

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TWO
SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACHES:
THE LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND
CONSCIOUS RULE-LEARNING
APPROACHES

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Gebremedhin Simon

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by

Gebremedhin Simon

Approved by _____

Melaku Asfaw

Advisor

Richard Hayward.

Examiner

David Appleyard

Examiner

M. Asfaw

R. Hayward

D. Appleyard

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ABSTRACT

This study was conducted in order to determine whether the Language Acquisition Approach to language teaching is more effective and functional than the Conscious Rule-learning Approach in enhancing students' proficiency in English. Six sections of freshman Social Sciences students were selected and assigned into two groups, the study group and the control group, by lot. A pretest was given before the study started and the results showed that there was no significant difference in English language proficiency among the groups.

The three sections of the study group were supplied with a set of topics - topics that freshmen would find meaningful and interesting, and that are related to their courses. The students were expected to select topics and initiate discussions. Each study group class was divided into small discussion groups consisting of a maximum of four students. These small groups worked independently in the selection and treatment of the topics. Each member had a turn to come prepared and present his views to others on topics assigned to him. To keep the students busy, each member was then expected to write a report on what the group discussed. Teacher's role was reduced to co-ordinating the activities and acting as a partner.

The control group which had three sections was supplied with teaching materials based on the Conscious Rule-learning Approach. The materials consisted of adequate linguistic

descriptions of selected items, i.e., the descriptions of the uses of "would," "could", "should" and conditional sentences, and adequate exercises that would help to form the desired habits. They consisted of oral drills and simple sentence completion exercises. The teacher had the dominant role and errors were deliberately and tirelessly corrected.

After six weeks, a post-test was given and the results showed a significant difference in language proficiency between the study groups and the control groups. A two-tailed t-test at a significance level of 0.05 was used to determine the significance difference between the means of the groups.

On the basis of the findings, it was recommended that non-native speakers should be taught English using the Language Acquisition Approach. Moreover, it was recommended that research must be conducted on ways of designing syllabus, methodology, preparation of teaching materials and evaluating performances based on the Language Acquisition Approach.

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CHAPTER I

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Most students joining the Addis Ababa University lack the basic English language skills to help them cope with the academic requirements. The large amount of whatever sophomore English students write, manifests poor vocabulary and the lack of a feeling for grammar. And one factor that has inflated the attrition rate among freshmen leaving the Addis Ababa University is that most of them find it difficult to comprehend and follow their courses such as philosophy and economics, subjects which require thorough understanding and appropriate manipulation of English, in English. Mosback (1977) states that

the aims of the courses are both remedial and general. The 35-40 hours of English language instruction per term are intended to improve the students' skills in following textbooks and lectures in other subjects and to encourage thoughtful and logical expression in their second language (p. 314).

The service English courses, both Freshman English 101-A and Freshman English 101-B, do not seem to succeed in alleviating the problem. Apparently, such a chronic deficiency could be due to poor teaching facilities and teaching staff. The large class sizes could have a bearing on the problem. The portions to be covered could also be limited due to shortage of time. Whatever the causes may be, it appears that the service English courses have not adequately prepared the students for their tasks as Addis Ababa University students; and yet these courses are presumed to do just this.

It is commonly believed that the Conscious Rule-learning

Approach, with its emphasis on the learning of the rules of a language, in the teaching of English is responsible for this lack of proficiency in English. It is also believed by many scholars that the Language Acquisition Approach is more functional and effective in foreign language teaching.

In this study an attempt is made to find out if the Language Acquisition Approach is indeed more functional and effective than the Conscious Rule-learning Approach. The following null and alternative hypotheses are thus made:

H_0 = There will not be a significant difference in English language proficiency between students taught in the Language Acquisition Approach and the Conscious Rule-learning Approach as measured on a post-test administered immediately after the termination of the teaching period.

H_1 = There will be a significant difference in English language proficiency between students taught in the Language Acquisition Approach and the Conscious Rule-learning Approach as measured on a post-test administered immediately after the termination of the teaching period.

1.2 Importance of the study

The present study could be of great help mainly for the following:

1.2.1. the findings can be used to redesign and enrich the service English courses that directly affect students' performance in other subjects;

1.2.2. the results can also help in finding ways to curb the long-standing dissatisfaction with the low English language fluency of students since

the inception of English language teaching in the Addis Ababa University in particular and the country in general (Hailu Tolas, 1967:2; King and Langmuir, 1962:2; H.S. Madson, 1970:1 and 17; Kehoe, 1964; Jarvis, 1969:152; Rogers, 1969; Mosback, 1977:314; and a summary of all these and others, Morris, 1983:3-7).

1.3. Delimitation of the study

The present study is limited to the currently enrolled six sections of freshmen Social Sciences students consisting of 153 subjects. Due to problems of money, time and other related facilities, it is also limited to a total of twenty seven hours of instruction for the control group and twenty seven hours language activities and discussions for the study group.

1.4 Definitions of terms

1.4.1. Second language acquisition: it is the result of the processes of creative construction by which the learner internalizes the rules of the second language (L 2) subconsciously; it takes place 'naturally' through the individual's interaction in a meaningful, rich linguistic environment.

1.4.2. Second language learning: it is a conscious process where the exposure is structured through formal language teaching.

1.4.3. Language Acquisition Approach: an approach whereby learners are exposed to a rich linguistic environment for whose creation they play a major part.

1.4.4. Conscious Rule-learning Approach: a conscious and deliberate approach whereby learners are exposed to structuralist linguistic descriptions of the second language (L 2).

CHAPTER II

2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This study is based on Stephen Krashen's ponderable volume, Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning (1981), and on subsequent reviews of this work especially Rod Ellis's survey of communicative approaches to language teaching - Informal and Formal Approaches to Communicative Language Teaching (1982).

2.1 The Conscious Rule-learning Approach

Krashen (1981) states that the conscious language learning is thought to be helped a great deal by error correction and the presentation of explicit rules (Krashen and Seliger, 1975). He adds that error correction helps the learner come to the correct mental representation of the linguistic generalization. Whether such feedback has this effect to a significant degree remains an open question (Fanselow, 1977; Long, 1977). No invariant order of learning is claimed although syllabi based on the conscious language learning claim that learners proceed from simple to complex. Such a sequence may not tally with the acquisition sequence (p. 2).

The conscious rule-learning approach to second language learning deliberately attempts to make learners attend to or learn selected linguistic items or structures through such conscious activities as mimicry, memorization and patterns practice. Diller (1978) states that mimi-mem and pattern drill as methods follow directly from the basic empiricist position that language acquisition is a kind of habit formation through conditioning and drill (Ervin and Miller, 1968; Ingram, 1975). Descriptive linguists have affirmed that the normal use of language is either mimicry or analogy (Diller, 6; Hockett, 1958; Gagne, 1965).

Harold E. Palmer (1921:110) advocated mimi-mem and pattern drill, L. Bloomfield (1942) emphasized mimicry and memorization, and Robert Lado and Charles Fries (1958) stressed pattern drilling. Diller states that the common basis for all the methods is habit formation. The elementary level of language instruction focuses on imitation, repetition and variation (mimicry, memorization and pattern drill). Diller adds that the belief that language is a set of habits discourages any form of 'real' communication until after the set of habits is established correctly, and thus students are not allowed to make errors (50-1).

Diller states that the structuralist approach to language teaching is based on the following five tenets. First, it is stated that language is speech, not writing. Language, he writes, is a collection of concrete observable signs and the major preoccupation of language learning is the mastery of pronunciation, and teaching materials based on such an approach contain drills on pronunciation of minimal pairs (Lado, 1964).

Second, Diller says that language is a set of habits. It is a set of speech habits acquired by conditioning or imitation. Memorization speeds up the process of establishing the basic treasury of sentences which can be extended by analogy, and pattern drill provides the practice in making the analogies (Hockett, 1958; Diller, 16).

Third, Diller states that the teachers of the second language teach the language, not about the language. The major task of the second language teacher is to impose a set of conditioned speech habits on the student. W. Freeman Twaddell (1948) states that "... we know that a 'rule' of a language is the analytical statement of one of the habitual aspects of that language. We know that the habit is the reality and the rule is a mere summary of the habit" (Diller, 16). The habit is realized by a systematic and conscious teaching of the language rule. The student is

expected to give undivided attention to these 'rules' during the learning-teaching session.

Fourth, language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say. Diller says that this may imply that the second language learner should indiscriminately imitate what native speakers say. Lastly, Diller writes, languages are different and this means, according to Bloomfield (1942), the second language learner should consciously and deliberately "... learn to ignore the features of any and all other languages, especially of one's own" (Diller, 19). In other words, the student should ignore his old language habits, and language teaching materials should give special emphasis to drilling the linguistic items most likely to conflict. The second language teacher, Bloomfield (1942) states, "... instead of ignoring the features of all languages known by the student, ... should pay very close attention to these features and try to predict where the most serious interference between habit systems will develop" (Diller, 19).

Robert Lado (1964) writes that the learning of a first language and a second language are basically different. The child, learning his first language, has no effective means of communicating his needs, and he comes to the learning situation with a blank mind. The adult has no such compulsion- he can use his native language wherever necessary- to express his needs, and the habit patterns of the first language are already there. He perceives the second language through the habit channels of his native tongue. Such a description has induced the study on linguistic elements that contrast between the native language (L 1) and the target language (L 2). The problem of interference, believed to be caused by the variations of L1 and L2, is suggested to be tackled by giving ample pattern practice based on the descriptions provided by linguists (contrastive analysts) of the distinctive elements of intonation, pronunciation, morphology, and syntax (1964:6). The pattern drills are meant to establish the desired habits or patterns

determined by a contrastive analysis of L 1 and L 2. Such an emphasis on habit formation is based on the assumption that learning a second language is a mechanical process of habit formation and, according to the rules of the psychology of learning (Skinner, 1957; Bugelski, 1964; Hill, 1963) habits are strengthened by repetition and reinforcement. The idea of habit formation is again based on two notions of child language acquisition: the child learns by imitation, and, by practising a novel grammatical item, the child stamps it in his mind (Lado, 1964; Skinner, 1957; and Moulton, 1961).

Salimbene, in her review of the different approaches to language teaching, states that structuralist syllabus treats language as a set of habits, i.e., as a **system** of forms rather than as a collection of meaning. She adds that

most teaching methods associated with structural syllabi are based on the concept of language acquisition as habit formation, which must be reinforced by the instructor by means of controlled repetition and manipulation. Both the lessons and the materials are teacher-centered. They are based on teacher presentation of structures in a 'meaningful' context (often a dialogue or narrative), and then they move to teacher-controlled practice in the form of exercise or drill. The teacher then slowly loosens this control as the student becomes able to use the structure without making mistakes (1983:2).

2.2 The Language Acquisition Approach

2.2.1. First Language Acquisition

The Language Acquisition Approach to second language learning is based on recent findings in first language acquisition. Krashen (1981) states that this approach is very similar to the process children use in acquiring first and second languages. It is the result of processes of

'creative construction' by which the learner internalizes the rules of the second language subconsciously (Ellis, 1982).

It requires meaningful interaction in the target language (or natural communication) in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding. Brown and Hanlon (1970), Brown, Cazden, and Bellugi (1973), state that error correction and explicit teaching of rules are not relevant to language acquisition but caretakers and native speakers can modify their utterances addressed to acquirers to help them understand. Snow and Ferguson (1977) confirm that these modifications help the acquisition process. The studies carried by Brown (1973), Dulay and Burt (1975) and Kess (1976) show that there is a fairly stable order of acquisition of structures in language acquisition. Krashen (1981) writes that acquirers need not have a conscious awareness of the "rules" they possess, and may self-correct only on the basis of a "feel" for grammaticality (p.2).

Regarding the approaches to the study of first language acquisition by children, Kess (1976) states

The contrasting sets of assumptions that have dominated Western thinking on this problem are classical empiricism and classical rationalism. Briefly, rationalist theories are characterized by an emphasis on intrinsic or innate principles in mental operations and learning. According to this view, organizing principles either directly guide man's perception and learning or at least indirectly do so by predisposing man to operate in a certain way. Empiricist theories, on the other hand, stress that experience and environmental factors condition the organism to specific modes of behaviour. There is no innate organizing structure, and there is no innate ideas in the mind that are not themselves the product of environment and of admission and transferred by the senses (p. 51).

Most scholars (Chomsky, 1965; Despatie, 1981; Piaget, 1968) state that the explanation of linguistic behaviour as 'sets of habits' formed through experience in immediate situations fails to account for the linguistic creativity of the child in new situations, since this supposes a power of abstraction of the mind whose very existence is denied by the empiricists (Despatie, 36). Cromer (in Despatie, 1981) states that,

there are many psychologists who still adhere strongly to the Skinnerian **viewpoint** on the acquisition of language, and there are many others whose thinking is still coloured by an over-riding interest in processes such as frequency, imitation, reinforcement, and generalization as explanatory principles in the child's acquisition of his native language. There is increasing evidence, however, that such principles, while possibly important in explaining some aspects of language learning, are nevertheless by themselves inadequate to account for the linguistic changes occurring in children acquiring language.

The **rationalists** describe the child's acquisition of language as a kind of theory construction. Chomsky (1968) states that the child discovers the theory of his language with only small amounts of data from that language. The child is innately equipped with a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) which includes knowledge of the universal principles of human language accompanied by procedures for discovering how these principles apply to the particular language he is exposed to. The cognitive basis of previously acquired conceptual categories of schemata is needed to learn a language in order to make sense of the categories of meaning that are linguistically expressed (Wells, 1981:76ff; Clark, 1975; Lenneberg, 1964).

Piaget (1968) is concerned with human behaviour as it reflects underlying interaction (Clark, 1975:311-313). According to him, a child is born with a partially structured

intelligence or mental faculty which will develop in sequential stages, through interaction with the environment (Despatie, 1981:39-40). In other words, the cognitive structures develop together, but their construction or organisation proceeds step-by-step, each stage forming a systematic whole enabling the child to assimilate a certain set of experiences, in an increasing order of complexity. The whole development is 'auto-regulated', that is, it proceeds from interior motivation and mental activity, so that as the child grows it builds up its own knowledge (p. 40).

Halliday (1975) states that language acquisition has a social function. He adds that "... the beginnings of language are marked by the emergence of recognisable, stable, vocalisation-meaning pairs" and he emphasizes that language is 'meaning-potential' and it is an effective tool for social interaction (Wells, 89).

Wells states that some hold the view that "... for the child, ... it is the pragmatic function of his communication that has priority, for this is what provides the motivation for utterance" and "... the earliest linguistic communication is strongly interpersonal in orientation, being concerned chiefly with the exchange of pragmatic meaning" (p. 93). The pragmatic aspect serves as a means for the child to enter into the linguistic communication and it also provides the essential continuity in the development of the means of realisation from gesture to lexico-grammar (pp. 93ff.; Austin, 1962).

Current research indicates that neither innate endowment - whatever form that may be found to take - nor linguistic environment, however richly structured, is alone sufficient to account for the development of language. Both are necessary and the process of language acquisition requires a continuous interaction between them (Wells, p.79).

White (1971) discusses the prominent role mothers assume in the creation of an interactive and linguistically rich environment as follows:

our most effective mothers do not devote the bulk of their day to rearing their children.... What they seem to do, often without knowing exactly why, is to perform excellently the functions of designer and consultant. By that I mean they design a physical world, mainly in the home, that is beautifully suited to nurturing the burgeoning curiosity of the one-to three-year old.... In addition to being largely responsible for the type of environment the child has, the mother sets up guides for the child's behaviour that seem to play very important role in these processes. She is generally permissive and indulgent. The child is encouraged in the vast majority of his explorations (Ingram, 1975:245).

Widdowson (1981) says that when a child learns a language, he learns at the same time how language works. The child does not just acquire a formal system and manifest it as usage. Inextricably bound up with his acquisition of the formal elements of his language is a development of awareness of how these elements are used in the normal business of social interaction (Hymes, 1981; Halliday, 1981). The child learns what it is to ask for something, to describe something, to offer excuses, to explain, and so on. He learns how interactions are managed. He learns to infer implicitly stated meanings. He also learns certain statistical probabilities relating to the frequency of occurrence of different linguistic elements in his language. He learns, too, certain common patterns of discourse development which begins with the understanding of certain conversations such as question/answer sequences. In short, Widdowson states that 'common sense' convention or grammatical 'feel' comes from a knowledge of communicative conventions acquired as a natural and necessary concomitant of language learning (pp. 52-53).

Language acquisition does not only involve making connections between utterances and situation but also generalisations and discovering the rules of the language (Ingram, 1975:233). The child makes errors in applying the rules he has just discovered and this implies that he is in the process of learning the rules but he has not yet mastered them. He learns fast and corrects his errors. Nobody cares whether he makes errors.

...an utterance is successful if it is understood and responded to, and development comes about under the pressure of selective reinforcement. In other words, devices that work are retained, and those that do not are rejected. This is one of the reasons why fossilization of immature forms does not occur. (Moreover) ... children will strive to get as near as they can to the models provided by the individuals in the environment, in order to signal group membership (Ingram, 236; Despatie, 1981:99).

Errors in children's speech occur as a natural course in the process of language acquisition and they are not signs of faulty learning. Making errors is a necessary condition in the learning process (Dulay and Burt, 1974; Ingram, 1975). Such errors do not seem to impede successful communication (Wells, 99-100). With wider experience of the language, children's utterances will approximate more and more closely to the utterances that adults produce (Despatie, 99-100).

Wilkins (1974) summarized language acquisition in the following terms. He says the language involved in the process is enormous. The environment is linguistically rich. The child may be in contact with language for most of his waking hours. He could also be exposed to language that is not directly addressed to him. He may also be engaged in the production of the language addressing people but at times he may be engrossed for hours in monologue and imaginative talk. It must be noted, Wilkins states, that the child is exposed to spoken language, and what he hears is linguistically uncontrolled language, that is no one deliberately isolates and repeats a

single sentence structure to make it easy for the child to understand the meaning. In other words, the language is not made up of perfect samples of grammatical speech. It is subject to many distortions, omissions and inconsistencies. Despite this, the child is not only able to take words and phrases that he has heard and use them in new combinations, but he also actually produces pieces of language that he could not have heard from the other people in his environment.

2.2.2. Applications to second language acquisition

Some scholars are doubtful whether the findings of child first language acquisition could be applied to adult second language acquisition (Wilkins, 1974; Ingram, 1975). Wilkins states that older children can call upon learning abilities which have not yet been developed in younger children (also Clark, 1975). Adults can understand the overall objectives of language learning. They can exploit their deductive and analytical abilities. They can sustain mental effort and perhaps motivation over longer periods. Adults are able to exploit a wider range of learning strategies than younger children (Clark, 1975; Despatie, 1981).

However, Wilkins (1974) and Despatie, (1981:97-8) state that they are different in the following ways: first, adults are rarely cut off from their mother tongue, and the social pressures to learn the second language are not as intense. There may also be a neurological difference with age. That is why young children acquire the language more effectively. Second, the child spends much more time hearing or listening, so that he understands a much wider range of linguistic forms than he can produce. His only aim is spoken language. Third, the child is exposed to the normal distortions of everyday language and not only to pure and 'idealized' structures found in textbooks. The child comes to understand everyday

speech. Fourth, as mentioned above, in language acquisition mistakes are inevitable, that is, they are a necessary part of the process. But, in most instances, mistakes are not tolerated in adult learning. Lastly, because of an urge or need to communicate, language learning and language use are one and the same activity for the child. (Hymes, 1981; Widdowson, 1981). But, in adult language learning, since the urge to communicate does not arise spontaneously, the two are distinct (Wilkins, 1974).

Despatie (1981: 4-5) compares child and adult learning by stating that (a) the child, in reality, is taking a long period of time to acquire his first language; (b) the child's normal environment is a talking environment or a 'total immersion' situation—a situation which is very difficult for an adult to find himself in; (c) the entire time of the child is taken up by the sole occupation of developing and learning to communicate, but the adult has his work, his social obligations, his worries, his preoccupations; (d) it is difficult for an adult to be totally absorbed in the present moment. The child achieves it more easily because he has less distractions of the mind. And (e) for an adult, one of the greatest obstacles in learning a foreign language is self-consciousness. The child has no such inhibitions (Ingram, 1975; Halliday, et al., 1965:181).

Krashen (1981) mentions that up to the age at which children begin to use "formal operations" (Piaget, 1968; Despatie, 1981), explicit explanations about rules of grammar are probably not effective in helping them to acquire a language. Regarding the "critical period" for acquisition, Krashen confirms that

Lenneberg's claim that lateralization was complete by puberty and is the neurological basis for the critical period for language acquisition and thus responsible for adult-child differences in second

language acquisition is not entirely ruled out. There is, however, considerable evidence today that implies that much of the development of cerebral dominance may be complete much earlier and may have little or nothing to do with the critical period. Moreover, ... the ability to acquire language naturally does not disappear at puberty (1981:77).

The other point that Krashen makes is that adults and children appear to acquire the grammatical structures of language (for instance, the bound morphemes in English) in roughly the same order. Moreover, conscious explanation and learning of formal rules may at first glance appear to give adults a large advantage over children in acquiring a second language. He adds that conscious learning provides but a small amount of help because of its utilizability. Krashen states that people communicate naturally with a language only if they have acquired tacit knowledge of it. He mentions that acquisition means the tacit or implicit mastery of the natural grammar of the language and it is indispensable for the construction of connected discourse during meaningful communication (Widdowson, 1981; Ellis, 1982).

Aptitude for formal language learning appears to play a minor role in real acquisition. It is not also related to motivation which plays a major part in acquisition (Gardner and Lambert, 1959; Carroll, 1973; Oller, 1977; Dulay and Burt, 1977; Krashen, 1981). The major barrier to acquisition is an "affective" barrier. Where individuals feel threatened or where anxiety or stress or self-consciousness is high, acquisition is not likely to take place efficiently, and incorrectly acquired forms are apt to become fossilized and take a permanent place in the language user's repertoire (Munsell and Carr, 1981; Allwright, 1981).

Krashen maintains that the ideal environment for acquisition of a second language is to provide the learner

with personally meaningful language intake that is comprehensible but that also contains enough new linguistic data so that creative construction process continues to be stimulated. It is important that the environment represent meaningful communication (Upshur, 1968; Mason, 1971; Carroll, 1967; Krashen and Seliger, 1976; Newmark, 1971, 1973; Oller, 1973; Krashen, 1981:41-49). The cited studies, Krashen notes, confirm that formal language classes are the most recommended places for adult language acquisition since such classes provide the best opportunities for intake that is roughly tuned to the students' level of ability. The intake, of course, can come from peers, and the materials even when the content of the intake is related to grammatical explanation (Terrell, 1977; Newmark, 1971; Asher, 1966).

Krashen states that when people show evidence of intrusions from their native language, it is normally because they have not yet acquired the relevant structures in the second language (cf. the explanation given to errors made in the first language acquisition, above). It may also be that they are using the monitor to try to apply rules of the native language in an attempt to produce the second language (Lado, 1964; Banathy, Trager, and Waddle 1966; Taddese Beyene, 1966 for structuralist approach; Newmark, 1966, 1981 for a novel approach; Krashen, 1981: 65-67 for a discussion of the various results).

CHAPTER III

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Preparation of Teaching Materials

3.1.1. Teaching Materials on the Language Acquisition Approach.

The preparation of an ordered set of teaching materials for the study group is, at the present moment, a paradoxical issue. If the teaching materials are based on a description of what the learner is to acquire and are designed to focus on specific items of usage or use, Ellis (1982) believes, then the conditions under which acquisition can take place will not have been met, for the environment will be 'unnatural' and the route a prescribed one. The major task is to make these teaching materials create "... activities in which students can really communicate or in which communication can be stimulated (Krashen, 1981:104). Ellis has further stated that:

what is needed for acquisition is a linguistic environment which the learners themselves help to create and shape. Learners have to be given the opportunity to make their own subconscious selections of items to be acquired, based on what they individually find communicatively useful at each stage of their development (1982:757.)

The teaching material supplied to the study group is thus a collection of activities that is sought to stimulate interest and motivation, and precipitate authentic communication (Allwright, 1981:173-4). The topics selected are related to the courses the social sciences students of Addis Ababa University take, and each activity requires extensive reading and understanding (Newmark, 1981; Allen and Widdowson, 1974). The reading

passages were taken from F. Grellet, Developing Reading Skills; C. Brasnett, English for Engineers; L. Engel. The Sea; C. Clearly and N. Mortimer. Freshman Intensive Remote English - Arts section; Department of History. Introduction to the history of Ethiopia; The Ethiopian Herald (26-02-84); Karl Marx. Capital. vol. 2; M. R. Spiegel. Theory and Problems of Statistics in SI Units, etc. In selecting these topics, the researcher has taken some ideas and suggestions forwarded in Stevick (1976) Allwright (1981) and Newmark (1973 and 1981).

The preparation of the Language Acquisition teaching materials was based on the following basic premises (Ellis, 1982). First, the success of the enterprise generated by the materials must be demonstrated by the outcome and not by the process of the activity (also, Corder, 1977). Second, the focus of the enterprise must be on the message through-out, rather than on the channel, i.e., the speakers must be concerned with what they have to say rather than how they are going to say it. Third, an information gap must be created, i.e., one speaker must not know what the other speaker is going to say. Fourth, the communication which the enterprise entails must be negotiated rather than predetermined. This will require the speakers to make adaptations both to what is said and how it is said in the light of the feedback they receive. Lastly, the speakers involved should be allowed to use whatever resources (both verbal and ~~non-verbal~~) they possess, irrespective of whether these resources conform to normal native speaker behaviour or not.

3.1.2. The teaching materials on Conscious Rule-Learning Approach.

The teaching focussed on two topics: the uses of "would", "could", "should", and conditional sentences.

These two topics were selected because they made up a major part in the second part of Freshman English offered in the Addis Ababa University. Basically, the materials rest upon the view that learning a foreign language consists in developing a new set of habits. The exercises are, thus, set to develop habits which by themselves consist of patterns or mould in which the items must be grasped. Oral practice is recommended to master the habits efficiently (Lado and Fries, 1966). The descriptions provided before the practice exercises are based on what Widdowson (1978) calls the product of communication. The exercises are systematically built up in such a way that the learner is aware of what he has learnt. They proceed from simple to complex (Mackey, 1978). The exercises are predominantly meant for practice; students must repeat them again and again until they have a mastery of the construction (Corder, 1966). The lessons consist of (a) an outline consisting of examples, (b) a frame that contains an attention pointer, the new pattern, and one or more comments which summarize the grammar being taught, (c) a set of illustrative examples which show the new pattern in a variety of environments, (d) pattern practice drills, and (e) a review of key examples (Allen, 1975). The exercises are taken from Living English Structure by W.S. Allen (1969), Freshman Intensive Remote English: Arts section work book by C. Clearly and N. Mortimer (1977), Freshman English - FLEn 101-B by V.K. Uniyal and N. Mortimer (1980), Mastering American English by G. Taylor (1956), An Intermediate English Practice Book by S. Pit Corder (1966), and English Sentence Patterns: An Oral Approach by R. Lado and C. Fries (1966).

3.2 Sampling

Six sections of the social sciences students were selected

by lot. Originally these sections consisted of 153 students. Then again these sections were divided into two groups each group consisting of three sections. One group consisting of three sections was selected as a study group, the other was labelled as the control group by lot. It must be noted that the grouping was based on the classification made by the Addis Ababa University Freshman Coordinator's Office.

3.3 Methodology and class activity

Three instructors participated in the project. Each instructor had one control group and one study group. The instructors were given a detailed explanation of the two approaches and their respective roles in each group.

It has been pointed out above that a methodology that facilitates acquisition must ensure that the learner is left free to find his own route i.e., it must be facilitative rather than prescriptive. Two crucial aspects emerge from the adoption of such a methodology. The first concerns the allocation of the roles of the teacher and students. Here, instructors were told to set up pair or group work and act as 'partners' in much the same way as does the parent in the first language acquisition (Chastain, 1975:153-161). The second concerns the providing of feedback. Feedback was given to students in a way they could subconsciously test hypotheses about English. In place of error correction, instructors were told to employ repetitions, expansions, extensions, prompting and modelling (Ellis, 1982; Stevick, 1976; Hanania and Gradman, 1977:75-91). To maximize motivation and student participation, instructors were told to allow students to be on their own, choose their own topics, and foster group interdependence (Allwright, 1981; Newmark, 1973, 1981).

Instructors were told to (a) avoid linguistic correction, (b) be extremely supportive in the learner's struggles

towards independence from the teacher, and towards peer interdependence, (c) allow time for learners to work at their own pace, and (d) keep the learners busy, i.e., constantly engaged in 'productive' tasks (Allwright, 1981: 173). In order to promote successful growth of competence, the instructors were told to encourage (a) exploratory discussion to initiate a topic or treat a chosen topic from the given ones, i.e., give full weight to continuous omnivorous reading whose success could be tested by motivating subjects to report to their groups, (b) work tasks carried out in groups involving collaborative discussion and planning, (c) the writing of some kind of reports by the groups, (d) evaluative discussion by the class of the reports, (e) rewriting in the light of both the evaluative discussion and further group discussion of its implications for individual reports (Criper and Widdowson, 1975:209; Allwright, 1981; Doughty, et al., 1972:126).

Accordingly, instructors followed these procedures and they met their respective study groups three times a week for six consecutive weeks, each period lasting one and a half hours.

There was no problem with the control groups. Instructors were already familiar with the Conscious Rule-learning Approach, or the structuralist approach in this study. They were told to lay more emphasis on rule explanation and doing the exercises orally. They were told to follow Lado's principles (1964:50-56). They were told to take an active role in the listen-and-repeat exercises, model examples and supplying corrections. They were also told to correct errors. The instructors were to emphasise the production of correct utterances only. All these procedures were followed throughout the study which continued for six weeks each week consisting of three periods of one hour and half each.

3.4 Measurement

Before the commencement of the study, both oral and written tests were administered to all subjects to establish that there was no significant difference in English language fluency between the control and study groups. The oral test was intended to help determine the students' level of comprehension and spontaneity in responding in English, the students' motivation and their attitude towards learning the language. The written part consisted of two portions: a cloze test and other open ended questions. The cloze test helps to determine the students' ability to decode 'interrupted' or 'mutilated' messages by making the most acceptable substitutions from all the contextual clues available (Heaton, 1979). Morrow (1981) confirms that cloze tests are fundamentally tests of language competence. They have their uses in determining the basic level of language proficiency of a given candidate. More accurately, they enable the level of language proficiency to be assessed relative to that of other people who take exactly the same test under the same conditions. Cloze tests make the testee sample a wide range of structural and lexical items in a meaningful context, and test basic language processing mechanisms, i.e., analysis by synthesis (Morrow, 1981:148-153).

It must be noted that the principle of cloze is based on gestalt theory of 'closure' (closing gaps in patterns subconsciously, thus requiring the utilization of the acquired potential).

The other parts of the pretest required the creative use of the language: what the student would say in a given situation; how he would give orders from given statements and completing fragments to form discourses.

A post-test was administered at the end of the study.

The post-test contained both oral and written tests. The oral test was similar to the one given at the beginning of the study. The written part consisted of a passage broken into paragraphs to facilitate the utilization of different ways of testing both comprehension and the ability to construct meaningful sentences that will require the manipulation of the acquired system. Section B of the post-test requires the ability to establish relationships of meaning between sentences. Section C allows a room for creativity and self-independence. It is assumed that students would focus on what to say rather than how to say. Section D engages the subject in problem-solving in English. Again, it is assumed that students would concentrate on what to say. Section E is a cloze test. This is designed in order to (a) determine whether there is any relationship between the achievement on the other part of the test and the reading ability of the subject, and, (b) decide whether the study group has a better reading ability than the control group.

TABLE I: Pretest Scores
(Control Group)

Group 1A	Group 2A	Group 3A
57	50	56
40	35	57
57	56	50
57	39	58
55	65	65
40	56	45
55	65	45
56	55	70
56	35	58
55	56	67
73	55	45
73	45	45
56	40	50
55	35	56
95	32	70
56	35	45
98	37	55
65	34	50
95	33	50
95	55	60
50	60	50
50	34	50
58	56	57
45		32
55		35
57		37

TABLE II: Pretest Scores
(Study Group)

Group 1B	Group 2B	Group 3B
85	56	56
35	55	35
50	58	56
55	65	57
56	50	73
40	60	70
45	45	39
70	65	50
65	40	70
40	56	35
35	58	70
57	75	57
75	85	58
57	70	35
35	35	40
40	40	55
55	60	67
65	40	53
50	58	45
65	73	45
90		65
60		35
70		45
56		30
60		45
45		50
68		

TABLE III: Summary of pretest results

C.I	C.G. f.	S.G. f.	C.G. c.f.	S.G. c.f.	Mid.
31-35	10	9	10	9	33
36-40	6	8	16	17	38
41-45	7	7	23	24	43
46-50	8	5	32	29	48
51-55	9	5	41	34	53
56-60	21	18	62	52	58
61-65	4	6	66	58	63
66-70	3	8	69	66	68
71-75	2	4	71	70	73
76-80	0	0	71	70	78
81-85	0	2	71	72	83
86-90	0	1	71	73	88
91-95	3	-	74	-	93
96-100	1	-	75	-	98

C.I = class interval
 C.G = control group
 f = frequency

S.G. = study group
 c.f. = cumulative frequency
 mid. = class mid-point

TABLE IV: Significance difference test results in pretest.

Case	C.G.	S.G.	C.G. \bar{X} .	S.G. \bar{X} .	C.G.S. (n-1)	S.G.S. (n-1)	C.G.S ²	S.G.S ²	Sp	t-comp 0.05	t.tab 0.05	Significance
1	1 A n=26	1 B n=27	1A 61.69	1 B 56.44	1 A 16.57	1 B 14.64	1 A 274.46	1 B 214.33	15.61	1.2	2.000	Insignificant
2	2 A n=23	2 B n=20	2 A 46.22	2 B 57.20	2 A 11.44	2 B 13.04	2 A 130.91	2 B 170.06	12.21	2.94	2.021	Significant
3	3 A n=26	3 B n=26	3 A 52.23	3 B 51.38	3 A 9.90	3 B 12.78	3 A 98.02	3 B 163.29	11.43	0.27	2.000	Insignificant
4	2 A n=23	3 B n=26	46.22	51.38	11.44	12.78	130.91	163.29	12.17	1.48	2.021	Insignificant
5	1 A n=26	2 B n=20	61.69	57.20	16.57	13.04	274.46	170.06	15.15	0.99	2.021	Insignificant
6	3 A n=26	2 B n=20	52.23	57.20	9.90	13.04	98.02	170.06	13.04	1.28	2.021	Insignificant
7	Aggregate n=75 n=73		53.67	54.85	14.33	13.63	205.36	185.80	13.99	0.51	1.977	Insignificant

n = number of observations

C.G. = Control group

S.G. = Study group

C.G. \bar{X} . = Mean of C.G.

C.G.S. = Standard deviation of C.G. t-comp. = t-computed

S.G.S. = Standard deviation of S.G. t-tab. = t-tabulated

C. G. S² = Variance of C.G.

S. G. S² = Variance of S. G.

Sp = Standard error

CHAPTER IV

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Results

Table I and II on page 25 show the performances of both the control and study groups in the pretest given (Appendix I and II from page 58-63) to determine whether the groups had any significant differences. The array of the scores is given in a summary form in Table III on page 26 to make it easy for comparison. From Table III, it can be seen that the frequency of the occurrences of scores is relatively the same in both cases. The modes and medians can be established from the given table to justify this.

Table IV on page 27 depicts a comprehensive picture of the two groups - both within the group and between the two groups. The control groups 1A, 2A and 3A, have the sum of scores 1604, 1063 and 1358 respectively and cumulative score of 4025. Their means are 61.69, 42.22 and 52.23 respectively and an aggregate mean of 53.67. The standard deviations of the control group are 16.57, 11.44 and 9.90 and an aggregate of 14.33 respectively. Similarly, the study groups:- 1B, 2B and 3B--have a sum of scores as follows: 1524, 1144, and 1336 respectively and a cumulative of 4004. Their means are 56.44, 57.20 and 51.38 respectively and an aggregate mean of 54.85. The standard deviations of the study groups are 14.64, 13.04 and 12.78 respectively.

The pretest was given to establish the fact that there was no difference between the control groups on one side and the study groups on the other. Table IV, thus, consists of the significance difference test (at 0.05 significance level) results in the pretest given. 1A of control group was paired with 1B of study group; 2A of control group, with 2B of study group; 3A of control group; with 3B of study group; 2A of control group, with 3B of study group; 1A of control group, with 2B of study group; 3A of control group, with 2B of study group; and the aggregate means of the two groups. The table shows that there is no significant difference between the means of 1A and

and 1B, 3A and 3B, 2A and 3B, 1A and 2B, 3A and 2B, and between the aggregate means of the control group and the study group. The difference shown between the means of 2A of control group and 2B of study group can be taken as not significant since such differences are to be anticipated among the sections in the Social Sciences of the Addis Ababa University due to age, sex, motivation, rural/urban and educational background of students.

The oral pretest (Appendix I) showed that the majority of the students (90%) were instrumentally oriented, and had a positive attitude towards learning English; they mainly came from rural areas. Most of them seemed to want the teacher's assistance and were reluctant to speak in English. No major difference was observed between the two groups in oral fluency. Table V and VI (on page 36) contain the array of scores of the control groups and study groups in the post test (Appendix IV on page 107) respectively. Table VII (on page 37) provides the summary of the post-test results of the two groups. The frequency of the occurrences of the scores of the two groups is vividly shown and it is easy to deduce the fact that the scores of the study groups are higher than the scores of the control groups.

Table VIII (on page 38) shows the significance difference test results in the post-test. This comprehensive table consists of the means, deviations, variations, standard errors and the results of the t-test which are very crucial to the study. The sums of the scores of the control groups, 1A, 2A and 3A are 1362, 1089 and 1223, and the aggregate sum of the control groups is 3674. The means of the control groups are 56.75, 47.35, and 50.96, and the aggregate mean of the control group is 51.75.

The sums of the scores of the study groups, 1B, 2B and 3B are 1674, 1216, 1385 respectively and the aggregate sum of the study groups is 4275. The means of the study groups are 62.00, 67.56 and 62.95 respectively, and the aggregate means of the study groups is 63.81. The variances (S^2) and deviations (S)

of the groups were calculated by using:

$$s^2 = \frac{\sum (X - \bar{X})^2}{N-1}, \text{ and } S = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (X - \bar{X})^2}{N-1}}$$

Thus, the variances of the control groups are found to be 129.85, 143.60 and 213.43, and the aggregate variance of the control groups is 173.08. The variances of the study groups are 127.54, 200.50, and 196.33 respectively, and the aggregate variance of the study groups is 169.76. The standard error for the pairs (1A and 1B, 2A and 2B, 3A and 3B, 2A and 3B, 1A and 2B, 3A and 2B, and the aggregates) was determined by using:

$$S_p = \sqrt{\frac{(N_1 - 1) S_1^2 + (N_2 - 1) S_2^2}{N_1 + N_2 - 2}}$$

and the significance difference was calculated by using

$$t(\text{cal}) = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{S_p \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{N_1}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{N_2}\right)}}$$

As it is indicated in Table VIII, all the cases show significant differences.

Table IX and Table X indicate another interesting finding. The scores in the post cloze test are ranked in order to see if there is any correlation between the scores obtained in the written part of the test and the cloze test. Using Spearman's ranking, i.e.,

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d^2}{N(N^2-1)}$$

the rank correlation for the control groups is 0.50, 0.51 and 0.48 respectively and the aggregate rank correlation for the control groups is 0.51. The rank correlation of the study groups is 0.73, 0.42 and 0.51 respectively, and the aggregate rank correlation for the study groups is 0.62.

The results of the cloze test (Tables IX and X) also show that 16.67% of 1A (C.G.), 4.35% of 2A (C.G.) and 33.33% of 3A (C.G.) have functional comprehension ability (44% and above). The aggregate functional comprehension ability for the control groups is 18.31%. 48.15% of 1B (S.G.), 55.56% of 2B and 40.91 of 3B (S.G.) foster functional comprehension ability as indicated in the cloze test results. The aggregate functional comprehension ability for the study groups is 47.76%.

The oral test given at the end significantly revealed that students who belonged to the study groups were highly motivated; wanted the study to be continued and manifested significant group interdependence. They used English spontaneously. In short, they were more motivated and predisposed to speak in English. On the other hand, the control groups showed no predisposition for a spontaneous use of the language. They were too much dependent on the teacher's explanation or elaboration of the questions asked, and they resorted to answering questions in fragmentary sentences.

4.2 Discussions

It has been stated above that the control groups and study groups had the same language performance level or the same level of English language proficiency at the beginning of the study. This was justified (a) by the nature of the sampling, i.e., the students were formerly divided into sections alphabetically by the College of Social Sciences Freshman Co-ordinator's Office, (b) by the fact that the researcher used lots to assign the sections into two groups - control and study, and (c) by the results of the pretest. However, the results in the post-test show a marked difference between the control groups and the study groups. Except for the teaching approach which remained a variable; i.e., the Language Acquisition Approach with the study group and the Conscious Rule-learning Approach with the control group, all other factors were kept constant. Both groups had the same amount of time - three periods a week for six weeks, each period lasting for one and half hours. In order

to control the teacher variable, a teacher was assigned to one control group and to its counterpart - one study group, i.e.; Teacher X was assigned to 1A(control group) and 1B (study group), Teacher Y was assigned to 2A (control group) and 2B (study group), and Teacher Z was assigned to 3A (control group) and 3B (study group). In computing the results of the post-test, in order to arrive at a conclusion, more attention was given to the results of the pairs, and later the aggregates were compared (Table VIII). The study shows that the study groups performed better in the post-test than the control groups, and that the study groups were better in their English Language proficiency than the control groups. According to this study, the Language Acquisition Approach to English Language teaching is more effective than the Conscious Rule-learning Approach.

The study groups learned the language in its natural context. There was no deliberate effort on the part of the instructors to impose their own ways (see figure). Instructors helped in forming groups, in initiating discussions in weaker groups, in providing feedback wherever it was sought. They acted as partners and participated in discussions (including grammatical explanations) whenever invited.

At the initial stages, instructors were very much dismayed by the types and numbers of errors committed by students. It was also discouragingly difficult to make the groups talk. Students were reluctant to talk, to ask and even to choose a topic for discussion. Besides, each group wanted its particular teacher's instruction in deciding which topic to select.

Quite to the contrary, the control groups were motivated and they found the exercises, especially the drills, interesting and easy to handle. Students felt secure and understood that they were doing these exercises in order to help them pass Freshman English examinations. Instructors rigidly rejected

sentences containing errors and gave grammatical explanations why certain sentences were wrong. Feedback was given in the form of corrections. Minor tests were given by the respective instructors to ensure that mistakes were not committed. At the initial stages, teaching the control group was satisfying to the instructors.

With the study groups, instructors at times felt that there was nothing to be done. Students from every corner said that they had finished discussing a particular topic and wanted their instructor to select for them other topics. After each meeting instructors came together to discuss ways of putting into practice the suggestions laid down by experts (Ellis, 1982). After having discussed the problem thoroughly, they decided to give students an explanation of the aims of the 'special' programme and the methods of effective discussion. The fourth meeting with the students showed that things were taking root. Teacher dependence markedly but slowly declined. More serious and detailed discussions and reports on discussions characterized the groups' activities. The students were pre-occupied by what they were discussing or doing. Each member showed a big concern. Easiness and relaxation in handling the subjects they were discussing were observable. Group interdependence was enhanced. The willingness to help group-mates was accompanied by patiently listening to what each member had to say.

Gradually, motivation was observed to increase in the study groups. The groups, without waiting for a guidance from their particular instructor, started selecting topics both from the set of topics provided and from outside based on what they individually found communicatively useful. Each member had an opportunity to ask, report and comment on certain issues raised by the group. The situation as such seemed a natural setting where experts would come together to discuss matters of interest. In short, a motivating situation resulted due to the fact that the individual learners felt secure, that there was no one to stubbornly insist that 'that was not English', that

they were ensured to find their own route, and that their discussions had some bearings on their studies. For instance, most groups concentrated on topics such as the Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia - nation formation, metamorphosis of capital, population explosion, jokes, and central tendency and dispersion. It could be observed that all focussed on what they were discussing rather than on the English they were using. It was an authentic communication class where everybody was saying something without worrying whether his speech contained errors.

After the third week, the control groups started to lose interest in the grammatical exercises. The exercises became routine and instructors found it difficult to sustain the motivation of their students. In general students preferred to do the writing exercises to the listen-and-repeat drills. Only few of the students seriously followed the lessons and were willing to repeat correct utterances. Some felt it was not rewarding; some forgot the rules as soon as they left the classrooms. There was a lot of hesitation for fear of making mistakes. Only those who convinced themselves that they were gaining something were willing to answer or repeat a sentence with correct forms of given verbs. Teacher-student relationship became more and more mechanical - the teacher knew everything and the student had to get a sort of approval from him. Students were restricted to producing single sentences whether they were meaningfully relevant or not. But errors persisted despite the conscious effort of the particular instructor to inhibit their occurrence by providing detailed linguistic explanation of sentences using diagrams and the like. The sentences produced by students were more or less grammatical but they were not appropriate and relevant.

Admittedly, errors were rampant among the study groups specially at the initial stages. However, the number of the common errors gradually diminished as the students developed self-confidence and group-interdependence. The presence of

the instructor was no longer considered threatening. Moreover, the fear of failing in the examinations was removed and individuals willingly participated in problem-solving activities and they read quite a lot. They became talkative in the sense that they had lots of things to say about an issue in question and, according to one instructor, the final stages of the study were infinitely rewarding and discussions had to be stopped due to lack of time. Intimacy reached a high level among the study groups. The students produced long rambling sentences, but very much meaningful, with ease.

In the post oral test students were asked to express their views regarding the 'special' classes they had for six weeks. Students in the control groups said that they had learned the rules of using "would", "could" and "should", and conditional sentences. On the other hand, students in the study group admitted that they had improved their spoken fluency, learned how to locate information either from encyclopaedias, dictionaries or informants (like the Dean of Students, the Office of the Registrar, the Freshman Co-ordinator's Office), improved relationships with classmates, overcome the fear of speaking in front of people and learned their other courses better through the discussion they had had in the "study" programme because the contents of their discussions overlapped with their courses. They also stated that since their contributions were acknowledged, they felt more uninhibited to express themselves in English than ever before.

TABLE V: Post-test scores
(Control group)

Group 1A	Group 2A	Group 3A
77	68	76
75	65	75
71	64	72
71	61	72
69	60	61
67	57	60
62	56	58
62	54	57
60	53	56
60	51	54
58	48	53
58	44	51
57	44	51
54	44	50
54	44	49
52	43	49
51	38	46
51	37	45
49	34	39
48	33	34
40	33	32
39	32	31
39	26	28
38		24

TABLE VI: Post-test scores
(Study group)

Group 1B	Group 2B	Group 3B
81	95	85
78	88	83
77	86	82
76	76	78
76	74	76
74	73	75
73	73	74
71	72	70
69	70	69
67	69	69
64	68	63
63	62	63
62	59	60
62	57	59
61	51	55
59	50	50
58	49	48
56	44	48
56		47
54		46
53		44
53		41
53		
48		
46		
42		
42		

TABLE VII: Summary of post-test results

C.I.	C.G. f	S.G. f	C.G. c.f.	S.G. c.f.	Mid.
21-25	1	-	1	-	23
26-30	2	-	3	-	28
31-35	7	-	10	-	33
36-40	7	-	17	-	38
41-45	6	5	23	5	43
46-50	7	9	30	14	48
51-55	12	6	42	20	53
56-60	12	8	54	28	58
61-65	6	8	60	36	63
66-70	3	8	63	42	68
71-75	6	9	69	51	73
76-80	2	7	71	58	78
81-85	-	4	-	62	83
86-90	-	2	-	64	88
91-95	-	1	-	65	93

TABLE VIII: Significance difference test results in post-test
(Hypothesis test)

Case	C.G	S.G	C.G. \bar{x}	S.G. \bar{x}	C.G.S. (n-1)	S.G.S. (n-1)	C.G.S ²	S.G.S. ²	Sp	t-comp 0.05	t-tab 0.05	Significance
1	1 A n=24	1 B n=27	56.75	62.00	11.40	11.29	129.85	127.54	11.34	3.18	2.021	Significant
2	2 A n=23	2 B n=18	47.35	67.56	11.98	14.16	143.60	200.50	12.98	4.08	2.021	Significant
3	3 A n=24	3 B n=22	50.96	62.95	14.61	14.01	213.43	196.33	14.33	4.2	2.021	Significant
4	2 A n=23	3 B n=22	47.35	62.95	11.98	14.01	143.60	196.33	13.01	4.02	2.021	Significant
5	1 A n=24	2 B n=18	56.75	67.56	11.40	14.16	129.85	200.50	12.64	2.74	2.021	Significant
6	3 A n=24	2 B n=18	50.96	67.56	14.61	14.16	213.43	200.50	14.42	3.70	2.021	Significant
7	AGGREGATE											
	n=71	n=67	51.75	63.81	13.16	13.03	173.08	169.76	12.99	2.2	1.977	Significant

TABLE IXa: Results in the post-cloze test (control group)

GROUP 1A					GROUP 2A					GROUP 3A				
W	r	C	r	d	W	r	C	r	d	W	r	C	r	d
77	1	70	1	0	68	1	46	1	0	76	1	44	5	-4
75	2	34	14	-12	65	2	28	11	-9	75	2	30	14	-12
71	3	40	6	-3	64	3	20	15	-12	72	3	36	10	-7
71	4	38	7	-3	61	4	26	12	-8	72	3	48	2	1
69	5	46	4	1	60	5	36	5	0	61	5	22	17	-12
67	6	38	7	-1	57	6	20	15	-9	60	6	24	16	-10
62	7	50	2	5	56	7	40	2	5	58	7	48	2	5
62	7	12	24	-17	54	8	18	17	-9	57	8	32	12	-4
60	9	48	3	6	53	9	30	8	1	56	9	44	5	4
60	9	32	17	-8	51	10	36	5	5	54	10	56	1	9
58	11	30	19	-8	48	11	30	8	3	53	11	32	12	-1
58	11	38	7	4	44	12	40	2	10	51	12	36	10	-2
57	13	36	10	3	44	12	30	8	4	51	12	12	23	-9
54	14	34	14	0	44	12	38	4	8	50	14	38	9	5
54	14	36	10	4	44	12	18	17	-5	49	15	44	5	10
52	1	41	5	11	43	16	24	13	3	49	15	46	4	11
51	17	18	22	-5	38	17	10	24	-7	46	17	20	18	-1
51	17	32	17	0	37	18	16	21	-3	45	18	44	5	13
49	19	22	21	2	34	19	32	7	12	39	19	18	21	-2
48	20	36	10	10	33	20	18	17	3	34	20	20	18	2
40	21	24	20	1	33	20	22	14	6	32	21	12	23	-2
39	22	36	10	12	32	22	18	17	5	31	22	20	18	4
39	22	34	14	8	26	23	14	22	1	28	23	28	15	8
38	24	14	23	1						24	24	16	22	2

W = Written part score

r = rank

C = Cloze test score

d = difference in rank

TABLE X: Cumulative post-cloze test results

Control Group										Study Group									
W	r	C	r	d	W	r	C	r	d	W	r	C	r	d	W	r	C	r	d
77	1	70	1	0	46	48	20	53	-5	95	1	52	14	-13	55	48	36	43	5
76	2	44	10	-8	45	49	44	10	39	88	2	54	8	-6	54	49	40	35	14
75	3	34	31	-28	44	50	40	15	35	86	3	60	3	0	53	50	22	58	-8
75	3	30	39	-36	44	50	30	39	11	85	4	70	1	3	53	50	54	8	42
72	5	36	23	-18	44	50	38	18	32	83	5	48	19	-14	53	50	26	54	-4
72	5	48	4	1	44	50	18	58	-8	82	6	34	47	-41	51	53	38	39	14
71	7	40	15	-8	43	54	24	47	7	81	7	50	16	-9	50	54	12	67	-13
71	7	38	18	-11	40	55	24	47	8	78	8	56	4	4	50	54	22	58	-4
69	9	46	7	2	39	56	34	31	25	78	8	38	39	-31	49	56	22	58	-2
68	10	46	7	3	39	56	36	23	33	77	10	50	16	-6	48	57	16	65	-8
67	11	38	18	-7	39	56	18	58	-2	76	11	44	28	-17	48	57	42	32	25
65	12	28	44	-32	38	59	14	66	-7	76	11	50	16	-5	48	57	48	19	38
64	13	20	53	-40	38	59	10	71	-12	76	11	48	19	-8	47	60	30	52	8
62	14	50	3	11	37	61	16	64	-3	76	11	46	24	-13	46	61	30	52	9
62	14	12	68	-54	34	62	32	34	28	75	15	54	8	7	46	61	26	54	7
61	16	26	46	-30	34	62	20	53	9	74	16	52	14	2	44	63	16	65	-2
61	16	22	50	-34	33	64	18	58	6	74	16	26	54	-38	44	63	36	43	20
60	18	48	4	14	33	64	22	50	14	74	16	46	24	-8	42	65	22	58	7
60	18	32	34	-16	32	66	18	58	8	73	19	54	8	9	42	66	22	58	7
60	18	36	23	-5	32	66	12	68	-2	73	19	54	8	9	41	67	38	39	-28
60	18	24	47	-29	31	68	20	53	15	73	19	54	8	9					
58	22	30	39	-17	28	69	28	44	25	72	22	34	47	-25					
58	22	38	18	4	26	70	14	66	4	71	23	44	28	-5					
58	22	48	4	18	24	71	16	64	7	70	24	48	19	5					
57	25	36	23	2						70	24	44	28	-4					
57	25	20	53	-28						69	26	56	4	22					
57	25	32	34	-9						69	26	64	2	24					
56	28	40	15	13						69	26	36	43	-17					
56	28	44	10	18						69	26	40	35	-9					
54	30	34	31	-1						68	30	36	43	-13					
54	30	36	23	7						67	31	32	50	-19					
54	30	18	58	-28						64	32	48	19	13					
54	30	56	2	28						63	33	42	32	1					
53	34	30	39	-5						63	33	22	58	-25					
53	34	32	34	0						63	33	44	28	5					
52	36	41	14	22						62	36	32	50	-14					
51	37	18	58	-21						62	36	40	35	1					
51	37	32	34	3						62	36	56	4	32					
51	37	36	23	14						61	39	46	24	15					
51	37	36	23	14						60	40	38	39	1					
51	37	12	68	-31						59	41	40	35	6					
50	42	38	18	24						59	41	56	4	37					
49	43	22	50	-7						59	41	26	54	-13					
49	43	44	10	33						58	44	46	24	20					
49	43	46	7	36						57	45	34	47	-2					
48	46	36	23	23						56	46	42	32	14					
48	46	30	39	7						56	46	20	64	-18					

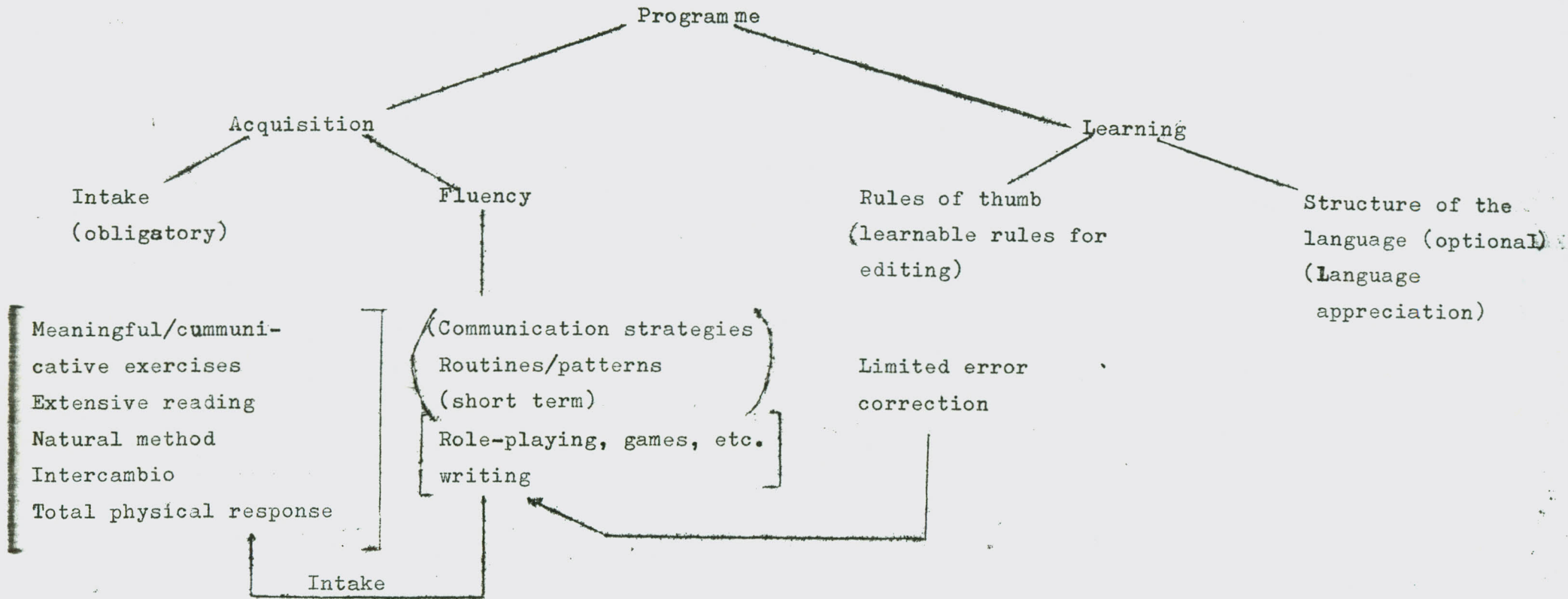


Fig. 1. A second language teaching programme

CHAPTER V

5. Conclusion, Summary of findings, Inferences and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion.

It has been pointed out in the Review of Related Literature (chapter II) that the proliferated language teaching controversy revolves mainly around the difference in the interpretation of how a child learns his first language. Some maintain that the first language acquisition and second language acquisition are relatively similar and teaching problems can be tackled by taking some lessons from first language acquisition. Others argue that second language learning is different from first language acquisition.

The Conscious Rule-learning Approach, restricted to what is formally known as the structuralist approach in the present study, assumes that the conscious learning of the formal rules of the language through habit formation by imitation or learning the rules of the language facilitates mastery of the second language. The emphasis is on imitation of correct responses, and errors are not tolerated since it is assumed that they lead to the formation of wrong habits.

Although studies, such as the present one, based on experimentation, have some limitations of their own emanating from the inadequacy of teaching materials preparation, testing, and sampling, certain conclusions can be drawn. Accordingly, this study has demonstrated that the mere parroting of segments of sentences in order to form correct habits of language use does not result in the mastery of the language. This study has further indicated that motivation went low among the control groups, and the inhibition to use language in connected discourse was high.

Errors persisted and teacher dependence was a predominant feature in classroom activities.

In Chapter II, it is stated that in the Language Acquisition Approach, adults are supposed to learn a second language the way they learned their first language. Language rules are subconsciously internalized in the process of meaningful communicative interaction. Errors are considered to be a normal phenomenon in language acquisition; they are done away with only when the learner subconsciously acquires the appropriate rules and develops a "feel" for grammar. The emphasis is on creating a rich linguistic environment whereby learners are exposed to a learning atmosphere conducive for ample creative participation. Accordingly, in the study, the Language Acquisition Approach groups were observed to foster high motivation, creativity and involved participation in the language activities. It was also observed that teacher dependence gradually diminished.

5.2 Summary of findings

The study was conducted to investigate whether the Language Acquisition Approach is more effective and functional than the Conscious Rule-learning Approach in teaching English to non-native speakers in a non-English speaking environment.

It is indicated in chapter IV that the NULL HYPOTHESIS (H_0) which states that there is no significant difference between the Language Acquisition Approach and the Conscious Rule-learning Approach to second language teaching is rejected at 0.05 level of significance. The ALTERNATIVE HYPOTHESIS (H_1) which states that there is a significant difference between the Language Acquisition Approach and the Conscious Rule-learning Approach is maintained and that the Language Acquisition Approach is supported as the better approach by

the findings of this study. The summary of the findings is as follows:

5.2.1. The Language Acquisition Approach to second language learning is more functional and effective in enhancing students' proficiency in English.

5.2.2. The Conscious Rule-learning Approach to second language learning is not functional and effective in developing students' proficiency in English.

5.3 Inferences

Based on the above cited findings, the following inferences can be made:

5.3.1. Language Acquisition classes facilitate a comprehensive intake of language.

5.3.2. The traditional division between spoken and written or between speaking and listening, between reading and writing is not supported by the results. The four skills may not be taken as the main divisions and current research confirms this view, too (Chapter IV).

5.3.3. Errors gradually disappear when learners concentrate on messages rather than on form and persistent error correction by the teacher inhibits a learner to use language spontaneously.

5.3.4. Mim-mem and patterns drills discourage individual creativity in language use; they become routine and unexciting to the learner.

5.4 Recommendations

From the findings of this study, it is concluded that English is, by and large, poorly taught in Ethiopia. The picture Mosback (1977) depicted, regarding poor English proficiency of students in Addis Ababa University, is still predominant. If English has to remain as an effective medium of instruction in the University, certain recommendations can be made based on the results of the present study:

5.4.1. in order to enhance language intake and create meaningful learning activities,

5.4.1.1. extensive reading in English must be encouraged;

5.4.1.2. Freshman English classroom instructions must be modelled in such a way that they facilitate student participation and involvement in problem-solving tasks, and learning through discovery;

5.4.1.3. the number of students in each class must be limited (see fig. 1, on page 42 for a second language teaching programme).

5.4.2. A new set of teaching materials for the current English service courses must be prepared to accommodate for:

5.4.2.1. students' creativity and discovery in English;

5.4.2.2. students' needs to pursue their other courses in English.

5.4.3 English language learning must be student-centered. Teachers of English should relinquish their role as setters of limits of correct use.

5.4.4. Further research must be conducted in order to come up with effective ways of preparing syllabus, teaching materials and the evaluation of student performances based on the Language Acquisition Approach.

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18. Do you intend to go to an English speaking country on a scholarship? Why?
19. How do you evaluate the English speaking people? State your opinion regarding them.
20. If you were living in England among the English, how would your relationships with them look like

4	3	2	1	0

FOR THE INSTRUCTOR ONLY

1. Is the subject properly motivated to learn English? _____
2. What is his attitude towards learning the language? _____
3. Write a few lines about his background _____

4. Does he look too much dependent on teacher's assistance? _____

5. Any comments on the subject _____

Name of student: _____

Instructor: _____

A. Fill each of the blanks in the following with one suitable word.

Of all the abilities needed by one who tries to learn a new language, that of being able to ask questions and to quickly recognize when one is being asked a question must rank very near the top. Thus in our efforts _____ study the Maji tongue _____ have frequently felt frustrated _____ we have found the _____ difficult to recognize, especially _____ the speed required for _____ normal conversational exchange. This _____ is an attempt to _____ the interrogative as it _____ structured in the Maji _____ and to note the _____ in its formation which _____ to make it harder _____ recognize than is the _____ in many other languages.

The Maji language is _____ by a tribal group _____ southwest Kaffa province numbering _____ 5000 people, all living _____ a radius of 30 _____ 50 kilometers of the _____ capital town of Maji. _____ language (which the people _____ call after their own _____ name, Disi) has been _____ as Cushitic, of the _____ sub-division. In any case, _____ as the tribe is _____ located on an isolated _____ massif surrounded by peoples _____ the valleys of probable _____ origin, so the language _____ isolated from other Cushitic _____ by a band of _____ languages.

The area in which _____ language is spoken has _____ under the Ethiopian central _____ since the expansion of _____ control under Menelik just _____ to the turn of _____ century. The influence of _____ can be noted in _____ borrowings, and it strikes _____ as convenient that the _____ inventories of the two _____ are quite similar. _____, _____ example, making liberal use _____

the "explosive consonants" characteristic _____ Amharic. The essential independence _____ vigor of this relatively small language, however, is easy to discern, not only in its continued widespread use in day-to-day village life, but in the numerous elements of linguistic structure which are clearly quite unrelated to the national language.

B. Write down below each number what you would say in the given situation.

1. You want to look up a word in the dictionary, but find you've yours at home. Your teacher has got one.

2. you've got to take your suitcase upstairs, and it's very heavy. Perhaps your flatmate could help.

3. you want to phone the doctor urgently, but the phone is in your landlady's room.

4. You've just written a letter to your parents, and you know your flatmate is going past the post office.

5. you find that your bicycle has a flat tyre, and you are late for lessons. Your landlady could help perhaps.

C. Read the following description of an experiment and rewrite it in a set of directions beginning with the example given below.

Water is poured into the displacement vessel until it overflows through the pipe into the measuring jar. The level of the water surface in the measuring jar is read, and then the solid is lowered into the vessel until it is completely covered by the water. Water is displaced and flows down the pipe into

the measuring jar, and level of the water surface in the measuring jar is read again.

Take a displacement vessel and a measuring jar. _____

D. Complete the following.

1. If they had waited for more than two hours, _____

2. Tesfaye studied the whole night and Shiferaw _____

3. They must have _____

4. It was unnecessary for _____

5. The assumption is _____

Note to students: These series of activities are basically to be taken as suggestions and not prescriptions or rules. Students are expected to extend, expand or even totally change them. They may have topics of their own choice. The activities are primarily problem solving and are designed for group work and absolute individual participation.

Activity 1: Introducing oneself. Tell your group-mates about yourself - your background, your present situation and future plans and aspirations. Answer any questions asked by your group members regarding your explanation and so on.

Activity 2: Discussion

Read the following silently and raise questions for discussion. Relate your first impressions about the university to your group-mates.

During Freshman Week I didn't know whether I was coming or going. I never had so many different activities crowded into one week. The first thing I did when I arrived on campus was to go to the dormitory and get my room. There I met my room-mate, whom I had written a couple of times to during the summer. He introduced me to some of the other fellows in the dorm, and we compared notes about what we had done in high school and what we wanted to do here. It was a nice beginning for college, for I got to know several students who have been my good friends ever since.

During the next three or four days we had something scheduled every minute. We took physical examinations and scholastic test and I had to take an extra math test because I did not have enough math in high school. After the tests we went to see our advisers, who told us what subjects we should take and helped us plan our programmes. I didn't have too much trouble because one of the older boys in the dorm had briefed me on the courses I'd have to take, although the advisers almost refused to Ok my programme because I had forgotten to bring the slip showing I had taken my physical . . .

My real troubles began when classes started. I thought I understood the work as it was being taken up in class, but it was a different story when I tried to do the assignments. Worst of all, everyone of my instructors seemed to have the idea that his class was the only one I was taking. I had more homework for each course than I had for all my courses together in high school. . .

Activity 3: About the Addis Ababa University: facilities

- .Discuss the general layout of the university.
- .Its facilities for food, recreation, health care.
- .The use of such facilities (How to use them)
 - the health clinic
 - the library
 - potential usefulness of the Dean of Students.

Activity 4: About the Addis Ababa University: Regulations

- .registration
- .The Academic Commission
- .dismissal and readmission
- .regulations pertaining to student mode of conduct
 - general
 - during examinations
- .Placement into faculties and prospects, and requirements for the placements.

Activity 5: About the Addis Ababa University: Statistics

- .establishment and objectives for establishment.
- .student enrolment (increase) by faculties
- .staff. . . . academic and administrative, nationals and
- .expatriates.

.../

Activity 6: About the Addis Ababa University: Colleges, faculties and departments.

- Requirements for joining
- Regulations of different colleges or faculties.
- Course work and number of credit hours required for graduation.
- Prospects for employment.

Activity 7: About the Addis Ababa University: Relations, internal and external.

- The Higher Commission
- International Relations and opportunities for further studies.

Activity 8: About the Addis Ababa University: future plans and prospects.

Activity 9: About the Addis Ababa University: activities & programme

- cooperation with mass and government organizations
- research projects
- other activities

Activity 10: About the Addis Ababa University: staff and students.

- problems of students and how to solve them.

Activity 11: Directions. Do you know how to give direction?

- Discuss among yourselves on giving directions. How to prepare a substance, how to reach a place, how to draw a picture.
- Raise questions collectively on matters related to describing processes, giving directions or showing a way. Probably the following passage on how to operate computers may help you to initiate questions.

Place master switch in off position. Plug computer into power supply. Print your problem on yellow index card provided, in rack. Word your question in such a way that it can be answered with a simple 'yes' or 'no'.

IMPORTANT: Next, program computer heads (C-20 and G-30) by setting dials in appropriate positions. You are now ready to start machine. Throw master switch to on setting. Red bulb on main housing and white tube on C-20 will light indicating computer is working. Remove phone from rack and speak your problem into the mouth piece exactly as you have written it on your index card. Replace phone in rack and ding dinger once. Under NO circumstances should you turn computer off until answer has been returned. Flashing yellow bulb indicates positive answer. Flashing blue bulb indicates negative answer. Green jewel button doesn't light so it will not indicate anything. Computers sometimes get fatigued and have nervous breakdowns, hence the chair for it to rest in. If you know your computer well, you can tell when it's tired and sort of blue and in a funky mood. If such a condition seems imminent, turn rocker switch on for ten or twenty minutes. Your computer will love it and work all the harder for you. Remember that if you treat your computer well it will treat you well. When answer light has stopped flashing, turn master switch to off position. Machine will now re-cycle for the next question. Repeat procedure from beginning.

(Quoted in Francoise Grellet. Developing Reading Skills. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1982, page 63)

Activity 12: Directions and map-reading
- (continued)

Activity 13: Directions for preparing something - or describing a process

Activity 14: Descriptions - situations, places, places or people.

Activity 15: Discoveries and inventions
- Raise questions regarding discoveries and inventions
and assign members to find answers to the questions

raised. Questions could also be raised on the already reported items.

Read the following (1) to help you, if you want, to ask more questions (2) and discuss issues of your interest regarding the discovery.

Electricity completely changed communications. Once it was discovered that an electric current would flow along a wire, it seemed possible that it could be used for messages. As long as two places were connected by a wire, they could send electric currents to each other. They could send over hills and round corners, and they could send them with the speed of light. The question was how could electric current make words?

Real telegraphs were not possible until it was proved that electricity and magnetism were connected. A Dane discovered this. He was called Hans Oersted. He found in 1819 that he could make a needle of a compass move by putting it near a wire with a current flowing through it.

Then a Frenchman named Ampere thought about this discovery. He reasoned like this. A compass needle is a magnet. If a wire carrying a current could move it, then the wire must be a magnet too. This he found to be true. He also found that the magnetic force round the wire could be concentrated by coiling the wire. He had, in fact, made an electromagnet.

A lot of people began to see how electro-magnets could be used to send messages. Two men, called Wheatstone and Cooke, laid a telegraph line between Euston Station and Camden Town, in London. The way they used electricity to send messages was to have five compass needles swinging in the centre of wire coils at each end of the telegraph line Their movements showed letters of the alphabet. When Cooke, in Camden Town, sent a current along one of the wires it went through a coil in front of Wheatstone, in Euston. The Magnetic force made the needles swing. Wheatstone read the letter the needles pointed to and gradually got the message. Then he switched the current through to Cooke by pressing a 'key' and sent a reply.

.../

The telegraph meant that at last people could send messages a long way at great speed. Soon people wanted to send messages even farther.

If two places on land, say, London and Manchester, could be connected by wire, why could not the lands themselves - England and America, for instance - be connected by wires under the sea? This is a question quickly answered after the telegraph was proved to work. There were some problems about this, however. The main one was insulation, which means protecting the wire so that the electric current does not leak away. Dry air is a good insulator, but sea water is not. If a wire was laid under water, the current would all leak away. In any case, all the insulating substances known upto then could be damaged by sea water. But in 1847 gutta-percha was introduced as an insulating material. Gutta-percha is a gummy substance obtained from trees, like rubber, and it does not allow electricity to flow through it easily.

(Clive Brasnett. English for Engineers. London: Methuen Educational Ltd. 1976. p. 9ff.

Activity 16: Discoveries and inventions: continue with discoveries etc. Oceans, other planets, places, scientific devices...

Activity 17: Discuss the following story and comment on the regulations.

On a warm day in May 1959, Albert Kogler and Shirely O'Neill, both 18 and students at San Francisco State College, decided to cool off with a swim in the Pacific. Splashing into the surf a Bakers Beach just outside San Francisco's Golden Gate, they swam seaward some 50 yards, Kogler in the lead. "I heard him scream," Miss O'Neill said later. "I turned around and saw this big gray thing flap up into the air. There was a thrashing in the water. He screamed again. 'It's a shark - get out of here!'"

Above the scene on the cliff-top grounds of the Presidio, the United States Army post overlooking Golden Gate, Master Sergeant Leo P. Day watched the struggle with the shark. "I could see the boy in the foaming red water, shouting and signaling someone to go back, go back. Then I saw the girl, swimming toward him with frantic strokes, completely ignoring his warning."

Miss O'Neill reached for Kogler's hand. "But when I pulled I could see his arm was just hanging by a thread." So she put her arm about Kogler's back and started for shore. She dragged him close enough for a fisherman to throw a line and pull them the rest of the way.

His body half drained of blood, the boy died two and a half hours later. From the teeth marks, experts identified the attacker as a great white shark.

Nine rules to lessen danger from sharks

- Don't swim or skin dive without a companion.
- Don't swim at night, or in very murky water.
- Don't stay in water with a bleeding wound.
- Don't panic or thrash after sighting a shark.
Swim away smoothly to a boat or beach.
- If a shark moves in, hit it on the snout with a heavy object. Don't use your fist. Rough hide will only cut your skin, making you bleed.
- Don't tow speared fish at your belt. Boat them immediately.
- Don't ever tease or spear a shark, no matter how small or harmless it may seem.
- Don't trail arms or legs from an air mattress or life raft.
- If you have clothes on, don't take them off. They protect you from shark-skin lacerations.

Activity 18: Discuss the nature of sharks, their habitat, etc.

- Assign members to report on matters of interest regarding

- a) sea life
- b) interpretation and observation of rules
- c) various accidents

Activity 19: Discuss the following related passage and give your comments.

Since there is such an abundance of food in the sea, it is understandable that some of the efficient, highly adaptable, warm-blooded mammals evolved on land should go back there. Those that did have done very well for themselves. Within about 50 million years - no time at all, geologically speaking - one of the four kinds of mammals that have returned to the sea has developed into the largest of all animal forms: the whale. A second kind, the seal, has produced what is probably the greatest population of large carnivorous mammals on earth. This suggests that these top dogs of the ocean heap must be prospering and multiplying nowadays in a style befitting their exalted station. Not so. At least, not for the last 150 years. Trouble has closed in on them in the form of an equally warm-blooded and even more efficient and adaptable predator, man. At sea as on land, man has now planted himself on top of the whole great pyramid of life, and he has been giving the mammals of the sea a very bad time.

There is a simple reason for this. Marine mammals have the misfortune to be swimming aggregates of commodities which man wants: furs, oil, meat. Even so, they might not be so vulnerable to man's depredations if they did not, like man, reproduce so slowly. Every year man takes more than 40 million tons of fish from the oceans without critically depleting the population of any species. The same cannot be said for the slow-breeding mammals of the sea, many of which have been all but stamped out to serve man's wants and whims.

- Leonard Engel. The Sea. New York: Time Incorporated, 1961, pp. 145-6.

Activity 20: Population explosion and shortage of food.

- Discuss the views of different political economists regarding this issue
- Raise more questions and discuss them.

Activity 21: Wild life conservation

- What is the fate of animals such as whales, elephants, Mountain Nyala, etc.
- Raise questions regarding this issue and discuss it with your group

Activity 22: Saving mankind from extinction

- Discuss the factors that threaten man with extinction
- Is a third World War inevitable?
- Gather ideas from different periodicals and inform your group.

Secret Services

Activity 23: Are you very much interested to know about secret service agents?

- their international role
- their types
- their importance

Assign yourselves to find answers to your questions.

Activity 24: Secret Services: American
(continued)

- the role of the secret services both at home and abroad.

For those who were unaware of the US government's secret tools of foreign policy, perhaps this diary will help answer some of the questions on American domestic political motivations and practices that have arisen since the first Watergate arrests. Lately, we have seen a movement for national renewal, for the reform of electoral practices and of the FBI and the CIA.

But reforms of the FBI and the CIA, even the removal of the President from office, cannot remove the problem. American capitalism, based as it is on exploitation of the poor, with its fundamental motivation in personal greed, simply cannot survive without force without a secret police force. The argument is with capitalism and it is capitalism that must be opposed, with its CIA, FBI and other

security agencies understood as logical, necessary manifestations of the ruling class's determination to retain power and privilege...

And now, more than ever, indifference to injustice at home and abroad is impossible... The gap between rich and poor grows in developed countries as well as in poor countries and between the developed and the underdeveloped countries. A considerable proportion of the developed world's prosperity rests on paying the lowest prices for the poor countries' primary products and on exporting high-cost capital and finished goods to those countries. Continuation of this kind of prosperity requires continuation of the relative gap between developed and underdeveloped countries → it means keeping poor people poor.....

(Freshman Intensive Remote English Addis Ababa University, 1977, pp. 263-264)

Activity 25: Relation between developed and backward countries

- economic, political and social
- aid and loan
- the gap and how to narrow it

Activity 26: Ethiopia as a developing country

- prominent problems of underdevelopment
 - economic
 - political
 - social
- If the former regime had succeeded in averting the Yekatit popular revolutionary tide, what would have happened?

Activity 27: Ethiopia: National unity

- Factors that precipitate national integration
- How the country came to assume its present shape.
- The "Zemene Mesafint" its significance in the history of the country
- Contacts with the outside world
- Struggle for nation formation Vs struggle among chieftains

Activity 28: Ethiopia: Nation Formation

- Formation - The Abyssinian Empire
- Disintegration
- The late nineteenth century
- If you want to discuss the issue among yourselves, below is given an account of the reasons for Tewodros's failure

In view of the doctrinal strife within the church which aggravated political conflicts in the past, Tewodros sought to stop controversies in favour of a strong monolithic church which would be based on the Tewahdo doctrine and which would support the monarchy.

He wanted to establish contact with foreigners and particularly the European powers in order to obtain firearms in sufficient quantity to enable his army to check Egyptian expansion which had been causing him trouble and for internal consolidation.

One might be justified to say that Tewodros was probably a bit ahead of his time in many respects. He realised that the traditional Ethiopian arms would take him nowhere in the confrontation with his foreign enemies. He considered increased importation of arms but also wanted to see guns and firearms produced in Ethiopia. He wanted contact with Europe not only for aid but for enlightenment and instruction as well.

. . . when the European response to his request for friendship and assistance became cool, Tewodros took his own measures which precipitated a major crisis with a European power.

Notwithstanding the emperor's desire to unify, reform and modernize Ethiopia, conditions such as existed at that time were far from being mature for his projects to be feasible. In other words, there was a major discrepancy between what he strived to fulfil and what could have been made practical in the political and ideological setting of the period. Therefore, Tewodros did not succeed with most, or almost all, of his plans.

By and large, two main factors could be taken to account for his failure. The first was the conflict in which he found himself

with the church and his subsequent inability to keep the support of this vital institution. The second, and a very important factor for his failure not only as a reformer but even as an emperor of Ethiopia, was the opposition from the feudal lords of the various regions whose interests were to be tremendously damaged by his attempts at centralization

Much as he would have liked to rule a peaceful and prosperous country in which peasants and traders were to live and work unmolested, and much as he would have liked to replace the pillaging and devastation of the country by a regular pay or allowance to the soldiery, Tewodros had to allow his troops to pillage, devastate and destroy if only because of the multiplicity of campaigns his troops forced to make without interruption. Thus, in so far as the peasantry was concerned, conditions did not change much under Tewodros. In some places they rather turned for the worse and alienated the masses from Tewodros so much so that he came to be regarded as a bloody tyrant.

- Introduction to the history of Ethiopia

Department of History, Addis Ababa University,
1983, pp 94-97 (mimeo.)

- Discuss the role of the Church in Ethiopian history _____
Was it a unifying or a divisive institution?
- Ethiopia's relation with the outside world.
(and matters of interest)

Activity 29: Jokes

- Do you know any jokes?
- Find some jokes and tell your group members some of the jokes you may find.
- The following may entertain you.

A young-man walked into a pet shop and asked if he could buy 387 beetles, 17 rats and 6 mice. "I'm sorry, sir, we can only supply the mice. But what did you want the other creatures for?" asked the pet shop owner.

.../

"I was given notice to quit my flat this morning," replied the young man, "and my landlord says I must leave the place exactly as I found it."

Ethiopian Herald, 26-02-84.

Activity 30: Metamorphoses of Capital

- What is the circuit of money-capital?
- What is the relationship between the two? The following expresses the first stage of the circuit of money-capital. The capitalist appears as a buyer on the commodity and the labour-market; his money is transformed into commodities, or it goes through the circulation act M-C.

M-C represents the conversion of a sum of money into a sum of commodities, the purchaser transforms his money into commodities, the sellers transform their commodities into money. What renders this act of the general circulation of commodities simultaneously a functionally definite section in independent circuit of some individual capital is primarily not the form of the act but its material content, the specific use-character of the commodities which change places with the money. These commodities are on the one hand means of production, on the other labour-power, material and personal factors in the production of commodities whose specific nature must of course correspond to the special kind of articles to be manufactured. If we call labour-power L, and the means of production MP, then the sum of commodities to be bought, C, is equal to $L + MP$, or more briefly $C \leftarrow \begin{matrix} L \\ MP \end{matrix}$. M-C, considered as to its substance, is therefore represented by $M-C \leftarrow \begin{matrix} L \\ MP \end{matrix}$ that is to say M-C is composed of M-L and M-MP. The sum of money M is separated into two parts, one of which buys labour-power, the other means of production. These two series of purchases belong to entirely different markets, the one to the commodity-market proper, the other to the labour-market.

Aside from this qualitative division of the sum of commodities into which M is transformed, the formula $M-C \leftarrow \begin{matrix} L \\ MP \end{matrix}$ also represents a most characteristic quantitative relation.

- Karl Marx, Capital Vol 2
 Moscow: Progress Publishers, 1974,
 p. 26.

Activity 31: Value, price and profit

- Discuss on the distinction
- Assign members to prepare answers to your questions

Activity 32: Variables and Constants

- What are these? What is their distinction
- Assign members to prepare answers to your questions and present them to the group.

For moderately skewed distributions we have the empirical formulae:

$$\text{Mean Deviation} = 4/5 \text{ (Standard Deviation)}$$

$$\text{Semi-interquartile Range} = 2/3 \text{ (Standard Deviation)}$$

These are consequences of the fact that for the normal distribution we find that the mean deviation and semi-interquartile range are equal respectively to 0.7979 and 0.67405 times the standard deviation . . .

The actual variation or dispersion as determined from the standard deviation or other measure of dispersion is called the absolute dispersion. However, a variation or dispersion of 1 metre in measuring a distance of 1000 metres is quite different in effect from the same variation of 1 metre in a distance of 20 metres. A measure of this effect is supplied by the relative dispersion defined by

$$\text{Relative Dispersion} = \frac{\text{Absolute Dispersion}}{\text{Average}}$$

If the absolute dispersion is the standard deviation s and the average is the mean \bar{X} , the relative dispersion is called the coefficient of variation of dispersion given by

$$\text{Coefficient of Variation} = V = \frac{s}{\bar{X}}$$

and is generally expressed as a percentage.

Note that the coefficient of variation is independent of units used. For this reason it is useful in comparing distributions where units may be different. A disadvantage of the coefficient of variation is that it fails to be useful when \bar{X} is close to zero.

PROBLEM: Define a measure of relative dispersion which could be used for a set of data for which the quartiles were known.

- Murray R. Spiegel. Theory and Problems of Statistics in SI Units. pp. 72-73.

Activity 33: Central Tendency and Dispersion (continued . . .)

- Pose certain questions and assign members to present an explanation, with proper examples and exercises, on each issue.

Activity 34: Statements in Newspapers

- Assign members to answer your questions regarding the production and distribution of newspapers
- How many types of newspapers the Kennedy Library receives
- their frequency and content.

Activity 35: Statements in Newspapers

- discuss in general about the contents of newspapers (selected newspapers)
- Air your views regarding the following article

Anything in a newspaper is libellous if it is false and if it damages a person's reputation or has an adverse effect on his means of earning a living. The same applies to business and to institutions. An item is libellous if ~~it is~~ (1) communicated to others, (2) defamatory, (3) false or (4) specific.

Judge Leon R. Yankwich in It's Libel or Contempt if You Print It insists that libel is one of the hardest of all torts, or civil wrongs, to defend. The cards are stacked in favour of the plaintiff. In libel,

malice is assumed. It does not have to be proved by the plaintiff except where public officials or public figures are involved. Reputation of the plaintiff is assumed, and therefore damages are assumed as a result of an assault on the plaintiff's reputation. Nor do damages have to be specified. They can be general as well as special and punitive, depending on the instructions of the judge and the whims of the jurors.

A story is defamatory if it accuses a living person of a crime or immorality or imputes a crime or immorality to him; if it states or insinuates that a person is insane or has a loathesome or contagious disease if it tends in any way to subject the victim to public hatred, contempt or ridicule or causes others to shun him or refuse to do business with him; if it asserts a want of capacity to conduct one's business, occupation or profession.

Wrong assumptions can make a statement defamatory. In Judge Yankwich's view, a man who sets fire to a dwelling is not necessarily an arsonist. A man who kills another is not necessarily a murderer.

Some items in a newspaper are false but not necessarily defamatory. A false report that a man has died usually is not libellous. But if the person is a professional man and he can prove that because of the false statements his business has suffered to the extent of a provable amount, he may be able to collect that amount. To say of a mother that she has given birth to a daughter is not necessarily libellous. If she has been married only two months, she has a cause for legal action . . .

A statement may cause a reader pain and anguish, but more vituperation does not make a libel; it must be substantial. It is not enough that the statement may disturb him personally. It must damage him in the estimation of his community or of those with whom he does business

If (a man) has been libelled, he may ask the publication to print a correction. This could satisfy him because it tends to set the record straight. A correction provides evidence of lack of malice.

Some newspapers may offer to run a correction, possibly offer a nominal payment, then get a release from further liability. This procedure saves the costs and hazards of a trial.

Suppose the plaintiff insists on taking the rascal editor into court. The plaintiff must hire a lawyer and pay the filing fee. He should be advised of the defences available to the newspaper - truth, privilege, fair comment, right of reply. Because libel concerns reputation the plaintiff's character, good name and esteem can be put at issue. If he has skeleton in the closet, he may hesitate to have his past revealed in court. If he is a public figure, he will have the burden of proving the material was published maliciously.

- Freshman Intensive Remote English. English Department, Addis Ababa University, 1977, pp. 137-139.

Activity 36: Orders, thanks, seeking help, etc.

- discuss - how to give orders for food in a big hotel, etc.
- how do you ask for help in cases of need?
- how do you thank people for doing you something good?
- In general , assign members to prepare and present to the group on the ways of asking for help, thanking people, giving commands and orders and invitations, greeting people, etc.
- discuss - matters of interest

APPENDIX IV: Teaching materials on the Concious Rule-learning Approach.

Topic 1. The uses of would, could and should (source: "Freshman English: FLEn 101-B" Institute of Language Studies, Addis Ababa University, 1980)

"Would" is the past form of "will", but it can be used to convey many other meanings.

a) It can be used in the sense of "used to"

Example: I would write to him everyweek.

The students would be given tests regularly.

b) It can occur in an "if" clause as a verb asking about willingness.

Examples: If you would only listen to me, I could help you.

If you would let me, I could telephone your mother.

c) We also use it in making requests or suggestions.

Examples: Would you mind giving me his address?
Would you give me another one please?
Would you like to sit down for a minute?
Would you mind opening the door?

d) It can also be used to indicate refusal.

Examples: He just wouldn't listen to anyone.
She wouldn't let me have a look at the book.
The typewriter wouldn't work this morning.

e) It can also indicate likelihood.

Example: Taddesse would have been about twenty when he joined the university.

f) It can be used with 'rather' to show preference.

Examples: I would rather stay here than go out in this rain.
She would rather learn German than English.

EXERCISE 1. Repeat the following sentences orally after your teacher and complete the rest by yourselves.

1. She would play with me every evening.

2. My teacher would give me appropriate advice every weekend.
3. People would discuss Marxism-Leninism every Monday.
4. I would _____ my friends among the wise, and my wife among the virtuous. choose/chose.
5. I'd _____ for hours every morning before breakfast when I was young. walk/ walked
6. My grandmother would _____ stories every evening before we went to bed. tell/told.
7. She would _____ a letter a week when she was in England. write/wrote
8. The people would _____ a huge sum of money to the landlords every month. pay/paid
9. They would _____ some cups of coffee after they finished dinner. drink/drank
10. It'd _____ every other day last year. rain/rained
11. My youngest sister would _____ to music before she went to sleep regularly. listen/ listened
12. I'd _____ to the pyramids on a camel every weekend during my stay in Cairo. ride/rode
13. My sister would _____ to church on Sundays before she got married. go/went
14. The teachers would _____ meetings on Friday afternoons to discuss school affairs. hold/held
15. Priests would _____ in the palace whenever there was a national holiday before the revolution. congregate/congregated

EXERCISE 2. Repeat the sentences orally after your teacher following the model sentences provided. Complete the exercise.

1. If she would allow him, he could help her.,
2. If the students would give him the chance, he could explain.
3. She could do it if her mother would allow her.
4. If the victim would _____ to the police, the rascals could be arrested. report/reported
5. The director could give his justifications if the teachers would only _____ to him. listen/listened
6. He could be well if his parents would only _____ him marry her. let/letted

7. If they would only _____ their mouths shut, everything could be well. keep/kept
8. If the teacher would only _____ ten minutes of break, the lesson could be interesting. spare/spared
9. If he would _____ me his problem, I could help him. tell/told
10. She could entertain him if he would only _____ nice to her. be/was
11. They could arrive on time if he would _____ willing to call them. be/is
12. If she would _____ me, I could write a letter to her father. let/letted
13. If they would only _____ him, he could be of great help. telephone/telephone
14. The children could be cooperative if their teachers would only _____ them the chance. give/gave
15. If he would only _____ to her, she could tell him the whole secrete. listen/listened

EXERCISE 3. Repeat the questions following the model provided. Complete the exercise.

1. Would you mind opening the door?
2. Would you like to go with me?
3. Would you take this to the kitchen?
4. Would you _____ me some money for the taxi? give/giving
5. Would you mind _____ my mother that I won't come home tonight? tell/ telling
6. Would you _____ me your car, please? lend/lending
7. Would you _____ me a ride to Arat Kilo, please? give/giving
8. Would you _____ tea to coffee? prefer/preferring
9. Would you mind _____ for another five minutes? wait/waiting
10. Would you mind _____ your name here? write/writing
11. Would you _____ to come another time? like/liking
12. Would you mind _____ your hands off my shoulders? take/taking

13. Would you _____ me her address, please?
give/giving
14. Would you mind _____ this for me?
post/posting
15. Would you _____ her the way to my office, please?
show/showing

EXERCISE 4. Make a polite or unemphatic statement with would and the verb in parentheses in each of the following sentences. Study the examples carefully. (source: Grant Taylor (ed.) Mastering American English. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1956, page 174)

1. I (like) to eat dinner earlier than usual tonight.
I would like to eat dinner earlier than usual tonight.
2. I (appreciate) receiving a prompt reply to my letter
I would appreciate receiving a prompt reply to my letter.
3. I know I (enjoy) visiting Rio de Janeiro and Sao Paulo.
4. I (suggest) that you speak to Dean Brown as soon as possible.
5. I think that I (prefer) to stay at home and read a book tonight.
6. I (hesitate) to say anything to the director about that matter.
7. I am sure Alice (like) to go shopping with us tomorrow.
8. I (advise) you to investigate carefully before doing anything.
9. I (suggest, definitely) trying a different method next time.
10. I (recommend) that you ask Mr. Anderson for his advice.
11. I (prefer) seeing a movie to watching television tonight.
12. I (appreciate) hearing from you regarding this problem.
13. I (enjoy, really) having a chance to meet all of your friends.

EXERCISE 5. Practice making statements, questions, and negatives which indicate "preference" with would rather and the verb in parentheses in each sentence. In this usage, would is often contracted (I'd rather go, he'd rather work). Study the example sentences carefully. Notice the negative forms.

1. I (walk) downtown this afternoon.
I would (I'd) rather walk downtown this afternoon.

Would you rather walk downtown this afternoon?

Wouldn't you rather walk downtown this afternoon?

I would (I'd) rather not walk downtown this afternoon.

2. I (stay) at home over the Christmas holiday.
3. I (live) in New York than in Washington, D.C.
4. I (sit) in the first row of seats than in this one.
5. I (tell) Mr. Anderson about the problem myself.
6. I (eat) my lunch now than later in the day.
7. I (meet) you in the lobby of the building than on the corner.
8. I (work) for a very large company than for a small one.
9. I (stay) at home tonight and write my English lesson.
10. I (watch) a television program than to to the movies.

EXERCISE 6. Make statements to indicate refusal following the model provided. Do the exercise orally and then write down your answers.

1. You ought to have helped her.
I tried my best but she just wouldn't listen to me.
2. This ought to have been typed this morning.
3. The carburettor is not working well.
4. She went to the wrong room this morning.
5. My friend failed in all his exams.
6. The room looked dirty.
7. He had to take the train at that very late hour.
8. My mother had to pay a lot of money for that unattractive dress
9. The people resorted to trial and error method.
10. My sister had to divorce that an unmitigated scoundrel.
11. You came home very late yesterday.
12. He was punished last week.
13. The students boycotted classes.
14. Thieves attacked him on the way.
15. His report was not satisfactory.
16. Alemu couldn't carry it alone.
17. The sheep were attacked by a pack of foxes.
18. It took him almost the whole day to locate the house.

19. He was sick the whole night.
20. She did the exercise twice.

EXERCISE 7. Answer the following questions to indicate likelihood. Follow the model given. First do them orally and write the correct answers in your exercise books.

1. How old was your brother when he went to New York?
Well, he'd have been about eighteen when he went to New York.
2. Where was the woman when thieves broke into her house?
3. How old was Neil Armstrong when he went to the moon?
4. How old was your sister when she married that professor?
5. Where was the maid-servant when the child cried for help?
6. Where was your father when the police arrived there?
7. Who took the books?
8. How old was Faraday when he invented electricity?
9. How old was Watt when he designed the steam engine?
10. How old was your mother when she had her first baby?
11. How old was he when he graduated with a first degree?

EXERCISE 8. Complete the following sentences using 'would' and any other suitable verbs or words. Use the model given.

1. When I was a young boy, . . .
When I was a young boy, I'd go to church with my mother on Sundays.
2. When we were children, . . .
3. I am going to Arat Kilo, . . . ?
4. How old do you think . . . ?
5. If . . ., I'll go to my country.
6. He is a very stubborn fellow; he . . . anything.
7. We thought . . ., but you didn't.
8. Why . . . such things? I don't understand.
9. Almaz . . . to anybody.
10. Did they tell you . . .?
11. . . . lending that book for a couple of days?

- 12 . . . like to come with us?
13. My brother . . . when he joined the company.
14. When I was at home . . .
15. . . . ask for some help.
16. . . . the doctor could help you.
17. We tried hard but . . .
18. . . . I could telephone the police.
19. . . . opening the door?
20. She attended Russian classes and was very much irregular in English classes. She said . . .
21. I came without doing the home assignment. My classmate, Alemu, _____.
22. When he went to Moscow, Bekelle _____
_____.
23. We had a lot of work to do. We needed some help and we were pleased to hear her saying she _____
_____.
24. He was stuck but he _____
_____.
25. The principal said he could help if _____
26. When I was in London, sometimes I _____
_____.
27. I don't like this _____?

EXERCISE 9. Do the following orally following the model provided.

1. I would rather _____
I would rather take a taxi than a bus.
2. My friend wouldn't _____
3. The students would _____
4. Would she mind _____
5. I wouldn't mind _____
6. If you would let me talk _____
7. When I was in my hometown,

8. Would our teacher _____

9. During the times of famine and hunger, _____
10. They would have been drunk _____
11. I would go to church every Sunday morning _____
12. The women wouldn't listen _____

13. My youngest daughter wouldn't mind _____

14. If they would let her buy the car, _____

15. The department head said that he would rather _____

16. During the Second World War, people _____

EXERCISE 10. Follow the model given to complete the following.

1. Students 1: What would you do if you were a teacher?
Student 2: Well, I'd correct my students' papers on time.
2. Student 1: I wouldn't say this in front of her. Would you?
Student 2: No, I wouldn't.
3. Student 1: Would you mind _____
Student 2: _____
4. Student 1: He would do it _____
Student 2: _____
5. Would you prefer _____
6. They would exercise _____
7. My friend would be ashamed _____
8. They would respect the curfew _____
9. She would tell _____
10. Our teacher wouldn't mind _____
11. My younger brother wouldn't have telephoned _____
12. I wouldn't bear the sight of such _____

13. I wouldn't marry _____
14. What would you do if you were a physician? _____
15. What would you do it _____

EXERCISE 11. Write ten sentences using the form would + infinitive (without to) and would + have + V + ed (past participle form of the verb). These sentences must demonstrate the different uses of would.

EXERCISE 12. Change these sentences as in the example given (S. Pit Corder, An Intermediate English Practice Book. London: Longmans, 1966)

1. I would like you to do as I tell you.
I wish you would do as I tell you.
2. John would like his office staff to work harder.
3. I would like you to answer my question properly.
4. The police would like drivers to obey the traffic lights.
5. The headmistress would like the girls to do their homework more carefully.
6. I would like everybody to be more polite.
7. He hopes the dogs will stop barking at night.
8. Mrs. Jones hopes her maid will do as she is told.
9. I would prefer you not to complain all the time.
10. Mary would like John to smoke less.
11. The children would like their teacher to be less strict.
12. I hope you will try a little harder next time.
13. The gardener would like the dogs to keep off the flower beds.
14. The people would like the government to do something about it.
15. The doctor would like his patients to follow his instructions exactly.
16. Wouldn't you like the others to walk quicker?
17. She would like you to accompany her.
18. I would like you not to give any explanation.
19. Don't you like they explain things a bit better?
20. The police would like the Kebele people to cooperate in order to investigate the crime.
21. The principal would like the students not to be late for classes.

'Could' expresses the idea of ability.

- a) It refers to past ability that no longer exists.
Example: He could run very fast when he was a student.
- b) Sometimes it refers to future.
Example: I could call you sometime tomorrow.
- c) Could is also used in polite expressions.
Examples: 1) Could I borrow your pen for a moment, please?
2) That is a nice book, Could I have a book at it?
- d) We use 'couldn't' with have and the past participle form of a verb to indicate that one situation is not likely because of another situation.

Examples: 1) He couldn't have stolen your money. He was in the cinema all afternoon.
2) They couldn't have gone home. I saw them here a few minutes ago.

EXERCISE 13. Do the following exercise orally

He could ran very fast when he was young

My brother

The teacher

My father

The man

The man could ran very fast when he was young

could speak

eat

write

walk

move

talk

The woman could talk very fast when she was young

My mother

My sister

Our neighbour

My aunt

My niece

The nun

EXERCISE 14. Use can in place of be able in the following sentences. Study the examples. (Exercise 14 and 15 are taken from Grant Taylor. Mastering American English. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1956 p. 101)

1. Mr. Burke ~~will~~ be able to go. Mr. Burke can go.
2. Carol wasn't able to find it. Carol couldn't find it.
3. Fred will be able to return the money before Thursday.
4. Are you able to understand everything the teacher says?
5. Miss Peters wasn't able to find her gloves in the drawer.
6. We won't be able to announce the change until next week.
7. Weren't your friends from Boston able to go to the party?
8. I was able to finish only half of the lesson last night.
9. Which sections weren't you able to do by yourself?
10. Are you able to get those two stations on your radio?
11. Wasn't Mr. Kovacs able to follow the instructions in the book?
12. I'll be able to tell you much more about our plans next week
13. Not many of these students are able to pronounce that sound.
14. Who will be able to deliver the message to Mr. John.
15. Won't you be able to attend the meeting tomorrow afternoon?

EXERCISE 15: Use be able in place of can in the following sentences. Study the examples.

1. They can understand me. They are able to understand me.
2. We couldn't hear everything. We weren't able to hear everything.
3. You can get that information from Miss Stewart tomorrow.
4. Mr. Harris can speak three or four foreign languages.
5. I could answer all of the questions in the lesson except one.
6. Can you finish all of the work for us by next Thursday.
7. No one could explain the exact meaning of the word to me.

8. Unfortunately, I can't attend the meeting with you tomorrow.
9. I couldn't find Dr. Hanson's name or address in the directory.
10. Can't you help your friend with the difficult parts of the work?
11. We can certainly pay back the money before that time.
12. Couldn't the students follow the teacher's instructions?
13. Why can't Mr. Johnson do that work sometime next week?
14. Could your friends see most of the parade from their window?
15. Who can translate these two sentences into English for me?

EXERCISE 16: Put these sentences into the past, using was able when the adverb supplied shows that the meaning is ability and could when the meaning is permission:
(Taken from S. Pit Corder. An Intermediate English Practice Book. London: Longmans, 1966, page 7-8)

1. John can visit his club. (whenever Mary let him)
2. She says I can go. (if my father agreed)
3. Mary can cook well. (when she took the trouble)
4. We can see the neighbour's house. (before the trees grew so big)
5. He can play football (before he broke his leg)
6. His son can do arithmetic. (when he was only four)
7. He can borrow the money. (provided that he promised to repay)
8. She says they can come. (every Saturday morning)
9. He agrees that they can drive the car. (if they were seventeen)
10. I'm sure they can't understand. (because it was too difficult)
11. We can play in the garden. (mother said)
12. They can't talk to each other. (because her father had forbidden it)
13. They can't talk to each other. (because the telephone was out of order)
14. They can buy a new car. (now that they were rich)
15. My father says we can buy some sweets (because we have been good)

EXERCISE 17: ' Couldn't ' and ' managed to '
(Taken from S. Pit Corder. An Intermediate English Practice Book. London: Longmans, 1966, pp. 8-9)

Look at these sentences:

The thieves couldn't get into the house last night.

The thieves managed to get into the house last night in spite of the locked doors.

The thieves succeeded in getting into the house last night.

We do not use could with the meaning of achievement of something in the face of difficulty. Could only means possessed the ability, but it does not mean achieved something by means of the ability.

1. She couldn't read ' Othello' in class last night.(in spite of being a foreigner)
2. They couldn't reach the shore when the boat overturned.(although the water was cold)
3. She couldn't finish her book last night. (although it was very long)
4. I couldn't find the money I had lost. (although it was quite dark)
5. He couldn't teach his classes last week. (in spite of a bad cold)
6. He couldn't escape. (although his guards were vigilant)
7. He couldn't climb to the top of the mountain. (in spite of the snow)
8. He couldn't pay all his bills last week. (although he had very little money)
9. The mechanic couldn't repair our car. (although it was badly damaged)
10. She couldn't play in the concert last night. (although she hurt her hand)
11. We couldn't reach the village that night. (although it was a very long way)
12. They couldn't go to sleep. (in spite of the noise)
13. She couldn't go out shopping alone when she arrived. (although she knew no English)
14. The student couldn't pass his examinations last year. (although they were very hard)
15. She couldn't reach the telephone. (in spite of her terrible wound)
16. He couldn't cut the grass that afternoon. (in spite of the thunderstorm)
17. She couldn't sew all his buttons on. (in spite of a broken needle)
18. I couldn't persuade him. (although he is very stubborn)
19. I couldn't put it back on the shelf. (in spite of its enormous weight)
20. He couldn't read her letter. (although her writing is practically illegible)

EXERCISE 18: Repeat the first ten sentences in the above exercise using succeeded in or was able in the place of managed to. If you use was able, you should notice that there is then no idea of difficulty in the achievement.

' He was able to mend my car last night' means simply that, having the ability, he did so.

'He managed to mend my car last night' means that it was very difficult but that in spite of the difficulties he did so.

EXERCISE 19: Change the following sentences into the can be + adjective construction as in the model, omitting the underlined adverbs.

1. A visit to a museum is sometimes interesting.
A visit to a museum can be interesting.
2. Azeb is sometimes very annoying, but generally she is a good girl.
3. This drug is occasionally useful in the treatment of pneumonia.
4. It is sometimes quite wet here in the month of August.
5. The advice of one's friends is often quite useful.
6. In certain circumstances it is very dangerous to touch this animal.
- 7.. Ato Abebe is sometimes very angry with his children.
8. My grandmother was sometimes very strict with us when we were young.
9. It is often quite hot in this room when the sun shines.
10. He told me that the teacher was sometimes very rude. I never found her so.
11. It is occasionally very boring to listen to his lectures.
12. All of us are forgetful at times.
13. I warn you, that bull is very nasty if provoked.
14. Knowing a foreign language is frequently of great value.
15. Smoking too much is often bad for your health.

EXERCISE 20: Use the model given to construct 'polite expressions'.

1. I'm late for work. Could you give me a ride, please?
2. I'm very much overworked.
3. I'm getting all my subjects difficult.
4. I'm in a problem.
5. Oh! my car is out of order.
6. The furniture is in disorder and the room is full of litter.
7. Where's the menu?
8. I can't open the door.
9. Where is the bathroom?
10. She wants to write him a letter.
11. I'd like to talk to the head of the department.
12. Oh! it is very attractive.
13. I am sometimes forgetful.
14. Where is the Registrar's Office?
15. I'd like to join the students' association.
16. My bicycle tyres are flat.

EXERCISE 21: Read the sentences which describe a situation and form appropriate responses with could + have + been. (Adapted from Robert Lado and Charles Fries, English Sentence Patterns. An Arbor: The University of Michigan, 1966, ppw 215 - 222)

1. It's possible to drive from Debre Zeit to Nazreth in one hour.
He could have been in Nazreth at 9:00.
2. The laboratory was open last night, but Amin didn't practice there.
3. Rahel had time to finish her work, but she didn't finish it.
4. I had an acceptance from the Medical School at Gondar, but I didn't go there.
5. I didn't write any letters yesterday. Could you have written some?
6. I expected him last Tuesday, but he didn't come.
7. He didn't finish his work last week.
8. Aregawi didn't rest last week.

9. I didn't write any letters last week.
10. He didn't do any work yesterday.
11. I didn't ask him about his research when I saw him.

EXERCISE 22: Say the following: (a) in the future tense; (b) in the past tense, using the given time-expressions: (W. Stannard Allen. Living English Structure. London: Longmans, 1969, pp.47-48)

1. He can always have mine.
(a) He can always have mine tomorrow.
(b) He could have mine whenever he wanted it.
2. We can climb to the top of this mountain:
(a) tomorrow; (b) yesterday
3. I can join the broken ends; (a) when I get some glue (b) with glue yesterday
4. I can cover ~~at~~ at least half of it: (a) by the time you get back; (b) before he got back
5. He can eat anything: (a) when the doctor gives him permission; (b) before he was ill
6. Mother says I can go out with you: (a) tonight; (b) Mother said . . . tonight.
7. She can write with her left hand: (a) if she practises for an hour; (b) when she had to
8. You can do what you like: (a) this afternoon: (b) always
9. I can reach London: (a) by the week-end; (b) yesterday
10. My sister can make a very nice pudding; (a) for dinner, tomorrow; (b) when she had her own kitchen
11. My wife can leave hospital: (a) in a week's time; (b) a few days ago
12. I can help you with your homework: (a) after tea; (b) when you were in difficulties yesterday
13. Our army can win a battle: (a) when it has enough ammunition; (b) a few days ago
14. We can weed the garden: (a) on Friday; (b) when it stopped raining
15. You can have a look at the baby: (a) when it has been fed; (b) She said I . . .
16. We can watch the two-thirty train: (a) tomorrow afternoon (b) in spite of the fog
17. We can finish it: (a) by ten o'clock; (b) before it was wanted
18. Genetu can shoot well: (a) in a few weeks; (b) before his accident
19. They can put the fire out: (a) when another engine comes; (b) after two hours
20. She can pass her examination: (a) next June; (b) last June
21. You can pour out the tea: (a) when it is ready; (b) I thought they said I . . .
22. No one can undo that bolt: (a) until it is oiled; (b) until it was oiled
23. I can pick a lot of fruit off that tree: (a) next week; (b) last year

N.B. Go through the exercise again and try with 'managed to'

EXERCISE 23: Complete the following sentences using could. (Freshman English 101-B. A.A.U., 1980)

1. I want to call back.
I want to call back; could you give me your telephone number?
2. If he tried, . . .

3. I don't have any time now, but you . . .
4. He . . . not only . . . but also
5. I don't know where Aster is;
6. He didn't have any money. He came to me and asked . . .
7. I have left my pen at home; . . .
8. . . . whenever he wanted it.
9. Yes, you are right. I . . . have a look at it.
10. The teacher told me that I . . . submit my assignment next week.
11. I wish . . .

NOTE: Should

(a) Should is often used instead of 'ought to'. In this case, the following infinitive is not preceded by 'to'.

Examples: He ought to report the incident.
He should report the incident.

(b) Should indicates duty that is not necessarily fulfilled. The use of the perfect infinitive often suggests that this duty has not been fulfilled.

Example: You should have sent the letter last week.

(c) Should may convey the idea, not of duty, but of probability.

Examples: The house should be ready in September.
He should be here anytime next week.

EXERCISE; Construct sentences with the given items.

He ought to report the incident.

She

The man

The young lady

The young lady ought to report the incident
should

The young lady should report the incident.
go to the clinic.
pay them a visit.
tell us the news.
write them a report.
call him.

The young lady should call him.
ought to
ought not to
should not

(Repeat the drill as many times as necessary)

EXERCISE: 25: Use should in place of ought to in the following sentences.

1. She ought to go. She should go.
2. The train ought to be leaving soon.
3. You ought to chew your food before you swallow it.

4. People ought to shelter under trees in thunderstorms.
5. Ought you to have locked the door before you left the office?
6. They ought to be having beautiful weather in Dire Dawa.
7. The students ought to come on time.
8. Alemush ought to report on the issue on time.
9. My maid-servant ought to go on shopping.
10. He ought to pay us a visit.
11. Amin ought to pass Freshman English.

EXERCISE 26: Follow the model provided to compose two sentences containing 'should' which might be used by someone in answer to each of the given statements. Note that one sentence should blame the speaker in some way; the other suggest what should be done. (Freshman English 101-B. A.A.U., 1980)

1. I failed the examination.
Well, you shouldn't have neglected your studies. Now you should work hard.
2. I have caught a bad cold.
3. I have lost my book.
4. I am very hungry.
5. I have offended the man.
6. I have hurt her feelings.
7. I have missed my first-period class.
8. I have a headache.
9. I am tired out.
10. I am thirsty.
11. I missed the one -O'clock bus.
12. I wrote the wrong address on the envelop.

EXERCISE 27: Use both should and ought to with the verb in parentheses to express 'advisability' or 'obligation' in the present or future. Follow the given model. (Exercises 27; 28, 29 and 30 are adapted from Grant Taylor. Mastering American English: pp. 102-103)

1. We (invite) the Browns to the party.
(a) We should invite the Browns to the party.
(b) We ought to invite the Browns to the party.
2. You (return) the money to Mr. Lucas as soon as possible.
3. Your friends (leave) now. It's getting quite late.
4. Everyone (help) his friends and neighbors whenever possible.
5. Robert (speak) to Mr. Kramer about that matter soon.
6. Mr. Burke (try) to find a better job with another company.
7. Students (always, spend) time on their lessons at home.
8. You (be) a little more careful about that in the future.
9. Dr. Hanson (take) a taxi home. It's a very long walk.
10. We (urge) all of our friends to attend that meeting.
11. Drivers (always, be) courteous to others on the highways.
12. Harold (stay) at home tonight and (study) his English lesson.
13. You (go) to parties more often and (make) new friends.
14. They(write) that letter to James and (mail) it right away.

EXERCISE 28: Change the verb in each sentence to the past tense form. After each sentence, add another sentence to show that the action did not occur. Study the examples.

1. Mr. Kennedy should go to the meeting.
Mr. Kennedy should have gone to the meeting.
However, he didn't go to the meeting.
2. You ought to speak to the department chairman.
You ought to have spoken to the department chairman. However,
you didn't speak to the department chairman.
3. You should tell your boss the truth about the accident.
4. Miss Irwin ought to send the company a check immediately.
5. I should study very hard for the next examination.
6. We ought to eat our dinner at a convenient time.
7. Harold should take some courses in history.
8. You ought to explain all of the details to me.
9. Mr. Marshall should answer that telegram soon.
10. Mrs. Wilson ought to stay in bed and rest.
11. Everyone ought to do his share of the work.
12. You ought to call her and tell her the news.

EXERCISE 29: Use the verb in parentheses in negative sentences with both should and ought to. Use the correct tense. Study the first two examples carefully.

1. You (help) Fred tomorrow.
(a) You should not help Fred tomorrow.
(b) You ought not to help Fred tomorrow.
2. Bill (go) home last week.
(a) Bill should not have gone home last week.
(b) Bill ought not to have gone home last week.
3. Frank (tell) anyone about his plans until next summer.
4. Mr. Foster (write) to them about that matter last week.
5. You (go) to bed so late every night of the week.
6. Mr. Black (speak) so frankly in front of his boss yesterday.
7. Mr. Burke (give) that fellow any more money last week.
8. We (delay) any longer than next Wednesday in answering.
9. You (drink) so many cups of coffee last night.
10. They (nominate) Mr. Kennedy at the meeting tomorrow.
11. The janitor (lock) the two front doors yesterday morning.
12. You (force) Tom and Fred to come with us tomorrow night.
13. Smith and Green (object) to Brown's suggestion yesterday.

EXERCISE 30: Use the verb in parentheses in question with both should and ought. Use the correct tense. Study the two examples carefully.

1. We (tell) everyone tomorrow.
(a) Should we tell everyone tomorrow?
(b) Ought we to tell everyone tomorrow?
2. We (speak) to Bill yesterday.
(a) Should we have spoken to Bill yesterday?
(b) Ought we to have spoken to Bill yesterday?
3. You (tell) your boss about that problem next Monday.
4. We (give) the message to someone else when we called.
5. I (ask) Mr. Kennedy for his advice about that tomorrow night.
6. Roger (send) them a telegram before he leaves tonight.
7. Mr. Johnson (submit) his application before this week.
8. The students (stay) there and (wait) for Mr. Fox yesterday.
9. We (invite) Mr. and Mrs. Bailey to the party next week.
10. My friend (announce) the news to them sooner than he did.

11. I (wait) until next week and (make) a decision then.
12. Fred (persuade) Mr. Lucas to ride with us tomorrow.
13. Mr. Johnson (take) the papers and (give) them to you yesterday.

Topic 2: Conditionals

Study the following tables. (Taken from S. Pit Corder. An Intermediate English Practice Book. pp. 91-101)

Conditional sentences are conveniently classified into three groups:

GROUP I Cause and Effect

- a)
- | | | |
|----|-----------------|----------------|
| If | Present | Present |
| If | one buys a car, | it costs money |
- b)
- | | | |
|----|-------------------|-----------------------------|
| If | Present | Future or Imperative |
| If | you buy that car, | it will cost you \$ 1, 000. |
| If | you buy that car, | drive carefully. |
- c)
- | | | |
|------------|-------|-----------------------------|
| Imperative | 'and' | Future |
| Buy a car | and | it will cost you a fortune. |
- d)
- | | | |
|----|---------------------------------|----------------------|
| If | Should | Future or Imperative |
| If | you should decide to buy a car, | please tell me. |

GROUP II Hypothetical but possible

- a)
- | | | |
|----|-------------------------|----------------------------------|
| If | Past | Conditional |
| If | you bought a car today, | it would cost you a lot of money |
- b)
- | | | |
|----|------------------------|----------------------------------|
| If | 'Were to' | Conditional |
| If | you were to buy a car, | it would cost you a lot of money |

GROUP III Hypothetical and Impossible

- a)
- | | | |
|----|---------------------------------|---|
| If | Past Perfect | Perfect Conditional |
| If | you had bought a car a year ago | it would have cost you much less than now |

B)	Past Perfect Inverted	Perfect Conditional
	Had you bought that car,	you wouldn't have had all that trouble.

Note: the following exercises are adapted from Mastering American English, An Intermediate English Practice Book, Living English Structure, and Freshman English 101-B.

EXERCISE 31: Use only the simple tense of the verb in parentheses in each sentence to indicate a possible or anticipated future action. Follow the model sentence provided.

1. The teacher will explain that part to you if you (ask) him.
The teacher will explain that part to you if you ask him.
2. If Harry (invite) me, I will go to the party.
3. You will have enough time to eat lunch if you (get) here early.
4. If Tom (see) Miss Irwin, he'll give her your message.
5. We are going to leave tomorrow if the weather (be) good.
6. If Betty (like, not) this sweater, can she exchange it at the store?
7. Will you lend me the money if you (get) your check tomorrow?
8. If I (decide) to join the club, I will fill out this application blank.
9. We will get there before midnight if the train (arrive) on time.
10. If Mr. Burton (need) any assistance, I will tell you right away.
11. Father will surely get wet today if he (take) (not) his umbrella.
12. If you (be, not) more careful in the future, you'll have an accident.
13. The teacher will get angry at me if I (make) that mistake again.
14. If anyone (ask) for you, I will tell him to call back later today.
15. You will be given enough time if you (need).

EXERCISE 32: (same as above)

1. The instructor will help if you (ask) him on time.
2. If Almaz goes to the post office, she (meet) her friend.
3. I will explain to Aminu if he (want) to know about it.
4. If you see your instructor at the meeting, (tell) him that you cannot make it on Tuesday.
5. He is going to buy Robert's car if he (allow) him to.
6. If you have any trouble with that lesson, (contact) your advisor.
7. Demes and I will wait for you right here if you (come) on time.
8. If the weather is bad tomorrow, she (come) the day after.
9. What will you do if you (win) the lottery?
10. If I happen to come across your lost pen, I (let) you know.
11. Daniel will not understand you if you (explain, not) the issue in an explicit manner.
12. If you study these lessons carefully, you (know) the subject properly.
13. If you heat ice, it (melt).

EXERCISE 33: Complete the following conditional sentences of instruction using the model given.

1. If you find any mistakes on the paper, show them to the teacher.
2. If you get lost in this city, don't hesitate to ask a policeman for help.
3. If you _____, give him the money.
4. If anyone asks for me today, _____.

5. If Hirut _____, don't say anything to her about it.
6. If you have any trouble with the machine, _____.
7. If the postman _____, please call me right away.
8. If the students don't understand you, _____.
9. If anyone _____, ask him to leave a message.
10. If you see Ato Tesfaye today, _____.
11. If you _____, look up the words in your dictionary.
12. If the plumber comes this afternoon, _____.
13. If the dog _____, just talk to him calmly.
14. If you don't have enough time to finish, _____.

EXERCISE 34: Use only the simple present tense of the verbs in brackets. Follow the model provided.

1. If I (make) a mistake, the teacher (find, always) it.
If I make a mistake, the teacher will always find it.
2. My dog (bark, always) if he (hear) any strange sounds.
My dog always barks if he hears any strange sounds.
3. If a policeman (see) anything unusual, he (report) (usually) it.
4. Almaz (call, always) her father if anyone (ask) for information.
5. If I (know, not) the answer, I (admit, always) it right away.
6. A teacher (be, always) happy if his students (study) hard.
7. If the train (get) to my station late, I (get) to my office late.
8. Alemu (get, usually) angry if we (say) anything about his accent.
9. If the newspaper (predict) rain, he (carry, always) his umbrella.
10. The stockholders (get) dividends if the company (make) a profit.
11. If there (be) any doubt about a case, the jury (be, usually) lenient.
12. Mr. George (drive, seldom) to work if the weather (be) bad.
13. If we (understand, not) him, Mr. George (speak) more slowly.
14. Farmers (complain, always) if it (rain, not) enough in the summer.

EXERCISE 35: Use the simple past tense of the verb in brackets in each sentence to indicate (1) a future action which is unlikely or improbable or (2) an action which is unreal or contrary to the truth at the present time. For the past tense of be only were is used after if.

1. If I (have) the day off tomorrow, I would go to Sodore.
If I had the day off tomorrow, I would go to Sodore.
2. If I (have) a million dollars right now, I would retire.
If I had a million dollars right now, I would retire.
3. If I (be) the mayor of the city, I would change certain things.
If I were the mayor of the city, I would change certain things.
4. If your brother (work) harder, he could earn more money.

5. I would gladly tell you the answer if only I (know) it myself.
6. If my brother and I (have) enough money, we would buy a car.
7. If the weather (be) better right now, we could go for a walk.
8. That student would get much higher marks if he (study) harder.
9. If mother (ask) me, I would explain everything to her.
10. My younger brother would quit smoking if he (know) its health hazards.
11. If I (be) in your place, I would marry that lady.

EXERCISE 36: (same as exercise 35). Do it orally.

1. She would tell you the truth if you (ask) her.
2. If I (speak) English fluently, I would find studying my subjects easy.
3. I wouldn't do that if I (be) you.
4. Almost everyone would be frightened if the lions (escape) from the zoo.
5. The world would be a better place if there (be, not) exploiters.
6. If your sister were a little more careful, she (make, not) such grave mistakes.
7. We could play a game of cards if we (finish) doing our home work.
8. If the instructor had more free time, he (help) us learn the subject properly.
9. No one would be happy if many students (pass, not) the examination.
10. If I knew all of the details, I (help).
11. If I had the day off tomorrow, I (visit) Sodore.
12. He would give up teaching if they (tell) him to do so.
13. He would be a millionaire if he (join) that company.
14. I would speak to her if she (have) time.
15. If we had a different English teacher, we (improve) our reading skills.

EXERCISE 37: Supply the correct forms of the verbs in brackets.

1. If Berhanu (see) her, he (be) delighted.
2. If I (ask) you, would you help me?
3. The bridge would collapse if a heavy car (go) over it.
4. If she had more money, she (dress) more fashionably.
5. They (hear) better if you spoke louder.
6. (marry) you me if I asked you?
7. He would play more often if he (have) someone to accompany him.
8. The waiter would serve you quicker if you (speak) to him more politely.
9. The workers (produce) a higher output if their conditions were improved.
10. Do you think he (lend) me his clarinet if I (asked) him nicely?
11. If they really wanted to see the house, I (have to) get the permission of the owner.
12. If they really tried, they (can) easily win the prize.
13. He (propose) to her at once if she gave him any encouragement.
14. This soup would taste better if it (have) more salt in it.
15. If he (be) a gentleman, he (not say) things like that.
16. They would be happy if you (tell) them the news.

EXERCISE 38: Change the following sentences into the were to form.

1. If he listened more carefully, he would not make so many mistakes.
2. If that man took more exercise, he would not get so fat.
3. If I ever heard his voice again, it would bring back many happy memories.
4. If I ever heard the news, I would change my mind.
5. Do you think we should speak better if we studied phonetics?
6. It would be better and easier to read his writing if he wrote in ink.
7. If we climbed to the top of the mountain, should we get a good view?
8. He wouldn't put on so much weight if he drank less.
9. I should be ruined if I bought that picture!
10. If you ever met the queen, how would you address her?
11. If he presented himself before me, I should shon deal with him,
12. If he entered business, he might become a rich man.
13. I should go for a walk if it stopped raining.
14. If I became a great artist, you would probably be as surprised as I.
15. If the plane crashed, we should all be killed.
16. He could buy that new car if he borrowed money.
17. She could come with you if you told her your address.
18. They would have dinner with us if they were invited.
19. If she practised harder, she could score high grades.
20. If he caught cold, he should consult a physician.
21. If they were to arrive tomorrow, we should be quite unprepared.
22. If the lecturer spoke louder, all the audience could hear.

Note: The past tense is used for something unreal or wished- for now, and the past perfect when the supposition or wish was all in the past. Other expressions using the past tenses in this way are: I wish, as if, if only, would to God!, suppose!, it's (high) time, I'd rather.

Example: If only I knew the answer(now)!
If only I had known (yesterday)!

EXERCISE 39: Rewrite the following sentences by supplying the correct tense of the verbs in brackets:

1. I wish I (know) his name.
I wish I knew his name.
2. It's time we all (go) home. _____
3. I'd rather you (go) now. _____
4. It's about time you (get) the tea ready. _____
5. Don't you wish you (come) earlier? _____
6. Suppose I (get) there late! _____
7. He acts as if he (know) English perfectly. _____
8. Would to God you (be) a better husband to me! _____

9. If only he (eat, not) so much garlic!
10. If only he (eat, not) so much garlic last night!
11. I would have helped you if I (hear) about your trouble.
12. A person who (refuse) to eat would be dead in a month.
13. I'd rather you (pay) me now. Suppose He (ask) me for the money tomorrow!
14. If only he (tell) you the whole story!
15. It's high time you(have) a haircut!
16. I feel as if my head (be) on fire.
17. He said he wished he (see, never) me.
18. You look as if you (can) do with a drink.
19. I'd rather you (give) me a new one instead of having it repaired as you did.
20. My wife says she wishes I (be) a thousand miles away; indeed, I wish I (be).
21. If only I (know) earlier, I'd have sent you a telegram.
22. I felt as if I (be pulled) through a hedge backwards.
23. I wish I (break, not) it.
24. He came in, looking as if he (see) a ghost.
25. Isn't it about time you (set to) and (do) some work?

EXERCISE 40: Use the past perfect tense of the verb in brackets in each sentence to indicate an action which was unreal or contrary to the truth in the past. Note that the past perfect future form (would have spoken, could have spoken) is used in the "result" clause. Study the two example sentences carefully.

1. If Garoma (have) the money, he would have lent it to me.
If Garoma had had the money, he would have lent it to me.
2. I would have spoken to Frank if I (see) him yesterday.
I would have spoken to Frank if I had seen him yesterday.
3. If the weather (be) better, we would have left Friday morning.
4. Alice would have told you the truth if you (ask) her about it.
5. If you (study) a little harder, you would have passed the test.
6. I could have lent you some money if I (spend, not) everything.
7. If there (be) any complaints, we should have heard about them.
8. We would have gone with Amare last Friday if he (invite) us.

9. If you (ask, only) me, I could easily have given you the answer.
10. Demes would have taken more photographs if he (have) more films.
11. If Tom (be) here yesterday, he would have been able to advise us.
12. We would have bought that house if the price (be) a little lower.
13. If they (need) any help with the work, they would have called us.
14. If you (take) my advice, you wouldn't have failed.
15. I would have had less trouble if I (join, not) that institution.
16. If anyone (ask) me about it, I would have expressed my views.
17. Our dog, Mechal, would have barked if it (be) hungry.
18. If I (be) in your place, I would have married here.
19. Frezewd wouldn't have said anything if Hable (ask) her to borrow her that book.
20. If you (follow) your father's advice, you would have become a physician.
21. You wouldn't have lost your money if you (listen to) my advice.
22. If my brother (take) better care of the house, it would have sold for more.
23. We couldn't have gone on our trip if we (get, not) enough support.
24. If only you (leave) your house earlier, you could have rescued her.
25. It would have been much better if we (write) them a letter.
26. If my watch (be, not) five minutes slow, I could have arrived on time.
27. Things would have been different if the Yekatit Revolution (take) place.
28. If I (be born) a century ago, I wouldn't have studied this subject.
29. I wouldn't have done that if I (be) you.
30. People would have understood you better if you (speak) carefully.
31. If I (have) enough money, I would have bought that car.
32. Your suit would have looked better if you (take) it to that laundry.

Exercise 41: Rewrite the following sentences by supplying the correct form of the verb or verbs in brackets in each sentence.

1. If we (receive) the news sooner, we would have written to George.
2. I am sure they (give) Ellen the information if they had it.
3. If a policeman (see) an accident, he (take) the drivers' names.
4. We're going to buy the furniture if we (borrow) some money.
5. What would you do tomorrow if you (be) a millionaire?
6. If you (go) downtown, take these letters to the post office.
7. I don't think you (believe) me even if I told you the truth about it.
8. If Ashebit (be, not) so careless, he wouldn't have lost his good job.

9. Please (leave) a message if anyone (call) while I (be) away.
10. I (accept, certainly) Mr. George's offer if I were in your place.
11. The accident (happen, never) if the driver (see) the stop sign.
12. If a large number of guests (come), they'll use the other room.
13. I know Partha (tell) you if she (go) to the party last night.
14. If you (understand, not) the instructions, read them again.
15. I wouldn't accept that job even if the manager (offer) it to me.
16. Can I return this dress to the store if it (perfectly suit, not) me.
17. Unless I get the money before tomorrow, I (go, not) to Sodore.
18. If everyone agreed with you completely, we (be) very happy.
19. If you find anything you don't understand, you (ask) your instructor.
20. If you had been a little more ambitious, you (succeed).
21. Almost everyone could afford a new house if he (borrow) money from the bank.
22. I wouldn't have believed it if I (see, not) it with my own eyes.
23. If you didn't agree with him, Teshome (suggest, even, not) it.
24. I will call a policeman if you (leave, not) immediately.
25. Alemu wouldn't do that if he (have, not) your permission.

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

Student's Name: _____
I.D. No. _____
Section: _____

Date: April 28, 1984

Time: 2 hours

Instructor's Name _____

A. The Nile was the most famous river in the ancient world, but no one knew exactly where its source was until a hundred years ago. A Scottish explorer, James Bruce, had followed the course of the shorter Blue Nile from Khartoum in the 1770s, but no one had succeeded in navigating the White Nile to its source. Yet Ptolemy, the ancient geographer, had drawn a map of eastern Africa in A.D. 150, showing the source as a great lake. He based it on the report of a Greek merchant, Diogenes. Diogenes had travelled from the coast. If Ptolemy was right, it would appear logical to follow Diogenes' example. So Burton and Speke, two English explorers, set out from Zanzibar in 1857.

Decide whether these statements are true according to the passage. Justify your answer by writing the number of the sentence against your answer. If the statement is wrong, write down the correct statement.

1. No one had discovered the source of the Nile until hundred years ago.

2. Ptolemy was an East African geographer.

3. A hundred years ago, Bruce discovered the source of the Blue Nile.

4. Ptolemy based his map of eastern Africa on the information he got from a Greek merchant.

5. Burton and Speke followed Diogenes' example since it appeared logical.

Complete these on the basis of the information given above.

1. Although the Nile was the most famous river in the world,

2. If James Bruce had not followed the course of the shorter Blue Nile from Khartoum _____

3. Ptolemy would not draw a map of eastern Africa in A.D. 150 if _____

4. Burton and Speke would not set out from Zanzibar if Ptolemy _____

5. Even if Bruce followed the course of the shorter Blue Nile, Burton and Speke _____

If they had known each other better, they might have chosen different companions; and if they had realized what the eventual outcome of their expedition would be, they would have separated from the beginning. Both had been officers in the army in India, but their previous careers and, above all, their personalities were quite different. Burton, the leader, was a brilliant linguist, a scholar and a poet, a man who had made a journey to Mecca disguised as an Arab. He was already famous and loved an exciting life. Speke was younger and quieter, someone whose only pleasure seemed to be to be by himself, exploring and hunting. But if Burton thought Speke was the obedient follower he was looking for, he was wrong. Speke had a personality and ambitions of his own.

Answer the following questions in not more than two sentences.

1. Cite two similarities between Burton and Speke.
-
-

2. What does the **statement** "they might have chosen different companions" mean and what **does** it imply?

3. Why was it necessary for them to separate at the beginning?

4. Who liked adventure more? Cite the source. _____

5. Was Burton wrong? Why _____

6. Think of two people you know and write down their differences in two lines.

7. What is the central idea of the paragraph? Write the sentence number against your choice.

- a) Burton was a brilliant linguist and Speke liked exploring and hunting.
- b) Burton and Speke cannot go together.
- c) The eventual outcome of the expedition was a failure.
- d) Burton made a journey to Mecca.
- e) Speke was an inexperienced young boy.

8. If they had known each other better what might have happened? (Write two sentences only) _____

In the summer of 1858, while Burton was resting at a place called Kazeh, Speke went off on his own and discovered Lake Victoria. As soon as he saw it, he was convinced that it was the great lake Diogenes had referred to; he came back without exploring it, saying he had found the source of the Nile. But he could not prove it. If he had travelled round the lake, his argument would have been more convincing, but in any case Burton did not want to believe him. He thought the true source was further west, perhaps in Lake Tanganyika.

Choose the correct statement and write against it the sentence number that justifies it.

1. What did Speke do while Burton was resting?
 - (a) He discovered Lake Tanganyika.
 - (b) He went to Kazeh in 1858.
 - (c) He saw Lake Victoria.
 - (d) He saw the great lake Diogenes.
 - (e) He was convinced.

2. If Speke had not gone on his own,
 - (a) Burton would have been resting.
 - (b) He would not have believed it.
 - (c) Nothing would have happened.
 - (d) The expedition would not have failed.
 - (e) He would not have discovered Lake Victoria.

3.
 - (a) Speke proved that he had visited the Lake.
 - (b) Bruce accepted Speke's idea.
 - (c) The lake was very near to the place they rested.
 - (d) Lake Tanganyika was nearer than Lake Victoria to Kazeh.
 - (e) None of the above.

The explorers returned to England in different ships, each thinking he was right. When Burton arrived, Speke had already obtained enough money for a new expedition. With a new companion, Grant, he reached Lake Victoria and then, leaving Grant behind for some strange reason, he went overland to the Nile sixty kilometers north and traced the river back to the Ripon falls in Lake Victoria.

Answer these briefly

1. What was right to Burton and what was right to Speke?
-
-

2. Who arrived first in England? How?

3. What is the new expedition and who is Grant?

4. Why did Speke leave Grant behind?

What would have happened if they had gone together?

5. Supposing Burton had come with the group, what would have happened?

Two years later, there was a meeting of the Royal Geographical Society in Bath. Speke was going to lecture on his expedition and Burton was there, too, determined to show that he still had not proved his case. On the afternoon before the expected confrontation between the two explorers, the delegates heard some terrible news. Speke had died in a hunting accident. He had fallen, fired his gun accidentally and killed himself. Burton thought it was suicide, but the mystery still remains. If Speke was such a great hunter, how could he have been so careless? But if he was afraid of meeting Burton, suicide might have seemed the only escape.

Provide answers to the following questions according to the given paragraph.

1. Why was the presence of Speke so important in the meeting of the Royal Geographical Society _____

2. Was the presence of Burton in the meeting threatening to Speke? Why?

3. What would Burton say in reply to Speke's lecture on the expedition?

4. Who are the two explorers and who are the delegates?

5. What is the belief of the author regarding the death of Speke?

6. Rewrite this to improve it by avoiding ambiguities.

Burton was there, too determined to show that he still had not proved his case.

7. What does the statement "suicide might have seemed the only escape" mean?

- B. Think of a sentence or two to make these express complete ideas. Match the possible completions from the ones given below by writing their letters against the numbers.

1. He managed to read that difficult poem. Everybody was astonished by his feat.

2. I was totally wrong. In fact, they got married last year.
3. The assignment was corrected on time. It was too late.
4. He wouldn't accept our suggestion. He was really uncompromising.
5. He was sick the whole week. We tried all means to help him.
 - a. The physican left for Rome last year for a seminar organized by W.H.O.
 - b. He only arrived in Great Britain a week ago. He never spoke English before.
 - c. If my guesses had not been wrong, the teacher would not have returned it.
 - d. His wife was annoying and she was trying to drive him to madness. We suggested divorce.
 - e. I made everybody laugh. I addressed her as 'miss'!

C. Complete these to express meaningful ideas.

1. "Will I ever have the courage to travel by plane again?
I don't know if I'll ever _____

2. "What time is it?" He asked me _____

3. "Do you mean the King's ghost?" I asked her if she meant

4. You can't imagine how _____

5. It's high time _____

D. Answer briefly (in a single sentence)

1. What might have happened if people had learned to apply birth-control methods. _____

2. What could have happened if you had not joined the university?

3. What would have happened if proper measures against thieves had been taken?

4. What would have happened to you if you had been born a century ago?

5. What would have happened if English had not been used as a medium of instruction?

E. Here is a passage with missing words. Write the appropriate word that can fill the blank in the paragraphs below. Every fifth word has been omitted.

There is no other geographical factor which influences human activities and human life as much as climate does. Health and diet, clothing and shelter, as well as the presence and effectiveness of basic equipment are very much influenced by climate. It is indisputable that _____ affects directly the human _____ and mind, and indirectly, _____ the food man eats, _____ clothing he wears and _____ dwellings he lives in, _____ well as the diseases _____ suffers from and the _____ occupation he is engaged _____. The influences of climate _____ almost inescapable. For example, _____ sharp contrast of seasons _____ the temperate regions of _____ world impose totally different _____. It is not unreasonable, _____, to deduce from these _____ that people

in such _____ must of necessity forsee _____ cold winter during the _____ summer and vice versa. Foresight, _____ crucial factor of _____ is therefore promoted, if _____ actually suggested, by the _____ of the seasons. The _____ regions lack this contrast _____ seasons. We can relate _____ backwardness of the tropical _____ and the progressiveness of _____ in the temperate regions _____ climate, at least partially. _____ all events, climate has _____ very real influence on _____.

It may be said _____ altitude is the most _____ control of climate in _____. Altitude and the rugged _____ of the land influence _____ only temperature but also _____. Every change of altitude _____ reflected by changes in _____. Travelling in Ethiopia often _____ constant ups and downs _____ corresponding cool and warm _____. Hence, places like Addis Abeba _____ Wenji, only about 100 _____ apart, or Asmera and _____ only 115 kilmoetres apart, _____ significant differences in average _____. In fact there are considerable _____ even in the same _____.

D E C L A R A T I O N

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my work and that all sources of material used for this thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name: Gebremedhin Simon

Signature: 

Place: Institute of Language Studies

Addis Ababa University

Date of Submission: 11th June 1984