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**AN EVALUATION OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE
CURRENT ELT SYLLABUS FOR GRADE 9 IN TERMS OF
THE COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING
METHODOLOGY**

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ABSTRACT

This study was carried out to investigate the appropriateness of the methodology which the English language teachers of grade 9 use in implementing the current ELT syllabus which was designed with the purpose of developing the communicative abilities of the learners. To this end, the criteria related to the communicative language teaching approach were set. These include cognitive vs mechanical activities, use vs usage performances, analytic vs synthetic, and inductive vs deductive approaches plus the strategies related to reading comprehension. Besides, the application of pair and small group modes of instruction was also used as a supplementary yardstick.

For the study, five secondary schools of Addis Ababa were chosen. Then, 16 grade 9 English classes were observed for forty minutes (a period) each. The forty minute period was divided into eight 5-minute sessions and the dominantly occurring activity or procedure was coded in five minutes against the criteria stated above. Moreover, responses given by 48 teachers of the said grade to the questionnaire were considered for the study.

The result of the study, then, revealed that 74.94% of the mean time was spent on mechanical activities. This means only 25.06% was used for cognitive ones. Even the cognitive element of this percentage was not the result of fluency activities, but it was the result of time spent on explicit teaching of linguistic rules. Similarly, the mean percentage of time spent on usage was 80.21%. It was only 19.79% that was devoted to use.

In the case of language presentation, the result of the study also showed that the mean percentage of time spent on synthetic approach was 77.18%. It was only the rest, that is, 22.82%, that accounted for the analytic one. At the same time, whereas deductive approach took 75.9% of the mean time, the inductive one consumed 24.1%.

As for as the reading strategies are concerned, the findings of the study also indicated that the larger portion of time was spent on loud reading by the students and explanation given by the teachers on the passage. 66.66% of the teachers were found to have spent 25 to 37.5% of the time on engaging the students in loud reading. Similarly, all teachers spent 25% to 50% of the time on giving explanation on the content of the text. Though they spent such a lot of time on explanation, they did talk almost nothing on how to read and

understand the messages in the text. Only 33.33% of the teachers were found to apply silent reading and scanning/skimmming. The rest, i.e, 66.66%, never used the technique.

In general, though some of the teachers revealed that they were teaching language use, the overall result showed that the classroom methodology was dominated by the teaching of language usage. The classes were characterised by teacher's dominance and learners' passivity. Thus, it was concluded that the classroom methodology was incongruent with the objective of the syllabus.

Based on the result of the study, it was recommended that the teachers be given awareness-raising orientations, and teacher's self-development courses on the principles and theories of the communicative language teaching methodology.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Because of the prominent role it plays in international relations, commerce, education, science and technology, the English language occupies a central place in the educational system of Ethiopia. Since the introduction of modern education to the country, it has been taught as a subject starting from elementary level and also used as a medium of instruction from secondary level onwards.(Melesse Bedane, 1992; MOE, 1994).

However, as various studies conducted at different levels reveal, most of the students who complete their secondary education and/or many of those who join colleges and universities lack adequate proficiency in English language despite the long time they spent in learning it (Hailom Banteyerga, 1982; Stodart, 1986; Melesse Bedane, 1992).

There are a number of factors that cause problems as regards English language teaching in Ethiopia. Of these, the fundamental ones, as the studies stated above assert, are the quality of the teaching materials and the methodology used by English language teachers (Hailemichael Abera, 1993; Messelech Habate, 1991; Melesse Bedane, 1992).

Basically, this implies that such a problem is the by-product of the invalidity of the English language curriculum in particular and the entire educational curriculum of the country in general as the following quotation indicates: "the quality and relevance of the existing curriculum have been identified as a factor contributing to the problem of education in this country" (MOE, 1994:1).

Having taken such problems into consideration, the new education policy of Ethiopia proposes the renewal of the existing curriculum. ". . . recently a new education and training policy has been formulated. The new policy stipulates the national education objectives, the nature of the new curriculum, the nature of educational assessment and evaluation" (P.2).

Then, the process of changing the old curriculum has been taking place in primary and partly in secondary schools of Ethiopia. Following this change, the ELT syllabuses with communicative orientation have been designed and are being put into implementation.

These syllabuses starting from grade one, as the general objectives stated in them indicate claim to enable the learners to use the language rather than to make them know it. In short, they seem to pursue the communicative language teaching approach (Please see Appendices F and G).

Futhermore, an introduction given in the teachers' manual of the grade 9 ELT coursebook asserts this opinion. In this material it is stated that, ". . . the course is also more student - centered and communicative than its predecessors. Every opportunity has been taken to involve the students in a meaningful and realistic communicative activities" (Bogale Gebre and Galgalo Liben, 1996:4).

Though it is theoretically sound to hear such a claim, designing syllabuses and writing materials alone will not necessarily guarantee the attainment of the objective since they serve as the plans of actions which may or may not be practised as many educators and methodologists like Breen (1989), Widdowson (1990), Nunan (1988), Kochhar (1983), to mention some, suggest.

According to these authorities, the designing of the syllabus or developing the teaching materials alone is of little consequence unless it is implemented by a means of appropriate classroom methodology. In Kochhar's (1983:345) view, for instance, "the best curriculum and the most perfect syllabus remain dead unless quickened by the right method of teaching." Nunan (1988), in his description of curriculum evaluation, suggests the same view point as well. He maintains that "their (the learners') classroom experiences will be more important than statements of intent in determining learning outcomes" (Nunan, 1988:138).

The most clear and comprehensive description that corresponds well with the above views is provided by Widdowson (1990). He argues that,

. . . changes in a syllabus as such need have no effect on learning whatever. They will only do so if they inspire the teacher to introduce methodological innovations in the planning and execution of activities in the classroom which are consistent in some way with the conception of content and the principles of ordering proposed in the new syllabus (Widdowson, 1990:129).

Here, Widdowson seems to suggest that the teachers who implement the innovated syllabus should have a good understanding of the methodology that is pertinent to teach the specified contents as well as the approach which the syllabus advocates in its organization. This means that the attitudes and the experiences of the teachers should be abreast of the theories and principles which the innovated syllabus presupposes. Richards (1990:12) also advances similar view. According to him, "a central component of methodology is how teachers view their role" in the teaching/learning process. For Dubin and Olshtain (1986:31), "the attitudes of the teachers and their abilities to adjust to new thinking and what it involves in practical terms are crucial," too, "in determining success of a new syllabus or materials". That means adequate orientation and programme of sensitization

about the new syllabus or materials are highly required before putting them into implementation.

When we relate this to the implementation of the currently developed ELT syllabuses in Ethiopia, perhaps the situation seems different. The reason behind this is that there is much complaint about lack of orientation on the part of teachers as to how to implement these syllabuses and the teaching materials. As long as the syllabuses presuppose the communicative approach on which the teachers' experiences were said to be very limited, it demands not only orientation but also more importantly, making the teachers aware of the principles and theories of the communicative approach. But all these were presumed to have been anticipated rarely before the teachers were made to implement the new syllabuses and the teaching materials.

It was such complaints that initiated the present researcher to examine whether the teachers are implementing the current ELT syllabuses in terms of the communicative approach. Due to time constraints and other factors, however, the present study concentrates only on grade nine (9).

1.2 Objectives of the Study

As has been mentioned, following the stipulation forwarded by the new education and training policy of Ethiopia, the communicatively-oriented ELT syllabuses were designed and are being put into implementation in the primary and secondary schools of the country.

Though the syllabuses claim to be communicatively oriented, there is a common understanding that the teachers orientation about the different theories and principles of the communicative language teaching approach is limited. Given such a disparity, the main

objective of the study is to explore as to whether the methodology which to the teachers use implement the grade 9 ELT syllabus is communicative or not.

To attain the above objective, the researcher tries to find answers to the following questions:

- a) Do the activities and tasks the teachers use help the learners to develop their communicative abilities?
- b) Are the teaching/learning procedures which the teachers apply to present language (or those activities stated in 'a') to the learners appropriate in terms of the communicative language teaching approach?

Then, the present researcher hopes that the objective of this study will be achieved if the right answers to the questions posed above are given.

1.3 Significance of the study

This study is hoped to make the following contributions:

- first of all, it is expected to benefit the teachers who implement the syllabus by way of providing them feedback on their perceptions and actual performances on the communicatively oriented materials;
- it is also hoped to help teacher educators in their planning and execution of teacher education that enables the respective teachers to properly implement the suggested methodology;
- the study is also hoped to benefit educational researchers, curriculum evaluators, decision makers and material writers. The information gained from the study could

help these authorities to decide as to which element of the course design needs prior evaluation, shaping, reshaping or revision.

1.4 Scope of the Study

As stated in the main objective, the study is limited to the methodological aspects of the Grade 9 ELT syllabus. Since the researcher intended to explore as to whether the methodology used by the teachers of the respective grade is meant to promote the communicative abilities of the learners, the emphasis, in this work, is placed on the activities or tasks, classroom procedures and methods which are related to this end.

1.5 Definition of Terms

Analytic approach: refers to the teaching strategy in which the language is presented to the learners beyond the sentence level, i.e, in the form of written or oral discourses and texts (Wilkins, 1976; Rea-Dickins and Germaine, 1992).

Synthetic approach: refers to another teaching strategy in which the language is presented to the learners in analysed forms, i.e, in a separate elements of words, phrases or sentences to be synthesized (Ibid).

Cognitive activity: refers to the task or exercise which requires comprehension (understanding) at varying degrees. Examples of cognitive activities are information-gap, problem-solving language games and so on (Phye and Andre, 1986; Rivers, 1983; Rea-Dickins and Germaine, 1992; Richards, 1985).

- Mechanical activity: stands for those type of activity or exercise which demands less comprehension like substitution and replacement drills (Ibid).
- Inductive approach: This refers to the initial teaching of grammar rules implicitly. Its counter-part is deductive approach which stands for the explicit teaching of the language structure or grammar rules (Cunningsworth, 1995; Wajnryb, 1992; Phye and Andre, 1986; Rivers, 1983).
- Usage: refers to an aspect of language performance that manifests the language user's knowledge of the linguistic rules, that is, his/her ability to compose correct sentences (Widdowson, 1978:3).
- Use: is another aspect of language performance that manifests the extent to which the language user demonstrates his ability to use his knowledge of linguistic rules for effective communication (Ibid).

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 An Overview of the Current Language Teaching Theories

The current language teaching methodologies are influenced by various views about the nature of language and language learning theories. These theories and views are drawn from studies in the field applied linguistics, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics at large (Yalden, 1987; Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Stern, 1983; Rivers, 1983).

After the decline of the Traditional Grammar as a distinct field of linguistics, structural linguistics which the advocates claim as the first scientific approach to the study of language came into existence in the early 20th century.

As a result of this development, the structural view of language together with the theory of behavioural psychology had dominated language education until the 1960's. Since both were similar in principle in that they concentrated on the description of observable surface behaviour, they had been known to advance the same theory of language learning known as habit formation (Cairns and Cairns, 1976, Stern, 1983, Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983).

Audiolingualism which was founded on the basis of the combined theories of structural linguistics and behavioural psychology became the widely recognized method of language teaching (Rivers, 1983; Richards and Rodgers, 1986). This method was known to have forerun the teacher-dominated methodology in which the students remain passive receivers rather than active participants.

The audiolingual view creates robot-like learners who. . . are expected to carryout mechanical manipulations in order to form habits. . . Individuals take little responsibility except participating in choral activities. Students were spoon-fed and carefully led from one step to the next with minimal room for failure, error, or experiment (Dubin and Olshtain 1986:48).

Such instructional system, however, initiated the contemporary teachers, practioners and psycholinguists to pose various questions. The students who were taught in this method were found to be unable to transfer their classroom skills to real communication of the outside world as scholars point out. According to Yalden (1987:15), for instance "... the degree of proficiency that a learner achieves" which is viewed as "mastery of structure. . . is not adequate for those learners who want to learn a second language in order to make use of it rather than to know about it."

While such a dissatisfaction tempts audiolingualism on the one hand, psycholinguists continued challenging its theoretical foundations on the other. N.Chomsky was said to have taken the leading position in this movement. Chomsky in his serious criticism, attacked Skinner's behavioural theory of language learning (Stern, 1983). Chomsky argues that language learning is not a mere habit formation, rather it is a mental process. According to Yalden (1987:15), "Chomsky's . . . definition of linguistic theory, as mentalistic (concerned with discovering a mental reality underlying actual behaviour) came as a challenge to behaviourist theories of linguistics."

Chomsky (1965) sees language in two distinct behaviours in which one is the manifestation of the other. In his dichotomy, Chomsky states that a native speaker of the language has the innate knowledge of that language; linguistic competence which he defines as "an ideal speaker-hearer's knowledge of the language" (P.4). To him, it is this category that our actual speech, i.e., performance manifests. In his definition, performance is "the actual use of language in concrete situation" (Ibid). Therefore, it is linguistic competence, a finite set of rules, that enables the speakers to produce infinite number of utterances (sentences), which is performance. Hence, the latter is secondary to the former, the mental ability that processes the language. This distinction became the foundation for the two important

views: communicative competence in linguistic theory, and cognitive-code in language learning theory.

With the formulation of the cognitive code theory, habit formation ceased to be the dominant language learning theory of audiolingualism. Cognitive-code theory that requires active involvement and participation of the learners was favoured as an alternative guidance for foreign language teaching.

The audiolingual habit theory which is so prevalent in American language teaching . . . is no longer abreast of recent developments. It is ripe for major revision, particularly, in the direction of joining it with some of the better elements of the cognitive -code learning theory (Carroll, 1966 quoted in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:60).

In response to Carroll's call, an attempt was made to include activities that demand the cognitive ability of the learners in syllabuses and teaching materials. It was suggested that learners were encouraged to use their creativity to develop their knowledge of the language (Rivers, 1983; Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983).

Nevertheless, the application of cognitive-code theory in structural syllabus couldn't satisfy the increasingly developed communicative needs of the learners. Particularly with the establishment of European Economic Commission, as various scholars witnessed, this demand reached its climax. Developing the communicative abilities of the learners became the slogan of foreign language teaching (Littlewood, 1981; Yalden, 1987; Munby, 1978). This triggered the functional view of language to step up in the foreign language teaching arena.

Functional view, as Richards (1985:18) describes, is "the view that language is a vehicle for the expression of meaning." In short, viewing the language only from structural stand

point was recognized to be inadequate. Various studies carried out in the field of sociolinguistics indicated that the meaning of an utterance can not be interpreted in isolation from the situation in which it is used. Language attributes its meanings not only to linguistic elements such as words, phrases or sentences but also to non-linguistic aspects as situations in different communicative acts and social contexts.

Foreign language pedagogy, hence, started applying the functional theory of language around the seventieth with the works of applied linguists organized under the Council of Europe. The participants of the project such as Trim, Van EK, Wilkins, Alexander and others produced functional notional syllabuses. The first attempt of this project was realized to be unsuccessful since the syllabuses were found to be similar to that of structural ones. Candlin (1976) was said to have been one of the critics who spells out the problem of the syllabuses saying "an item bank of speech acts. . . cannot serve any more than sentences as the directive end point of a communicative syllabus" (quoted in Yalden, 1987:47).

Having admitted such problems, Wilkins (1976) presents the revised edition of his notional syllabuses which consist of semantico-grammatical categories (e.g. frequency, notion, location) and categories of communicative functions (e.g. judgments and evaluation, argument, information).

In his latter edition, Wilkins proposes two distinct approaches called synthetic and analytic. According to him, the synthetic approach is "the language teaching strategy in which the different parts of language are taught separately and step by step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the language has been built" (Wilkins, 1976:2). On the other hand, in the analytic approach, "much greater variety of linguistic structure is permitted from the beginning and the learner's task is to

approximate his linguistic behaviour more and more closely to the global language" (Ibid). He suggests that any language syllabus falls within this continuum. It means, in general, synthetic approach is associated with discrete view, whereas the analytic with the holistic which leads to communicative competence.

In general, the application of functional view of language to foreign language teaching was recognized to be the landmark for the emergence of communicative language teaching approach. This approach has had a closer association with the theory known as 'communicative competence' which was named after the famous sociolinguist D. Hymes (Brumfit and Johnson, 1979; Stern, 1983; Coulthard, 1985; Munby, 1978). It was said that Hymes borrowed the term from Chomsky's linguistic competence.

Rejecting Chomsky's definition of competence as being too narrow, Hymes proposes the idea of communicative competence described as the speaker's ability to use appropriate language (Hymes, 1979). Then, it becomes the central theme of communicative language teaching approach

The communicative language teaching approach has been suggested to have changed the whole trend of foreign language pedagogy. Unlike the former methods, this approach is founded on many various views of language and language learning (Nunan, 1988; Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Cunningsworth, 1995).

Various researches and studies conducted in areas like discourse analysis, conversational and interactional analysis, ethnomethodology and the like further accelerated the rapid development of communicative language teaching. In short, interactional view of language is also manifested in this approach.

As far as language learning theory is concerned, the dominant ones are cognitive-code theory and humanism as Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) suggest. They note that "the audiolingual approach . . . resulted in great part in linguistics and behaviourism in psychology. And so it will be with F. N [Function- Notional] approach with cognitivism and humanism" (p.22). These authors further suggest some of the basic principles of psychological science for the Functional-National approach. Some of these are:

- *Learning generally results when units and program content and activities are related to the needs and experiences of the learners.*
- *Student motivation is of primary importance in acquisition of knowledge and skills.*
- *Learning is enhanced when presentation and practices of language items are made meaningful through their use in real life (or even simulated) situations (pp:33-4)*

The communicative language teaching approach also makes use of educational philosophies through humanistic psychology as Dubin and Olshtain (1986) point out. Some of the guiding principles of humanistic curriculum, according to these authorities are:

1. *Great emphasis is placed on meaningful communication from the learners point of view. . . , texts should be authentic, tasks should be communicative, outcomes should be negotiated and not predetermined.*
2. *The learner is the focal point of this approach and the respect for individuals is highly valued.*
3. *The teacher is a facilitator who is more concerned with classroom atmosphere than with the adherence to the syllabus or the materials in use.*
4. *The first language of the learner is viewed as useful aid when it is necessary for understanding and for formulating hypothesis about the target language particularly in the early stages (Dubin and Olshtain 1986:76).*

Generally, humanism in communicative language teaching addresses participatory learning in which learners actively involve and make trial and error hypothesis from the data available at their disposal. Cooperation between teacher and learners is acknowledged in this approach from the premises that anxiety free atmosphere promotes learning (Legutke and Thomas, 1991; Nunan, 1992).

This is also the view advanced by the so-called fringe methodologies such as Curran's (1972) counselling language learning, Lozano's (1978) suggestopedia, and Gattengo's (1972) silent way (Richards, 1985; Malamah - Thomas, 1987; Dubin and Olshtain, 1986). Because of this fact, communicative approach is said to have adopted the language learning theories of these methods.

By the same token, the natural approach which shares the common view of affective factors, has been considered as an example of communicative approach. Particularly, Krashen's (1982) language acquisition theory is found to be the basis for the various guiding principles of classroom methodology. His distinction between acquisition and learning gives awareness for teachers and practitioners in that they can focus on either discrete points associated with grammar learning or global comprehension of language acquisition depending on the goal of their course. In Krashen's view, learning is a conscious process which will not lead to acquisition or communicative competence. On the other hand, it is the unconscious process, i.e., acquisition that will result in communicative ability. Thus, the activities which do not engage learners in a natural communication as well as the environments where there is much intervention (e.g. corrections and monitors) rarely result in acquisition. Instead, they are meant to help the learners develop their knowledge of linguistic rules which are used only for monitoring the correctness of the structure at the time of communication.

Together with this theory is the comprehensible input hypothesis. Where there is comprehensible input one level beyond the linguistic ability of the learners, subsequent result is acquisition, provided that affective filter is minimal or non-existent at all. If the input demands high control, as in the case of mechanical drills, it is the accuracy that is expected. On the contrary, if it requires the learners cognitive and communicative abilities, they (the learners) are supposed to develop fluency which is the primary consideration of Krashen's theory.

There are people who see both fluency and accuracy equally. Such scholars like Littlewood (1981), Rivers (1983) suggest the importance of skill model learning in which both accuracy and fluency can be attained. To them, both discrete and holistic learning are equally important. And so are both cognitive and behavioural style of learning (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

As the above discussion tries to indicate, the communicative approach to language learning does not incline itself fully to one direction. It incorporates all views of language and language learning theories.

As a result, though the communicative approach does not prescribe single methodology, there are three general theoretical principles which this approach advocates as Richards and Rodgers (1986) maintain. These according to them are "the communication principle, . . . the task principle, . . . the meaningfulness principle" (p.72). These principles address more of methodological aspects than syllabus (course) designs. In terms of communication principle, the teaching in which learners involve in real - life communication are presumed to promote learning. Similarly, the task principle advances the idea of learners' participation in activities which require language use. The third meaningfulness principle also suggests the importance of activities or practices that are meaningful to learners.

In general, as the above discussions indicate, the types of language programme we adopt, the content we select, the teaching and learning activities we choose or develop, and the procedures we implement in the classroom can be influenced by the views and beliefs we have towards these theories.

Therefore, the present researcher hopes that the points he has raised in this section will help him to identify the appropriate methodological aspects for the implementation of the syllabus under investigation.

2.2 The Concept of Syllabus

Different methodologists and educators of second /foreign language teaching perceive, syllabus differently. As a result of this discrepancy, syllabus is seen in two general traditions or categories. (White, 1988; Richards, 1985; Yalden, 1987). People like Candlin, Breen, Terrel and Krashen are said to have rejected the prior specification of contents to be taught/learned. To them, the first thing is methodology.

As Yalden (1987) points out, the natural approach to language teaching emphasizes on intake for acquisition. Then pre-selection of the syllabus runs counter to this understanding. The syllabus, for this approach, as she notes, "is presented in terms of the methodology to be used in the classroom, that is, in terms of classroom techniques (such as . . . question - and - answer drills, problem-solving, etc.) arranged in a specific sequence" (Yalden, 1987:71).

Similarly, Candlin and Breen also are said to have followed the methodology I school of thought. The syllabus, to this group of people, is a record of teaching and learning process that took place in the classroom as Stern (1984) spells out. He comments that:

the trend represented by Candlin and Breen, 'Lancaster school of thought', strongly reacts against the notion of fixed syllabus. The principle of any... fixed inventory of language items, such as the Council of Europe's syllabuses is unacceptable to them (Stern 1984:7).

As opposite to *posteriori* approach advocated by the above scholars, *a priori* approach gives considerable place for the pre-specification of contents, (Richards and Rodgers, 1986; White, 1988; Yalden, 1987). The well-known methodologists like Allen (1984) Brumifit (1984), Yalden (1987), Widdowson (1990) White (1988), to mention some, would seem to espouse the second approach. Allen's justification for the need to design syllabus first is similar to that of Mackey (1965) and Hutchinson and Waters (1987). They rationalize that language is complex in its nature so that it is necessary to break down the whole into a manageable unit.

Since language is highly complex and cannot be taught all at the same time, successful teaching requires that there should be a selection of material depending on the prior definition of the objectives, proficiency level and duration of the course (Allen, 1984:65).

Criticizing the methodology I approach, Yalden (1987) and White (1988) also show their support for the prior selection of content or syllabus design. To them process syllabus means blind folded journey. Whereas White (1988:102) criticized process syllabus saying, ". . . the emphasis on process and procedures rather than on outcomes could result in an aimless journey", Yalden (1987:74) moderately comments as ". . . though trajectory is important, one cannot ignore the goal."

A syllabus is generally, considered as an action plan that guides the process of teaching. Cunningsworth (1995:5) states that "a syllabus can be broadly defined as the specification of the work to be covered over a period of time, with the starting point and a final goal." If it is perceived in this way, it has to, at least, suggest the way its objectives could be

attained. That means, an aspect of methodology may be found in it either implicitly or explicitly.

The comprehensive summary provided by Dubin and Olshtain (1986) can give us a clearer picture of the essence and scope of a syllabus. According to them,

the syllabus is a state document which ideally describes:
1/ *what the learners are expected to know at the end of the course. . . ,*
2/ *what is to be taught or learned during the course. . . ,*
3/ *when it is to be taught, and in what rate of progress. . . ,*
4/ *How it is to be taught suggesting procedures, techniques and materials. . . , and*
5/ *How it is to be evaluated suggesting testing and evaluating mechanisms (P.28).*

As the above definition indicates, the syllabus, as a state document, can be seen not only as a specification of objectives and selection of contents but also as a guidance for the methodology that would be used to teach the content and to assess the learners' achievement. In this sense, it may not, in fact, directly prescribes the procedures and techniques that the teachers ought to use in the classroom for it deals with not the 'how' but with the 'what' of teaching (Brumfit, 1984; Yalden, 1987; Nunan, 1988; Richards, 1985). Instead indirectly through the types of contents it selects and the system of organization it uses as Richards (1985) suggests that the syllabus guides the methodology. According to him, for instance,

. . . our understanding of the psycholinguistic, interactions, linguistic and cognitive nature of the content or processes identified in the syllabus serves as the rationale for selecting particular teaching techniques and learning experiences (P.8).

In short, different types of syllabuses follow different approaches and principles of content selection and organization. For instance, structural syllabus follows the organization of contents around grammar and sentence patterns. Functional syllabus, on the other hand,

specifies communicative functions such as reporting, identifying, describing and so on. At the same time, whereas topical syllabus follows its organization around topics and themes, skill-based syllabus organizes its contents around the four language skills and minor skills like listening for gist, note-making and so on (Richards, 1990; White, 1988; Wilkins, 1976; Yalden, 1987; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

Realized in this way, the current ELT syllabus for Grade 9, does not fully fall in one of the above mentioned syllabus types. Since it is designed for general language course, it pursues the eclectic approach of organization. That means, it includes all the contents that are pertinent to the objective of the course. It consists of the four language skills with their minor skills, topics, grammar and vocabulary items. Moreover, it includes functional categories such as sharing information, suggestions and opinions, describing things and actions and so on as well as the social situations such as how to ask, to request, or to refuse permission and the likes in different communicative acts (Please See Appendix G).

Besides being eclectic, this syllabus claims to advocate the communicative language teaching approach as has been mentioned earlier. Whatever approach or method it adheres, the success of the syllabus, however, depends upon the way it is interpreted at various level by different people. In this respect, the first person who interprets the syllabus, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987) note, is the material writer. Since it usually provides contents only, the syllabus needs to be changed into the teaching materials before it reaches the implementation stage. Then, the compatibility of the written material with the syllabus in terms of the advocated approach, in turn, depends upon the writer's understanding and assumptions about that approach. This is because, to use Hutchinson and Waters' (1987:81) own expression, ". . .the author adds yet more assumptions about the nature of language, language learning and language use."

The teaching materials, of course, exert considerable influence on the effectiveness of particular course. And yet, there is another factor that determines all these. This is the classroom methodology which results from the interaction of the teaching materials with the teachers and the learners. In Widdowson's (1990:30) interpretation for example, "the teaching materials are to be seen as hypothetical constructs, models or examples of abstract principles from which actual instances of pedagogic activities might be developed in the light of particular classroom conditions." This implies that the effectiveness or validity of the teaching materials is dependent upon their use in the actual teaching/learning process.

Breen (1989), and Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1992) share the above view point. In his description of task evaluation, Breen (1989:189) defines task in terms of teaching material and points out that:

Our pre-designed task is a proposal for language learning work and - however carefully designed-it can be no more than a plan which may or may not be followed according to the 'frame' which it offers to its users.

Due to this, as Breen's conclusion indicates, though it is possible to carry out an evaluation on task as a work-plan, as defined above, and on the product of task, i.e, on the achievement of the learners, evaluation of the task-on process is recommended to be more vital. ". . . all of the conclusions reached so far is that our evaluation of a task would focus mainly upon its implementation during teaching and learning" (Ibid:192).

Similarly, Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1992), of course drawing from Breen's view point, maintain that evaluation of the teaching materials out of classroom context where it is supposed to be used shows only its theoretical validity. So as to find the actual validity of the materials, in their explanation, it needs to investigate "materials-in-process" for it

"generates information about the ways in which learners and teachers actually use and respond to materials" (Rea-Dickins and Germaine, 1992:31).

By implication, materials-in-process means the syllabus in process in Ethiopian context. This is because the general language course materials in Ethiopia are developed on the basis of the primarily designed syllabuses. Thus, evaluation of the syllabus means evaluation of the teaching materials. However, for the sake of comprehensiveness, this study inclines towards the evaluation of syllabus in process. With this, we pass to the next section: methodological aspects.

2.3 Language Teaching Methodology

The concept "methodology" is usually said to deal with the 'how' aspect rather than the 'what' of a language course. It means that methodology is the process of teaching the content. According to the dictionary of Applied linguistics, it is defined as "the study of practices and procedures used in teaching and the principles and beliefs that underlie them" (Richards, Platt and Weber, 1985:177). Teachers starting from very ancient time upto now undertake teaching. However, they are not using the same methodology. They change it from time to time depending on their beliefs and philosophies about learning. They change it because they need their teaching to be effective. The question of effectiveness, in turn, can be judged in terms of the objective. As Richards (1990:11) points out, the elements that characterize methodology such as activities, tasks and learning experiences which the teacher selects and the procedures he/she uses can be "justified according to the objectives the teacher has set out to accomplish and the content he or she has set out to teach." It can of course also be related to the theories or philosophies as it is stated above.

However, there are generally accepted current principles which work for the present day foreign language teaching. For example, Cunningsworth (1995) after examining the methodologies used in current course materials such as Formula one (White and Williams 1989), The New Cambridge English Course (Swan and Walter 1990), Connect (Revell 1990), and Grapevine (Viney, P. and K. 1990), summarizes some of the principles related to methodology. Some of these principles are:

- *there should be controlled presentation of language,*
- *there should be a balance of accuracy and fluency,*
- *skills need to be learned both separately and in an integrated way,*
- *communicative practice should resemble real-life language use,*
- *learning and acquisition each have their place,*
- *learners should be actively and fully involved in lessons,*
- *learners should use language creatively and activities should be personalized where possible (pp. 98-9).*

These principles seem to be the reflections of the communicative methodology suggested by Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983). Therefore, they can be used as references for communicative language teaching. They address the teaching/learning activities, procedures and the interaction that goes on between teachers and learners in general.

2.3.1 Teaching / Learning Activities

In the previous discussion, it was mentioned that there are three interrelated principles that guide the communicative language teaching approach. These are the meaningfulness principle, the task principle and the communication principle. As a result, the teaching and learning activities are to follow these principles. That means, the tasks or activities through which the learners practise the target language need to be meaningful and communicative. Accordingly, the wide variety of activities and tasks that are ranging from meaningful and communicative drills through psuedo-communicative (conversations and cued dialogues), information-gap, problem-solving to high levels of simulations and

improvisation activities that approximate real-life communication have been realized to be in use (Byrnes, 1976; Willis, 1990; Rivers, 1983; Littlewood, 1981). This continuum, then, indicated the presence of two distinct approaches in either side of the extremes, i.e., accuracy and fluency distinction.

Littlewood (1981) and Rivers (1983) attempt to provide activities which fall in this continuum. Particularly, Littlewood's methodological framework can best show the distinction between accuracy vs fluency-focused activities. He presents two major types of communicative language teaching activities. The first category is pre-communicative activity which is, of course, synonymous with Rivers' (1983) skill-getting type. This category is intended to lead the learners to the future communication. "Whenever pre-communicative activities occur, their essential function is a subordinate one: they serve to prepare for later communication" (Littlewood 1981:87). Similarly, Rivers (1983:43) states the skill-getting activity in this way: "no matter how much we relate these skill-getting activities to real-life situations this practice rarely passes beyond pseudo-communication."

In Littlewood's suggestion, the pre-communicative activity is intended to develop learners' linguistic knowledge, i.e, accuracy. He further splits this category into two sub-categories: structural and quasi-communicative activities. He includes the structural part only to show the limited role of manipulating mechanical activities. Widdowson (1978) calls this type "usage". Both Littlewood and Widdowson agree that acquiring the skill to form or to construct a correct sentence is important. And yet, they argue that composing correct sentences alone is not enough to promote learning unless it is related to various meanings of the sentence. Therefore, when it is suggested that accuracy is also important in language learning, it does not mean the mere arrangement of words to form a correct sentence. That correct sentence is expected to be meaningful to the learners (Richards and Rodgers, 1986;

Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983; Widdowson, 1978; Brumfit and Johnson, 1979; Willis, 1990).

Moreover, it is suggested that if the learners are expected to use the target language, they need to practise it with little or no conscious awareness about that language learning or acquisition. According to the view of Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:96), for instance, "we would not consider that a student has learned an item unless it can be used appropriately without conscious thought, and we all know that presentation, drilling, practice do not lead to that happy position".

And, it is for this that fluency activities which Littlewood (1981) recommended in his second main category, i.e. communicative activities are proposed to be used in language courses. In this respect, the language learning activities that offer the natural language learning situation in classroom setting, then, are information-gap, problem-solving, language games, group discussions, role-plays or simulations and so on (Tarone and Yule, 1989; Brown, 1994; Willis, 1983; Littlewood, 1981; Nunan, 1989). According to Willis (1983:58) for example, "a communicative methodology" is defined as the methodology that makes use of "replication activities". Willis calls such activities as replication "because they replicate within the classroom aspect of communication in real world" (Ibid).

In the literature of communicative language teaching approach, it is consistently raised that the teaching and learning activities should not only be cognitive and communicative, but also they should also be purposeful. The central focus of communicative language teaching is the learner (Nunan, 1988; Brumfit and Finocchiaro, 1983; Cunningsworth, 1995). The aim of language teaching in "a learner-centred" or communicative approach is "to bring learners to a point where they reach a degree of autonomy and be able to use the language themselves in a real-situations outside the classroom (Cunningsworth, 1995:16).

Therefore, the language teaching/learning activities, in this respect, need to appeal to the interest of the learners. That means, it should be purposeful. In Richards' (1985) suggestion, purposeful activities are more transferable in a real-world communication than less purposeful.

In general, as it is seen in the above discussions, the main goal of communicative language teaching is promoting the communicative abilities of the learners. This is, as it is already mentioned earlier, possible when the learners practise the target language in a meaningful, communicative and purposeful way. Activities can be meaningful to learners when they require the learners' cognition. Since meaning and communication require understanding, processing the language cognitively is largely needed. The language we use to express something, be it an object, thing, an action, idea or opinion need to be cognitively related to those things or objects it stands for. Hence the formation of meaning takes place. It is for this reason that mechanical activities such as drills and exercises are considered less valuable in language learning.

Sentences in most drills and exercises are semantically empty for the students in the sense that they have no personal reality as a reflection of present experience. Consequently, they become exercises in manipulation of language segments. . . mechanical, non meaningful activity does not use up a great deal of processing capacity (Rivers, 1983: 98-7).

From this it follows that the learning that uses up a great deal of processing capacity is more meaningful. By implication the higher the cognitive processing, the higher the learning. But all cognitive learning may not be considered as useful in developing the communicative abilities of the learners. As Rivers (1983:95) describes, "learning rules is a cognitive process".

Nevertheless, learning the language rules to know is different from learning to use it (Widdowson, 1978). As he maintains, knowing or learning the rules of the language is expressed in two aspects of language behaviour. That means, the competence to construct correct sentences and the competence to use the language for communication.

When this knowledge, as he states, is manifested only in the citation of correct sentences, it takes the form of 'usage' performance. Widdowson (1978:3) defines, this as ". . . one aspect of performance, . . . which makes evident the extent to which the language user demonstrates his knowledge of linguistic rules". Then, such knowledge, which is reflected only by 'usage' performance does not necessarily lead the learners to the goal of communicative competence. In contrast, what leads to this goal is the knowledge that is manifested in the form of 'use' performance which is defined as "the language users . . . ability to use his knowledge of linguistic rules for effective communication" (Ibid).

Therefore, given that the purpose of language learning is to enable the learners to communicate in that language, the teaching and learning activities should not only engage the learners in cognitive processing, but also should teach the language use. This leads us to the next section: teaching /learning procedure.

2.3.2 Teaching / Learning Procedures

The concept 'procedure', of course, refers to the types of teaching/learning activities and the procedure of presenting these activities (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). However, for the sake of simplicity, the former was discussed in the preceding section, and the latter is dealt with here.

In the preceding section, it was consistently raised that language can be learnt when the activities the learners practise are meaningful to them. One best way that the classroom language can be meaningful to the learners is contextualization (Littlewood, 1981; Widdowson, 1978 and 1990; Cunningsworth, 1995). Contextualization can take different forms such as pictorial context, discourse context and so on. The learners' knowledge of the world or their past knowledge can also be used as a context. As Phye and Andre (1986:87) maintain, "something is understood when it has been integrated in a meaningful way into the learner's existing knowledge structure".

In a second or foreign language setting, the most commonly used context of presenting the language is a reading text. The reading text is used for the purpose of, in Cunningsworth's (1995:73) statement, "developing reading skills and strategies, presenting /recycling grammar items, extending vocabulary, providing models for writing, giving information of interests to students, simulating oral work".

Understood in terms of Wilkins' (1976) view point, this approach is the accepted procedure of language presentation. Wilkins (1976), in his distinction of synthetic vs analytic approaches, describes that the language teaching strategy which presents the language to the learners in its whole chunks is more vital in offering the situation for the learners to enhance their language use. And this approach according to him is analytic. The other, i.e, synthetic presentation of languages is less valuable in that it presents the language in an analysed form so that the gradual process of synthesizing the language will result only in an accumulation of discrete linguistic elements.

As is pointed out, the importance of presenting the language learning activities in analytic manner relies on its creation of plentiful contexts. If the language is presented in an isolated form of lexicon, phrase or sentence, it holds only linguistic context which provides

still only ideational meaning. However, people naturally communicate not only by using the ideational /propositional meaning of sentences. Since the same form has various meanings and various forms also can have the same meaning, it needs more contexts than that which the linguistic form creates. And one best way to teach the meaning of the language beyond the sentence level is analytic presentation.

The issue of language presentation also touches implicit and explicit teaching of language structure. As various educational psychologists and psycholinguists assert, the structure of the language can be taught deductively or inductively (Rivers, 1983; Phye and Andre, 1986; Cunningsworth, 1995). Rivers (1983:95), for instance, states that ". . . both induction and deduction may be very effective depending on the way they are integrated into the total teaching-learning situation".

However, it was already stated that learning to know and learning to use the language are different. As advocates of communicative language teaching approach such as Brumfit and Johnson (1979), Widdowson, (1990), Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) and others maintain, the relevance of learning the grammar of the language explicitly is seen only when it enables the learners to use the language. But overemphasis on language rules is found to be a hindrance in developing language acquisition than a help (Krashen, 1982).

As Widdowson (1990) points out, the grammar of the language should serve as a context for mediation of meaning. According to his description, if the words of the language are used to explain the meaning of the grammar, instead of vice versa, the grammar loses its role of mediation. Hence learning the language to use shifts to learning to know its intricate structures.

Moreover, as Brumfit and Johnson (1979), Widdowson (1990) and Krashen (1982) suggest, teaching the rules of the grammar explicitly for childrens of foreign language beginners and false beginners is depriving their natural right of language learning. When children acquire their mother tongue, they learn the rules of their language with no conscious awareness. If this is so, teaching the rules of grammar explicitly for children, as in the case of adults, is diverting learning from natural to unnatural learning.

Then, the conclusion is that since the purpose of communicative language teaching approach is to develop the communicative abilities of the learners, inductive approach is relatively favoured as Wajnryb (1992) notes. She explains that "in an inductive approach, such as the communicative one, learners are not taught grammatical rules directly or explicitly, but are left to induce the rules from their use of the language (P.85).

Another related issue in the teaching and learning procedure is the presentation of activities related to language skills. Skills development needs procedural learning.

. . . a skill can be viewed as a highly developed sequence of procedures that acquire the characteristics of automatic processing. An automatic processing is a set of highly practiced sequences (Schema, plans, frames, etc.) that provides the basis for an integration of processing components (Phye and Andre, 1986:144).

It is for this fact that process approach to the teaching of language skills becomes widely recognized procedure in communicative language teaching. Process learning, as various educational psychologists suggest, creates context for comprehension of the message by relating the new learning to the previously acquired knowledge. "As is true for intellectual skills, cognitive strategies in their initial learning call upon previously learned memories" (Gagne et al, 1992:113).

The most accepted procedures in the teaching of the four language skills are the pre-processing or lead-in activities that provide the learners with background knowledge about the incoming topic, the while-processing activities that help the learners to practise the actual skills of (e.g. reading, listening) and the post-processing activities used for monitoring or testing (as comprehension, and editing in writing) (Richards, 1990; Tonjes, 1991; Grellet, 1981). Therefore, the teaching and learning procedure, as many scholars suggest, should take such processes in the teaching of the language skills. According to Richards (1985), the teaching and learning procedure that does not make use of those strategies as pre-listening/ reading, while-listening /reading, post-listening/reading strategies in the teaching of either listening or reading skills is not teaching, instead it is testing.

In general , the communicative language teaching approach presupposes the classroom methodology that provides an opportunity for the learners to develop their communicative ability. In this regard, we saw the two main components of methodology, the teaching and learning activities and the procedures used to present them. The other related issue in this matter is classroom configuration. And it is dealt with in the forthcoming section.

2.3.3 Classroom Organization

One aspect of classroom methodology that attracted the attention of current educators and researchers in the field of second or foreign language education is group organization. Traditionally, language classroom interaction was and still is dominated by whole class teacher-led instructional system (Brumfit, 1984; Long and Porter, 1985; Richards and Lockhart, 1994).

Current researchers in the field of second or foreign language acquisition, inter-language and classroom interaction, however, argue that though it may be needed to some extent, the sole dependence on whole class teaching is disadvantageous.

Long and Porter (1985:208) note that "one of the reasons for the low achievement by many classroom SL [Second Language] learners is simply that they do not have enough time to practice the new language". Learners lack the opportunity to practise the new language because, as they maintain, "the predominant mode of instruction is what might be termed the lock-step" (Ibid), and it naturally restricts the learners' chance to practise the new language. Richards and Lockhart (1994:148) also mention a number of reasons why the whole class teaching is criticized. Among these are:

- *Such instruction is teacher-dominated, with little opportunity for active participation.*
- *Teachers tend to interact with only a small number of students in the class, as is seen from studies of teacher action zones.*

Consequently, various researchers who deal with second language acquisition, interlanguage development, and classroom interaction justify that organizing the whole-class into small groups of different sizes provides many advantages. Citing Long (1985) and Krashen (1985), Richards and Lockhart (1994:152) rationalize that when learners share information in pairs on meaningful task, each learner gets the chance to receive:

- a. *comprehensible input from his or her conversational partner,*
- b. *a chance to ask for clarification as well as feed-back on his or her output,*
- c. *adjustment of the input to match the level of the learner's comprehension, and*
- d. *the opportunity to develop new structures and conversational patterns through this process of interaction.*

However, in a traditional teacher-dominated classes where, in Widdowson's (1990:185) expression, "pupil can only contribute when they make a bid by raising the hand and when

this is acknowledged and ratified as a claim for a speaking turn", this advantage may not be possible.

Further more, Brumfit (1984:75), citing researches done by Abercrombie (1970), Schmuck and Schmuck (1971), Johnson and Johnson (1975), comments that "group co-operative rather than individual competitive procedures are held by these researchers to reduce anxiety, increase awareness of possible solutions to problems, and increase commitment to learning".

All these tend to justify that as long as group work is found to be advantageous in promoting language learning, particularly for the improvement of fluency, the language course that claims to be communicative needs to incorporate such issues.

To come to the point, an extensive discussion has been carried out concerning language teaching theories, issues about syllabus and the components that make up the communicative language teaching methodology to some extent. In this connection, as it was mentioned, the objective of the study is to evaluate the classroom implementation of the grade 9 ELT syllabus in terms of the communicative language teaching methodology.

Therefore, the efficacy of the teaching/learning activities and the procedures which the grade 9 ELT teachers use to teach the stated syllabus is assessed in accordance with the theoretical principles discussed in the above sections. That is to say, two approaches have been raised as far as the teaching/learning activities are concerned. As has been pointed out, the teaching/learning activities that challenge the learners cognitively and those that teach use instead of usage are recognized to be helpful in enhancing the learners communicative abilities. Consequently, this study tries to see as to whether the activities

used in the course in question are more cognitive or mechanical as well as they focus on use or usage.

As far as the procedures of language presentation is concerned, there have also been two approaches raised in the aforementioned discussions. These are the synthetic vs analytic and deductive vs inductive presentation of language to the learners. Then, the procedures used by the teachers in question are also appraised in terms of these approaches. In short, as to whether the stated teachers focus on synthetic or analytic as well as deductive or inductive approaches is considered.

In this respect, for example, Lawrence (1990), as Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1992) state, conducted similar study for her Ph.D dissertation and used four pairs of criteria that are mentioned above.

Concerning the procedure of presenting activities that are designed to teach the language skills, issues related to process teaching are raised in the above discussions as well. This is also relevant to this study. The techniques which the teachers use to teach, particularly the reading comprehension are also considered as the essential points of reference.

Finally, the points raised regarding the classroom organization have their own contribution to the study. Since communicative language teaching espouses the classroom organization that consists of small group work or mode of instruction, the study attempts to see whether the classes under investigation make use of this aspect or are still dominated by the traditional lock-step system of teaching.

2.4 Related Studies in the Ethiopian Context

Even though their objectives differ, there have been a number of studies conducted at MA level that indicate the nature of teaching in English language classes in the Ethiopian context. Of a number of studies conducted in Ethiopian context, those which have closer similarity to the present research had been carried out by Messelech Habte (1991) and Melesse Bedane (1992).

If we take Messelech Habte's (1991) study, it concentrated on the classroom methodology used by high school English language teachers. The purpose of her study was to describe the methods and techniques which the teachers use to teach English language. For her study, she took four senior high schools of Addis Ababa and observed one English language class for each of the grades 9 through 12 in each of the four schools. In her findings, Messelech states that the majority of the teachers use lecture method which focuses on meta-language explanation. According to her, of the total time spent on teaching, 15.9% to 30% was used for meta-language explanation. Of the remaining, 11.6% to 18.4% was used by students for reading the passage aloud and 7% to 11.9% was used by the teachers for comprehension lesson. It was only 7.5% to 18% of the time that was used for language practice. She states that even this amount of time was dominated by lock-step mode of instruction. She further comments that the teaching/learning activities or strategies which are currently found to be useful in developing the communicative abilities of the learners such as pair or group works, language games, role-plays, debating, silent reading, skimming, scanning, information-gap and so on were non-existent (Messelech, 1992:68).

Finally, Messelech Habte (1991) concluded that it was not only the methodology which the teachers apply which was found to be of the traditional type, but also the syllabuses and the text-books were found to pursue the structural approach to language teaching.

As mentioned above, Melesse Bedane (1992) also carried out a study which has the closer similarity to the present research. The objective of his study was to investigate the causes for the deterioration of English language teaching in Ethiopian high schools. To this end, Melesse evaluated the former English language curriculum of this level by concentrating on the contents and the methodology used by the high school English language teachers. For the study, he gathered the data from the curriculum documents and high schools sited in the capitals of the former administrative regions of Ethiopia.

According to the findings of Melesse Bedane (1992), the situational and functional contents which are supposed to be useful in the teaching of language for communication were non-existent. "The investigation into grades 9-12 English textbooks in light of situational and functional content. . . shows that the textbooks are almost aloof of both kinds of contents" (Melesse Bedane, 1992:34). Melesse goes on to suggest that most of the exercises given in the textbooks and which the teachers in turn use focus on mechanical manipulation of sentences generated from the linguistic data rather than reflections of authentic language use. He points out that the response of the great majority of the teachers that ranges from 71-100% indicated that "the use of the communicative techniques like extemporaneous speech, dialogue, role play debate, panel discussion and guided interview is almost nil" (Melesse Bedane, 1992:59). Furthermore, Melesse extends his discussion on his findings and describes that whereas "88% of the respondents said that they apply lecture and explanations as dominant methods", his "classroom observation also warrants that teachers rely on pure lecture, even sometimes pure lectures in Amharic" (Ibid). As far as the teaching of reading is concerned, Melesse comments that 68% of the

teachers "responded that they use more oral reading of their own than. . . their students" (Melesse Bedane, 1992: 61).

In general, the above studies which were conducted by those post-graduate students of Addis Ababa University demonstrate the traditional language teaching approach dominated the English language teaching programmes in Ethiopia. Not only the ELT syllabuses and the teaching materials, but also the teaching /learning methods and techniques the teachers use were found to be the sources of the less interactive and non-communicative English language teaching in the country according to the aforementioned studies.

However, as mentioned earlier, those structurally-graded ELT syllabuses and textbooks for students of elementary and partly secondary schools of Ethiopia have recently been replaced by the communicatively-oriented ones. Therefore, it seems timely and imperative to conduct an evaluation so as to determine as to whether the teachers who had been accustomed to running the structural language teaching approach implement the current ELT syllabuses according to the recommended communicative language teaching approach. This is what makes the present study different from those which have been raised in the above discussions. That means whereas those post-graduate students had carried out their researches on the old syllabuses and teaching materials which were designed in line of the structural or traditional language teaching approach, the present researcher, on the other hand, did his research on the currently developed syllabus and teaching materials which were designed on the basis of the communicative approach to some extent.

In this connection, it would be appropriate to talk something about the currently developed ELT coursebook for the grade in question. This is because, though it was consistently said that curricular materials which have recently been put into implementation are

communicatively-oriented, it may not probably be clear for the readers of this research whether or not they really are. Thus, the discussion held in the forthcoming section could give us an overview of the Grade 9 ELT coursebook currently in use.

2.5 An Overview of the Current ELT Coursebook for Grade Nine

To begin with, it seems proper to start the discussion by referring to the source of this teaching material. As stated in the teachers' manual, "the teaching and learning material is based on the official English language syllabus for Grade 9" (Bogale Gebre and Galgalo Liben, 1996:4). If this is the case, the next issue is the question of the compatibility between this material and the objective of the syllabus. As seen from the syllabus, the general objective of this course is to enable the learners to use the target language for their academic purpose as well as for every-day life communication wherever English language is needed (Please see Appendix G). In this case, though the students need English language for these two purposes, the former need seems to be more immediate for the learners than the latter. In short, the learners, starting from grade 7 be it now or even earlier, learn other subjects through the medium of English. This means, the learners need to understand and use the English language to listen to their teachers and classmates, to read the teaching materials and other sources available to them and be able to extract relevant information from what they listen to and read. They need not only understanding. They also have to be able to give responses to what they understand either in spoken or written form.

Therefore, when we talk of the compatibility between the syllabus and the coursebook, it is in terms of providing the teaching and learning activities, materials and procedures which will help the learners to fulfill those needs. Then, if the course materials satisfy the

learners' needs, they can possibly be said that they are communicative because of the fact that the central focus in this approach is the learner (Nunan, 1988; Widdowson, 1990, Richards, 1985).

In general, Richards (1990) mentions six characteristics of effective language teaching instructional materials. In his view, the effective instructional materials are those which ". . . are based on theoretically sound learning principles, . . . arouse and maintain the learners' interest and attention, . . . are appropriate to the learners' needs and background, . . . provide examples of how language is used, provide meaningful activities for learners, . . . provide opportunities for communicative and authentic language use" (Richards, 1990:15).

So, to assess the coursebook under investigation in terms of some of the above characteristics, let us approach it by referring to its gradation. As already stated, the course is comprehensive in that it is designed for general language teaching. Therefore, it includes all the four language skills as well as vocabulary and grammar. Moreover, language functions and situations are provided in the course, embedded with the four language skills, and the vocabulary and grammar lessons. If we see the contents of the textbook, all units contain seven sections. These sections are comprehension, vocabulary, grammar, speaking, listening, writing, and reading. As a result, we can say that the coursebook is graded around the language skills. As various language educators suggest, the skill-based approach becomes more and more relevant to teach the target language for communication (White, 1988; Richards, 1990; Widdowson, 1981). According to Widdowson (1981:198), for instance, "the skill-based approach aims at developing skills and strategies relating to language that would help students to continue their language improvement endeavour on their own even after the end of a language course" (quoted in Hailemichael Abera 1993:79).

Accordingly, if we start from the comprehension section, for example, unlike its predecessors, the grade 9 textbook which is currently put in use accommodates reading strategies such as pre-reading discussion, skimming and scanning, reading and post-reading discussions.

The current ELT textbook also accommodates the learning strategies in the teaching of vocabulary. New vocabulary items are first given in the reading comprehension texts. This creates context for learning new language elements. As Cunningsworth (1995:102) maintains, "context makes the meaning clearer and allows students to work out the meanings of unfamiliar words using contextual and other cues, thus encouraging good communicative strategies". Moreover, the unfamiliar terminologies are presented in associations. An attempt was made to present the meanings of words in synonymy, antonym, collocations and/or in formal relations. For instance, if we take the words 'to take' and 'to last' they are synonymously presented like

"The flight took 33 hours

The flight lasted 33 hours" (Bogale Gebre and Galgalo Liben 1996:33).

Here, the learners may be familiar with the terms 'take' and 'last' before comprehending the meanings other than what they convey in these examples. Such presentation of vocabulary yields multifaceted advantage for the learners. Since the learners are familiar with the terms, it takes very little time to internalize or memorize the form or structure of these terms as they are already stored in their minds. What they memorize is only the extended meaning. The other advantage is that the learners express a lot of concepts with limited vocabulary. One thing that distinguishes the native speakers from the non-native speakers is their (the native speakers') ability to express a great many concepts with limited vocabulary. Hence, such teaching may probably approximate the learners to native-like proficiency.

Another important strategy used in this material to present the vocabulary lesson is collocation. Let us see some examples from the textbook. It says "the verb 'make' has many meanings" (Ibid: p.34). And these different meanings are shown in different sentences as given below:

1. *They made wings and tied them to their arms.*
2. *Sad films always make me cry.*
3. *My father is a merchant. He makes a lot of money.*

Still the learners are provided with the words with which they are experienced. In the case of the first sentence, the students might have familiarity with the meaning of make, i.e, "to prepare or build". But in the case of the second and third sentences, the meanings of 'make' are extended. Why does somebody cry?: because of the sad films. Then, the learners can understand the meaning of 'make' in the second sentence by collocating it with the noun phrase 'sad films' and they may realize that it means 'to cause'. In the case of the third sentence, the learners can easily collocate the word 'make' with 'money' and can arrive at the conclusion that it means 'earning'.

In this respect, it is possible to say that most of the vocabulary items given in the current ELT textbook are closer to the immediate needs of the learners because they are the words which people need for the day to day communication. In contrast, the old textbooks are filled with words that stand for the concepts which learners rarely need to use in the real-world communication. Consequently, they are easily forgettable than the words which the learners use to express the day- to-day activities and events.

Another means of vocabulary development strategy is reference or guessing, as "much of comprehension is drawing inferences" (Rivers 1983:100). When the students learn to infer the concepts expressed in sentences, phrases, or words in any text or discourse, they will

not worry about each and every bit of the language element. They only give priority to the comprehension of the message, which is the *sin qua non* of the communicative language teaching. As cited in Richards (1990), the work of Howenfeld (1977) indicated the existence of high correlation between inference learning and higher achievement. The findings of Hosenfeld's study, as stated in Richards' (1990:46) own words, indicate that "high scorers tended to keep the meaning of the passage in mind, read in board phrases, skip unessential words, and guess meanings of unknown words from context". On the other hand, "low scorers tended to lose the meaning of sentences as soon as they decoded them, read word by word. . . rarely skip words" (Ibid).

Looked at in this way, the new coursebook is more conducive for learning than the old one. Every unit of the new textbook contains guessing exercise. On the contrary, there is no such thing called guessing or inferencing in the old textbooks. The meanings of the new vocabulary items used in the reading texts were presented through the direct interpretations given in the same language in the case of the old ones. And this inhibits the chance of processing the language cognitively.

As far as grammar learning is concerned, the textbook accommodates both inductive and deductive learning strategies. But it seems that the latter approach is less emphasized. In terms of internalizing the grammar lesson, various contexts are given. The first major context is using the texts of different topics to teach the structure part in a meaningful way. The other contexts used in the textbook are tables, diagrams, cued dialogues and conversations.

One major point that distinguishes the new ELT textbook from the old one is its capacity to present the language lesson integratively as stated in the teachers manual in this way:

the course is also 'integrated', that is to say the teaching materials and the learning activities frequently ingrate the main language aspects specified by the syllabus: listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary, and grammar"

(Bogale Gebre and Galgalo Liben, 1996:7)

Many of the activities in each section of the unit are either drawn from the comprehension section or related to it indirectly. The first section of the unit is comprehension section and it is used as a springboard for the other skills and language aspects. "The main focus in this course is the reading text in the comprehension section" (Ibid: p.6). After the comprehension activity, the learners are provided with vocabulary items used in the former section. Then what follows is the structure (grammar) lesson. The grammatical structures taught in this section are those which appear in the comprehension and vocabulary sections. Most of the oral and written language practice activities are provided here. Then the speaking skill follows. After the learners practise the language in the structure as well as, of course, in the vocabulary section, they are given a lesson on how to produce appropriate speech. The next to follow is listening which is followed by writing. The topics mostly dealt with in these two sections are closely related to the one that has been dealt with in the comprehension section. The final, seventh section, is intended for the learners as a supplementary reading material.

Such a language presentation is one of the accepted system in the teaching of foreign/ second language. It follows the global or holistic approach to language teaching. The learners, as in the case of natural language learning, are exposed to the whole chunk of language. Then, as they develop their comprehending ability, they pass to the analysis of each aspects of the language.

In contrast, the old textbook lacks integration. In fact the reading text is provided as a starter of the unit. But, as to how comprehending the language can be related to other

skills is not clearly indicated. Moreover, the listening, speaking and writing skills are not dealt with in their own sections as independent skills. Consequently, it is not clear how the learners develop these skills.

In the literature of communicative language teaching approach, it is consistently raised that the language teaching / learning activities which are meaningful and communicative are suggested to support language learning. Regarding this, the current ELT textbook includes more meaningful and communicative activities such as information-gap, problem-solving, incomplete exercises, diagram or table completion activities than does the old one. If we see, for example, the activities given in the new textbook on pp. 65-9, all are problem-solving activities. They are intended to teach conditional sentences. Let us take Exercise 1 of these activities. In this activity, it is stated that the distance from Nazaret to Addis Ababa is 100 kilometers. Then, the students are instructed to discuss in groups and pairs the cost and length of hours it will take them from Nazaret to Addis Ababa or vice versa if they go by taxi, by bus, by bicycle, by donkey, mule or on foot.

Such activities, then, are supposed to be meaningful and communicative in that they provide all the opportunities for the learners to discuss the given theme, to debate or argue on each other's response and thereby negotiate meaning. In this case, the context created by using the setting Addis Ababa and Nazaret may not have proximity to all the students who use this textbook. Regarding such issues, the coursebooks may not be accountable. What the teaching materials present to the learners or teachers is only the example of language use (Widdowson, 1990; Richards, 1990, Breen 1989). Thus, the person who is responsible for creating or changing the unfamiliar context by the familiar or realistic one is the teacher.

In addition to this, as Widdowson (1978) points out, relating the second or foreign language course to other content courses horizontally helps to teach language use. In this regard an attempt was also made to see this teaching material. It is found to maintain such relations. We can also see some example exercises from the textbook. Let us take the following two questions which are, in fact, intended for pre-reading task. In this activity, the students are instructed to discuss in small groups. These questions are:

"1. What kinds of experiments do you do in your science lessons?"

2. If you take all the air out of a thin plastic bottle, what will happen? why?"

(Bogale Gebre and Galgalo Liben, 1996:55)

As the questions themselves indicate, there is no pre-determined answer. There may be as many answers as possible. Furthermore, as the questions are intended for group discussion, they can create good opportunity to use the language without any concentration on accuracy. This is because no two people or students memorize all the incidents that happened at any time. That means, one partner may memorize the kind of experiment they did in the science class which the other partner may not. This can create information-gap, particularly in the case of the first question. Besides, as the learners are supposed to discuss the topic or idea, they may not wander in seeking the idea or topic which they do not know. In this respect, as many psycholinguists assert, the knowledge of the topic allows the learners to use the language spontaneously. Thus, practising such activities can help the learners to develop their communicative abilities.

Moreover, such language learning activities are purposeful in that they appeal to the needs and interests of the learners. In activities of these type in which the concepts from other subject areas are embedded, the learners not only benefit in building the skills as to how to use the language, but also practise how to report experiments, workouts, project works and so on in English language since it is the medium of instruction for all other subjects.

To summarize, the ELT curricular materials for grade 9 which have recently been put into implementation are communicatively oriented when compared to their predecessors.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY USED IN THE STUDY

3.1 Introduction

In the preceding chapters, it was mentioned that the objective of the study is to explore whether the teaching/learning activities and procedures which the teachers use to implement the currently designed ELT syllabus for grade 9 are communicative or not.

To this end, the criteria related to the communicative approach to language teaching were developed (adapted) on the basis of the discussion given in the review of related literature. In the review of related literature, the works of Messelech Habte (1991) and Melesse Bedane (1992) were raised. In these works the types of teaching/learning activities, the techniques or procedures used to present these activities, and the language learning strategies were used as yardsticks to determine the classroom language teaching methodology. Similarly, these aspects were applied in the present research though the way they were assessed was different. That is to say, the contents of the teaching/learning activities and the procedure of presentation were assessed in terms of the four pairs of criteria in the latter case. As far as the content of the teaching/learning activities are concerned the two pairs of criteria, i.e., cognitive vs mechanical and use vs usage were used. For the procedure which the teacher use to present the language or teaching/learning activities or tasks, the other two pairs, i.e, analytic vs synthetic and inductive vs deductive approaches were used. The use of such criteria to determine the classroom methodology was adapted from Lawrence (1990) which was quoted in Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1992).

Nevertheless, the above mentioned post-graduate students did not see the teaching/learning activities and the techniques of presentation in terms of the above stated

criteria. Whereas Messelech Habte (1991) attempted to see the classroom methodology in light of the ratio of time spent on information-gap, problem solving, debate, language game, drills, loud reading, silent reading, scanning and so on, Melesse Bedane (1992) obtained more information on these aspects by distributing questionnaire to teachers. In fact both of the post-graduate students used classroom observation and questionnaire. So did the present researcher, too.

3.2 Classroom Observation

Since the study focuses on the implementation of the syllabus, classroom observation was taken as the main instrument of data collection. As a result, every effort was made to devise a systematic mechanism that would enable the researcher to gather the information relevant to and adequate for the study.

The researcher had to perform two important pre-observation tasks. The first of these was designing the check-list that can provide relevant data about the teaching /learning activities, the methods or procedures used by the teachers to present those activities and classroom organization. In this regard, the observation check-list that contains the stated variables was adapted from Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1992). In fact, the original check-list was not used or developed by them. They simply present what Lawrence (1990) used for her study as a model instrument or method for syllabus evaluation. As it was noted in the previous chapter, Lawrence (1990) had carried out an evaluation on grade eight (8) ELT syllabus in Zambia for her Ph.D dissertation.

Then, she, as Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1992) point out, used an open-ended check-list divided into four ten-minutes sessions for her study. She, then, coded the dominant feature of the lesson or method that appears in ten minutes time as is seen below:

<i>Minutes</i>	<i>SY</i>	<i>DED</i>	<i>COG</i>	<i>USG</i>	<i>PC</i>	<i>No of pupil responses (N=28)</i>
<i>1-10</i>	+	+	+	+	<i>L/S</i>	<i>9</i>
<i>11-21</i>	+	+	+	+	<i>L/S</i>	<i>10</i>
<i>22-32</i>	-	<i>n/a</i>	+	-	<i>L/S/W</i>	<i>7</i>
<i>33-40</i>	-	<i>n/a</i>	+	+	<i>W/R</i>	-

SY = *Synthetic*

USG = *Usage*

DED = *Deductive*

PC = *Performance Channel*

COG = *Cognitive*

n/a = *not applicable*

Source: (Lawrence, 1990 quoted in Rea-Dikins and Germaine, 1992: 128)

The current researcher, however, divided a forty-minute period into eight five-minute (Please See Appendix A). This is because seen from the pilot observation, the teachers usually spend either the first or the last five minutes of the period for routine works. This creates a problem to code what occurs at the beginning or end of the period when the ten-minute session is used. In this case, the problem is at least minimized when the adapted five-minute session is used instead of the original ten-minute one.

Another modification done on the check-list was an extension of the categories. In addition to the column which included the already mentioned four pairs of criteria, three columns were included in the check-list. The extended columns were used to code the teaching act, the types of activities and classroom organization (details are given at the end of this chapter).

The second pre-observation task which the present researcher had to do was choosing schools. After having gathered the information about the co-operativeness of the teachers in different schools, the researcher simply selected the sample of five secondary schools in

Addis Ababa Administrative Region for classroom observation. The selected schools were Medhane Alem, Kolfe, Ethiopia Tikdem, Wondirad and Nefas Silk Secondary Schools. After the schools had been chosen, observation was carried out for the first four days (Monday through Thursday) of two consecutive weeks, that is, for a total of 8 (eight) days. Two teachers or classes each from the different schools were observed per day.

The procedure of observation was carried out in two ways. One class from each school, meaning a total of five classes, were observed by two observers at the same time. After being introduced to the use of the check-list, the co-observer entered the class with the researcher. Then both of them coded the dominantly occurring activity type, method and mode of classroom instruction within five minutes. The remaining 11 classes were observed by the researcher alone for the teachers in these classes were not voluntary to allow two observers to enter the class for the same period.

Then, the time the teachers spent on each of the categories were collated (Please See Appendices B, C and D) and the mean percentage of the 16 classes were computed.

3.3 Questionnaire

The other instrument used in this study was a questionnaire (Please See Appendix E). It was designed with the purpose (i) to gather some information relevant to the study but not possible to observe in the classroom and (ii) to enrich the information gathered by means of classroom observation.

Sixty copies of the questionnaire were distributed to the respective number of teachers who have been teaching English for grade 9. This number includes the 16 teachers who had been involved in the observation programme. From the sixty copies of the distributed

questionnaire, 51 copies (85%) were returned. However, since three copies in which many of the items were not responded were discarded, only the responses given in the remaining 48 copies (80%) were considered for the study. And, these responses were tallied, tabulated and mean percentages were computed.

Finally, on the basis of the findings obtained from the two techniques used in the study, conclusions were arrived at and recommendations made.

3.4 Description of the Categories Used in the Observation Check-list

The main categories used in the observation check -list are described below:

- a. **Minutes:** This category refers to the division of a forty-minute period into eight five-minute sessions. It was used to determine the ratio of activity types, methods, and procedures used in the classroom in terms of the four pairs of criteria given in 'd' and the relative ratio of time spent on different classroom organizations.
- b. **Teaching act:** This refers to the time spent on explanation, discussion, elaboration and so on by the teacher on reading passage, language structure, language function, vocabulary and other topics. It is included with the purpose of obtaining supplementary information about the classroom methodology.
- c. **Activities:** This column includes the following categories.
 - i. **Comprehension activities.** This section was included to determine the appropriate use of learning strategies pertinent to reading comprehension. This sub-category is as important as the category cited in 'd' to assess comprehension activities.

- ii. Language practice activities. This sub-category includes the controlled practice activities such as drills of all kinds (completion, conversion, transformation, substitution); answer and question exercises; cued dialogues and conversation and free-communicative/ interactive activities such as information-gap, role-plays and simulation and problem-solving. This sub-category is included with the purpose of cross-checking and obtaining supplementary information. Since it overlaps with the main criteria given in 'd', it is not analysed independently.
- d. Content /procedure: This category includes the four main criteria used in the study. Whereas content refers to the two pairs, i.e, mechanical vs cognitive and usage vs use; procedure refers to the other two: synthetic vs analytic and deductive vs inductive approaches. Sine the former two pairs stand for the issue related to meaning or message, they were used to determine the content of the teaching /learning activities. On the other hand, the latter two deal with the presentation of the language so that they were used to assess the procedures which the teachers used to present the teaching /learning activities as well as materials to the students.
- e. Participant organization: This category is included with the purpose of finding out the application of small group works. It consists of whole class, individued seat work, pair and small group works. The whole class was, in turn, classified into three forms of interaction, i.e. only the teacher talking to the class (T→S), one -to-one interaction of the teacher with the students (T↔S) and student to student (S ↔ S) interaction.
- f. Remark: The last section included in the check-list is the category referred to as 'remark'. This section was included with the purpose to record or take down some notes and examples when something new or something which was not possible to code in one of the above categories occurs.

CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE DATA

4.1 Introduction

As stated in the preceding chapters, the main objective of this study is to explore the appropriate implementation of the current ELT syllabus for grade 9 in terms of the communicative language teaching approach. In order to achieve this objective, the two questions, as mentioned earlier, need to be answered. To remind them once again, they are:

- a. Do the activities and tasks the teachers use help the learners to develop their communicative abilities?
- b. Are the teaching /learning procedures which the teachers apply to present language (or those activities stated in 'a') to the learners appropriate in terms of the communicative language teaching approach?

In seeking answers to these questions, different criteria related to the above variables were set. These criteria were used with the purpose of indicating the content or nature of the teaching /learning activities and the procedures used to present the language to the learners.

Accordingly, the data collected by means of classroom observation and questionnaire were analysed. The analysis followed four procedures. First, the procedures the teachers use to present the teaching and learning activities was analysed. Here, the class lesson was seen in two ways. One way is the procedure which the comprehension lesson was assessed and the other is the procedure which the language practice activities was assessed.

The reading comprehension lesson was dealt with separately regarding the procedure of teaching because the reading strategies like pre-reading discussion, skimming, scanning, while-reading and post-reading are provided in the curricular materials. Therefore, so as to determine the appropriate application of these strategies, it seems imperative to deal with the reading comprehension lesson separately. On the other hand these strategies or process-learning activities were not provided to teach the other language skills (speaking, listening and writing). Therefore, these latter skills were incorporated in language practice activities.

Then, the procedures which the teachers use to present the language practice activities (lessons) which incorporate the language skills other than reading comprehension, structure and vocabulary teaching was evaluated in terms of synthetic vs analytic and deductive vs inductive criteria. The lessons assessed in terms of synthetic vs analytic are all the class lessons except the reading comprehension. As it is assessed in terms of the given reading strategies, it seems redundant to deal the reading comprehension with here. The lesson which is assessed in terms of deductive vs inductive criteria is only the structure lesson.

The second in the procedure of data analysis was assessing the content of the teaching and learning activities in terms of cognitive vs mechanical and use vs usage criteria. The lessons in which the learners' involvement was not clear were not dealt with here. That means, when the teachers' explanation or discussion dominates the lesson, the learners participation is limited though they may listen. As a result, the time which the teachers spent on such lessons was not considered in this section.

Finally, the time which was spent on different participant organization was dealt with.

4.2 Analysis of the Reading Comprehension Lesson

From the total of sixteen observed classes, six classes which cover 37.5% were seen teaching reading comprehension. As a result, an attempt was made to assess the appropriate use of strategies that are meant to develop the reading skills of the learners. Accordingly, the percentage of time which the teachers spent on each of the reading strategies was computed from the raw data (Please see Appendix B) and was presented in Table 1 given below.

Table 1: Percentage of Time Spent on Reading Comprehension Strategies and Activities

Reading Strategies/Activities	T ₁	T ₂	T ₃	T ₄	T ₅	T ₆
pre-reading/Lead-in/	12.5	-	12.5	25	-	12.5
Scanning/Skimming	-	-	-	25	-	12.5
Silent reading	-	-	25	25	-	-
Loud reading	25	37.5	-	-	37.5	25
Explanation/elaboration	25	37.5	37.5	25	37.5	50
Comprehension question	25	12.5	25	-	25	-

T = Teacher

To begin with, 33.33% of the teachers never use the pre-reading activity. The remaining 66.66% of the teachers do implement though only one teacher uses this strategy appropriately. Of those who use the pre-reading discussion, 75% use this strategy as an introductory activity. As is seen in the table above, 12.5% which means 5 minutes is not adequate for the learners to relate their background knowledge to the incoming reading lesson. Moreover, it is not only the shortage of time spent on the pre-reading activity that

can limit the value of this strategy, but also the non-involvement of the learners in the activity. As seen from the observation, most of the teachers did not systematically bring the learners to the pre-reading discussions. They, in fact, introduce the reading lesson very briefly. But, whether or not the learners have attempted to draw the whole impression of the text or passage is not clear. This is because the teachers sometimes raise the pre-reading questions but they themselves immediately give answers to the questions in the form of discussion before the learners get the time for processing the question in association with their past knowledge. However, as the teachers' responses in the questionnaire indicate, 10.4% of the teachers say that they always engage the learners in pre-reading discussions in pairs and groups. Similarly, 29.16% say that they did so often. In fact, the remaining 41.6% and 18.75% assure that they engage the learners in pre-reading discussion in pairs or groups sometimes and rarely respectively. It seems that what the teachers responded to the item given in 'b' concurs with the result obtained from the observation.

Table 2: Teachers' Responses Regarding the Implementation of the Reading Strategies.

No.	Items	Nearly always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
a	Engage the students to discuss in pairs or groups before they start reading a text.	10.4%	29.1%	41.6%	18.75%	-
b	Explain new words and phrases before getting students in reading the text.	25%	31.2%	31.2%	12.5%	-
c	Read the text first loudly and then allow the students to read it turn by turn.	25%	33.33%	29.1%	8.3%	4.1%
d	Engage students to read silently and ask questions.	14.5%	20.8%	31.2%	27.08%	4.1%

That is to say, they explain new words and phrases before they engage the learners in the reading task. However, no teacher was observed conducting pair or group discussions in pre-reading activities.

In the case of the second reading strategy, as seen in table 1, the percentage of the teachers who made use of it is small. Only 33.33% of those who teach reading comprehension attempt to apply scanning or skimming strategy. The remaining 66.66% of the teachers did not use the technique. In a natural situation, we do not always read the texts or passages word by word. There are situations where we read the whole text, there are the situations where we scan for only specific information and there are still other situations where we skim for general ideas and concepts. In this respect, the purpose of teaching reading should consider such strategies as skimming and scanning at any stage. If the learners fail to practise such activities, they may not apply such reading styles in natural situation. The teachers may assume that they are using the stated strategies. What matters is not allowing the students to read for 5 or 10 minutes by themselves. Instead, perhaps, if the students are first provided with some general questions and are informed to find answers from the texts by reading roughly, it can be said that the students are more or less getting exposure to skimming strategy.

As both classroom observation and teachers' responses in the questionnaire make explicit, one of the activities dominantly performed in the reading comprehension lesson was loud reading by students. 66.66% of the teachers were found to engage the learners in turn by turn loud reading for at least 25% of the reading lesson time. In the questionnaire, 25% and 33.33% of the teachers responded that they engage in loud reading nearly always and often respectively. Similarly, 29.1% say that they sometimes perform loud reading. If we take the sum of these percentages, 87.4% of the teachers use loud reading often or at least sometimes. But it is not clear that what sort of advantage that loud reading by students

contribute to their reading skills or abilities. The primary purpose of teaching reading comprehension is to allow the learners to practise how to comprehend, interpret, extract and so on various messages, concepts and information by reading the given texts. All these require the ability to infer from the contexts given in the text, to refer to the reference sentences, phrases or words from the text and to relate to world knowledge. This, in turn, demands attentive reading. When they read loudly turn by turn they may have less ability to extract messages than when they read silently. It is for this fact that Grellet (1981: 10) insists to concentrate on silent reading rather than loud reading by saying: ". . . practising reading in the classroom. . .is a silent activity. Therefore silent reading should be encouraged in most cases. . .The students themselves should not read aloud".

In this case, if those who sit in the class while their classmate was reading had been informed to listen attentively, it might have been said that the learners at least could get some information from listening to the text read in the class. Somehow this was not commonly done. Even this may not be considered as reading; instead it is listening. By the same token, loud reading is more related to speaking than reading. Therefore, according to Richards (1985), such activity which is inclined more to other skill or ability rather than the skill it stands for is less valid or even invalid in terms of its content.

On the other hand, silent reading which is more pertinent to promoting the reading skill was found to be a less considered activity in the assessed comprehension lesson. It was only 33.33% of the teachers who implement this strategy. Even though the percentage varies, the teachers' responses also revealed that they tend to emphasize loud reading more than silent one. As seen in Table 2, only 14.58 and 20.83% of the teachers say that they nearly always and often respectively engage their students in silent reading. When seen together, this accounts for 35.4% of the teachers. Of the remaining, whereas 31.25% use this strategy sometimes, 27% use it rarely and 4.1% never apply it.

The other activity which consumes the highest time was discussion on reading passages given by the teachers. In all the observed classes, the teachers give explanation on the reading passage. The percentage of the time which the teachers spent on giving explanation on the reading passage ranges from 25% for 33.33% of the teachers through 37.5% for 50% of the teachers to 50% for 16.6% of the teachers. There is no wrong in giving explanation on the reading comprehension lesson. However, if more emphasis is given to explanation rather than the process of reading, what the students may benefit is more of improving the listening rather than reading skill. Similarly, the content of explanation also can affect the teaching of reading skill. For instance, if the teacher emphasizes paraphrasing what the passage says either in detail or roughly rather than giving explanation on how to extract, understand or infer retrospectively from what has immediately been read or prospectively from what will immediately be read (Widdowson, 1978), the teaching of reading comprehension surrenders its place to the teaching of the topic's content. That means the lesson becomes purposeless.

Seen in this way, the discussion which most of the teachers in the observed classes held on the reading comprehension seems to be a kind of re-telling what the text presents. This, then contributes very little to improve the learners' reading ability as discussed above.

Another point which the present researcher noticed from the classroom observation was that most of the teachers were found to have skipped the exercise called 'guessing'. One way the students develop the skill of reading as Richards (1985), Widdowson (1978), Tonjes (1991), suggest is inferencing or guessing. In fact, the researcher is not sure whether the teachers reconsider what they have skipped or not.

The final activity which the teachers carry out in the reading comprehension lesson was comprehension question. As seen in Table 1, the percentage of time the teachers spent on

it varies. Since the time difference on comprehension question may not tell us its contents, it is dealt with in section 4.4 together with other activities.

4.3 Analysis of Language Presentation in Terms of Analytic vs Synthetic and Inductive vs Deductive Approaches.

In the preceding section, the procedures which the teachers use to teach the reading comprehension lesson was dealt with. Therefore, it is not included in this section. Except the reading comprehension lesson, all the observed lessons were covered here.

The criteria used to assess the procedures which the teachers used to present different teaching/learning activities are analytic vs synthetic and inductive vs deductive approaches. Hence, the percentage of time which ten of the sixteen observed teachers spent on presentation of language in accordance with the above criteria or approaches was computed from the raw data (Appendix C), and presented in Table 3. The first to be presented is analytic vs synthetic approaches .

4.3.1 Analytic vs Synthetic Approaches

Table 3: Percentage of Time Spent on Language Presentation in Terms of Analytic vs Synthetic Approaches.

Approaches	T ₁	T ₂	T ₃	T ₄	T ₅	T ₆	T ₇	T ₈	T ₉	T ₁₀	Mean
Analytic	-	25	43.7	37.5	-	25	12.5	37.5	12.5	33.33	22.70%
Synthetic	100	75	56.2	62.5	100	75	87.5	62.5	87.5	66.66	77.28%

To begin with, as indicated in the above table, whereas 20% of the teachers implement fully synthetic, 50% of the teachers spent 66.66% to 87.5% of their time in teaching language lesson which follows synthetic approach. This means 70% the teachers use less than 33.33% of their time on teaching in line with analytic approach. And still the time which the remaining 30% of the teachers spent on teaching in accordance with analytic approach is limited to 37.5 to 43.7%. This means, the dominant approach is synthetic as the mean percentage indicates. On an average, the teachers use only 22.7% of their class time in teaching the language beyond the sentence level. The remaining 77.28% is fully used for the teaching of synthesizing or composing correct sentences.

As various language educators comment, language presentation fully dominated by synthetic approach helps the learners very little in enhancing their ability to use the language. Such teaching of the language elements separately which Widdowson (1990) calls "semantic capsules", that is, the words, phrases or sentences with their meanings, will help the learners only to restore those elements in their minds. And this guarantees only knowing but not using (Widdowson, 1990; Rivers, 1983, Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983). If the purpose of language teaching is to enable the learners, as these authorities and others maintain, they should be exposed to practising the language practice beyond the sentence level. Here, when it is said that the presentation of the language beyond the sentence level benefits the learners, it does not mean the mere presentation of the language in text or discourse form. It needs to show or make explicit as to how the sentence that comes first is related to the next, third and so on thematically. If the learners, for example, are given dialogues or conversations only for reading or for practising how to take turns without understanding its meaning, it has no value. This is because what the learners need to practise is not the simple reading of those conversations or dialogues but being able to distinguish how the meaning of particular speech can vary as the style of speaking varies. If the learners, then, simply read without any awareness about such differences there is no

means for them to associate that particular piece of writing with meaning. This means, what the learners may probably know or understand is only the propositional meaning of the sentence as it is expressed by the linguistic elements in isolation from the context of speech styles.

Moreover dialogues and conversations can be provided to teach some language structures. The purpose of using dialogues and conversation is to create the context for the learners that they try to learn the structure in its use. Still, also, if the thematic relation of the sentences is not made clear to the learners, the presentation of the language beyond the sentence level has no difference from discrete element teaching. Let us see the following example taken from classroom observation for clarity.

A: Who is knocking at the door?

B: It must be Ali. He said he would come.

Here, it can be said that the language is presented beyond the sentence level. We can say such presentation benefits the learners, when the learners are able to use the contexts given in the above conversation that is done between 'A' and 'B'. The question asked by 'A' and the third sentence given by 'B' as an assurance are clues to say "It must be Ali". In the 'A's' question the words 'who' and 'knocking' are clues to distinguish that it is not animal or wind, instead it is human being. Now, what remains is identifying who he/she is knocking at the door. Then, to distinguish this, 'B's' second sentence is given. Therefore, why 'B' says "It must be Ali" because Ali said to 'B' that he would come. Now, what is wanted to say here is that even though it may not need to describe in this way, it needs to make explicit for the learners as to how the first, second and so on sentences are thematically related. Otherwise, even if the learners practise activities in sentences given in the form of dialogues or conversations, they are only practising the language devoid of the context like that of inserting the verb phrase 'must be' simply to form or make the incomplete sentence

complete. Even it can mislead the learners if they fail to relate the use of, for example, 'must be' to the context. Unless the meaning of 'must be' is understood in relation to the whole message of conversation, there is no a reason why the verbs like 'is', 'was', 'killed', 'threatens' and so on can not be used in the place of 'must be'. It may be for this that the learners after extensive practice on exercises like 'You must be rich', 'She/he must be clever' and so on, as is seen from observation, fail to give the meanings of such sentences in relation to the dialogues or conversations in which they practised as their teachers finally ask them.

This is the case similar to what has been discussed in reading comprehension section. As it was seen, the language which was given in the form of text and the meaning to which it stands for were taught or presented to the learners separately. The meanings of the texts which the learners attempt to understand are not the direct results of reading but are the consequences of explanations given by their teachers. Hence the reading comprehension gives up its position to listening comprehension. Like that the language given in analytic approach in the teaching materials are taught in synthetic one in the classroom.

4.3.2 Inductive vs Deductive Approaches

The procedure which the English language teachers of grade 9 employ to present the structure or grammar of the language was also explored in terms of inductive vs deductive approaches. As it was done in the others' case, the time which the teachers spent on presenting the structure of the language was coded in light of these approaches. Then, the result which was computed from the raw data (Appendix C) is presented in Table 4 given below.

Table 4: Percentage of Time Spent on Structure Teaching in Terms of Inductive vs Deductive Approaches.

Approaches	T ₁	T ₂	T ₃	T ₄	T ₅	T ₆	T ₇	T ₈	T ₉	T ₁₀	Mean
Inductive	-	25	50	25	57.1	25	33.33	-	25	-	24.08
Deductive	100	75	50	75	42.9	75	66.66	100	75	100	75.9

As can be seen from the above table, 30% of the teachers were found to teach the grammar of the language fully deductively. That means 70% of the teachers apply inductive approach to varying degrees. Interpreted in terms of the time they spent, 40% of the teachers use 25% of the structure teaching time for inductive presentation. The remaining 75% is used for deductive approach. Then, the remaining 30% of the teachers spent 33.33 to 57.1% of the structure teaching time on inductive approach. Recognized in this way, only 10% of the teachers are inclined little bit towards inductive teaching. Similarly, 10% treat both inductive and deductive approaches equally. The remaining 80% are fully inclined towards deductive teaching. This means eight teachers out of ten employ less than 33.33% of the structure teaching time on inductive approach or they spent above 66.66% of the time on deductive teaching. The mean percentage of the time also shows that the largest portion of time, that is, 75.9% goes to deductive teaching. It is only 24.1% of the mean time that was consumed for discovery teaching.

It is also imperative to consider teachers' responses given in the questionnaire. In this regard, 70% of the teachers also say that they give rule explanation with model sentences at the beginning of the lesson.

In order to give some concluding remark, it is better to see the impact of deductive vs inductive approach to language presentation together with other language lessons observed

at the time of classroom observation. When the classes were visited for this study, the time spent on dominantly occurring lessons was also coded. As a result, the analysis of mean percentage of time spent on the dominant lessons shows that 62% of the class time was spent on language practice lessons. The activities which take the highest share from this were accuracy/form-focused exercises which account for 26.34% of the class time. The other is meta-language explanation which accounts for 29.39% of the class time. From the time spent on meta-language explanation only 2.32% and 1.95% of the class time go to vocabulary and language function respectively. The remaining 25.22% was spent on the teaching of language structure.

Then, if we see the mean percentage of time spent on deductive approach, that is, 75.9% and inductive approach, that is, 24.1% in terms of the time spent on structure lesson and the related language practice activities or exercises, it gives us tangible evidence to conclude that the English language teaching of the grade under investigation is aimed at equipping the learners with the knowledge of the grammar. As is seen from the above evidence, the learners spent quarter of their class time in learning the structure lesson explicitly and more than quarter of the time in practising how to manipulate the structure of the language, how to combine, to join, to arrange words, phrases and so on to form correct sentences.

It is, therefore, difficult to think that the learners who spent such ample time in learning the abstract rules of language and its structure, as the would be linguists did, will perceive that the purpose of their language learning is to be able to use the language. Instead it may be convincing to think of the learners perception of their language learning is more of examination-oriented. Let us see some examples taken from the classroom observation as the evidence for this view point.

- T: Underlined part of the tense is called*
S: Present perfect continuous.

- T: *Why we call it continuous?*
 S: *. . . - ing.*
 T: *Yes it has - ing. . .*
 T: *For what purpose do we use 'for'?*
 S: *(no response). . .*
 T: *Don't you know it? . . . It is used for a period of time.*

Of course, knowing all aspects of the language has no disadvantage by-itself. But the importance of such knowledge in enabling the learners to use that language is determined by the way how it is taught in an integration with instances of language function and use. In Widdowson's (1990:95) metaphorical expression, learning the grammar of the language in isolation from instances of its use is: "to learn only the intricacies of the device without knowing how to put it to use is rather like learning about the delicate mechanisms of a clock without knowing how to tell the time". The learning that is expected from the type of lesson given above is congruent with the learning which Widdowson commented on here.

Further more, the learners, as said above, who were accustomed to the questions like the teacher raised in the above example lesson, may rarely give priority to the language use performance repertoire.

The types of the questions which the teacher frequently forwards to the learners and the types of methods which the teacher emphasizes could guide the learners to know what their teacher expects from them, what he/she expects them to do. For instance, we can see the example of note which the teacher in one of the observed classes wrote on the blackboard and made his students copy it.

Type I so . . . that

In this type, the idea which expresses the result comes after the word 'that'.

Note that 'so' is followed by an adjective or an adverb.

e.g. The old man was so weak that he couldn't stand up.

After he had written such notes on the blackboard, the teacher seriously monitored the class to check whether the learners were taking the notes down or not. Here also, there is no argument in the teaching of grammar. The main concern is with methods or methodology the teachers use in the teaching of grammar. The above example shows the extent to which the teacher gives emphasis on the conceptual knowledge. This could, in turn, lead the learners to be examination-oriented learners who focus on product rather than process. And then, examination-conscious teaching/learning, as HaileMichael Abera (1993:41), citing Madsen(1976), states "does not help them [the learners] to develop skills and strategies in learning in general and in language learning and use in particular".

Finally, what the present researcher wants to say here is that explicit rule teaching dominates English language course for grade nine, and such an excessive devotion to rule explanation is found to be a hindrance to learn the language to use.

4.4 Analysis of the Teaching/Learning Activities in Terms of Cognitive vs Mechanical and Use vs Usage Criteria.

It was mentioned that the criteria cognitive vs mechanical and use vs usage were also used to examine the English language teaching methodology which is going on in the grade under investigation. Consequently, the result of the analysis is presented here under. For the sake of simplicity, each pair of the criteria were dealt with separately turn by turn.

4.4.1 Cognitive VS Mechanical Activities

Table 5: Percentage of Time in Terms of Cognitive vs Mechanical Activities.

Activity	T ₁	T ₂	T ₃	T ₄	T ₅	T ₆	T ₇	T ₈	T ₉	T ₁₀	T ₁₁	T ₁₂	T ₁₃	T ₁₄	T ₁₅	T ₁₆
Cognitive	50	28.54	-	20	25	20	-	50	25	66.66	12.5	20	50	33.33	-	-
Mechanical	50	71.4	100	80	75	80	100	50	75	33.33	87.5	80	50	66.66	100	100

As is seen in the above table, 25% of the teachers never use cognitive activities. They fully use mechanical activities. Half of the teachers, that is, 50% use only 12.5% to 33.33% of their class time on cognitive activities. It means that 75% of the teachers spend above 66.66% of their time on teaching mechanical activities. Only 18.75% of the teachers maintain balance between both types of activities.

Realized in this way, three out of four teachers spend more than five sixths of their time on mechanical activities, and it is only the rest one sixth (1/6) which is used for teaching activities that require cognitive abilities of the learners. In general the mean percentage of time spent on cognitive activities is 25.06%. The rest of the time, i.e, 74.94% goes to mechanical activities.

Regarding this matter, though the percentage differs, the teachers' responses also show that the teachers concentrate more on mechanical activities than cognitive ones as the table below indicates.

Table 6: Teachers' Responses in Terms of the Frequently Occurring Activities Types in Percentage

No.	Items	Nearly Always	often	sometimes	Rarely	Never	No response
2	which of the following language practice activities do you use most frequently for class discussion?						
a	Drills of all kinds (completion, conversion, transformation and so on)	25%	41.66%	25%	8.33%		
b	question-and-answer exercises	35.4%	37.5%	16.6%	10.4%		
c	short guided dialogues and conversation.	8.33%	25%	45.83%	20%		
d	Information-gap activities	6.25%	16.6%	33.33%	31.25%	12.5%	
e	Role plays and simulations	10.63%	19.14%	31.9%	34.04%	4.25%	2.08%
f	Problem-solving activities	8.5%	17.02%	34.78%	29.78%	8.5%	4.1%

In the above table, English language teachers for grade 9 were required to rate how frequently they use the above six types of language practice activities. Whereas the first three types (i.e., a, b, and c) are considered mechanical, the second three (i.e, d, e and f) are taken as cognitive. When we compare in this way, the majority of the teachers tend to use those mechanical activities more frequently and the smaller proportion of teachers tend to use these activities less frequently. On the other hand, the small proportion of teachers use cognitive activities more frequently. To see this, it is good to have a look at in the table below derived from table 6.

Table 7: Mean Percentage of Mechanical vs Cognitive Activity Types.

Items	Nearly Always	often	sometimes	Rarely	Never
mechanical	22.9%	34.7%	29.14%	13.19%	
cognitive	8.46%	17.5%	33.33%	31.6%	8.4%

Even though the percentage of teachers who use cognitive activities frequently in the case of classroom observation is less than the percentage of teachers obtained from questionnaire, analysis of the data obtained from both instruments approves that the teachers generally emphasis mechanical activities. As seen from the above table only 13.19% of the teachers say that they use mechanical activities rarely. On the other hand, 31.6% of the teachers say that they use cognitive activities rarely and 8.4% say they never use, which together accounts for 40.09% of the teachers. The mean percentage of frequency on cognitive is 42.1% and on mechanical is 57.9%. As various educational psychologists and language educators suggest, mechanical activities have very little contribution for learning.

This is because where there is very little or no cognition there is no comprehension. Then, learning without comprehension is nothing more than repetition and discrimination of individual bits of items or language elements. According to Rechards (1985:204), for instance, "a task requiring a mechanical response, for example would be a discrimination task where the learner is required to distinguish between two words or sounds where comprehension is not required".

As seen in the classroom observation, only 25.09% of the mean percentage is used for cognitive learning. Even this amount was not fully spent on those cognitive or free

communication activities which were mentioned in table 6. Instead it exceeds to 25% because of the fact that some questions which were related to comprehension lessons and grammar of the language were forwarded to the learners. If we see the following extract which was of course used as an example lesson in the previous section, it could indicate this reality.

S: Present Perfect continuous.
T: Why we call it continuous?
S: -ing?
T: Yes, it has '-ing' form.

In this extract, the teachers question is more of cognitive than mechanical. This is because the response to the question requires the learners to think for a while or to cognize the very essence of the question before they give it, unlike that of the one given as '-ing' quickly. Of course, the teacher himself recognized the quick response given by the student, i.e '-ing' as a correct response. Had the appropriate response of that question been '-ing', it would have been said that the question is mechanical. But '-ing' is not an appropriate or a correct response to the question "why we call it continuous?" We call the present, past or perfect continuous tenses 'continuous' not because the inflection '-ing' is conjugated to the main verb, but because they express the continuity or the continuous nature of an action.

Then, what the present researcher wants to say is that even if the mean percentage of time spent on cognitive criterion is 25.09%, the time spent on cognitive activities (information-gap, problem solving simulation and the likes) which encourage the learners to use the genuine language of their own is less than what is given.

This by itself is an indicative of the nature of English language classroom methodology. The classes under investigation, as it was consistently stated, were dominated by the teaching of the knowledges about the language and ready made bits of sentences. Such

teachings were recognized to be deficient in enabling the learners to use the language creatively. Since the teachers' questions and approaches, as it was said earlier, seem to encourage the learners to memorize those ready made sentences and bits of languages, the learners tend to focus on rote learning. The following sample extract taken from the classroom observation could be seen as an example for this description.

- T: Who will give an example of the direct speech?*
S: (Raised his hand and got permission) "Tom goes to London",
said the teacher.

When seen in terms of language function, it may be said that the above example is meaningful. This is because the student understood that the teacher's question "Who will give an example of the direct speech?" is an order passed from the teacher to the class to give an example of the direct speech. As he is the member of the class, the student then gave what the class was ordered to do so. Instead of this, if the student had responded as 'me' or 'I' by understanding the teachers question as an interrogative question, it might have been said that there is communication breakdown, hence functionally meaningless.

However, when seen in terms of language learning theory, such questions which direct the learners to focus on rote memorization are recognized to hinder the learner's ability to use her/his own language. This is because when the teachers' impart the knowledge or concept to the learners, the learners receive that knowledge together with the language which the teacher used to express it. Then, when the learners are asked to re-tell what they have learnt, they do not need to produce another language as it was seen in the above case. The teacher taught direct speech to the learners and gave "Tom goes to London", said the teacher', as an example of the concept direct speech. Then, the student directly associated the concept direct speech with the whole sentence, (i.e, "Tom goes to London", said the teacher). But, the situation where we use the ready made sentences for the purpose of real-

communication is very rare. What may probably make the learners concentrate on the rote memorization of such type is the nature of the question as it is mostly seen from the classroom observation. Had the teacher used the question to evaluate by himself or to allow them (the learners) to evaluate themselves, he wouldn't have asked in this way. Instead how the teacher would have perhaps presented his question was like: "How do you say (report) others', your, my and so on speeches directly?" In this case, the student may probably construct his own sentence or even he can restate the question that which the teacher forwarded to the class by saying "'who will give an example of the direct speech?' asked the teacher". Then, in this case, we can say that there is the element of cognition. It is cognitive because the learner tries to relate the concept direct speech which the teacher taught either in the form of lecture or explanation to the actual direct speech which he (the student) has not been told or given as an example. But in the case of the above example, even though his response stands for the example of direct speech, we do not know whether he simply memorizes it as it was given or he comprehends it. With this we come the second pair criterion of this section, that is, use vs usage.

4.4.2 Use vs Usage Performance

Table 8: Percentage of Time Spent on Use vs Usage Performance.

Performance	T ₁	T ₂	T ₃	T ₄	T ₅	T ₆	T ₇	T ₈	T ₉	T ₁₀	T ₁₁	T ₁₁	T ₁₃	T ₁₄	T ₁₅	T ₁₆	mean
use	25	14.28	-	-	25	12.5	-	25	25	66.66	-	20	50	33.33	-	20	19.79
usage	75	85.72	100	100	75	87.5	100	75	75	33.33	100	80	50	66.66	100	80	80.20

In the previous discussions, we have seen that the classroom language teaching methodology should incorporate the learning activities that not only engage the learners in

cognitive processing, but also encourage the learners to use the language for real communication. As Widdowson (1978) maintains, the linguistic knowledge of the language user is manifested in two behaviours of which use is one performance. If the primary purpose of language learning is to use the language for real-communication, it has to treat this performance, too. When the language learning activities of grade 9 English language classes were assessed in this perspective, the table given above indicates what percentage of the class time is spent on each of the performances.

Accordingly, 31.25% of the teachers were seen to teach fully usage performance. The remaining 68.75% of the teachers more or less touch use. However, except for the 12.5% of the teachers who spend 50% and 66.66% of the time on use performance, 87.5% of the teachers highly inclined towards the teaching of the usage performance. That means, this percentage of teachers spend less than 33.33% of their class time on use performance. Seen as an average, use performance accounts only for 19.79% of the class time.

When interpreted in accordance with the mean percentage, i.e, 19.79%, it seems that there is an element of use or the teaching of use in all observed classes. As it was seen above, the mean percentage accounts for 19.79% not because all the observed classes were found to teach use. It was realized that 31.25% of the teachers were teaching fully usage, with little or no genuine message. Even judged only in terms of language practice activities, the percentage of teachers who teach fully usage accounts 50%. And, it was 62.5% of the teachers who were observed while teaching language practice activities. Then half of this means it is almost one third of the observed lessons. This happens because many of the teachers use let alone non-linguistic contexts, they even avoid some linguistic contexts when they teach structure lesson on which they spent most of their class time. If we see the following example lesson, we find neither of the contexts.

	<u>Irregular</u>	<u>Regular</u>
<i>Simple present</i>	<i>I go</i>	<i>I walk</i>
<i>Simple past</i>	<i>I went</i>	<i>I walked</i>

.
.
.

In general the present, past and the future tenses express the present, past and future actions.

e.g. I eat lunch (simple present habitual)

I am eating lunch (progressive present action).

T: Can you give me your example?

S: I eat injera.

T: Who can change it into past?

S: I ate injera.

The purpose of this lesson was to teach different types of tenses in English language. But, is it possible to say that the learners in this way will acquire tenses in terms of language use? If a number ELT classes follow such system of instruction, it is difficult to assume any meaningful learning. Of course, it may be simple for the learners to change or insert the morpho-syntactic structures of the sentences given in the examples since the ideational meanings of the lexicons like eat, I, walk, are familiar to them. Nevertheless, there is no contextualization, be it realia, picture or action used to teach the meanings of the structures. As a result, it is difficult for the learners to understand why the difference among the present, past and future tenses exists. Probably what the students may understand is only the names of the different tense types or forms and the related morpho-syntactic changes as 'eat' to 'ate' or 'has/have/had eaten'. Since there is no contextualized time and action, there is no any link between the language, that is, the expression, and the concept it stands for. So, there is no means for the learners to know when to use those sentences used in the examples given above.

It is not only the non-linguistic contexts the sentences do lack, but also the linguistic ones. According to Wilkins' (1976) explanation, deictic expressions like after, before, now, then, in the after noon, at noon and the like are important contexts to express the notional

meanings of the tenses even where there is no other non-linguistic context. But we did find none of these in the above sample lesson. And it was common to see such types of lessons in the observed classes.

As mentioned in the previous sections, the practice of free communication activities which facilitate the learning of use was very insignificant. All these contributed to the prevalence of usage in the teaching of English language.

4.5 Analysis of Group Organization

For the purpose of determining the classroom organization, the time spent on each mode of instruction was coded and tabulated as given in Appendix D. Then, the mean percentage of time was computed in terms of instructional modes and is given below in table 9.

Table 9: The Mean Percentage of Time Spent on Each of the Instructional Modes.

Instructional modes		mean percentage
Whole class	T →S	48.74%
	T ↔S	28.76%
	S ↔S	16.67%
Individual		4.16%
Pair work		1.65%
Small group work		-

In this table, the mean percentage of time spent on each of the four main modes of instruction are provided. As usual, all of the teachers (100%) use whole-class instruction.

The total of mean percentage time for this mode is 94.19%. This mode of instruction is divided into three, i.e, the instruction fully passed from the teacher to the learners which is symbolized by (T→S), the instruction where the learners overt participation is observed symbolized by (T↔S), and the activities when the learners interact with each other, symbolized by (S↔S). The purpose of this division is to determine the extent to which the teacher's explanation, lecture or any method of teaching dominates the class lesson, the extent to which the learners get the chance to interact with the teacher and the extent to which the learners get the chance to interact among themselves.

To come to the main point, the result of the classroom observation reveals the complete absence of small group work. In the case of pair work, the analysis, of course, indicates that 1.56% of the class time was spent on it. But, when seen in terms of observed classes' proportion, it was only in one class that pair work was found to be implemented.

The teachers' responses in the questionnaire, however, seem to contradict the result of classroom observation regarding pair and group work, as seen from the table given below.

Table 10: Teachers' Responses on Pair and Group Work

Mode of instruction	Rating Scales					No response
	Nearly Always	often	sometimes	Rarely	Never	
Pair work	8.33%	18.75%	41.66%	31.2%	-	-
Group work	8.33%	14.58%	37.5%	33.33%	6.25%	-

Because of the general teaching/learning situation going on in the English language classes, the impression gained from an analysis of classroom observation and information gained from informal talk held with some of the teachers whose classes were observed, it is

difficult to benignly believe the responses of teachers those who say they use pair and group works nearly always or often. It may be possible to presume that some of or many of the teachers may apply pair and group works sometimes or rarely. If the teachers really use as they responded to the questionnaire, it can in fact be viewed as somewhat an encouraging progress.

In an intention of visualizing the general perception of the English language teachers who have been implementing the current ELT syllabus for grade 9, the present researcher held informal talks and discussions with these teachers. In these talks, the teachers stated that they found the materials more communicative than the former ones. However, the teachers felt that the background of the students, the vastness of the materials in the coursebook to cover, large class size, lack of orientation and so on became the impediment to implement the current English language course as it was intended to be. Due to such problems, some teachers divulged that they tended to teach the structure part of the lessons more often than others. In their explanations, the teachers made explicit that the students had not been exposed to fluency or free communication activities which involve them in group discussions. So, when they face such activities now, the students fail to cope with activities of these types. Such problems, as the teachers had reasoned out, forced them to follow the teaching system which they did pursue before, that is, the structural approach.

In this respect, though some of the teachers responded that they do often make use of pair and group work, the English language classes were found to be dominated by the teacher-led whole class mode of instruction. This mode of instruction by itself was realized to be less interactive in that almost half, that is, 48.75% of the class time was used for explanations, lectures and discussions given by teachers. Moreover, of the rest, 16.67% of the time was spent by student-to-student mode in which only loud reading of passages, of conversations and of dialogues with little or no cognitive understanding took place. It was

only 28.76% of the class time which was spent on teacher- student interaction that may be considered as interactive. Even in this mode, most of the students' task was to give short responses to the teachers' questions.

Various mechanisms were also used to cross-check the data obtained by means of the two techniques used in the study. For instance, so as to confirm the above problems which the teachers raised, it was attempted to include them in the questionnaire. Then the teachers rated the problems according to their seriousness as is seen in the table below.

Table 11: The Teachers' Responses on Some of the Supposed Problems to Implement the New ELT Syllabus.

No.	Supposed problems	5		4		3		2		1		Mean
		Actual	%	Actual	%	Actual	%	Actual	%	Actual	%	
a	Lack of orientation on the implementation of the new ELT syllabus and teaching materials	8	22.2%	7	19.4%	7	19.4%	6	16.6%	6	16.6%	3.19
b	Students background	12	33.33%	9	25%	7	19.4%	5	13.8%	3	8.3%	3.61
c	Large class size	9	25%	10	27.7%	8	22.2%	5	13.8%	4	11.1%	3.41
d	Covering the materials in the course book	5	13.8%	6	16.6%	7	19.4%	9	25%	9	25%	2.69
e	Shortage of other supplementary materials and teaching aids	5	13.8%	7	19.4%	10	27.7%	9	25%	5	13.8%	2.94

Then, as the analysis of the result in terms of the mean value indicates, the learners' background became the first; large class size the second; lack of orientation on the

implementation of the syllabus the third; shortage of other supplementary materials the fourth and, finally, covering the materials in the coursebook became the least serious problems to implement the current ELT syllabus.

Another point dealt with in the questionnaire was the issue related to the teachers' orientation on the communicative language teaching approach. Regarding this, 52.25% of the teachers said that they had been participating in seminars and orientations related to this approach. As far as the orientation on the implementation of the new ELT syllabus is concerned, however, 64.59% of the teachers responded that they have not been provided with any orientation. From those who took orientation, that is, 35.05%, of the total teachers, 29.4% and 47.05% found the orientation just useful and less useful respectively.

As seen in the above discussions, the teachers responded that lack of orientation as to how to implement the materials was the third serious problem. The most serious problem according to them was the students' background. Of course it is known that communicatively oriented language learning is likely to be new to the learners, and this may have its own impact on language learning.

Nevertheless, the analysis of the data dealt with in the previous sections indicated the methods and procedures which the teachers use to teach the contents of the syllabus are less appropriate in terms of the communicative language teaching methodology. The main cause for such disparity, as the study shows, is found to be the shortage of the skills and strategies of the communicative language teaching approach on the part of the teachers.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE FINDINGS.

5.1 Summary of the Findings

The study was carried out with the purpose of investigating the appropriate implementation of the newly designed ELT syllabus for grade 9 in terms of promoting the communicative abilities of the learners. To this end, various methods, techniques, and strategies the teachers used to teach reading comprehension and other language practice activities/lessons were assessed.

As far as reading comprehension is concerned, the dominant strategies which the teachers implemented were loud reading by students and extensive explanations given by the teachers. Of all the teachers who had been teaching comprehension lessons, 66.66% were found to have engaged the learners in loud reading for 25% to 37.5% of the class time. Similarly, all the teachers were found to have spent 25% to 50% of the comprehension lesson time on giving explanation on the topics of the text. In contrast, the time spent on other reading strategies like pre-reading, skimming/scanning and silent reading was minimal. Even though 66.66% of the teachers were seen attempting to apply pre-reading activity, it was found to be more like a brief introduction rather than discussion. In the case of skimming/scanning and silent reading, it was only 33.33% of the teachers who made use of them. The rest, that is, 66.66% of the teachers never used these strategies.

The second point analyzed in the study was the presentation of the language to the learners. As seen in the previous discussions, two pairs of criteria (analytic vs synthetic and inductive vs deductive) were used. Seen in terms of analytic vs synthetic criteria, the

findings showed that more than 70% of the teachers spent more than 66.66% of their time on synthetic presentation. It means this percentage of the teachers spent less than 33.33% of their time on analytic approach. The remaining 30% of the teachers also spent only 33.33 to 43.7% on analytic approach. Totally, the mean percentage for synthetic is 77.28% and for analytic is the remaining 22.7%. This indicates that the dominant approach that the teachers apply to present the language was synthetic one.

The techniques or procedures which the teachers use to present the structure lesson was also assessed in terms of deductive vs inductive approaches. The findings in this case also showed that 80% of the teachers spent more than 66.66% of the structure teaching time on deductive approach. This means, it was less than 33.33% of their structure teaching time that was used for inductive teaching. Of the remaining 20%, half, i.e, 10% were inclined little bit towards inductive teaching and 10% maintained the balance between the two approaches. The mean percentage of time spent on deductive teaching, then, was 75.9% and for inductive 24.1%.

In general, the findings appear to indicate that the teaching of language structure was dominated by explicit rule teaching.

The other point considered in the study was the content of the teaching/learning activities. Then, the findings of the study obtained from classroom observation in terms of cognitive vs mechanical criteria showed that whereas 25% of the teachers spent the whole or almost 100% of their class time on mechanical activities, 50% also devoted 66.66% to 87.5% of their class time on the same activities. This means 75% of the teachers spent less than 33.33% of their class time on the teachings of activities that which demand the learners' cognitive understandings.

Realized in terms of teacher time ratio, it means that three out of four teachers spent five sixths ($5/6$) of their time on teaching of mechanical activities. And it is only one sixth ($1/6$) of their teaching time that was spent on cognitive activities. Generally, the mean percentage on cognitive activities is 25.06%.

The teachers' responses to the questionnaire also seem to assure that they give more concentration on mechanical activities rather than cognitive ones. The mean percentage of frequency on cognitive activities was 42.01% and on mechanical it was 57.09%.

However, though the teachers' responses say that 42.09% of the activities were cognitive, use and application were found to be different in that the teachers who attempt to use such activities immediately shift to mechanical ones. Thus, the classroom teaching/learning methods were recognized to be dominated by those mechanical activities.

When the contents of the teaching/learning activities were also seen in terms of use vs usage performances, the findings also showed that except 12.5% of the teachers who spent 50% to 66.66% of their time on use performances the rest, i.e, 87.5% of the teachers were found to incline towards the teaching of usage. That means, this percentage of teachers spent less than 33.33% of their time on teaching use performance. Seen in terms of mean percentage, it was only 19.79% of the class time that was spent on use. The rest 80.21% was spent on the teaching of usage or formal aspect of the language.

The third point considered in this study was classroom organization. The main purpose of including this section in the study was to explore as to whether pair and group works are applied in the classroom. Consequently, though the majority of the teachers response in the questionnaire said that they make use of pair and group modes of instruction sometimes, the result of classroom observation confirmed that the small-group mode of

instruction was non-existent, and pair work was found to be applied in only 6.25% of the observed classes.

5.2 Conclusions

As has been raised in the introductory chapter, the effectiveness of any language curriculum or syllabus design is largely determined by its implementation by means of appropriate methodology. The appropriateness of the methodology, in turn, is interpreted in terms of the course's goal and the theoretical assumptions it adheres to.

In this regard, the classroom methodology which the teachers of grade 9 implement seems to be incompatible with the general objectives of the respective syllabus. This syllabus, as is raised many times, addresses developing the communicative abilities of the learners, that is to say, enabling them to use the target language for their immediate needs. This is possible only when the classroom methodology is geared towards this objective.

However, the methodology which most teachers use was the already rejected traditional type. Like that of the traditional language teaching approach, the teaching/learning methods, procedures and techniques were found to focus on product rather than process. As already mentioned earlier, the immediate needs of the present learners is using the English language for academic purposes: learning other subjects through the medium of English. But, the teaching/learning methods or strategies which focus on product rather than process were recognized to be less valuable in helping the learners to use the target language for real communication.

If the learners need the language for their academic purpose, they have to develop the skills and strategies which help them to read and understand the materials written in English for

academic purposes, to listen to and comprehend lectures, discussions explanations and the like from their teachers or fellow classmates, and to give responses to what they comprehend, what are required of them and the like in the target language (English).

Such skills and strategies will develop when the input, that is, the teaching/learning activities/ tasks that the learners perform require them to process cognitively. Nevertheless, as was seen from the analysis of comprehension lessons and language practice activities, the learners' exposure to such process-oriented activities was too minimal. If we raise the reading comprehension lesson once again, the primary focus was on the product, that is on the message or content of the topics instead of on how to arrive, to find, to extract that message. As a result, the learners did not understand the message of the text easily. When they fail to comprehend the content of the text by first explanation, the teachers were seen to repeat twice, thrice and so on explanations in the form of paraphrasing. Rather than doing this, what the teachers should have done was leading the learners to the reading text and then showing or indicating how the message could be understood, be extracted, how the idea of the first, second, third sentences are related and how the idea of one paragraph is related to the other and the like by using linguistic and non-linguistic clues. Had the teachers done so, it could have been said that they were equipping their learners with skills and strategies of reading comprehension. Otherwise, when the emphasis is on product, the learners remain off hand as the product will rarely go with them to the situation where the learners need the language for the real communication. The other finding which shows the incongruity of the classroom methodology and the goal of the syllabus was the concentration on discrete element teaching. Even though the teachers' manual of this grade states that the course pursues text-based approach, the findings of classroom observation showed that synthetic approach overtakes analytic one. This happens, as it was said earlier, because the teaching favoured the form or structure of

the language instead of the message it contains together with the context in which it is used.

Such instruction, together with the inclination towards the explicit teaching of rules, facilitated examination-conscious learning on the part of the learners. Thus, the learners tend to focus on rote memorization of ready made sentences and the related linguistic rules rather than cognitive understanding. Since the transfer value of such learning is very less, it is recognized to be less valid for it could not help the learners to solve their immediate problems.

Linguistic rules need to be learnt or taught together with instances of use. This is possible when the classroom methodology creates contexts for language use. As seen from the analysis of the results, almost all language lessons were taught devoid of context. Moreover, many of the questions which the teachers ask were mechanical requiring learners response from their rote memorization. Consequently language learning remains usage rather than use.

One way, probably, the best recognized means of creating context for language use in the classroom, is providing the learners with interactive or communicative activities. Such activities as information-gap, problem solving, role-play, simulation, language game are known to involve the learners in genuine communication similar to the real life situation. When the learners engage in such activities to discuss, to debate, to share information and so on in pairs and groups they get the opportunity to practise the use of language.

Furthermore, as such interactive activities are drawn from the topics of everyday life and the topics related to the learners own experiences, they encourage the learners participation with full attentions. As a result, the emphasis of the learners is more on messages rather

than form. Similarly, as small group organization allows freedom for the learners to share any information or idea of their own, the situation becomes more interactive and live. However, as the findings of the study indicated both interactive activities and small group organizations were found to be almost non-existent.

In general there exists disparity between the teaching/learning methods, procedures and techniques which the teachers use to implement the syllabus, that is, the classroom methodology and the main objective of the syllabus.

The main problem for this disparity, as the present researcher supposes, seems to be the background of the teachers themselves though they stressed the background of the learners as the serious problem for implementing the syllabus communicatively. When we say the background of the teachers, it does not mean that the teachers lack good knowledge of the language. Nor does it mean the teachers are less proficient in English language. It refers only to their limited experience of the communicative language teaching methodology in terms of theory as well as its practical application in the actual teaching/ learning phenomenon.

In addition to the results of the analysis dealt with in the previous sections, the teachers' rationalization that the background of the learners as the serious problem is a good evidence for this conclusion. It was raised that the teachers gave the learners background as a reason for their concentration on the teaching of grammar rules in the line of structural approach. This implies that the teachers assumed that the teaching of the language structure alone is appropriate for the learners who have low background of the language. It means learning to know language is easier than learning to use it. But, is really learning the abstract rules of language easier or more appropriate for the learners than learning it to use, that is, in a communicative approach in which the language is made to relate to the

incidents, happenings, actions or things and so on available in the surroundings of the learners?

In a communicative approach, learning the language to use is suggested to be facilitated by appealing to the interests and needs of the learners. That is to say, talking or encouraging the learners to use the language on topics related to their everyday life and topics related to their experiences in schools and outside of it has been approved to be extra-ordinarily useful for the learners as it highly motivates them. On the other hand, teaching the rules of the language as a concept or knowledge by itself without relating it to its use in a certain situation, be it simulated or real, has been assured to be less motivative for it usually follows monotonous and de-contextualized procedure. But, if the learners, particularly those who have poor background of the target language are not motivated, their learning will undoubtedly get worsened. This implies that learning a language could be facilitated in a communicative way rather than the traditional or structural one.

Then, from this we can infer at least two view points. Firstly, the teachers favoured the structural approach instead of the communicative one not because it is easier for the learners to learn the language, but because it may probably be easier for them to teach in line of the former since they have had a good deal of experience in it rather than the latter. Secondly, the teachers' perception of the learners' background as the very serious problem to implement the stated syllabus in a communicative way is an indicative of the fact that the teachers lack both the theoretical understanding of the communicative language teaching and the concomitant skills or abilities to implement it in practice. This problem, of course, may not arisen from the teachers themselves, but may likely be from the absence of orientations and trainings of short or long term courses on new trends and in-novations of language education for the teachers.

5.3 Recommendations.

From the findings, discussions and conclusions made, the following are recommended:

- 5.3.1. the teachers should use the skills and strategies of language learning in teaching both language skills and language aspects.
- 5.3.2. the teachers should use the teaching/learning activities that encourage the learners to use the language cognitively.
- 5.3.3. the teachers should make use of group and pair works so as to encourage the learners to develop their confidence to use the language and develop their fluency.
- 5.3.4. teacher training and teacher development courses should give emphasis to theories and principles of communicative language teaching approach. Moreover, the currently engaged teachers should be helped and encouraged to develop their skills in in-service courses, seminars and orientations on communicative language teaching.

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Appendix B

Collation of Time in Terms of the Activity Types

	Teaching Ac / Activities															
	T ₁	T ₂	T ₃	T ₄	T ₅	T ₆	T ₇	T ₈	T ₉	T ₁₀	T ₁₁	T ₁₂	T ₁₃	T ₁₄	T ₁₅	T ₁₆
Explanation/ Elaboration on	Passage	10	-	-	-	15	-	15	-	10	-	15	-	20	-	-
	Structure of the language		17.5	25	10	-	15	17.5	-	20	-	15	-	10	-	10
Reading Comprehension	Vocabulary	-	5	-	-	-	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	-
	Function	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.5	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	5
Language practice Activities	Other topics	-	-	-	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	-
	Lead - in	5							5					5		
Comprehension	Scanning/Skimming									10				5		
	Silent reading	5								10						
Language practice Activities	Loud reading	10				15						15				
	Comprehension question	5				5			10			10				
Language practice Activities	Drills and completion exercises	-	17.5	-	15	-	15	10	-	10	15	-	10	-	15	10
	Dialogues & conversation	-	-	-	10	-	5	5	-	10	5	-	10	-	5	-
Language practice Activities	Information-gap															10
	Problem - solving															
Language practice Activities	Role play/ simulation															5
	Copy/ taking notes from blackboard			10												10
Routine		5	-	5	-	5									5	

Appendix C

Collation of Time Spent on each of the Given Criteria Per Period

Criteria	T ₁	T ₂	T ₃	T ₄	T ₅	T ₆	T ₇	T ₈	T ₉	T ₁₀	T ₁₁	T ₁₂	T ₁₃	T ₁₄	T ₁₅	T ₁₆
Cognitive	10	5	-	5	5	5	-	10	5	10	2.5	5	10	5	-	-
Mechanical	10	^{12.5}	15	20	15	20	10	10	15	5	17.5	20	10	10	15	25
Use	5	2.5	-	-	5	-	-	5	5	10	2.5	5	10	5	-	5
Usage	15	15	15	25	15	20	10	15	15	5	17.5	20	10	10	15	20
Analytic	-	-	10	^{17.5}	-	15	-	-	10	-	5	-	15	-	5	10
Synthetic	-	35	30	^{22.5}	-	25	35	-	30	-	35	-	25	-	35	20
Inductive	-	-	5	5	-	5	10	-	5	-	5	-	-	-	5	-
Deductive	-	15	15	5	-	15	7.	-	15	-	10	-	10	-	15	10

Appendix D

Collation of Time in Terms of Different Classroom Organization

Instructional mode		T ₁	T ₂	T ₃	T ₄	T ₅	T ₆	T ₇	T ₈	T ₉	T ₁₀	T ₁₁	T ₁₂	T ₁₃	T ₁₄	T ₁₅	T ₁₆	Mean
whole class	T → S	15	22.5	25	15	15	20	25	15	20	10	20	15	20	20	25	15	18.27
	T ↔ S	10	17.5	-	15	5	15	10	25	10	25	15	10	10	10	15	15	10.78
	S ↔ S	10	-	-	1-	15	5	5	15	10	-	5	15	-	10	-	-	6.25
Individual		-	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	1.25
Pair work		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	0.62
Small group work		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Appendix E

Dear Teacher,

This questionnaire is designed to find out the implementation of the current ELT (English Language Teaching) syllabus for Grade 9 in terms of the communicative language teaching methodology. It is one of the instruments which the researcher uses to gather data for his M.A. Thesis in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL).

To this end, the genuine opinion of teachers who are / have been teaching English in Grade 9 using the new ELT course book is extremely valuable to carry out the intended study.

Therefore, please give your responses to all the items in the questionnaire. As regards the information, the present researcher would like to assure you that all the responses you give will be kept confidential and used only for the research purpose. As a further assurance, you don't need to write your name.

Your kind co-operation in this matter is gratefully acknowledged!

Berhanu Haile
Researcher

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE PROGRAMME
INSTITUTE OF LANGUAGE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

Direction one: Please write your responses to each of the following items in the space provided.

1. Your qualification _____
2. Field of study: Major _____ Minor _____
3. Your work experience as a teacher _____ years
4. Average number of your students in one class _____

Direction Two: Please read the following items carefully and put a tick (√) mark in the box indicating your most appropriate choice.

1. Have you ever participated in any orientation or seminar concerning communicatively oriented language teaching? a) Yes b) No
2. If your answer to question No 1 is "Yes," how useful have you found it to implement the new ELT course book or syllabus?
a) very useful b) moderately useful c) useful d) less useful e) not useful
3. Was any orientation given to you as to how to implement the new ELT course book or syllabus? a) Yes b) No
4. If your answer to question No 3 is "Yes", how useful has it been to you?
a) very useful b) moderately useful c) useful d) less useful e) not useful

Direction Three: Please read the following items carefully and put (√) mark indicating the most appropriate rating scale for each of the given items.

No.	Items	Rating Scales				
		Nearly always	often	sometimes	rarely	Never
1	Which of the following strategies do you use most frequently in the reading comprehension?					
a	Engage students to discuss in pairs or groups before they start reading a text.					
b	Explain new words and phrases before getting students to the reading text.					

No.	Items	Rating Scales				
		Nearly always	often	sometimes	rarely	Never
c.	Read the text first loudly and then allow the students to read it turn by turn.					
d.	Engage students to read silently and ask questions.					
2.	Which of the following language practice activities do you use most frequently in classroom discussion?					
a.	Drills of all kinds (completion, conversion, transformation substitution, etc)					
b.	Question and -answer exercises					
c.	Short guided dialogues and conversation					
d.	Information-gap activities in which one partner lacks information					
e.	Role plays and simulation					
f.	Problem - solving					
3.	When you introduce structure (grammar) lesson, how frequently do you use each one of the following?					
a.	Use actions, pictures, objects to convey the meaning of a structure					
b.	Give students a rule explanation with model sentences to illustrate it					
c.	Give students a passage to read in which the structure is used together with a number of other structures					

No.	Items	Rating Scales				
		Nearly always	often	sometimes	rarely	Never
4.	How frequently do you use the following classroom organization?					
a.	Teacher - led whole class discussion					
b.	Individual seat work					
c.	Pair work in which two students work on the given task					
d.	Group work in which more than two students work on the given task in groups.					

Direction Four: Please tick (✓) the most appropriate choice for each of the questions 1, 2 and 3, and order items 1 to 5 for question 4.

1. Which of the following approaches to rule explanation do you use most frequently?
 - a) Gives students a simple rule explanation with model sentences at the beginning of a lesson
 - b) Ask students to explain a rule after they have practised using a structure
 - c) Leave out rule explanations and rely only on oral and written practice using the structure
2. When do you correct learners' errors most frequently?
 - a) In pair and group discussions
 - b) In controlled practice activities like answer and question, mini-dialogues and conversation
 - c) In revision section
3. Do you have any problem in implementing the new ELT syllabus or course book?
Yes No
4. If your answer to question No '3' is "Yes", please order the following items in terms of difficulty ("1" for the least serious through "5" for the most serious problems)
 - a_____ lack of orientation on the implementation of the current ELT syllabus and teaching materials
 - b_____ students' back ground
 - c_____ large class size for group or pair work
 - d_____ problem of covering the materials in the course book.
 - e_____ shortage of other supplementary materials and teaching aids.

Appendix F

GRADE 1 SYLLABUS

1. OBJECTIVES

In Grade 1 the students will learn to do a few simple things in English. By the end of the year they should be able to:

1. understand and respond to simple instructions and sentences.
2. say some sentences on their own.
3. read and understand some words, phrases and sentences
4. form the letters of the alphabet correctly and be able to copy words, phrases and sentences.

In all four areas... listening, speaking, reading and writing...the Grade 1 syllabus emphasizes **communication**. It requires the students to **use** the English which they learn to say, read and write things which are both true and meaningful to them personally.

Teachers are also expected to emphasize the communicative use of English by using only simple English in the classroom.

The Grade 1 syllabus lists the skills and activities which will help the students to develop the necessary skills in an enjoyable and meaningful way. If this goal is achieved, it will give the students the confidence and motivation to make good progress in the higher grades.

2. LANGUAGE SKILLS

The listening, speaking, reading and writing skills which the students should acquire by the end of the year are listed below. They emphasize what the students so be able to do in English.

2.1 Listening Skills

By the end of Grade 1 the students should be able to:

1. understand and carry out instructions given in English
2. understand lessons conducted in English
3. understand spoken phrases and sentences and match them with pictures and people
4. understand English radio programmes containing the Grade 1 sentence patterns.

2.2 Oral Skills

By the end of grade 1, the students should be able to perform each of the following skills by making ONE sentence:

SKILL	EXAMPLE SENTENCE
1. Giving personal details:	
1. their name	<u>My name is Kebede.</u>
2. their age	<u>I'm 7.</u>
2. Using social expressions:	
1. exchanging greetings	<u>Good Morning</u>
2. saying goodbye	<u>Goodbye</u>
3. Identifying people, animals and objects	<u>That's Asres.</u>
4. Describing people	<u>He's tall.</u>

Appendix G

ENGLISH SYLLABUS FOR GRADE 9

1. OBJECTIVES

By the end of Grade 8, the end of the second cycle of the English course, the students should have mastered the basic English skills necessary for them to function effectively in Grade 9, where English becomes the medium of instruction in most subjects. They should be able to:

1. understand spoken instructions, information and explanations given in English on a range of topics including topics from the other subject areas.
2. ask and talk about topics related both to their everyday lives and to the other subject areas.
3. read and understand, silently and independently, factual material, including material relating to other subject areas and read appropriate short texts for enjoyment.
4. write short controlled compositions on simple topics.

The next cycle, Grades 9 and 10, will be the last stage of formal education for many students. Some will continue to Grades 11 and 12, where they will be prepared for tertiary level education, but many will join the world of work. Some will receive on-the-job training, some will receive vocational training and some will take up continuing education. It is important, therefore, that the English syllabus for Grades 9 and 10 should cater for the immediate and future needs of all these groups. The syllabus should provide continued training in language development, include tuition in basic study skills, and should develop the students' ability to communicate effectively in English at school, in everyday situations, and in the world of work. Wherever feasible, the students' English language skills should be developed through problem-solving activities.

In addition to the objectives attained by the end of Grade 8, by the end of Grade 9 students should be able to:

1. listen and respond to specific information

2. use English effectively to ask questions about and discuss topics during the English lessons and in other subject lessons.
3. use English for social interaction when necessary.
4. read a wider range of English texts for information and enjoyment.
5. write short compositions on a range of topics.
6. complete given note summary outlines.

2. TOPICS

The students will acquire these skills by studying a variety of stimulating topics which will be of both general and academic interest. These are:

1. Taking Off
2. Flying High
3. How Writing Developed
4. How Deaf People Communicate
5. Detective Stories 1
6. Detective Stories 2
7. Tales of Nasreddin
8. Babies are Amazing!
9. Detective Stories 3
10. Amusing Stories
11. Water for Life
12. Insects are amazing!
13. Some Insects are Dangerous
14. Weeks and Days

3. LANGUAGE SKILLS

The listening, speaking, reading, writing and study skills which the students should acquire by the end of the year are listed below.

Asterisked items indicate objectives relating to study skills.

3.1 Listening Skills

By the end of Grade 9 the students should be able to:

1. understand simple instructions, information and explanations given in English by different speakers including the teachers of other subjects*
2. understand passages and conversations on each of the syllabus topics.*
3. understand discourse on topics related to each of the other subject areas.*
4. listen to oral texts and be able to identify the topic and main points.*
5. listen to passages and be able to select the information needed to label maps and complete tables and charts.*
6. listen for specific information and give this orally or in writing.*
7. listen and respond to stories.
8. understand English radio and television programmes on the syllabus topics.

3.2 Oral Skills

By the end of Grade 9 the students should be able to:

1. pronounce the sounds of English intelligibly.
2. use appropriate expressions and formulae to express the following 'social' functions in a variety of everyday situations:
 1. asking for, giving and refusing permission
 2. requesting
 3. saying what you would like to do and have
 4. expressing likes, dislikes and preferences
 5. asking for, giving and refusing permission
 6. saying what you think might or might not happen
 7. asking to borrow something.
 8. asking for and giving an opinion
 9. saying you are sure or not sure

Wherever possible and appropriate these functions will be integrated with the teaching and revision of grammatical structures.

3. ask and answer questions about oral and written texts.*
4. ask questions and talk about topics related to the English course and other subject areas.*
5. participate in conversations, using contracted forms and appropriate intonation.

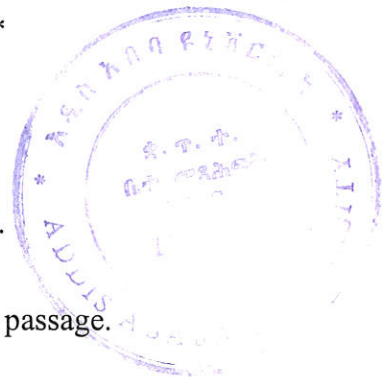
6. participate as speakers and listeners in pair and group activities.
7. carry out the following 'academic' functions with reasonable fluency and accuracy*:
 1. saying that you don't understand something
 2. asking for explanations
 3. asking how to do something
 4. explaining how to do something
 5. asking someone to repeat something
 6. asking someone to explain something again
 7. asking for and giving examples
 8. finding out about pronunciation, spelling and meaning.

3.3 Reading Skills

By the end of Grade 9 the students should know the meanings of at least 2,500 words:

They should be able to:

1. read silently and independently.
2. read factual passages for information.*
3. read and respond to short stories
4. read simplified readers for enjoyment.
5. read and understand the texts on each of the syllabus topics.*
6. read and understand different kinds of text, including timetables, plans, maps, charts and diagrams.*
7. read and understand texts on topics related to the other subject areas.*
8. predict the content of paragraphs and passages.
9. use the information in texts to complete forms, tables, charts and diagrams.*
10. infer the meaning of unknown words by using contextual clues and a knowledge of word formation.*
11. understand the correct meanings of words used in different contexts.
12. read paragraphs and passages and be able to.*
 1. identify the main topic.
 2. skim to obtain the gist.
 3. scan to find particular information.
 4. identify what reference words refer to.
 5. draw logical conclusions.
 6. answer factual questions based on the passage.
 7. find evidence to support facts.



8. remember the main points.

3.4 Writing Skills

By the end of Grade 9 the students be able to:

1. arrange sentence and paragraphs in the correct sequence.
2. complete sentences and paragraphs by adding words and phrases (blank filling)
3. expand sentences and paragraphs by adding words, phrases and clauses.
4. write compound sentences with 'and', 'but', 'when' and 'because'.
5. use sequence indicators.
6. write short controlled and guided compositions in paragraphs.
7. complete forms, tables and charts.*
8. write simple notes.*
9. spell the words they have learnt correctly.
10. take dictation of unseen passages.*
11. punctuate short passages with:capital letters, full-stops, question marks,commas,apostrophes (for contracted forms and possession).
12. set out their written work neatly and clearly using margins, headings and appropriate use of underlining and spacing.*

4. GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURES

In Grade 9 the students should learn to understand and use the grammatical structures listed below. As far as possible, the structures should be taught and practised in meaningful contexts rather than in isolation.

1. NOUNS

1. Noun clauses
1. 'that' clauses as objects
2. using 'so' in answers

2. DETERMINERS

1. Quantifiers
- all/every/most/lots of/ many/some/
a few etc.

3. VERBS

1. Verb patterns
1. Verb+infinitive with 'to'
2. Verb+'-ing'
3. Verb+object+infinitive

2. Passive	1. Active/Passive transformations 2. Passive+'by' - is caused by/may be caused by; can/could be, may/might be
3. State verbs	Verbs that are not normally used in the continuous tenses
4. Present Perfect	1. Simple and Continuous form and use 2. 'for'and 'since' 3. Present Perfect v Past Simple 4. Question tags & short answer forms
5. Past Simple	with 'ago'
6. Present Simple	used for general truths
7. Irregular-verbs	Revision
8. must	to say what you believe to be true
9. used to	
4. CONDITIONALS	
Type 1	If + Present + Future 'unless'
Type 2	If + Past Perfect + Perfect Conditional
5. RELATIVE CLAUSES	
Defining	who/that/which/where+omission
Non-defining	who/whom/which/whose
6. REPORTED SPEECH	
1. Reporting verbs	
2. Statements	1. Tense dranges, pronoun changes 2. changing adverbs of time and place
3. Questions and Commands	
7. RESULT	1. So ... that 2. For this reason.As a result/Therefore/Consequently 3. so 4. such a ... that
8. REASON	because/as/since
9. TIME	when/by the time

10. PURPOSE

to/in order to

5. VOCABULARY

1. Word-building-common prefixes and suffixes
2. synonyms and antonyms.
3. Phrasal verbs
4. Figures of speech (idioms)
5. Spelling rules
6. vocabulary extension:

In Grades 1-8 the students learnt the meaning of approximately 2,000 words. They should learn the meanings of at least another 500 words in Grade 9. They include the following 'core' vocabulary.

absorb	crash (v)	glide
accurately	create	glow
adult	croak	gradually
amazing	cultivate	guilty
ancestors	curve (n)	
ancient		habitat
atmosphere	defect (n)	hail
	delicious	handsome
baa	device	hiss
bachelor	discover	hum
bar (pub)	dissolve	hydrosphere
bray	district	
	disturb	idea
	drag	imitate
buzz	drain (v)	impurity
	dung	inherit
calmly		inject
card	eardrum	injection
chatter	edge	innocent
chewing gum	enable	invent
classify	evaporate	itch
combination	eventually	irregular
combine	express	
communicate		jaw
complain	fertilize	jewellery

conceal	flap (v)	
condense	fluently	land (v)
confess	focus	lower
consist of	forefinger	
counter		mend
convenient	gain	mew
coo	gargle	moo
mule	process	sneeze (v)
mystery	pressure	species
	proud	stretch
necklace	purify	stitches
neigh		storey
non-stop	quack	strip (n)
numerous		succeed
	rapidly	survive
observe	rarely	suspect (v)
occur	records (n)	suspend
ointment	remains (n)	swallow (v)
operation	refuse (v)	swarm
orbit	represent	sweat
organism	resign	
	respected	take part in
parcel	responsible	temporary
perfectly	rise (v)	thread (n)
perfume	roll	tremble
permanent	rotate	
persuade		vibrate
pest	search (v)	vomit (v)
praise	seize	
planet	shoelaces	wax
plaster	similarly	wonder (v)
powerful	slave	workman
precious	slide (v)	

RCT

ICDR

February 1996

DECLARATION

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

Name: Berhanu Haile

Signature:



Addis Ababa University, Addis Ababa.

Date of Submission: 21st May, 1999.