derive, much of its contemporary cultural tone from the external input of cultural idiosyncracies.

Finally, and perhaps more importantly, an intermediate pedagogical grammar has to specify explicity the process that will enhance the inculcation of the skills associated with reading and writing, of course listening and speaking not excepted. The emphasis here is on teaching and it pertains to the various organizational modalities, tactics, strategies that are utilized to facilitate effective interaction between the learners and the content with the goal of skill acquisition in mind. This is of crucial importance at this level since the students are now expected to acquire the cognitive, affective and performance foundation that will launch them into independent pursuits in the target language. In this regard process could be regarded as content in the sense that as the student performs following the teacher's models, these models are in turn internalized to serve as useful mental sign-posts that could be utilized in resolving similar problems that will be encountered later outside the learning situation.

With these considerations in mind, the next chapter examines in detail a possible core ESL pedagogical grammar profile for the intermediate clientele described in chapter two. The issues that are considered involve the formulation of instructional objectives (general and specific), the selection, analysis and progression of content, instructional strategies, and the techniques for evaluating the outcomes of learning.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE CORE PEDAGOGICAL GRAMMAR

Section I: (A) The P.G. Objectives (General Considerations).

Efforts at specifying objectives for educational or instructional purposes have been greatly influenced by the works of Bloom et al (1956, 1964). Recognizing the sequential and cumulative nature of knowledge, Bloom and his colleagues devised taxonomies or classification systems in which they ranked cognitive and affective skills in hierarchical orders or levels of increasing inclusiveness and complexity.

However, as Valette & Disick (1972, p. 8) have noted, "the categories defined by Bloom and his co-authors (especially in the cognitive domain) were designed primarily for the physical and social sciences, history and literature, rather than for second language acquisition. For this reason, it has often been difficult in the past to classify foreign-language goals within the Bloom framework".

The inadequacy of Bloom's specifications derives from the recognition in the SL teaching profession that in SL learning knowledge per se is not a sufficient condition for determining the students competence in using the language for communication. Objectives for SL teaching-learning have, as of necessity, to be stated in performance terms in which anticipated student behaviours are clearly defined and the "criteria for measuring the success or lack thereof in changing student behaviour" explicity stipulated. (Steiner, 1972, p. 43).

In the light of this acknowledged performance orientation in the formulation of SL instructional objectives, Valette & Disick (1972)

have attempted modifications of Bloom's categories to incorporate this new philosophy. In the cognitive (subject-matter) domain (which is the main area of concern in this P.G.), Valette & Disick have delineated five hierachically organized stages representing the major SL subject-matter goals and their associated anticipated student behaviours. These stages include: (1) Mechanical skills; (2) Knowledge; (3) Transfer; (4) Communication; (5) Criticism.

In the acquisition of mechanical skills the student relies solely on rote learning related to the tasks of perception, discrimination or differentiation. His behaviour may be internal in which case he is required to discriminate between sounds or letters, indicate whether two words or sentences are the same or different, perform selective listening for the identification of specified elements such as negation and interrogation, etc; or external, where the student performs like a robot, reproducing memorized items or sequences such as numbers, days of the week, dialogues, poems, songs, etc.

In the area of knowledge the student has to demonstrate understanding, recognition and recall of language-related facts and information (spelling of words, the meaning of vocabulary items, grammatical forms, etc). The internal behaviour indicative of mastery at this stage involves performance on true-false, matching or multiple-choice questions. The external behaviour of the student here involves the recall of familiar facts, rules or data by answering questions, filling in a blank, making identifications or supplying definitions.

Transfer requires the student to apply knowledge acquired in Stage 2 in new and unfamiliar situations. The internal behaviour involved here concerns reception - the recognition, identification and

understanding of familiar vocabulary and structures recombined in contrived speech samples or reading passages. Answers to questions, choosing among multiple-choice items, giving an English equivalent, explanation of an unfamiliar quotation in terms of other ideas expressed by the same author or with reference to known trends and patterns, etc. are indicators of reception. The external behaviour to be manifested relates to the application of what has been learned to problem-solving situations under guidance. The problems may range from grammatical transformations of unfamiliar sentences, answering questions requested by the teacher, expanding dehydrated sentences, filling in blanks to role playing in the context of the target culture.

In the Communication Stage the student is expected to interact with a wide range of authentic, unstructured, listening and reading materials in the target language in which content and structure vocabulary may involve both familiar and unfamiliar categories. The student here becomes the locus of expression in terms of what is said and how it is said; fluency and comprehensibility now constitute the controling criteria of performance rather than the pre-determined accuracy required in the first three stages. In this setting, comprehension becomes the index of internal behaviour as the student listens or reads materials that may range from very simple to quite complex, and demonstrates understanding of major ideas in reading texts (by answering interpretive and critical questions), explains the main historical or literary ideas or positions evidenced in an essay or speech, etc. The external behaviour associated with this stage involves self-expression either orally or in writing on a variety of topics not previously encountered. Although the teacher may impose some reign on the

student in the form of assigning a speech or a composition within the framework of certain grammatical or lexical constraints, the student is the final decision-maker as to what to say or write about.

The final and most complex stage is criticism. Here the student has to demonstrate sensitivities to such language variables as regional differences, levels of formality and imformality, emotion, irony, and vary his expression to convey nuances in meaning. The internal behaviour may be either analysis in which the student displays knowledge of connotations and implications of a speech or reading passage, analyses plots, themes etc., employs the semiotic approach to culture study, or evaluation in which the student makes a value judgement, orally or in writing, of a speech, a literary piece, etc. on the basis of either internal or external criteria. The external behaviour expected of the student pertains to synthesis where he displays a consciousness to personal style in speech or writing. This further involves the ability to exploit the various expressive possibilities in the target language to convey specific implied meanings, create a literary work, develop a critical essay, or translate literature from the native language to the target language.

Although the Valette-Disick subject-matter taxonomy specifies subject-matter goals in relation to internal and external behaviours, the two behaviour subcategories corresponding roughly to listening-reading skills and speaking-writing skills respectively, it must be emphasized that the dichotomy is far from absolute. The internal and external behaviour syndromes indicated are mutually inclusive

in that significant advances or lags in one do influence and signal concomitant advances or lags in the other and vice versa. Again, the acquisition of the attributes associated with these behaviours is far from linear, considerable fluctuations occuring in their acquisition in the context of the five cognitive stages. However, to the extent that these two behaviour sub-categories represent qualitatively distinct, stage-related, response attributes, their designation as such does provide a useful framework for the specification, sequencing and evaluation of performance objectives.

The Valette-Disick five stages of subject-matter goals for SL instruction can easily be reducible to the two levels (manipulative and expressive) of language behaviour delineated by Rivers (1972). Objectives in the first two stages correspond roughly to the teaching-learning of language elements in the manipulative level while objectives in the last three stages correspond to the acquisition of elements in the expressive level.

In the context of this core P.G., the objectives will be directed mainly to the expressive level of language use. More specifically, the major thrust is that of developing in students both the receptive and productive controls of the basic structural devices used in English narrative and expository rhetoric (see pp.73-75).The objectives, stated in performance terms, will thus be pitched to the stages of knowledge, transfer, and communication under fairly structured situations. The modalities through which these skills are to be forged are first, the reading of authentic reading selections (for receptive control) and then the writing of controlled paragraphs (for productive facility).

It must be remarked, however, that these objectives are expected to reflect anticipated students' approximative behaviours in the target language (English) at this (intermediate) level of study. As Noblitt (1972, pp. 321-322) observes, these objectives generally involve the specification of two interrelated sets of statements: (a) "synchronic (Statements) of the skills which may be said to characterize the speaker of the target language". These synchronic statements are usually stated in the form of general objectives, and the skills embodied in them are the conventional listening, speaking, reading, and writing. As already indicated above, the skills that are of primary concern here are reading and writing; (b) "diachronic (statements) which predict levels of achievement in the above mentioned skills with regard to the student's time in training". These diachronic statements may be said to represent elaborations of the general objectives into specific objectives specifying explicitly the criterion behaviours and their levels of sophistication that the student is expected to attain.

The next sub-section lists the general and specific objectives that the clientele of this proposed P.G. are expected to attain.

(B) The Objectives (General and Specific)

a. General Objective:

To develop reading skill through the study and understanding of selected narrative and expository prose passages that embody authentic versions of vocabulary, grammatical structures and idiomatic expressions of rhetoric import in English. The texts may be essays, reports, commentaries, stories (fiction and non-fiction, of scientific or literary origin) and may vary in length and degree of difficulty.

Specifics:

(i) To demonstrate the ability to identify the lexical devices that signal the organizational method of classification. The mastery of this objective will be determined by underlinig correctly all lexical devices that indicate classification in a reading passage that has been studied and in given sentences.

(ii) To demonstrate the ability to answer literal-type questions that require the use of lexical devices associated with classification. The mastery of this objective will be determined by all correct answers to literal-type questions based on a reading selection studied in class.

(iii) To demonstrate the ability to identify the lexical devices that signal chronological order. The mastery of this objective will be underlining all the lexical devices that indicate chronolgical order in a reading selection studied in class and in given sentences.

(iv) To demonstrate the ability to answer literal-type questions that require the use of chronological order lexical devices. The mastery of this objective will be determined by all correct answers to questions based on a reading selection studied in class.

(v) To demonstrate the ability to identify lexical devices associated with comparison-contrast. The mastery of this objective will be determined by all comparison-contrast lexical devices correctly underlined in a reading selection already studied and in given sentences.

(vi) To demonstrate the ability to answer literal-type questions that require the use of comparison-contrast lexical devices. The mastery of this objective will be determined by all correct answers to questions on a reading passage studied in class.

(vii) To demonstrate the ability to identify lexical devices used in reasoning cause-effect relationships. The mastery of this objective will be determined by underlining all cause-effect vocabulary in a reading selection studied in class and in given sentences.

(viii) To demonstrate the ability to answer literal-type questions that require the use of cause-effect vocabulary. The mastery of this objective will be determined by all correct answers to questions on a reading selection studied in class.

(ix) To demonstrate the ability to identify the lexical devices associated with inferential statements. The mastery of this objective will be determined by underlining all lexical devices that signal inferences in given sentences.

(x) To demonstrate the ability to answer interpretive questions that require the use of inference vocabulary through reasoning comparison-contrast and/or cause-effect. The mastery of this objective will be determined by judicious inferences made on all questions asked on at least two reading passages that have been studied in class.

(xi) To demonstrate the ability to identify the lexical devices associated with evaluative statements. The mastery of this objective will be determined by underlining all the evaluative lexical devices used in given sentences.

(xii) To demonstrate the ability to answer applicative questions that require the use of evaluative vocabulary through reasoning comparison-contrast and/or cause-effect, and using the vocabulary of classification and/or chronological order. The mastery of this objective will be determined by judicious evaluative statements made on all questions that derive from at least two reading passages that have been studied in class.

b. General Objective:

To develop writing skill through practicing rhetorical lexical devices in full sentneces, writing dictated passages embodying these rhetorical lexical devices, and learning to write "freer" paragraphs using these rhetorical lexical devices.

Specifics:

(i) To write original individual sentences using specified lexical devices of classification. The correct use of the specified lexical devices in rational sentences correctly punctuated will be the main criterion for determining mastery of this objective.

(ii) To combine related groups of words in written sentences using vocabulary of classification. The mastery of this objective will be determined by a rational sentence that combines the groups of words with appropriate vocabulary of classification.

(iii) To write equivalent sentences of classification from a given model sentence of classification using three different lexical devices of classification. To master this objective, two out of three sentence equivalents must be correct in every respect.

(iv) To demonstrate the ability to write an unfamiliar dictated passage (six sentences) involving the vocabulary of classification and other familiar but recombined vocabulary. Accuracy in punctuation and spelling will be the guiding criterion of evaluation, not more than two punctuation and spelling mistakes being permissible in any given sentence of the dictated passage.

(v) To demonstrate the ability write three coherent paragraphs (twelve sentences in all) of classification using specified classification lexical devices on a specified topic. The main criteria for evaluating this objective will be: assignment (twelve sentences), specified constraints (at least two-thirds), spelling and punctuation (at least two-thirds correctly done), grammar structures (at least two-thirds correct), and continuity (at least two-thirds of sentences contribute to topic).

(vi) To write original sentences using specified vocabulary of chronological order. The correct use of the specified lexical devices in rational sentences correctly punctuated will be the main criterion for determining mastery of this objective.

(vii) To combine two sentences into a single sentence in written form using specified vocabulary of chronological order. The mastery of this objective will be determined by a rational sentence that combines the two sentences using the specified lexical device.

(viii) To demonstrate the ability to write equivalent sentences of chronological order using different lexical devices of chronological order. If two sentence equivalents are required, both must be correct in all respects in order to master this objective.

(ix) To demonstrate the ability to write an unfamiliar dictated passage (six sentences) involving the vocabulary of chronological order and other familiar but recombined vocabulary. Accuracy in punctuation and spelling will be the guiding criterion of evaluation, not more than two punctuation and spelling mistakes being permissible in any given sentence of the dictated passage.

(x) To deomonstrate the ability to write three coherent paragraphs (twelve sentences in all) of chronological order on a specified topic. The criteria for evaluation same as for (v) (see p.66).

(xi) To write original individual sentences using specified vocabulary of comparison-contrast. The criterion for mastery same as for (i) (see p.65)

(xii) To demonstrate the ability to write equivalent sentences of comparison-contrast from a given model sentence using idfferent lexical devices. The criterion for mastery and evaluation same as for (viii) (see p. 66).

(xiii) To demonstrate the ability to write two unfamiliar dictated passages (six sentences each) involving the vocabulary of comparison and contrast respectively, and other familiar but recombined vocabulary. The criterion for evaluation same as for (iv) (see p.65).

(xiv) To demonstrate the ability to write three coherent paragraphs (twelve sentences in all) of comparison and of contrast each on a specified topic. The criteria for evaluation same as for (v) (see p.66).

(xv) To demonstrate the ability to write original individual sentences using specified vocabulary of cause-effect. The criterion for mastery same as for (i) (see p.65).

(xvi) To demonstrate the ability to write equivalent sentences of cause-effect from a model sentence using different lexical devices. The criterion for mastery and evaluation same as for (iii) (see p.65).

(xvii) To demonstrate the ability to write three coherent paragraphs (twelve sentences in all) of cause-effect on a given topic. The criteria for mastery and evaluation same as for (v) (see p.66).

(xviii) To demonstrate the ability to make inferences from a reading selection studied by completing pattern inference answers to questions based on the passage. This objective will have been mastered if all

such pattern inference sentences are correctly completed.

(xix) To demonstrate the ability to make inferences from given statements by completing pattern inference statements deriving from the given statements. This objective will have been mastered if all such pattern inference statements are correctly completed.

(xx) To demonstrate the ability to make two inferences in written form from given statements using specified lexical devices of inference. Judicious inferences made will determine the mastery of this objective.

(xxi) To write three coherent paragraphs of twelve sentences in all that require the use of inference lexical devices. The criteria for mastery and evaluation same as for (v) (see p.66).

(xxii) To demonstrate the ability to support in writing statements of evaluation that derive from a reading passage studied in class. The mastery of this objective will be determined by the degree to which the supporting statements made relate to the statements of evaluation.

(xxiii) To demonstrate the ability to make evaluative statements from given topics supported with other statements first, using given lexical devices of evaluation and then with free choice of evaluative lexical devices. In both cases, mastery will be determined by the degree to which supporting statements elucidate the initial statement of evaluation.

(xxiv) To demonstrate the ability to write three coherent paragraphs of evaluation on a given topic (twelve sentences in all). The criteria for mastery and evaluation same as for (v) (see p.66).

Section II: Content Analysis, Selection and Progression

Traditional strategies for the selection of content for language courses have usually relied, almost exclusively, on linguistically-oriented criteria such as those specified by Mackey (1966) (see p. 24). The focus of attention has been on the careful gradation of lexicogrammatical elements to be taught in a step-by-step fashion. This has proved very rewarding at the elementary levels of language learning where beginning learners need carefully structured and controlled materials that can enable them to break into the target language with minimum friction to acquire the elemental receptive and productive skills necessary for further advances.

At the intermediate and advanced levels, on the other hand, there seems to be a dearth of pedagogically coherent principles of the type that characterize selectional strategies at the elementary levels. The gravity of the problem is more pronounced at the intermediate level where, as Allen & Widdowson (1974, p.2) observe,

> On the one hand (elementary level) we have an abundant supply of basic language courses, and on the other hand (advanced level) we have advnaced teaching techniques- essay writing, report making, comprehension of complex reading material etc. - designed for students who have a near-native competence in handling the target language, but there are virtually no materials to help the learner effect an orderly (intermediate) transition between these two extremes.

The drastic shift in pedagogic emphasis and goal at the intermediate level from essentially passive controlled responses to patterned language elements to active, freer acquisition and use of language elements in communication acts could be invoked as the explanation for this intermediate pedagogical dilemma. In this undertaking, there is the accepted

implication that the intermediate student has to begin to come to terms with the rhetorical features of the language that enable an adult native-speaker "to raise conversation to the level of systematic instruction, narration or coherent exposition;...(to appreciate) the extent to which alternate ways of saying something are equivalent;... to recognize the conventional patterns we call style" (Anderson, 1968, p. 173). Kaplan (1967, 1972) endorses this view point by contending that what the pattern drill has done for elementary courses should be replicated at the intermediate level "but at the rhetroical rather than at the syntactic level".

Rhetoric, as used here, is concerned with the thinking processes that mediate in the use of language for capturing the universe of discourse (Moffet, 1968). It is that underlying logical system that is employed in the analysis, gathering, interpretation, synthesis of thought data for the attainment of a designated end with communicative import (Oliver, 1965). When translated into language behaviour, rhetoric manifests itself in the systematic orgainization of syntactic units into larger patterns (paragraphs).

Languages differ in their rhetorical configurations. In English rhetoric, as Kaplan (1972) notes, the typical pattern of organization and development of sequences of ideas and thoughts is essentially linear. This may be inductive, in which "a topic statement (is followed) by a series of subdivisions of that statement, each supported by examples and illustrations...to develop that central idea and relate that idea to all other ideas in the whole essay", or deductive, where "a whole series of examples (are related) into a single statement at the end of the paragraph". Also, as Kaplan further notes, stylistic

elegance and maturity in modern English rhetoric are judged more on the basis of subordination than on parallelism (co-ordination), a claim amply demonstrated by generative grammar notion of deep-structure and its associated subordiante devices or "transforms" (Lakoff, 1972).

It would therefore seem that the selectional task for an intermediate ESL pedagogical grammar has to do essentially with the provision of samples of authentic versions of language in reading representative of the rhetorical patterns of the language but at the same time ensuring a smooth transition from the protective, predictable patterns encountered at the elementary level to the "freer" use of language elements for the expression of personal ideas. The criteria or principles for the selection of learning experiences at this level have necessarily to be determined by those situatinally-related notions, concepts, ideas, feelings that enable native speakers of English to use the language in discourse. Silva (1974, pp. 343-345) has cogently argued that these semantically-oriented principles, consistent with recent theories of language acquisition, are related, inter alia, to (a) foreign-language teaching as an endeavour whose major aim is "to develop the learner's competence to communicate creatively and purposively through (the target language)"; (b) the provision of authentic, interesting and appealing target language samples to learners; (c) the provision of opportunities for learners "to invent and re-invent language for themselves, language conveying their own feelings and ideas".

In operational terms, the concept of register offers a viable starting point for the selection of learning experiences for a discourse-oriented ESL pedagogical grammar as anticipated here. Although this

concept poses some theoretical and methodological problems with respect to specificity in scope and terminology, its potential utility derives from the recognition of the range and levels of contextually and situationally contrained behaviours in language use. Essentially the notion of register is that point of view that seeks to specify the concomitant, qualitatively distinct, verbal (linguistic) and non-verbal (expressive) correlates that operate in differnt communicative acts. These correlates are in the main related to choices conditioned by such situational variables as the degree of formality and informality between speaker/writer and hearer/reader, social roles and associated statuses, purpose of communication, topic etc. (White, 1974).

In the context of this core program the concept of register as a selectional criterion will be used to designate those experiences as found in written narration and exposition that not only appeal to the interests of the learners but also reflect authentic patterns of English rhetoric in these domains. The latter constraint, that is, patterns of narrative and expository English rhetoric will constitute the major content component of the pedagogic grammar for it is here that the students will need considerable practice if they are to acquire the facility and techniques that a native English speaker uses to communicate his thoughts and ideas in a coherent manner.

To achieve this end, it would be necessary to identify the general patterns or methods of organization of thoughts and ideas that characterize English rhetoric. Horn (1969, p. 292) citing Jones & Faulkner (1968), has

noted that these authors have identified eighteen workable, logical categories into which sentences in expository paragraphs could be classified. These include "Alternative, Amplification, Answer, Cause, Comparison, Contrast, Definition, Evaluation, Evidence, Example, Generalization, Inference, Parallel Idea, Question, Related Action, Restatement, Result and Summary".

Lawrence (1974, p. 19), in specifying what she calls "basic methods of organization that are common in English writing", has enumerated eighteen such methods, and these include, "Chronological order, spatial order, inference, generalization and substantiation, anecdote, classification, comparison, contrast, analogy, cause and effect, explanation, definition, prediction, hypothesis, personal opinion, persuation, refutation, discussion".

While these lists differ somewhat both in category specification and terminology used to designate some of the logical categories, they do represent the most typical methods of rhetorical organization found in English. For the purposes of this P. G. , only a few of these categories will be dealt with, given the time constraint. Moreover, it is more rewarding for the students to have a thorough grasp of a few of the categories rather than a superficial mastery of all of them.

With this in mind, the following organizational relationships together with examples of their associated lexical devices are recommended for teaching-learning:

(1) Classification (i.e. simple listing and grouping of facts and data).

Lexical devices: (number) kinds, parts, types, sources, regions, provinces, qualities, characteristics, aspects, etc.; main kinds of,

major kinds of, basic kinds of; significant, important, primary, secondary etc.; _____ can be divided into ____ classes, groups, categories etc.

(2) Chronological (Time) order (i.e. arrangement of events according to time of occurrence).

Lexical devices: now, nowadays, when, before, after, while, during, between _____ and ____, since, later, earlier, formerly, at birth, in childhood, in infancy, as an adult, in adulthood, in old age, at death; former, latter, previous, previously, prior to, first, second, etc., in the first place, in the second place, etc., to begin with, next, then, subsequently, in the next place, at last, in conclusion, finally, no sooner _____ than, hardly ____ when.

(3) a. Comparison (i.e. likenesses or similarities among facts, events, situations)

Lexical devices: similar to, similarly, like, alike, resemble, resemblance, almost the same as, the same as, at the same rate as, as, just as; as ____ as, in the same way, to have ____ in common, common characteristics.

b. Contrast (i.e. differences among facts, events, situations).

Lexical devices: differ from, however, otherwise, still, nevertheless, even so, different from, less than, more than, faster than, etc., unlike, on the contrary, on the other hand, a larger percentage than, at a different rate from, although, while, but, in spite of.

(4) Cause-effect relationship (i.e. one event influences the outcome of another event).

Lexical devices: so, thus, as, consequently, therefore, for this reason, as a result, hence, because, since, because of, owing to, due to, _____ is due to _____, _____ is the result of _____, _____ results in _____, _____ is the effect of _____, have an effect on, the reason is that _____, _____ causes _____, _____ is the cause of _____, if _____ is true, then _____ follows _____, as a consequence, so _____ that, such a _____ that, one effect of _____ is that _____, _____ make(s) _____ possible by _____.

(5) Inference (i.e. figuring out information or facts not explicity stated).

Lexical devices: I think that, from _____ I can infer that _____, From _____ it seems to me that _____, I can safely guess that _____, It seems likely, probable, possible that _____, From _____ I conclude that _____, From _____ I can assume that, the facts indicate that, we can deduce _____, the evidence implies _____.

(6) Evaluation (i.e. value statements, including personal opinions, about facts, events, situations).

Lexical devices: I think, It seems to me that, In my opinion, To me, I consider, seem (seemed) to be, appear (appeared) to be, In my view, From my point of view, According to me, According to my point of view, I argue that _____, I agree (disagree) with.

The above logical categories represent the most frequently used ones in simple narrative and expository writing. It should be apparent that in actual discourse these logical categories and their associated lexical devices may combine in different ways both at the level of the

sentence and the level of the paragraph. For purposes of instruction, it would be necessary to present each category first in its most obvious occurrences at the level of the sentence and then at the level of the paragraph.

The contexts in which the logical relationships are to be taught would be authentic narrative and expository prose reading selections. Ideally, one would wish to utilize a reading selection or selections in which the lexical devices of a specific logical relationship occur exclusively explicitly, but this need not be the case; the lexical occurrences of a particular logical category in a given reading selection should be viewed both in the light of the notions being conveyed and in terms of their combinations with other language elements (content vocabulary, grammatical structures etc.) needed for integrated language growth. Been (1975, p. 236) has observed that in terms of "the more general aim of reading", that is, reading for meaning, "Overemphasis on understanding individual words (or structures) perpetuates the misconception that understanding is entirely dependent on a knowledge of the individual words". She further cites Twaddell as saying on the basis of examination of research in word-frequency distribution,

> it is a near impossibility to teach the learner what he will need (in terms of lexical resources) for the next page he will read or the next 60 seconds of lecture of conversation that he will hear. If we try to prepare him in advance for specific vocabulary needs for any real reading or listening we are sure to fail, and he is sure to be frustrated and discouraged.

However, to the extent that, as Arapoff (1968) has indicated, many of the logical lexical devices (as connectors) signal "suppositions" that determine the nature of the semantic relationships within and between sentences, it would seem desireable to provide learning contexts that explicitly exhibit the functional (semantic) features of these logical lexical devices.

The reading selections or "registers" in the context of which the logical relationships are to be taught could be got from a variety of narrative and expository themes such as biographies and autobiographies; newspaper reports of sporting events, government activities, social activities, international events etc.; folklore; historical account of local interest; science fact and fiction; adventure, etc.

There are a number of locally available source materials from which the teacher could select the theme or themes that embody the logical relationship that he wants to teach at a particular time. Some of these are listed below:

Newspapers: The Cameroon Times; The Cameroon Outlook.

Periodicals: Readers Digest; Drum; Africa and the World.

Books:
1. Shanwa's The River that Changed It's Course, O.U.P. New Oxford Supplementary Readers, Grade 5.
2. Elliot's Silas Marner, Lougmans New Supplementary Readers, Stage 6.

(These books are already recommended for fifth form Anglais Renforcé).

Considerable relaiance will be placed on the teacher's initiative and foresight in the choice of reading themes that suit both the interests of his students and his own personality. However, some linguistic

and cultural considerations have to be borne in mind in the choice of themes. In addition to the logical devices specified, attention has to be paid to the content vocabulary and grammatical structures (including idiomatic expressions) included in the selections chosen.

By content vocabulary is meant those lexical items that capture specific notions and concepts (e.g. matter, substance, consternation, inadequate, optimistic, etc.). In the CLAD series content vocabulary in the noun class, for example, seems to be mainly in the concrete category, so that it might be necessary for the teacher to consider themes that include some vocabulary in the abstract noun category.

With regard to grammatical structures, an eye should be kept on Simple Past/Present Perfect/Past Perfect co-occurrences (acknowledged problem areas for francophones!); modals (e.g. should, would, must, might, etc.,possible forms in inferences and cause-effect constructions); embeddings in relative constructions (including instances of deletion of formal features signaling relative components of sentences as in: "The economic activities connected with the production of food=the economic activities which are (were) connected with..."; "Supplied nearly everything we needed=supplied nearly everything that we needed") (Berman, 1975, p. 247): Anaphoric references to superordinate notions deserve some attention since they sometimes occur in inferential/evaluative statements and cause-effect relationships (e.g. "This indicates that.../ This=the fact X, the set of facts X,Y,Z; the idea: X, the set of ideas X,Y,Z; the argument X, etc.) (Allen & Widdowson, 1974, p.7).

The above linguistic considerations should provide potentially useful areas for integrated exercises in vocabulary and grammar development.

In the cultural aspect of reading selections, the teacher should avoid those cultural references or topics that are remotely foreign to the students. For example, a reading selection that deals with skiing will lead the teacher to talk about a cultural activity which the students will find completely irrelevant.

For economic and other practical reasons (e.g. lack of funds to purchase newspapers and periodicals, lack of time, lack of duplicating facilities) it might not be possible for the teacher to utilize reading themes from the first two sources listed above. This calls for some standard textbook that both the teacher and students could use for classroom teaching-learning activities. The book, Practical English-3, by Ogundipe, P.A. & P.S. Tregidgo published by Longman Group Ltd., London, is strongly recommended as a class textbook. The book contains a number of interesting narrative and expository prose texts of sufficient strength/weakness, lightness/heaviness, transparency/opacity combinations (Stevick, 1972; see pp. 30-31).

Practical English 3 is the third book in a series of five books designed mainly for teaching current English in five-year secondary schools in anglophone West Africa. There are a good number of reading passages in the book ("Fiction by African writers, Science and Science fiction, customs and beliefs in many lands") that describe experiences or situations that are either fairly familiar to the average African student or easy to explain. More importantly, there are passages that

portray fairly explicitly the logical categories that are our concern here, and including interesting grammatical exercises and drills based on some of the linguistic considerations indicated above.

Also, Richard and Hall's book "L,Anglais Par La Litterature-Classe de 2" contains some interesting passages that the teacher might want to use at very little or no cost to him and the students since many second-hand copies are to be found in the schools. For reasons already noted (see p.30-31)Richard and Hall's book is not to be used as a standard class text. It is included here merely as a supplementary, easily available source for reading passages.

A good unilingual dictionary is strongly recommended, and the Advanced English Learner's Dictionary of Currect English, also available in local book stores, should adequately serve the needs of the student and teacher.

For students to acquire receptive and productive controls over the rhetorical categories specified, a logical progression would be to pitch reading passages selected first to reading comprehension and then writing. A pedagogical distinction is often made between intensive reading and extensive reading at this level (Jarvis, 1972; Ferguson, 1973). The former refers to the thorough going activities undertaken in the classroom to ensure that students sufficiently master a particular passage from the points of view of decoding the lexical, syntactic and structural devices that elucidate meaningly, exhibiting flexibility of speed in reading by reading aloud with "The correct pronounciation of new words, as well as meaningfulness, by words being in sense groups with appropriate phonological and syntactic correlates" (Been, 1975, p.225), answering questions of varying degrees of sophistication on the passage.

The latter, on the other hand, refers to superficial reading by

students in which the main interest in in the "overall comprehension of characters and events rather than precise details of language and content" (Jarvis, 1972).

It is in the context of intensive reading that the teacher and students will focus attention. Here the students will mainly be required to demonstrate understanding of a reading passage by answering questions on the three major levels of comprehension: literal comprehension, interpretation and application. As Ferguson (1973, p. 30) explains,

> Literal comprehension is the skill of getting the direct meaning of a word, idea, or sentence. Interpretation probes for greater depth than literal comprehension. It supplies meanings not directly stated in the text by supplying additional information got by reading between lines, making generalizations, reasoning cause-effect, anticipating endings, making comparisons, sensing motives, and discovering relationships...Creative thinking (application) seeks out or expresses new ideas. It starts with a mental question or an inquiry.

It would therefore appear that if one posits a hierarchy of increasing level of sophistication for the six logical relationships in the order listed (see p.73-75), they correlate fairly well with the three levels of reading comprehension indicated above. That is, in order to tackle literal-type questions, the students will need to use lexical devices associated with classification and chronological order; to answer questions requiring interpretation they need to use the lexical categories that express cause-effect relationships, comparison-contrast and inference; and finally, to apply the knowledge already acquired to a problem-solving situation, they need to be able to use lexical devices that express evaluation (including, of course, some of the lexical devices associated with some or all of the five previous logical categories).

After students have sufficiently mastered a particular logical category presented through reading-related activities, they will then practice this in writing activities involving first, strict control and then relative de-control. There is, of course, a definite tactical advantage to be derived from engaging students simultaneously in reading and writing as in having students write answers to comprehension and other questions as these answers are verbalized in class. This dual sensory modality approach is, in fact, anticipated here in the classroom scenario.

It cannot be overemphasized that speaking, or more appropriately, verbalizing, is an integral part of every ESL lesson, at least in the context of this P. G. . Questions based on readings that require the use of the logical lexical devices should be answered first, orally and then in writing. Students should also be encouraged to read aloud whatever they write.

The next section now focuses on the possible classroom strategies the teacher might employ in teaching the grammar and vocabulary of the locical categories specified. Mary S. Lawrence's books: Reading, Thinking, Writing and Writing as a Thinking Process are perhaps the most up-to-date comprehensive and systematic texts on the teaching of the organizational patterns typical of English rhetoric at the intermediate level of ESL. Some of her techniques have been adapted for the exercises developed in the study guides in Section III C (See pp.90-175). Also, some of the techniques suggested by Terroux (1974) for teaching ESL writing are also incorporated.

SECTION III

Instructional Strategies

A. Foreward to Teacher

For students to master the vocabulary and grammer of the logical categories specified it would be necessary to provide them with sets of carefully structured learning activitis that will enable them to perceive how the lexical devices associated with these logical categories are deployed for purposes of discourse. As reading and writing will constitute the main avenues through which the logical categories are to be taught, the study guide (Earle, 1975) is recommended as the basic instructional vehicle for organizing reading/writing activities.

As the name implies, a study guide is essentially a written, structured sequence of questions and exercises designed so as to facilitate optimum student interaction with reading/writing material with the goal of acquisition of specific skills, competencies and/or content understandings through a perceived process. Earle (1975, p. 1) cites Herber as further explaining,

> These study guides help the students apply skills in such a way that they are conscious of the process involved in the skill and are also aware of the concepts being developed and applied...(study guides are)designed to serve as the basis for reading to and discussion of the major concepts of the unit being studied.

For tactical reasons, it has been found convenient to divide each study guide devoted to a specific logical category into three sections. The first section, review exercises, provides basic vocabulary and concept review. The second section, content exercises, provides practice of learned concept. The third section, test exercises, provides testing of the concept area.

The duration for teaching the entire program (including 15 hours for readiness activities, (see p.86-89) is approximately 100 hours. This length of time corresponds to the total time available in the year for fifth form ESL study for Anglais Normale students who constitute the majority of the entire fifth form clientele.

It is anticipated that the teacher will spend not more than 9 class hours on each study guide-related activities. This gives a total of 54 class hours for all the six study guides designed in sub-section C (see pp.90-175). Including time that will be spent on readiness activities, the stipulated basic requirements of this core program should take a maximum class time of 69 hours. This leaves about 31 hours out of the 100 hours of ESL teaching-learning time. This remaining time should be adequate for the initial reading, vocabulary study, grammar study and explanation of the passages in the context of which the logical categories will be presented. A global schematic breakdown of the total time available would look like this:

Initial reading activities of a passage	:	c.4 hours
Related study guide activities	:	c.9 "
Total time for all initial reading activities of the 7 passages included in the study guides	:	c.28 "
Total time for all study guide activities	:	c.69 "
Total time for core program	:	c.97 "

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This leaves the teacher with some lee way of + or -3 hours which he will undoubtedly find useful to make up for unanticipated deficiencies. The extra time available for Anglais Renforcé could be used for either in-depth study guide activities or speaking activities such as impromptu speeches and debating, or both.

As already pointed out (see p.77-78), the teacher might decide to use reading passages other than those cited in the individual study guides. However, strict adherrence to the process outlined in the study guides cannot be overemphasized. The students will unquestionably need a clearly perceived sequence of activities that will lead them, albeit inductively, to internalize the rhetorical values of the logical devices specified, and the study guides have exactly sought to accomplish this. If the teacher succeeds in inculcating in his students receptive and productive controls over the logical categories within the framework outlined in the study guides, he will have provided his students with invaluable skills that will put them in a fairly good position to function independently in the language outside the classroom context, at least in reading and writing.

The next sub-section (B) now describes the possible preliminary (readiness) activities that should precede the use of the study guides. Following this is subsection C that describes sample study guides for teaching the logical categories. Subsection D discusses some tactical considerations in classroom use of the study guides. Finally, Section IV deals with the criteria for evaluating students performances.

B. Preliminary (Readiness) Activities

Before students engage in reading/writing activities aimed at developing their receptive and productive controls over the logical categories suggested, it would be necessary for them to review some of the content and grammar/structure vocabulary they have already encountered. For this purpose, the dialogues (and their related questions and exercises) in Part III of the eight units in CLAD Book III are recommended. The procedure for the presentation of the dialogues follows the usual pattern: imitation, repetition (individually and chorally in small groups), contextualization, memorization, dramatization.

The questions and excercises based on the dialogues should provide ample review of Wh-questions which students will need in their study of the logical relationships. An integrated set of review exercises of these Wh-question structures is presented below, to be done after the routine study of the dialogues:

(i) Indicate the response (or responses) which do not answer the following questions. Be prepared to discuss your answers.

Question	Responses
a. How...?	slowly; with difficulty; Mary; fast; in a hurry.
b. Why...?	in order to; because of; for _____; in 1945.
c. When...?	for one hundred miles, six days ago; a long way; just around the corner; since last year.
d. Where...?	in Yaounde; at the airport; next to; on Ahmadon Ahidjo Boulevard; at home.
e. Whose...?	Mary's; that belongs to ____; mine; to me.

f. Who...?	man; mine; six; former; Nigerian.
g. How many...?	sixty; her; dozen; approximately ___; hundreds.
h. How long...?	for ____; approximately ____; for sixty ____; not here; for a short time; since.
i. Which...?	the ___ one; the red ___; a house; the other ___; the big ___.
j. What...?	ate; apples; something; ran; chair; it; those; because; the ___; she.

(ii) Match the question words and phrases in column A with the kind of answers you expect in column B.

	A (Questions)	B (Answers)
_____	Who?	(a) Actions, processes.
_____	Where?	(b) Numbers, weights, measures.
_____	What is he doing?	(c) Name of person(s).
_____	What did he do?	(d) Method.
_____	How? What is the way to?	(e) Locations, places.
_____	How many? How much?	(f) Time.
_____	Why?	(g) Reason
_____	When?	

(iii) Write a question with each of the question words and phrases in (i). You will work in pairs. Each person will read his questions and his colleague will supply the answers.

Another set of exercises, also related to the dialogues, that should be done here is in connection with what is often referred to as "Indirect Speech" or "Reported speech". The teacher should explain that in "reported

speech" a person is simply relaying (without quotation marks) the statement or statements made by another person either to someone else or to the person who made the statement(s). Such statements generally represent some mental activity exemplified by "thinking, believing, feeling, hoping, expecting, doubting, being certain, remembering, forgetting, fearing, being confident, being satisfied, and so on" (Hocking, 1973).

Without attempting to teach all the nuances associated with reported speech, the teacher should focus on the three main areas that generally pose problems: tense and sequence of tenses, time reference, and pronoun changes.

Hocking (1973) has noted that for a fairly adequate representation of tense harmony in reported speech "a two-part productive rule dealing with tense in the surface structure of sentences" would be:

- If a verb occurs alone, it carries the tense (e.g. Boy: "I need some money"/Reported version: The boy said that he needed some money.)

- A verb may be preceded by one or more auxiliaries (e.g. will, do, have, are, etc.); in this case, it is always the first auxiliary that carries the tense. (e.g. Driver: "It'll be easy for me to prove I'm right"/ Reported version: The driver said that it would be easy for him to prove that he was right.)

These rules should be stated explicitly, supported with examples, and students encouraged to verbalize them as a prerequisite for using them in actual reported speech activities.

With regard to time reference in reported speech, the following productive formulas should prove adequate: (a) now → then or at that time; (b) today → that day (c) tomorrow → the following (or next)day;(d)yesterday→ the day before or the previous day (e) last week, month, year → the week, month, year before or the previous week, month, year.

Changes in pronouns are rather complex in reported speech in that the forms they take are situationally and semantically determined. For the purposes of these review exercises, the following formulas should suffice: (a) First person pronouns: I -→ he; my -→ his; me -→ him (her); we -→ they; ours -→ theirs; (b) Second person pronouns: You -→ he (singular), they (plural); your -→ his (singular), their (plural); yours -→ his (singular), theirs (plural); (c) Third person pronouns: he, they, him, theirs, remain unchanged or may be replaced by the nouns they refer to. These formulas, it cannot be overstated, must be illustrated with concrete examples.

After the above problem areas in reported speech have been discussed in class with some examples drawn from the eight dialogues already studied, the teacher should divide the class into eight groups and assign one dialogue to each group to be rendered in reported speech. Each group leader will then be asked to write the group's solution on the chalkboard for class discussion.

The above readiness activities should take not more than fifteen one-hour periods. It is expected that the teacher would spend the first lesson of the year to familiarize himself with his students, to talk about a topic of general interest say, the previous vacation and, more importantly, to give general instructions on the readiness activities. The first dialogue is here set as homework to be read for dramatization and discussion of related questions and exercises the following class period. A total of ten hours should be spent on the dialogue-related activities and four hours on the reported speech exercises.

The next subsection presents sample study guides developed for the logical categories to illustrate the process involved.

C. THE STUDY GUIDES

STUDY GUIDE I: CLASSIFICATION

Instruction to Students: In the following exercises we are going to learn about classification, the method of organizing facts and data into categories by making a list, enumerating, giving examples. This is a technique used by writers, and you will find it useful when doing your own writing.

REVIEW EXERCISES

Exercise 1: General Information

Answer the following questions:

(a) How many months are there in a year? Name them.

(b) How many provinces are there in Cameroon? Name them.

(c) Name the kinds of food you eat at home.

(d) How many government ministries are there in Cameroon? Name them.

(e) Name three characteristics of a good student of English.

Exercise II: Successful and Unsuccessful Students

The principal of your school divides students into two groups, successful and unsuccessful students. Make a list of four characteristics for each group. Example:

Successful students always come to school early.

Unsuccessful students always refuse to share their ideas with other students.

Successful Students	Unsuccessful Students
(a)	(a)
(b)	(b)
(c)	(c)
(d)	(d)

Exercise III: Geography and Communication

Below are lists of topics. Complete the lists by adding further examples.

(a) English-speaking West African countries

(i) Nigeria

(ii) Ghana

(iii)

(iv)

(v)

(b) Methods of communication in Cameroon.

(i) telephone

(ii) newspaper

(iii)

(iv)

(v)

(vi)

(c) Methods of transportation in Cameroon.

(i) bus

(ii) bicycle

(iii)

(iv)

(v)

(vi)

SOME USEFUL CLASSIFICATION WORDS AND EXPRESSIONS

Now, here is a list of some of the words and expressions we use when we classify facts and data:

Kinds, parts, types, sources, regions, provinces, qualities, characteristics, aspects etc; first, second,etc.; the first, the second,etc.; main kinds of, main types of; major kinds of; basic kinds of; significant; important; __ can be divided into ___ classes, categories etc.; __ falls into ___ classes, categories etc.; two, three, four etc.

Exercise IV: Using Classification Words

Choose from the above list of classification words nad expressions the appropriate word or expression which completes each of the following statements of classification. Write out the statements in full.

(a) I have visited three of the _____ of Cameroon.

(b) The person I marry must have several _____.

(c) Methods of transportation in Cameroon _____ three _____.

(d) The tools a carpenter uses _____ three _____.

(e) The engine of a car has many _____.

(f) Government revenue in Cameroon comes from three _____.

(g) For good nutrition we should eat four ____ food daily.

(h) There are three _____ of school life I find most interesting.

(i) It is possible to divide Cameroon into three geographical _____.

(j) Civil servants in Cameroon _____ three _____.

Exercise V: "New Ways for an Old Village"

The following questions are based on the passage "New Ways for an Old Village" (Practical English 3, pp. 2-4) which we have just studied. They require you to name or list things. Write out answers to them. Numbers in brackets refer you to the paragraphs in the passage where you can find the answers.

(a) What three features of the village indicated that it needed to be improved? (2)

(b) What significant advantage of the village life does the writer mention? (2)

(c) Name four things which, according to the clerk, the villagers should have done but hadn't. (3)

Exercise VI: Flash Cards

The teacher prepares flash cards of topics under each of which are listed relevant facts and information (e.g. Topic: Farm crops in Kumba; Facts: cash crops, food crops).

Students are asked to:

(a) Make three statements of classification about the information provided which are true.

(b) Make three statements of classification about the information which are false

(c) Ask and answer questions of classification based on the information.

Exercise VII: Completion of Paragraphs

(a) Using the information you provided in Ex. II and consulting the list of classification words and expressions, complete the following two paragraphs. Work in your groups. The completed paragraphs will be read aloud by an appointed member of each group. You may use more than one word in some of the blanks.

The principal of our school divides students into _____ namely, _____ and _____ students. The _____ of students have _____. First, _____. Second, _____. Third, _____. Fourth, _____

The _____ of students have _____. First, _____. Second, _____. Third, _____. Fourth, _____.

(b) Using the information you provided in Ex. II (c) and consulting the list of classification words and expressions, complete the following three paragraphs of classification. The completed paragraphs will be read aloud by you. You may use more than one word in some of the blanks.

Methods of transportation in Cameroon _____ into three _____. The first _____ is transportation by _____. The methods used here include: _____, _____, _____, and _____. Of these methods _____ and _____ are used mainly in towns, while in thr villages _____ and _____ are common. _____ and _____ serve both towns and villages.

The second _____ is transportation by _____. The methods utilized here are: _____, _____, and _____. All these are to be found mainly in the coastal areas, particularly in the sea ports of _____ and _____. In interior village communities lying along rivers _____ are mostly used.

The third _____ of transportation is the fastest. This is transportation by _____. Here the methods used are: _____, _____ and _____.

Exercise VIII: Dictation

The teacher gives a dictation here (six sentences of classification) to be corrected in class by students from model solution written on the chalkboard. Answer sheets should be distributed at random so that a student does not correct his or her answer sheet.

Exercise IX: Equivalent Statements

Write three different statements of classification which are equivalent about each of the following sets of groups of words. Each set of three statements must incorporate the ideas contained in the groups of words given.

Example:

government revenue in Cameroon/main sources.

1. Government revenue in Cameroon comes from three main sources.
2. There are three main sources of government revenue in Cameroon.
3. Government revenue in Cameroon can be said to come from three main sources.

(a) a carpenter/types of tools

(b) a good leader/principal qualities

(c) Cameroon/geographical regions/average annual rainfall

(d) second cycle secondary students in Cameroon/groups/course options taken.

TESTING EXERCISES

Exercise X: Dictation

A dictation of six sentences of classification.

(To be done as a class test).

Exercise XI: Equivalent Statements

Write three different statements of classification which are equivalent about each of the following sets of groups of words. Each set of three statements must incorporate the ideas contained in the groups of words given.

Example: (as in Ex. IX)

(a) success at school/main factors.

(b) an important legal decision/many considerations.

(c) West African countris/categories/Eruopean languages spoken.

(d) good nutrition/kinds of food.

(To be done as a class test).

Exercise XII: Essay-type Paragraph

In twelve sentences write three paragraphs of classification about the farm crops of Cameroon. You must use at least six words and/or expressions of classification. Use one of the following suggested opening sentences:

The farm crops of Cameroon fall into _____.

or

In Cameroon there are _____ of farm crops.

or

We can divide the farm crops of Cameroon into _____.

(To be done as homework).

STUDY GUIDE 2: CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER

Instruction to Students: Here we are going to learn about chronological order. the method of organizing events according to their time of occurrence. This is another technique writers use either in the narration of sequences of events that occurred in the past or giving accounts of habitual events in terms of their occurrence in a time sequence. This method of organization is very similar to classification except that we classify according to continuity in time.

REVIEW EXERCISES

Exercise I: General Information

Answer the following questions in writing.

(a) When were you born?

(b) When did you start secondary school?

(c) When did Cameroon attain independence?

(d) When did the Americans first land man on the moon?

(e) For how long have you been studying English?

(f) What lesson do you have after your English lesson on Tuesdays?

(g) Underline the words or expressions in your answers that indicate time.

SOME USEFUL CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER WORDS AND EXPRESSIONS:

Here is a list of some of the words we use when we talk or write about things in chronological order.

Now, nowadays; when; before, after, while, during; between __ and ___; since; later; earlier; formerly; at birth; in childhood; in infancy; as an adult; in adulthood; in old age; at death; former, latter; previous; previously; prior to; first, second, etc.; in the first place, in the second place, etc.; to begin with; next; then; subsequently; in the next place; at last; in conclusion; finally; no sooner ____ than; hardly ____ when.

Exercise II: "Runaway Wife"

(a) Read the passage "Runaway Wife" (Practical English 3, pp. 42-43) again. Underline all the sentences in the passage that express events in chronological order. You should be able to find eleven sentences.

(b) Write out all the words and expressions in the passage indicating chronological order. You should be able to find twelve of them (some repeated).

CONTENT EXERCISES

Exercise III: "Runaway Wife"

Answer the following questions on the story in "Runaway Wife". The questions require you to state the order in which events occurred in time. The numbers in brackets refer you to the paragraphs in the passage where you can find the answers.

(a) What happened one morning when Niam got up? (1)

(b) What happened a few days after Niam's wife had left? (2)

(c) i. What was the first thing Niam did six months after his wife had left? (4)

ii. What did he do next? (Begin your answer with "After this".)

Exercise IV: New Sentences

Write a new sentence with each of the words or expressions you have written out in Ex. II (b). Work in your groups.

Exercise V: Combining Sentences

Combine the following pairs of sentences using after, while and before. Notice that you will probably want to use he, they, etc. in one part of your sentence. Make changes in verb tenses where necessary.

Example: The student felt sick. The student ate ten mangoes.

The student felt sick after he had eaten ten mangoes.

(a) John broke his leg. John went playing football.

(b) Mrs. Atangana bought some oranges. Mrs. Atangana took a taxi home.

(c) Pauline must have heard the news. Pauline was in Yaounde.

(d) Mr. Adamu flew to Garona. Mr. Adamu bought a ticket.

(e) The boys went to the swimming pool. The boys did their homework.

(f) We added some water to the soup. We should have added some salt to the soup.

Exercise VI: Chronological Order Sentence Patterns

(a) Write statements of chronological order to fit the following patterns. You may use more than one word for the blanks.

(i) To begin with you must ____ in order to learn to speak English; next, you must ____.

(ii) Before I learned about ____, I thought that _____.

(iii) Formerly I liked ____, but nowadays I ____.

(iv) Since I was five years old, I have _____.

(v) For the past six years _____.

(vi) Prior to _____ I liked to ____.

(vii) While I was ____, I used to ____ everyday.

(viii) In old age I intend to ____.

(ix) At death his father _____.

(x) Between ____ and ____ my father ____.

(b) Underline the words and expressions in the above statements that indicate chronological order.

(c) In each of the above sentneces, where applicable, replace the chronological word or expression with another chronological word or expression that has the same meaning. Consult the list of chronological words and expressions. Work in your groups.

CONTENT EXERCISES

Exercise VII: Equivalent Sentences

For each of the following sentences, write two other sentences that express the same ideas. Use the two words or expressions in brackets (one for each sentence).

Example: After the defeat of the Germans in 1918 the French and British took over Cameroon. (When; prior to).

1. When the Germans were defeated in 1918 the French and British took over Cameroon.

2. Prior to French and British take over of Cameroon in 1918, the Germans had to be defeated.

   (a) No sooner had we finished talking about her than she arrived. (As soon as; Hardly ____When).

   (b) We were driving to the station when a bus crashed into us. (While; as).

Exercise VIII: Dialogues

(a) Read the following short dialogue:

Esote: A few days ago Enone borrowed one thousand francs; now he is borrowing five.

Ndongfack: The next thing you know he will be borrowing a hundred.

Now, working with your partner, complete the following on the above pattern.

(i) S: Last month our mathematics teacher was absent from school for three days; this month he has been absent for a week.

R: The next thing you know _____.

(ii) S: Four years ago he ran for student body president; now he is running for city councilman.

R: The next thing you know _____.

(iii) S: Last year he took a two-week vacation; this year he is taking a three-week vacation.

R: The next thing you know _____.

(iv) S: Yesterday he was complaining about his job; today he is complaining about his wife.

R: The next thing you know _____ _____.

(v) S: Previously he used to drive a Renault 4; now I see he is driving a Peugeot 504.

R: The next thing you know _____.

(adapted form Rutherford, 1974)

(b) Underling all the words and expressions in the above dialogues that indicate chronological order.

(c) Again working with your partner, write four dialogues on the patterns in (a). Consult the list of chronological words and expressions.

Exercise IX: Completion of a Chronological Order Paragraph

(a) Complete the following paragraph on "What I do Every Saturday". Note that the paragraph is written in chronological order. You may use more than one word in the blanks.

I usually get up very _____ every Saturday. The first thing I do when I wake up is _____. Next, I go to _____ where I _____ and _____. Then, _____. After that, _____. Finally, _____.

(b) Underline all the words and expressions in the above paragraph that indicate chronological sequence.

Exercise X: Writing a Chronological Order Paragraph

List the things you do every morning before you go to school. Use the following chronological words and expressions to write a paragraph of the things you have listed: after that, to begin with, finally, next, then, afterward, later. Begin your paragraph with the following opening sentence:

For me, the morning begins at 5 a.m. (6 a.m., 7 a.m. etc).

Exercise XI: "Scrambled" Paragraphs of Chronological Order

(a) Below are statements about the history of Cameroon. The statements are in random order. Rearrange them so that they form a chronologically coherent passage. The statements have been numbered to help you. Your final solution should not be numbered. Work in your groups.

(i) On May 20th, 1972, the citizens of Cameroon overwhelmingly voted in support of a government proposal for the institution of a unitary state with a single political party.

(ii) On January 1st, 1960, French Cameroon attained political independence and thereafter became known as Cameroon Republic.

(iii) Since the establishment of a unitary government Cameroon has experienced peace and made significant progress in the fields of education, agriculture, transportation and industrialization.

(iv) In the 1950's political parties in French Cameroon demanded political independence from France.

(v) In 1887 the Germans occupied what is now the United Republic of Cameroon and declared it a German colony.

(vi) When the First World War broke out in 1914, a combined expeditionary force of French and British troops invaded German Kamerun and brought German rule to an end.

(vii) Prior to German occupation there was no central government in Cameroon.

(viii) The larger part was placed under French administration while the British were asked to administer the smaller part, north and south.

(ix) On October 1st, 1961 British Southern Cameroon voted in a UN-controlled referendum for political integration with Cameroon Republic.

(x) Between 1887 and 1914 the Germans ruled over Kamerun and established a central colonial government.

(xi) At the end of the First World War in 1918 the League of Nations partitioned Kamerun into two unequal parts.

(xii) The territory was made up of a number of chiefdoms each owing allegiance to a local chief.

(b) Divide the above passage into paragraphs. Be prepared to defend your solution. Work in your groups.

Exercise XII: Dictation

Teacher gives a dictation here (six sentences of chronological order) to be corrected by students in class.

TESTING EXERCISES

Exercise XII: Combining Sentences

Combine each of the following pairs of sentences into a single sentence using any of the following: after, while, before, subsequently, formerly, prior to, nowadays.

(a) I liked dancing. I like swimming.

(b) The dog bit the visitor. The dog ran out of the house.

(c) The student felt tired. The student worked all night.

(d) Mr. Musa bought a stereo set. Mr. Musa bought a car.

(e) Elizabeth lost her money. Elizabeth went shopping.

(f) Mr. Takusi flew to Paris. Mr. Takusi bought a ticket.

(To be done as a class test).

Exercise XIII: Dictation

A dictation of six sentences of chronological order.

(To be done as a class test).

Exercise XIV: Equivalent Sentences

For each of the following sentences write two other sentences that express the same ideas. Use the two words or expressions in brackets (one for each sentence).

(a) No sooner had he been punished by the teacher than he committed the same offence again. (immediately after; hardly ___ when).

(b) They were working in the garden when a thief broke into the house. (while; as).

(To be done as a class test).

Exercise XV: Essay-type Paragraphs

(a) Talk to an elderly person (your father, mother, uncle etc) and ask him or her questions about his or her life history. Write a short biography of this person in twelve sentences. You must use the following chronological words and expressions among others: between ____ and ____; formerly, later; subsequently; in childhood; since; nowadays.

(To be done as homework).

(b) Suppose you had spent your last vacation in your village helping your father or uncle on his farm. Write three paragraphs of twelve sentences about a typical day in the village. Among others, you must use the following words and expressions of chronological order: next; then; after; to begin with; at last.

(To be done as homework).

STUDY GUIDE 3(A): COMPARISON

Instruction to students: The following exercises deal with the ways we make comparisons by pointing out the likenesses and similarities among persons, things, places.

REVIEW EXERCISES

Exercise I: General Information

(a) Read the following sentences of comparison.

(i) How is a newspaper similar to a radio set?

(ii) The invention of the printing press revolutionized communication as did the invention of TV later.

(iii) John resembles his father in many ways.

(iv) Mary is as intelligent as her brother, John.

(v) Today most Cameroonian men and women work on farms just as their ancestors did in the past.

(vi) The population of Bamenda Town is almost the same as that of Yaounde.

(b) Underline the words and expressions in the above sentences that indicate comparison.

(c) Write a sentence of your own using each of the words and expressions you have underlined above.

SOME USEFUL COMPARISON WORDS AND EXPRESSIONS

Here is a list of some of the words and expressions we use in expressing comparisons:

similar to; like; similarly; alike; resemble; resemblance; almost the same as; the same as; at the same rate as; as; just as; as ____ as; in the same way; to have _____ in common; common characteristics.

Exercise II: "Sea-Farming"

(a) Read the text "Sea-Farming" (Practical English 3, pp. 83-85) again. Write out the sentences that express comparison. Then underline the words and expressions in these sentences that indicate comparison. You should be able to find two sentences and two words and one expression of comparison.

(b) Write a new sentence with each of the two words and expressions underlined above. (Three sentences in all).

CONTENT EXERCISES

Exercise III: "Sea-Farming" - Completion of Statements

(a) The author of the text "Sea-Farming" has indicated some striking similarities between sea-farming and land-farming. Reread the passage for pieces of information that complete the following statements of comparison:

(i) Both ____ and ____ yield ____ for man.

(ii) Sea-farming requires the use of ____ just as ____.

(iii) Like the land-farmer, the fish-farmer has to ____ in order to eliminate ____.

(v) Through the use of ____ it is possible for the sea-farmer to ____ as the land-farmer does on land.

(b) Underline the words and expressions in the above sentences that indicate comparison.

Exercise IV: Data for Comparison

Teacher presents two sets of data similar in some respects and closely similar in others say, about two cities in Cameroon (population, number of school, plans of the cities, etc.). Groups of students are asked to:

(a) Write three questions of comparison based on the data.

(b) Write three statements of comparison based on the data which are true.

(c) Write three statements of comparison based on the data which are false.

Exercise V: Equivalent Sentences

Use the word or expression in brackets in place of the word or expression of comparison in each of the following sentences. You may have to change verb forms.

Example: John looks almost like his father. (resemblance)

John bears a close resemblance to his father.

(a) Mary is as tall as Audet. (the same as).

(b) Secondary schools in Cameroon share many common characteristics. (to have ___ in common).

(c) A football game is similar to a basket-ball game in many respects. (alike).

(d) Peter plays the piano very well as his father does. (just as).

TESTING EXERCISES

Exercise VI: Dictation

A dictation of six sentences of comparison.

(To be done as a class test).

Exercise VII: Essay-type Paragraphs

(a) Write three paragraphs of twelve sentences about the similarities between life in a village and life in a town. You must use at least five words and/or expressions of comparison. Note that the vocabulary of classification you have already learned may also be useful here. Use one of the following suggested opening sentences:

There are many striking similarities between life in a town and life in a village.

or

Life in a town and life in a village are similar in many ways.

(To be done as homework)

(b) Write three paragraphs of twelve sentences about the similarities between a day in the life of a farmer and a day in the life of a petty trader. You must use at least five different words and/or expressions of comparison. Note that the vocabulary of chronological order you have already learned may also be useful here. Use one of the following suggested opening sentences:

There are many aspects of a day in the life of a farmer that resembles those of a day in the life of a petty trader.

or

A day in the life of a farmer and a day in the life of a petty trader have many things in common. (to be done as homework)

STUDY GUIDE 3(B): CONTRAST

Instruction to students: Here we are going to learn about contrast, the opposite of comparison. In contrast, we are concerned with the ways of expressing the differences and dissimilarities between persons, things, places.

REVIEW EXERCISES

Exercise I: General Information

(a) Read the following sentences of contrast.

(i) In what ways is life in a city different form life in a village?

(ii) The ball used to play football is larger than a tennis ball.

(iii) It rained; however, the yard did not get flooded.

(iv) Many people like football. On the other hand, there are those who deplore it.

(v) Mary is good-looking although she lacks good manners.

(b) Underline the words and expressions in the above sentences that indicate contrast.

(c) Write a sentence of your own using each of the words and expressions you have underlined above.

SOME USEFUL WORDS AND EXPRESSIONS OF CONTRAST

Here is a list of some of the words and expressions we use to express contrast:

differ from; however; otherwise; still; nevertheless; even so; different from; less than, more than, faster than etc.; unlike; on the contrary; on the other hand; a larger percentage than; at a different rate from; although; while; but; in spite of.

Exercise II: "Sea-Farming"

(a) Read the text "Sea-Farming" (Practical English 3, pp. 83-85) again. Write out all the sentences that express contrast. Then underline the words and expressions in these sentences that indicate contrast. You should be able to find nine sentences and five words and expressions (some repeated) that indicate contrast.

(b) Write a new sentence of contrast using each of the five words/ expressions of contrast underlined above.

CONTENT EXERCISES

Exercise III: "Sea-Farming" - Completion of Statements

The author of the text "Sea-Farming" has indicated some striking differences between sea-farming and land-farming. Reread the passage for pieces of information that complete the following statements of contrast. You may use more than one word in the blanks.

(i) Sea-farming differs from ____ in that it yields only ____ namely, _____.

(ii) The land-farmer, unlike _____, does not risk having his _____ scattered away by _____.

(iii) The problem of _____ is far greater for the fish-farmer than ____.

(iv) The _____ and _____ may use _____. However, the _____ does not need an _____ to be able to use his _____.

(v) Even if the _____ succeeds in solving all his problems, still the _____ of his farms will be less than those of _____.

Exercise IV: Sentence Patterns of Contrast

Write statements of contrast to fit the following patterns. You may need a word or phrase to complete each blank.

(i) Some children grow ____ from other children because of nutritional differences.

(ii) I had to go to the debating club meeting yesterday ____ I forgot all about it.

(iii) The glasses have not yet been wiped; ____ everything is ready for the party.

(iv) ____ the population of Cameroon live in the villages than in the towns.

(v) _____ he was sick, he managed to participate in the protest march.

Exercise VL: Data of Contrast

Teacher presents two contrasting sets of data say, about children in a named village and children in a named town in Cameroon. The students are then asked to:

(a) Write three statements of contrast about the data which are true.

(b) Write three statements of contrast about the data which are false.

(c) Ask and answer three questions of contrast about the data.

TESTING EXERCISES

Exercise VII: Completion of Sentence Patterns of Contrast

Complete the following sentence patterns of contrast.

You may use more than one word in the spaces provided.

(a) _____, but _____.

(b) _____ is different from _____.

(c) _____ is _____ than _____.

(d) _____ has fewer _____ than _____.

(e) _____ is not as _____ as _____. On the contrary, it is _____.

(To be done as a class test)

Exercise VIII: Dictation _

A dictation of six sentences of contrast.

(To be done as a class test).

Exercise IX: Equivalent Sentences

For each of the following sentences of contrast write three other sentences which are quivalent. Use the words or expressions in brackets beside each sentence for your sentences. Make whatever changes you think are necessary but your sentences must contain the ideas expressed in each given sentence.

(a) It was dangerous, but we had to make an attempt. (although; in spite of; notwithstanding)

(b) Our ways of life are different from theirs in many respects. (differ from; differ; stand in contrast to)

(c) The future of the economy of our country depends more on progress in manufacturing industry than on progress in agriculture. (less ____ than; more progress ____ than; at a faster rate ___than)

(To be done as a class test)

Exercise X: Essay-type Paragraphs

Write three paragraphs of twelve sentences about the differences between a day school and a boarding school. You must use at least five words and/or expressions of contrast. Note that the vocabulary of classification you have already learned may also be useful here. Use any one of the following as your opening sentence.

There are many striking differences between a day school and a boarding school.

or

A day school and a boarding school are different in many respects.

(To be done as homework).

STUDY GUIDE 4: CAUSE-EFFECT RELATIONSHIPS

Instruction to students: In the following exercises we are going to learn about cause-effect relationships, the ways in which we express the manner one event determines or influences the outcome or result of another event. Here we shall be mainly interested in why things happen. This is a very important method of organization of ideas, and we have already met it in some of our previous readings.

REVIEW EXERCISES

Exercise I: General Information

(a) Read the following sentences:

(i) The car stopped because there was no petrol left in the tank.

(ii) The principal punished him because of his failure to do his homework.

(iii) The canoe capsized as a result of the strong waves.

(iv) The meeting had to be postponed since the president was not present.

(v) Ibrahim and Ndongfack were very tired, so they went to bed earlier than usual.

(b) Underline all the words and expressions in the above sentences that indicate cause-effect relationship.

(c) For each of the sentences in (a), indicate the part that is cause and the part that is effect or result. Work in your groups.

(d) On the sentence patterns in (a), write a new sentence with each of the cause-effect words and expressions that you have underlined.

SOME USEFUL CAUSE-EFFECT RELATIONSHIP WORDS AND EXPRESSIONS

Here is a list of some of the words and expressions we use in talking or writing about cause-effect relationships:

so; thus; as; consequently; therefore; for this reason; as a result; hence; because; because of; since; owing to; due to; _____ is due to _____; _____ is the result of _____; _____ results in _____; _____ is the effect of _____; have an effect on; the reason is that _____; _____ causes _____; _____ is the cause of _____; If _____ is true, then _____ follows _____; as a consequence; so ____ that____; _____ make(s) _____ possible by _____.

Exercise II: "Disease - Its Causes"

(a) Read the passage "Disease - Its Causes" (Practical English 3, pp. 93-94) again. Then, write out all the sentences that express cause-effect relationships. You should be able to find six sentences.

(b) In each of the above sentences, underline the word or expression that indicates cuase-effect relationship.

(c) Working in your groups indicate the part that is cause and the part that is effect or result for each of the sentences in (a).

(d) Write a new sentence using each of the cause-effect words and expressions underlined in (a).

CONTENT EXERCISES

Exercise III: "Disease-Its Causes" - Completion of Statements

(a) Look for pieces of information in the passage "Disease-Its Causes" that complete each of the following sentences of cause-effect. Work in your groups.

(i) Diseases are usually the result of the _____ of the human body by harmful _____ in a process known as _____.

(ii) An infectious disease results from _____ of disease-bearing _____ from _____ or from _____.

(iii) Viruses are the smallest of _____, consequently they were the last to be _____.

(iv) Viruses are so _____ that they cannot be seen individually with _____.

(v) The virus of infantile paralysis _____ and _____ a certain type of cell in _____, and as a consequence the individual is _____.

(vi) A virus may cause _____ to its _____ either by _____ or by _____.

(vii) A tumor is due to _____.

(viii) A virus need not always cause _____ since it may _____ and _____.

(ix) A carrier of a disease is dangerous because _____.

(x) Owing to _____ of the electron microscope, it has been possible to _____ about _____.

(b) Underline the words and expression in the above sentences that indicate cause-effect.

(c) For each of the sentences in (a) indicate the part that is cause and the part that is effect.

Exercise IV: Combining Sentences

(a) Combine each of the following pairs of sentences using the cause-effect vocabulary supplied in brackets.

Example: The principal reprimanded the students.
The students were late for class. (because)

The principal reprimanded the students because they were late for class.

(i) The coffee farmers were unhappy.
Coffee price was very poor. (because of)

(ii) The student ate ten mangoes.
The student felt sick. (as a result)

(iii) I took my umbrella to school.
It was raining yesterday. (so)

(iv) The little boy wept.
The little boy was hungry. (because)

(v) The house my father was building cost a lot of money.
My father had to take a loan from a bank. (Therefore)

(vi) Joseph failed the examination.
Joseph did not study hard enough. (as a consequence)

(b) Write three pairs of statements in which the first statement in each pair is cause and the second statement is effect. Ask your partner to combine each pair of statements to show cause-effect relationship. Indicate the cause-effect word or expression you want him or her to use in combining each pair of sentences.

Exercise V: Completion of Cause-Effect Sentence Patterns

Use your imagination to complete the following patterns of cause-effect relationships.

(a) _____ rich, so she _____.

(b) _____ too heavy, consequently the small boy _____.

(c) The girl was so _____ that _____.

(d) It was such a _____ that _____.

(e) I hate _____ because of _____.

Exercise VI: Data and Facts of Cause-Effect Relationship

The teacher presents some geographical facts and data about a region in Cameroon (e.g. Fako Division). The facts and data should represent cause-effect relationships between say, elevation and farm sizes, elevation and the location of settlements, rainfall incidence and the conditions of roads, rainfall incidence and vegetation, etc. The students are then asked, using the cause-effect words and expressions in brackets, to:

(a) Write three statements of cause-effect which are true about the facts and data. (____is the result of ____; causes; so ____ that).

(b) Write three statements of cause-effect which are false about the facts and data. (one effect of ____ is that ____; the reason for _____; is the cause of).

(c) Write three questions of cause-effect about the facts and data. (due to; because of; because).

Exercise VII: Completion of Cause-Effect Paragraphs

(a) Read the following advertisement: "Don't sit at home every night waiting for a date. USE BRIGHT TEETH, the tooth-paste that GUARANTEES KISSES". Now, complete the following paragraph:

According to the tooth-paste ad, _____ will make you _____. Your _____ will be so _____ that you will have lots of _____. You will be so _____ that _____ will _____ you. In my opinion, people should buy _____ in order to _____. People don't have _____.

(b) (i) From the list of cause-effect words and expressions given below, choose the ones that best complete the following paragraph:

Paul telephoned Jean and told him that it was almost nine o'clock, _____ they had better drive to school. Jean told Paul that his car had a flat tire; _____ they would have to walk. They would probably be late _____. Paul said that he did not mind being late; besides they needed the exercise, _____ it would be better for them to walk.

as a result, consequently, as a consequence, hence, so, therefore, because, because of.

(ii) Can more than one of these cause-effect words and expressions be used in any of the blanks in the above paragraph?

TESTING EXERCISES

Exercise VIII: Equivalent Sentences

For each of the following cause-effect sentences, write three other cause-effect sentences which are equivalent. Use the three cause-effect words and/or expressions in brackets beside each sentence for your sentences. Make whatever changes you think are necessary but each set of three sentences must contain the ideas expressed in the given sentence.

(a) He could not attend the meeting because he was ill. (due to; because of; the reason for ____).

(b) Malnutrition is one major cause of disease among many children in Cameroon. (consequently; owing to; the consequence of ____ is ___)

(c) The intense heat caused the flowers to wither away. (so _____ that; such a (an) _____ that; as)

(d) The car broke down twice, so we reached Buea late. (_____ made _____: hence; since)

(To be done as a class test).

Exercise IX: Essay-type Paragraphs

(a) Being wealthy can have a lot of advantages. Being wealthy can also have a lot of disadvantages. Write three paragraphs of twelve sentences about the advantages or the disadvantages of being wealthy. Among others, you must use the following cause-effect words and expressions: because; because of; so; therefore; as a result. The vocabulary of classification amy also be useful. Use one of the following as your opening sentence:

Being rich has _____ disadvantages.

or

Being rich has _____ advantages.

(To be done as homework)

(b) Write three paragraphs of twelve sentences on why people save money. Among others, you must use the following cause-effect vocabulary: in order to; since; one effect of _____ is that _____; the reason is that; _____ makes _____ possible by _____. The vocabulary of classification may also be useful. Use one of the following as your opening sentence:

People save money for _____ reasons.

or

There are _____ reasons why people save money.

(To be done as homework).

STUDY GUIDE 5: INFERENCE

Instruction to students: In the exercises which follow we are going to learn about how to make inferences. Here we are interested in the method of organization that enables us to guess or supply additional information not explicitly stated by a writer or speaker. In other words, when we make an inference we are attempting "to read between lines"_____ to supply ideas or notions that are implicit in a reading passage we have studied or a speech we have listened to.

To make inferences we may have to use the vocabularies of classification, chronological order, comparison-contrast and/or cause-effect relationships which we have already studied.

REVIEW EXERCISES

Exercise I: General Information

(a) Read the following pairs of sentences:

i. Mr. Esone had very little education.
ii. It seems that Mr. Esone was not intelligent.

i. Kenneth lost his money on his way to school
ii. I can assume that Kenneth was careless.

i. The rich man gave all his money to the poor.
ii. I can conclude that the rich man was very compassionate.

i. Queen Elizabeth I of Englnad wore a different dress everyday.
ii. The evidence implies that the queen was proud and rich.

i. The trader walked three miles to return a hundred francs to a customer he had overcharged.
ii. I think the trader was very honest.

The second statements in the above pairs of sentences are inferences; they are guesses made on the basis of information contained in the first statements.

(b) Underline the expressions in the above statements of inferences that indicate inferences.

(c) Some of the inferences in (a) are favourable and others are unfavourable. Write F beside the favourable inferences and U beside the unfavourable ones.

(d) Make the unfavourable inferences favourable.

(e) Using the same expressions of inference that you have underlined in (a), write your own inferences based on the information in the first statements of the pairs of sentences in (a).

SOME USEFUL EXPRESSIONS OF INFERENCE

Here is a list of some of the expressions we use when we make inferences:

I think that; From _____ I can infer that ____; From _____ it seems to me that _____; On the basis of ____ we can say that _____; It seems likely, probable, possible that _____; From _____ I conclude that _____; From _____I can assume that _____; the facts indicate that _____; we can deduce _____; the evidence implies _____.

CONTENT EXERCISES

Exercise II: "The Ogbanje" - Completion of Statements of Inference

Read the passage "The Ogbanje" (Practical English 3, pp. 73-74) again. For each of the following questions and statements based on the passage, complete the accompanying statement of inference that answers the question or derives from the statement. Collaborate with members of your group.

(a) "And he did"
Inference: These words imply that _____ because _____.

(b) Why did the naming ceremony of her children become for Ekwefi an empty ritual?
Inference: I think that _____ because _____.

(c) Why do you think Ekwefi named one of her children "Onwuna"?
Inference: I think she did this because _____.

(d) Okonkwo went to a medicine-man to inquire what was wrong that Ekwefi's children never lived.
Inference: On the basis of this we can say that _____.

(e) Was Nwoye's mother right in thinking that Ekwefi was envious of her good fortune?
Inference: I don't think _____ because _____.

(f) Ekwefi was determined to nurse Ezinma, her last child, to health, and she put all her being into it.
Inference: From Ekwefi's attitude to Ezinma we can infer that _____.

(g) Do you think Okonkwo felt sympathetic with Ekwefi for her misfortune?
Inference: I think Okonkwo _____ for _____ reasons. First, _____. Secondly, _____. etc.

(h) How can we tell from the passage that belief in the existence of Ogbanjes was common to the whole community?
Inference: There are _____ main pieces of evidence in the passage that make it seem likely that _____. First, _____. Secondly, _____. etc.

Exercise III: "The Penalty Kick" - Completion of Statements of Inference

(a) Read the passage "The Penalty Kick" (L'Anglais Par La Litterature 2, p. 41) again. For each of the following questions and statements based on the passage, complete the accompanying statement of inference that anwers the question or derives from the statement. Work in your groups.

i. The writer of the passage states, "Tension grew as the final minutes went by, and it reached a crisis as the end approched".
Inference: From this we can infer _____ things. First, _____. Secondly, _____. etc.

ii. The crowd protested against the penalty award.
Inference: Judging from the crowd's reaction, we can safely guess that the game was being played on _____.

iii. What feeling do you think ran through the Villa players' minds as the ball was placed on the penalty spot?
Inference: We think _____.

iv. What do you think would have happened if the penalty kick had resulted in a goal?
Inference: We think _____ because _____.

(b) For each of the following, choose one of the two persons indicated in brackets you think might have made the statement. Put your answer in the pattern: I think _____ might have said this. Be prepared to defend your choice.

i. "The referee was partial." (a Villa supporter; an Arsenal supporter)

ii. "The penalty kick was well aimed although it did not result in a goal". (a Villa supporter; an Arsenal supporter).

iii. "What a miss, that penalty kick!" (a Villa supporter; an Arsenal supporter).

iv. "The referee should be barred from refereeing football matches". (a Villa supporter; an Arsenal supporter).

v. "Our team will definitely win in the replay". (a Villa supporter; an Arsenal supporter).

Exercise IV: Completion of Statements of Inference

Read the following statements and complete the inference that derives from each statement.

(a) The baby cried all night.
Inference: It seems likely that _____.

(b) The woman blamed her daughter for having a date with the boy.
Inference: From this it seems to me that _____.

(c) The accused person denied that he was in the village on the day of the crime. However, his girl friend testified that he had spent the whole day at her place.
Inference: The evidence implies that _____.

(d) The king believed that whatever he said or did was right, and any oppostion to his rule was regarded as treason and punishable by death.
Inference: From this we can conclude that _____.

(e) The rains were late in coming to the village that year.
Inference: From this I can assume that _____.

Exercise V: Further Statements of Inference with SHOULD and MUST

(a) Read the following example of inference with the use of should:

Ali is in top shape; I think he should win easily.

On the above pattern, complete the following:

i. The players are all lined up; I think _____.

ii. The president has announced an increase in salaries; I think _____.

iii. Jean has just received a postal order for five thousand francs from his father; I think _____.

iv. Ibrahim started taking antibiotics yesterday; I think _____.

v. The long vacation is approaching; the teachers think _____.

(b) Do you notice any cause-effect relationships in the above statements of inference?

(c) Now, substitute must in place of should in each of the statements in (a). Do you notice any change in meaning?

(d) Complete each of the following with either should or must. Be prepared to justify your choice. Work in your groups.

i. He lived in Buea for years; I think he _____ be able to speak English very well.

ii. Her husband has just died; I think she _____ be broken-hearted.

iii. Tomorrow is Sone's birthday; I think he _____ be all excited.

iv. The Happis are buying a case of rum; I think they _____ be going to throw a party.

v. Mr. Esaka did not show up for work today; I think he _____ be sick.

(adapted from Mohr, 1967)

(e) Use your imagination to complete the following statements of inference:

(a) I think he must be _____ because _____.

(b) I think she must be _____ because she believes in _____.

(c) I think he should _____ because _____.

(d) I think we should _____ because of _____.

Exercise VI: Completion of Paragraph of Inference

Read the following advertisement issued by the Ministry of Agriculture:

"Do you want to do something about food shortages in our villages and towns? Then, JOIN THE GREEN REVOLUTION CLUB. Your contribution is needed to provide for YOURSELF and our GROWING POPULATION".

Now, complete the following paragraph of inference based on the advertisement. You may use more than one word in the blanks.

From this advertisement, I can infer that many Cameroonians in the _____ and _____ do not have _____ to eat. It seems that the _____ are not producing _____ to feed _____. Also, not many _____ seem to be engaged in _____. In these circumstances, _____ are likely to be very high. To overcome this problem of _____, many _____ should support _____. This should help to _____. I strongly _____ every _____ to join _____.

TESTING EXERCISES

Exercise VII: Statements of Inference

In each of the following there is a statement or set of statements. Make two inferences deriving from the statement or set of statements. Use the inference expressions given in brackets.

(a) Many students always fail public examiniations in Cameroon. The Teachers-Parents Association plans to write a letter of protest to the Minister of Education. (I think that _____; From _____ it seems to me that _____.)

(b) A few days ago Mr. Mbock borrowed fifty thousand francs. Yesterday he sold his car. Now he is borrowing a hundred thousand francs. (These facts indicate that; We can deduce that _____.)

(c) Mrs. Finjap complained that she did not have enough money to provide food for the household. Mr. Finjap blamed her for not using money wisely. (From _____ we can infer that _____; On the basis of _____ we can say that _____.)

(d) The president of the country was assassinated by a member of his body-guard. The man who assassinated the president was shortly thereafter arrested, charged and executed for murder. (I can safely guess that _____; It seems probable that _____.)

(e) Mary persistently got poor marks on English tests in spite of the fact that she always worked hard. (The evidence implies _____; From _____ I conclude that _____.)

(To be done as a class test).

Exercise VIII: Essay-type Paragraphs

Write three paragraphs of twelve sentences on what you think the government should do to encourage young people to stay in the villages instead of drifting to towns. Give reasons for whatever suggestions you make. You must use at least five expressions of inference.

(To be done as homework).

STUDY GUIDE 6: EVALUATION

Instruction to students: In evaluation we are interested in the method of organization that enables us to state our personal opinions, ideas, attitudes, feelings, actions about things, facts, persons, situations. When we evaluate we normally use some or all of the methods of organization we have studied so far.

REVIEW EXERCISES

Exercise I: General Information

(a) Read the topics and statements of evaluation based on the topics listed below:

	Topics	Statements of evaluation
1.	The education of women	From my point of view the government should ensure that all women are educated.
ii.	Sports	I disagree with the view that sports should be made a national preoccupation.
iii.	Farming	I consider farming the most important aspect of the economic life of Cameroon.
iv.	Science education	In my opinion, science should be made a compulsory subject for all secondary school students.
v.	Native medicine	To me, the native medicine-man deserves more support from the government than he presently gets.

(b) Underline the expression in each of the above statements of evaluation that indicate evaluation.

(c) For each of the topics in (a) write your own statement of evaluation using the same expression that you underlined.

SOME USEFUL EXPRESSIONS OF EVALUATION

Here is a list of some of the expressions we use when we make statements of evaluation:

I think; It seems to me that ____; In my opinion; To me; I consider; seem (seemed) to be; appear (appeared) to be; In my view; From my point of view; According to me; According to my point of view; I argue that ____; I agree (disagree) with; I advocate; I am positive that ____.

CONTENT EXERCISES

Exercise II: Statements of Evaluation Supported with Other Statements

(a) For each of the topics given below write a statement of evaluation supported with three other statements of your ideas. Begin your statement of evaluation with the expression given in brackets. Work in your groups. (One topic for each group).

Example: Nutrition (I think)

I think all children should be provided good nutrition by their parents. This is necessary for two main reasons. First, good nutrition ensures that the child grows strong and healthy. Secondly, the child needs good nutriction to ensure the replenishment of the energy he constantly expends in play.

(a) Dating (In our view).

(b) Football and Basketball (We consider).

(c) Smoking (We argue that).

(d) Fish Farming (We think).

(e) Polygamy (From our point of view).

(f) The boarding school (We advocate).

(g) Pen-pals (In our opinion)

(h) Punishment (We disagree with).

(i) English (According to our point of view).

(j) Free education (We are positive that _____).

Exercise III: "The Ogbanje" - Statements of Evaluation

(a) Read the story "The Ogbanje" (Practical English 3, pp. 73-74) again. Below are six possible statements of evaluation that derive from the story. In column X write "A" if you agree with the statement. In column Y write "D" if you disagree with the statement

X	Y		
___	___	i.	Belief in the existence of Ogbanjes is superstitious and should be discouraged.
___	___	ii.	It is necessary to believe in superstitions.
___	___	iii.	The discoveries of modern science and technology have imporved the conditions of living of many Cameroonians.
___	___	iv.	Modern scientific progress in Africa does not imply that we must abandon our indigenous cultural practices.
___	___	v.	Christianity has done much to change the attitudes of Cameroonians to their pre-Christian religious practices.
___	___	vi.	For education to have its full impact on people it should not be limited to schools alone.

(b) Write out all the statements you agree with in (a) adding an appropriate expression of evaluation in front of each statement. Do the same for all the statements you disagree with. Consult the list of expressions of evaluation.

(c) Working in your groups, choose any one statement from among either those you agree with or disagree with and write three other statements of your ideas to support it. Try to recall the vocabulary of classification, comparison-contrast, cause-effect in writing your statements.

Exercise IV: "Tolerance in a Crowded World" - Statements of Evaluation

Read the essay "Tolerance in a Crowded "orld" by E.M. Forster again (L'Anglais Par La Littérature - 2, pp. 186-187). Below are five statements of evaluation that derive from the essay.

X	Y		
___	___	i.	There will never be a solution to man's hatred for his fellow-man.
___	___	ii.	Tolerance is the only hope that man has for ensuring peaceful co-existence among people.
___	___	iii.	The mass-media have contributed greatly to our ill-founded opinions about other nations and peoples.
___	___	iv.	Overpopulation is a major cause of tension and conflict among people.
___	___	v.	Birth-control measures have achieved very little in limiting world population growth.

(a) In column Y write "E" in front of each statement E.M. Forster believes is true.

(b) Write out all the statements E.M. Forster believes is true, adding an appropriate expression of evaluation. Begin your asnwer with: Mr. Forster _____.

(c) For each of the remaining statements, write "A" in column X if you agree with the statement and "D" in column Y if you disagree with the statement.

(d) Write out the statement(s) you agree and disagree with, adding appropriate expressions of evaluation.

(e) Choose any one of the statements in (d) and write three other statements of your ideas to support it.

TESTING EXERCISES

Exercise V: Statements of Evaluation Supported with Other Statements

For each of the following topics, write a statement of evaluation supported with five other statements of your ideas. You must use a different expression of evaluation to introduce the beginning statement for each topic. Try to recall the vocabularies of classification, comparison-contrast, chronological order, cause-effect, inference, and use the ones you think will help you to support your statement of evaluation.

(a) Mothers (b) Examinations (c) Money

(To be done as a class test).

Exercise VI: Essay-type Paragraphs

Write three paragraphs of twelve sentences on each of the following. Begin your first sentence with a statement of evaluation. You must use at least three expressions of evaluation in your paragraphs. Try to recall the other methods of organization you have learned and use the ones you think will enable you to develop or support your opening statement of evaluation.

(a) Should girls have the same education as boys? Why or why not?

(b) E.M. Forster says, in effect: "You can't love people that you don't know". What do you think could be done to help people to know each other better.

(To be done as homework).

D. SOME TACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN CLASSROOM USE OF THE STUDY GUIDES

The preceding study guides should provide the teacher with the reading/writing vehicles that will lead his students to master the basic discourse values of the logical categories specified. It is advised that the logical categories be taught in the order listed and presented in the study guides. The following suggestions on the use of an individual study guide in actual classroom situation are recommended:

1. After students have read and mastered a passage that amply illustrates the lexical devices of a particular logical category, the teacher should provide the students with the review and content exercises for them to think about at home in preparation for subsequent classroom reading, discussion and writing. In some cases, the teacher might want to assign the content exercises as homework to be discussed in class and possibly collected for correction.

2. Before students are asked to think about or respond to the tasks presented in the review and content exercises, the teacher should read and explain the instructions indicated at the beginning of each study guide to ensure that students understand what the ensuing activities will be all about.

3. Each response to a particular exercise should be preceded by a student reading the instruction setting the task to ensure that everyone understands what the task demands. Also, in tasks requiring students to perform certain operations on given sentences, these sentences should be

read aloud by appointed students to ensure comprehension of the sentences.

4. It might be necessary for the teacher to provide further review and content exercises on the models suggested in order to make clearer the points being dealt with.

5. After students have written their responses to specific review and content exercises, they should be asked to read what they have written to the rest of the class. This is essential for necessary feedback both from the teacher and the rest of the class.

6. When students have completed all review and content exercises to the satisfaction of all concerned, the teacher can now administer the testing exercises as indicated in the study guides.

7. Before students do the testing exercises that require them to write essay -type paragraphs, it would be necessary for the teacher to provide some initial classroom practice in this by asking students to supply ideas on comparable topics. These ideas should be written on the chalkboard first in the order in which they are given and then rearranged into what may seem a logical sequence. The notion of a topic sentence as that sentence at the beginning of a paragraph that "tells the reader what the paragraph is about" can be introduced here. (Terroux, 1974). The teacher can then point the students' attention to those content exercises that portray unit paragraphs with topic sentences. Further examples provided by the teacher would help to drive the point home.

8. The notion of a paragraph as that segment of connected stretch of writing that deals with one major subsidiary idea of the topic being written about can also be pointed out here, again supported with examples. The reading passage already studied can be used to illustrate the concept of a paragraph, students being asked to give a few summary statements of the subsidiary ideas developed in the paragraphs of the reading passage. With ideas provided by students on given topics, the teacher could then aid students to reorganize these ideas into what may constitute paragraphs, pointing out at the same time the illocutionary functions of linking words and expressions in sentences. The number of paragraphs of a given topic should be restricted to three at this stage to enable students to focus more attention on what they say and how they say it. There are two other interrelated activities that should prove useful here. First, groups of students are given scrambled sentences of topics they have already read in connected sequences and then asked to rearrange them into orderly, undivided sequences. Secondly, they are asked to divide these undivided blocks of sentences into what they consider could constitute paragraphs of each block. The number of sentences in a scrambled and undivided block should be restricted to not more than twelve, again to forge attention on content and process.

Some comments on punctuation devices deserve mention here since these might pose problems in the use of some lexical devices associated with classification, comparison-contrast, and cause-effect relationship in written forms. While these categories are being handled in content

exercises, the teacher should introduce examples of sentences on the patterns indicated below for students to formulate rules governing the use of punctuation marks in such sentences:

Classification: _____: _____, _____, _____, and _____.

Comparison: _____, and _____.

Contrast: _____, but _____.

_____, however, _____.

_____. However, _____.

_____; on the other hand, _____.

_____. On the other hand, _____.

_____; on the contrary, _____.

_____. On the contrary, _____.

Cause-effect: _____, so _____.

_____. So _____.

_____; therefore, _____.

_____. Therefore, _____.

_____; as a result, _____.

_____. As a result, _____.

A follow-up activity here would involve asking students to punctuate samples of unpunctuated sentences based on the above patterns.

Finally, for more efficient and economical use of class time and in order to cater for individual differences in learning rates, the teacher might consider the use of modular time scheduling - MTS (Jekenta & Fearing, 1968). In the MTS scheme, a lesson period of one hour or so is divided into blocks of time, say ten minutes per block and each time block devoted to a specific learning activity by individual students

or groups of students. In those study guide exercises that require group collaboration, students could be made to work within a specified time mod (or mods), so that slower groups can be given extra time to complete the unfinished task (with teacher assistance if necessary) while other students move on to some other activity. This arrangement should further allow the teacher to ensure that all students go through those study guide exercises (included here and/or made up by him) he considers basic and crucial in the understanding of the concept area (i.e. logical category) being handled at the time.

Section IV: Evaluation Strategy

Evaluation constitutes an almost indispensable component of any set of formal teaching-learning experiences. The rationale for evaluation stems from the assumption that as the teaching-learning process unfolds itself, both the teacher and students have a common concern for the extent to which the process is progressing in a meaningful way. It has a self-reinforcing or feedback effect. More specifically, its controlling purpose is essentially that of providing useful data mainly through the instrumentality of different kinds of tests, for judicious decision-making in the educative process. Such decisions may relate to such issues as "the future design or use of the tests themselves", retention or possible changes to be made in learning experiences, and "most often... the management of the educational careers of individuals" (Carroll, 1972, p. 314).

In this regard, it has been customary to conceive of evaluation as having two basic dimensions namely, formative and summative. In the formative dimension both the teacher and students participate in the process by identifying problem areas and needs as teaching-learning activities unfold themselves, and making adequate provisions to accomodate them. Summative evaluation, on the other hand, is mainly the preoccupation of the teacher whereby he seeks, largely through the administration of tests, to assign a grade to a student that reflects his or her achievement after the completion of a set of learning experiences.

In the context of this program the teacher's main interest in evaluation will be focused on the summative dimension since the school

system requires all teachers to submit terminal grades on students achievements for the management of their educational careers. The testing exercises included at the end of each study guide should provide the teacher with the means of accomplishing this.

As these testing exercises will be done in written form involving individual sentences and paragraphs, the teacher will need some criteria for assigning grades to students' responses. Here the MLA 3-point and 5-point scoring specifications for sentences and paragraphs respectively cited by Pfister (1974) have been found useful guidelines for the purposes of grading the testing exercises.

At the level of sentences (including dictated passages) it has been found desirable to modify the MLA 3-point grading design to a 5-point one so as to facilitate the computation of grades on the 20-point design used in the school grading system. (see p. 28). The modified MLA specifications at the level of sentences yield:

5 points: Complete rational sentence, correct in all respects, one spelling error allowed.

3 points: Complete rational sentence, with one or two grammatical errors (excluding errors in the use of logical devices where specified) and two or three spelling errors.

1 point: Complete rational sentence with three grammatical errors (including errors in logical devices where specified) and four spelling errors.

0 point: Either an incomplete sentence or an irrational or incoherent answer.

At the level paragraphs, also modified to include Specified Constraints, we have:

Assignment (12 sentences)

5 points: The student has written required number of sentences completely.

3 points: The student has completed 2/3 of the assignment.

1 point: The student has completed 1/3 of the assignment.

0 point: The student has completed less than 1/3 of the assignment.

Specified Constraints

5 points: The student has complied with all constraints specified.

3 points: The student has complied with 2/3 of constraints specified.

1 point: The student has complied with 1/3 of constraints specified.

0 point: The student has complied with less than 1/3 of constraints specified.

Spelling and Punctuation

5 points: The student has spelt all vocabulary and punctuated all sentences correctly.

3 points: The student has spelt 2/3 of the vocabulary and punctuated 2/3 of the sentences correctly.

1 point: The student has spelt 1/3 of the vocabulary and punctuated 1/3 of the sentences correctly.

0 point: The student has spelt less than 1/3 of the vocabulary and punctuated less than 1/3 of the sentences correctly.

Grammar Structures

5 points: All grammar structures are correct.

3 points: 2/3 of the grammar structures are correct.

1 point: 1/3 of the grammar structures are correct.

0 point: Less than 1/3 of the grammar structures are correct.

Continuity

5 points: All the sentences contribute to the topic.

3 points: 2/3 of the sentences contribute to the topic.

1 point: 1/3 of the sentences contribute to the topic.

0 point: Less than 1/3 of the sentences contribute to the topic.

It is suggested that the testing exercises that require the construction of sentences be graded upon 20 and those that require paragraphs also graded upon 30.

There should be no problem in calculating a particular grade upon 20 on the 5-point grading designs described above. At the level of sentences, if the total number of sentences required is six and the student's total score is say, sixteen, the sixteen should be multiplied by four and divided by six. This should yield a score upon 20.

At the level of paragraphs, the student will evidently have a score upon 25 based on the five criteria specified above. To reduce this to a grade upon 20, the following formula should prove adequate:

$\frac{A}{25} = \frac{X}{20}$, where A is the grade obtained upon 25 on the 5-point grading scale, and X the required grade upon 20. Applying this formula to a grade of say 12/25, we have: $\frac{12}{25} = \frac{X}{20}$ i.e. $25X = 240$

$X = 240/25 = 9.6$

One final word on students evaluation deserves mention here. It should be apparent that review and content exercises in the study guides require active student participation and collaboration. The teacher is advised to keep a private mark sheet in which he periodically records his evaluation of students classroom participatory responses, and students should be made aware that such a mark sheet is being kept. This will certainly engender motivation since the students have come, somewhat unfortunatelv. to acquire the idea that no classroom learning experience is real, let alone worthwhile, unless it has been assigned a numerical grade value.

CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusion: Implications for Pedagogy, Administration, and Finance

The success of any formal program of studies of the type described in Chapter Four depends in no small degree on the amount of external supports that are brought to bear on the program before and/or in the process of implementation. The basic dimensions of these external supports are related to the possible implications of the program for three main interrelated areas: pedagogy, administration and finance.

In the pedagogical dimension the main concern centers on two major considerations namely, the preparation and choice of teaching materials and books, and the provision of professional growth for teachers through retraining (in-service) programs.

With respect to teaching materials and books in the context of this program, it would seem necessary for a teacher's course guide and a student's workbook to be prepared within the framework outlined in Chapter Four to supplement the class text and the sources for the choice of reading selections suggested (see p.77-79). Further discussions with the teachers concerned and other experts should provide some more insights into the suggestions and proposals that have been made. The Unesco Book Centre in Yaounde could be consulted for possible technical assistance in the production of the aforementioned teacher's course guide and student's workbook.

The main objective in teacher retraining programs is that of getting practicing teachers to acquire "the right attitudes about language" and the processes of language acquisition as these converge on a specific

program of studies they are teaching or expected to teach (Crowley, 1968). These attitudes pertain in the main to the adoption of a philosophical view of language as a system of systems which, in the process of acquisition, manifests itself in sequential, qualitatively distinct, transitional idiolects that reflect the learner's approximative competencies in relation to native norms. This implies that in actual classroom situations, especially in later stages of learning, the language teacher has to adopt a mode of teaching that is essentially indirect as defined by Amidon & Flanders (1967).

According to Amidon & Flanders, indirect teacher classroom behaviour falls into four major categories which include: 1) accepting students' feelings; 2) praising or encouraging students; 3) accepting students' ideas; 4) asking questions, as opposed to teacher direct influence which involves lecturing, giving directions and criticizing or justifying authority. The categories of teacher indirect behaviour seem particularly relevant to the classroom implementation of the program suggested in this study since students will be required to begin to express their own ideas as they master the logical devices specified. These ideas expressed in sentences may or may not exactly replicate acceptable patterns. In order not to discourage students, abrasive criticism of students' responses by the teacher should be avoided. The most important thing to bear in mind here is that as the students are constantly exposed to meaningful language they will rearrange and systematize those language tokens they had hitherto confounded into more acceptable patterns.

Given these considerations, it would therefore be necessary to introduce the teachers of this program, in an in-service workshop, to those indirect

features of teacher behaviour that nurture expressive language behaviour in students. This would involve the simulation of the classroom atmosphere in micro-teaching situations in which participating teachers are asked to teach specific logical units (using the study guides) based on a model presented by an expert. The model would seek to portray those teaching techniques that exploit skillful use of questions to stimulate interaction and inquiry, multisensory modality in the presentation of information and concepts, and group collaboration in the search for solutions to problems. Such techniques will undoubtedly enable the teacher to get his students to assume increasing responsibility for their own learning as he exposes them "to stimuli toward which (they) can be active, in which assimilatory response to the stimulus-situation is associated with 'natural' feedback". (Kohlberg & Mayer, 1972, p. 459).

In the realm of the administrative supports required for the implementation of this program emphasis will be on the supervision of teachers "as a means of stimulating, nurturing and appraising (their) professional growth" in the course of teaching the program. (Unruh & Turner, 1970). This would require the supervisor to be sensitive to the specific classroom needs and problems of the teacher and to provide the professional advice and aid necessary to meet these needs and solve these problems.

For example, in the course of teaching the logical categories suggested in this study, it is expected that the teacher will utilize reading selections from sources other than the prescribed textbook. (see p.77). The supervisor can assist in this by identifying relevant passages from these sources and pointing the teacher's attention to them.

There is already in existence in francophone Cameroon a system of secondary school ESL supervision in which two supervisors work at the national level, that is, at the Ministry of Education in Yaounde, and five others, known as English Language Teaching Advisors (ELTA's) work at the level of the provincial delegations of Education, one for each of the five provinces.

The functions of these supervisors/advisors have so far been mainly two-fold: first paying periodic visits to teachers' classes (usually once in the year) to produce evaluative reports on the teachers' professional competence based on lessons taught for the administration of the teachers' careers; secondly, issuing periodic statements of "do's" and "don'ts" in circulars that reflect ministerial policy positions on matters related to ESL insturction and official examinations.

While these practices are certainly necessary to keep the bureaucratic machinery in operation, it cannot but be mentioned that moderate demands of educational accountability require both the teacher and supervisor/advisor to pull their resources together and to direct them into the more productive channel of ensuring the success and efficacy of the teaching-learning process. The modern concept of supervision emphasizes "co-operation and teamwork", and this criterion is comprehensive enough to imply that the supervisor's/advisor's role depends more on what he does with his teachers than on what he does to them (Unruh & Turner, 1970).

In this respect, it would seem more profitable, both professionally and ethically, for the supervisor/advisor to assist in providing the prerequisite conditions that will ensure the success of the lessons that

he intends to evaluate rather than paying impromptu visits to the teachers' classes only to find out, to his dismay and that of the teachers, that the lessons are poorly taught.

These observations point to the need for more supervisor[5]/advisors to handle the tasks of supervision and some differentiation of the supervisors'/advisors' tasks which at the moment, seem to be loaded. One ELTA per province is certainly inadequate considering the number of schools, classes and teachers invoved. (see Table II on following page).

From this table, it is clear that an advisor in the Centre-Sud province, for example, would find it impracticable to render adequate professional service to the 320 teachers teaching 719 classes in the 97 schools. This situation is also applicable, though to a lesser degree, in the other provinces where in the Littoral province 136 teachers teach 368 classes in 39 schools; the Ouest province 107 teachers teach 290 classes in 33 schools; the Nord province 36 teachers teach 108 classes in 20 schools; the Est province 35 teachers teach 89 classes in 15 schools. If it is realized that the expansion of secondary schools is projected for the future, the need for more supervisors/advisors becomes a matter of urgency.

Also, it would be advisable to have different supervisors/advisors handle the tasks of ESL supervision in the first and second cycles of the schools for better quality service. The practice so far has been for the supervisor/advisor to work with teachers in both cycles, and the result has been no supervision at all (in the sense described earlier) but the rather unproductive ritual of dropping unexpectedly into teacherss' classes

TABLE II

Number of Secondary Schools, Classes
and
Teachers (both Public and Private)
in
Francophone Cameroon

Province	Schools No.	Classes No.	Teachers No.
Centre-Sud	97	719	320
Littoral	39	368	136
Ouest	33	290	107
Nord	20	108	36
Est	15	89	35
TOTALS	204	1,574	634

Source: Through courtesy of Mr. Gérard Aubin, English Language Inspector, Ministry of Education, Yaounde. (Data as at May, 1975).

in a rush to produce reports and occasionally offer one or two words of advice.

The third and final external support needed for the implementation of this program relates to finance. It should be already apparent that to provide specialist personnel as ESL supervisors/advisors some financial outlay is required to meet the salaries and personal emoluments of these specialists. More specifically, some financial provision is needed for the production of the teacher's course guide and students' workbook suggested earlier

Again, it is necessary to purchase some simple photocopying devices that can enable teachers to reproduce copies of reading passages and other related learning materials that he finds in sources other than the prescribed textbook. This would unquestionably provide the teacher the opportunity to diversify classroom learning experiences and thus make teaching-learning a pleasurable and challenging activity. In the context of Cameroon, at least for a start, a photocopying machine centrally located at each of the provincial Delegations of Education would not only serve the needs of ESL teachers but also those of the other subject-teachers. In this brave new age of computers and automation, the input of technological aids into the process of education holds a promise of immense potentialities for the process, even in developing societies. The educational values of certain of these technological aids have already been amply demonstrated, and the provision of the one suggested above would certainly yield an educational pay-off quite out of proportion to the financial investment involved.

In conclusion, the above observations and those made in previous chapters have attempted to stake out the parameters essential to the development and implementation of ESL pedagogical grammars for the second

cycle of secondary schools in francophone Cameroon. The second cycle ESL activities have remained for too long an ad hoc, somewhat fuzzy enterprise. It has been the overall intention of this monograph to lay the foundations and establish the guidelines for the design of ongoing ESL pedagogical grammars for the second cycle, beginning with the fifth form. It is hoped that this goal has been achieved.

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