

AN EVALUATION OF GRADES 9-12 ENGLISH CURRICULUM
AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION IN SCHOOLS AT CAPITALS
OF ETHIOPIAN ADMINISTRATIVE REGIONS
AS CAUSES FOR STUDENTS' DEFICIENCY
IN ENGLISH



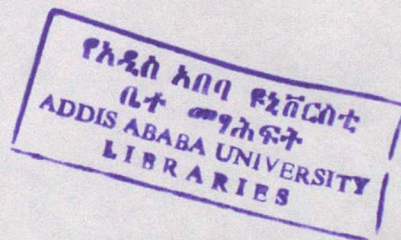
A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE
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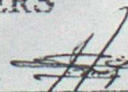


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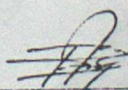
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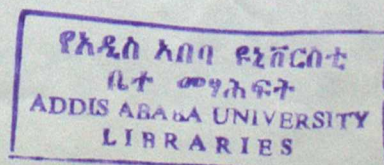
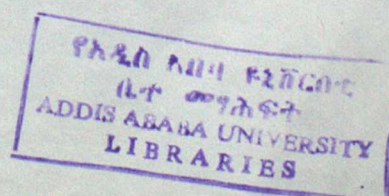


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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to find out the causes for students' deficiency in English with particular reference to grades 9-12 English curriculum and its implementation in schools at capitals of Ethiopian administrative regions.

To this effect, data on Grades 9-12 English curriculum objectives and content have been secured with the help of curricular document analyses and unstructured interviews made with members of the English Panel in the Institute for Curriculum Development and Research (ICDR).

On the other hand, information on the curriculum implementation is obtained through questionnaire and interviews conducted to grades 9-12 English teachers; class observations; instructional media check-lists; assessment of course and weekly lesson plans, examination and test papers in 10 senior secondary schools which have been selected with the help of quota sampling technique.

The results of data analyses, interpretations and discussions indicate that one of the causes for students' deficiency in English is the design and implementation of the curriculum, which in accordance to the findings of this paper, focus on:

Ambiguity and insufficiency of the curriculum objectives; absence of communicative language; high dosage of grammatical descriptions; irrelevance of reading passages, vocabulary items and exercises as curriculum contents and their unsystematic selection and gradation; shortage and or absence of appropriate instructional facilities, plans, methods, techniques and evaluation strategies for implementing it.

In synthesis, these findings reveal the pitfalls in grades 9-12 English curriculum and its implementation which caused students' deficiency in English; and hoped to serve policy makers, the ICDR and teachers as frame of references to change the curriculum and improve its instruction.

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CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Problem

The history of English language teaching in Ethiopia dates back to the introduction of modern (western) education into the country during the reign of Menelik II (Emperor of Ethiopia from 1889-1913). Ever since modern education was introduced, English has been playing prevalent roles in the education system of Ethiopia. Before 1963, it was used as a medium of instruction even in primary schools (English Panel, 1982:7).

Currently, it is taught as a subject from grade 3 onwards and used as a medium of instruction beginning from grade 7. Almost 2/3 of the curriculum in grades 7 and 8 (in subjects such as science, mathematics, geography, productive technology, commerce and so on) is tutored through English. From grade 9 onwards, it serves as a sole medium of instruction and examination both in the formal education as well as in the non-formal programmes.

Nevertheless English is provided as a subject and used as a medium of instruction, many studies indicate deficiency of Ethiopian students in the language. For instance, according to Tesfaye Shanko's (1980) seminar paper "Language and Education", the main cause for students' failure in the senior secondary schools of Ethiopia emanates from the inability to study through the medium of English. Hailom Banteyerga (1982:3) in his Master Thesis also notes that first year students of Addis Ababa University, despite their training in English for a good number of years, seem to have serious problem in the language. He says, "Instructors are forced to repeat their lectures several times, and in some cases they have to use Amharic." Similarly, Haile Getachew (1983:2) concedes that students' proficiency is unsatisfactory in comparison with the time spent on learning the language.

Moreover, the Task Force in the Study of Quality of Education in Ethiopia (cited in Stoddart, 1986:7) while

reviewing the national examination results at grades 6,8 and 12 found out a strong correlation between students' level of language proficiency and their general achievement in other subjects. The study by Stoddart (1986:6) also indicates the inadequacy of the English possessed by the vast majority of students at all levels in senior secondary schools of Ethiopia for the purpose of learning other subjects through it. Stoddart states:

Students do not possess sufficient English even to understand what they hear from their teachers or read in their textbooks, let alone to participate actively through their own speaking and writing. In such a situation it is no longer appropriate to call English a medium of instruction rather it has become a medium of obstruction. In all too many of the classrooms that I visited, learning seemed to ritually cease.

More recently, Tafesse Geleta (1988:45), in his Master Thesis, depicts a drastic decline of students' proficiency in English particularly during the last decade. A brief investigation into 1990 secondary school graduate report cards of Ethiopian School Leaving Certificate Examination (in the ESLCE office) also shows that several students scored "F" grade in English.

All these studies warrant deficiency of Ethiopian students in the English language. But the causes for this linguistic plague have not yet been well researched and identified. Particularly, English curricular and instructional causes for the problem have not been studied throughout Ethiopian education ladders. And this calls for stating the problem in a form amenable to research.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to find out the causes for students' deficiency in English, with particular reference to an evaluation of grades 9-12 English curriculum and its implementation in schools at capitals of Ethiopian administrative regions, and thereby provide feasible recommendations.

Such a purpose, obviously, evokes a question: What are the causes for students' deficiency in English vis-a-vis:

1) grades 9-12 English curriculum objectives and content; and

2) instructional facilities, plans, methods, techniques and evaluation strategies employed in schools at capitals of Ethiopian administrative regions? Answering this question makes up the central theme of the study.

1.3 Significance of the Study

1) English is the mother tongue of considerable number of people in the world; spoken and read by global community as a foreign language. It functions as a means of international communication for matters of overseas' trade, international conferences, exchange of political, technical and scientific progresses.

Besides acting as a vital link among people of the world, English is an enormous reservoir of educational materials. Several educational journals, periodicals and books are published in the English language.

If Ethiopia needs to use English for international purposes, share research findings in various educational dimensions and keep abreast with magnanimous advances and progresses, she has to solve English problems of the learners and come up with generation who are competent in the language. And such an objective is hoped to be attained with the help of studies like an investigation into English curriculum and its implementation.

2) English serves as a medium of instruction from grade 7 onwards. It has not been replaced by one of the major Ethiopian languages or the official language-Amharic. Replacing English by Amharic or any other language as a medium of instruction is not also an easy task. Relevant books and useful materials that satisfy existing national, regional and local conditions must be selected and translated. But this requires intensively trained man power in the field. Publication and production costs of new translations might also be beyond the current economic capacity of the country.

When one analyses the present conditions of Ethiopia, it seems obligatory to use English as a medium of instruction, at least for some years, in secondary schools via universities and colleges. Yet, this alleges students who are competent in the language. It appears very beneficial to conduct research on problems related to English curriculum and its implementing facilities, methods and techniques so that students become proficient in the language.

3) An investigation into lower level English curricular and instructional causes for students' drawbacks in English is essential to formidably pull out the problem from its root. Nevertheless, research on grades 9-12 English curriculum and its implementation seems to be an urgent sine qua non at present. Unless immediate remedial measures are come about with reference to senior secondary school English curriculum and its implementation, students who presently pursue their education in primary, junior and partially senior secondary school may remain deficient in the English language.

4) From practical vantage point, hence, this study is hoped to:

- . be a frame of reference to the English Panel in the Institute for Curriculum Development and Research (ICDR) in the Ministry of Education (MOE) in revising or changing the present English curriculum of grades 9-12.

- . assist senior secondary school English language teachers and students to be aware of English curriculum and instructional problems so that both could intelligently handle the problems.

- . indicate policy makers, educational officers and school directors the magnitude of pitfalls or merits in the English curriculum and its implementing facilities, methods and techniques in order that necessary measures could be taken.

- . help the colleges of teacher education to be aware of the problems in grades 9-12 English curriculum and its implementation, and direct or redirect English courses in

such a way that they accord with prevailing problems.

. invite further research in the field.

5) The methods and procedures applied in this study might also be significant to those who conduct similar research.

1.4 Delimitation and Limitation of the Study

The study focuses on objectives and content of grades 9-12 English curriculum. All grades 9-12 English language objectives listed in Ethiopian School Syllabuses (1984:193), types and gradation of content in the textbooks deserve due consideration.

The investigation into instructional aspect is confined to physical conditions of English classrooms; availability and use of instructional media; preparation and use of course, unit and daily lesson plans; teaching methods, techniques and evaluation strategies in 40 government Senior secondary schools at 20 capital cities (towns) of the former Ethiopian administrative regions. (See Appendix - A for names and location of the schools).

The study has not included schools in north and north-western part of Ethiopia because of the prevailing unfavorable conditions in the area when data was collected. It is not also concerned with public senior secondary schools and those which are found at rural areas in order to minimize complexity and heterogeneity of variables among various schools and come up with explicit causes for students' deficiency in English.

In fact, conclusions deduced from such a narrow context and recommendations provided may not serve the case of all grades 9-12 schools throughout Ethiopia. And this appears to be one of the major limitations to the study.

1.5 Definition of Important Terms

The following terms refer to main variables in the study and they are used as defined below.

1) Curriculum is a plan for educational programme ~~say that~~ and curriculum documents are plans of structures for a school programme; refer to objectives and content of a programme in a form of curriculum guide, instructional unit, resource unit, course syllabus and textbooks.

2) Syllabus: Syllabus is part of a curriculum which deals with specification and ordering of course content or input. It is concerned with the "what" of the curriculum. The term syllabus and course outline mean the same thing. It outlines language content for a particular group of learners.

3) Curriculum and Instructional Objectives : An objective is a description of what students are expected to exhibit. It alludes to an intended change to be brought about in a learner.

Curriculum objectives refer to outcomes or products expected to be accomplished by learning a course(s). They are purposes or end results vested as a result of students exposure to a segment of a programme.

On the other hand, instructional objectives are statements derived from curriculum objectives, phrased in measurable and observable terms and supposed to be demonstrated by each student in a class.

4) Curriculum Content: Content refers to basic concepts and skills to be taught. It alludes to the scope or breadth of any course or grade level identified as topics, elements or organizing theards. When curriculum planners set the basics to be learned, they respond to the question of content.

English language content comprises structural items (like nouns, pronouns, adjectives, tenses); functional items (such as expressions of greeting, inviting, complaining, apologizing); situational units (referring to situations like banking, shopping, farming) and notional components which give emphasis to meaning, and are concerned with both grammar and function.

5) Curriculum Implementation: This is the actual engagement of the learners with plans. It refers to instruction, translating plans into actions with the help of instructional facilities, methods and techniques.

6) Instructional Facilities: Instructional facilities encompass materials through which teaching and learning process are carried on. They allude to physical learning environment (classroom and its furniture, classroom light, sound and temperature); and instructional materials like textbooks, teacher's guides, curriculum guides, supplementary reading materials, instructional sheets, packaged set of materials, radio, tape-recorders and the like.

7) Methods and Techniques: Method is an over all orderly presentation of language material, whereas technique accounts to a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective.

There are various kinds of methods : the grammar-translation, the audio-lingual, and the communicative approach. The grammar-translation method focuses on translation, grammar and literary works. It involves techniques like translating the foreign language into the native one through oral and written works. The audio-lingual method emphasizes the mastery of accurate pronunciation and structure; consists of techniques like substitution, translation, dialogue and imitation. The communicative approach aims at teaching general communication. It provides more priority to express oneself meaningfully and to be understood by others than to grammatical accuracy and perfect pronunciation. Here, techniques such as role play, simulation, debate, impromptu are utilized.

1.6 Organization of the Study

The first chapter of this study deals with the problem, its significance, delimitation, limitation, definition of important terms and how the whole body is organized. The

second chapter concerns itself with review of related literature, the third with procedures and methods of data collection, and the fourth one with analysis, interpretation and discussion of data. The final chapter comprises summary, conclusion and recommendations which is followed by bibliography and appendices.

The forthcoming chapter, therefore, highlights theoretical frame works on features of stating English curriculum objectives; types selection and gradation of English curriculum content; the effect of instructional facilities, plans, methods techniques and evaluation strategies on English proficiency of the learners.

CHAPTER 2 - REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Features of Stating English Curriculum Objectives

The basic problem with English curriculum objectives seems to lie on when and how to state them. For instance, Nunan (1990:17) claims that language objectives should be developed in the process, not prior to instruction. Van EK (1987:5) also states, "Language learning objectives can never be defined with absolute explicitness because language use is neither fully predictable (except perhaps in the most restricted situation) nor fully describable."

Paradoxically, educators like Dubin and Olshtain (1988:3-4), Richards and Rodgers (1989:157) argue that English language objectives need to be prespecified in directly observable and measurable terms. They contend that stating objectives in a specific fashion helps the English language teacher to:

- . easily organize the English language content;
- . be precise about what is to be accomplished;
- . select methods and techniques of teaching the language;
- . communicate to the learners what they must achieve;
- . choose appropriate means of measuring intended learning outcomes.

On the other hand, mediators such as Schwab, Apple, Lousie Tyler and Ebel quoted in Abebe Bekele (1986:53) contend that objectives of any subject (including that of English) should be stated in behavioral terms but at a level of generality. According to these authorities, too specific objective like "Giving a list of 40 words students must be able to make 4 sentences" is not recommended to be considered as curriculum objective. Because, such objectives are supposed to restrict students' creativity, aim at trivial competencies, unnecessary consume time while formulating them, and leave no room for teacher's creative and imaginative works. Moreover, the above authorities claim that too general objective like "To produce people who can dispassionately think in English" is not acceptable either,

for it is ambiguous; does not facilitate the processes of selecting and organizing curriculum content, evaluating students' achievement and taking necessary measures.

Besides being stated with some level of generality, objectives need to cater for three domains of learning: cognitive (recall and recognition of information), affective (emotions, feelings, beliefs, attitudes, values) and psychomotor (skills), whenever possible (Bloom, Kratholl, Cornel Kraner and Robenson cited in Oliva, 1988:383).

From language view point, focusing only on one of the domains appears to be abdicating the concomitant development of students knowledge in grammar, appreciation of literature, listening, speaking, reading and writing skills.

Further, objectives become incomplete when they consist of only content or behavior (Tyler, Goodlad and Gronlund cited in Abebe, 1986:50). This means that lists of linguistic content such as "noun, pronoun, adjective, verb" suggest areas of language content to be treated. But, they do not indicate what the students are expected to do with the language, feel or think about it. Moreover, only behaviors like "to interpret accurately and skillfully, or analyse clearly and briefly" fail to specify language content to which interpretation or analysis is made.

Another practice that interferes with usefulness of objectives is that of describing what the instructor is supposed to perform rather than what the students are expected to be able to do (Gronlund, 1970:1-4; Mager, 1975:94; Ericksen, 1984:91-93). Phrases such as "to teach the differences between nouns and pronouns, or to present functional content" refer to actions of the teacher; do not entail what the learners must be able to do with the language, or understand about it.

But objectives like "The students will be able to make grammatically correct sentences by using pronouns; or understand short story" contain both behavior and content elements, stated in students behavior; and they are considered as complete.

In summary, as Ambaye Tsehaye (1989:5) indicated in his experimental article, Learning by objectives in a Teacher Training Programme: Towards a Competency Based Curriculum, "For whatever programme (including English) they are intended, objectives are the basis for curriculum and instruction." Objectives have a rubric significance in selecting and organizing the English language content, teaching methods, techniques and means of measuring intended learning outcomes. The way English language objectives are formulated appears to profoundly influence the nature of the curriculum, instruction and language proficiency of the learners. If English language objectives are ambiguously stated, instruction will encounter hit-or-miss chances. The output of such instruction could be deficiency in what has been taught. Too specific objectives, on the other hand, also seem to make the purpose of English curriculum trivial. This in turn brings about the selection of trivial content which ends up in valueless product. That is why this paper intends to evaluate the nature of grades 9-12 English curriculum objectives as one of the assumed variables to cause students' deficiency in English.

On the other hand, (as mentioned above) there is inexorable bond between objectives and content. Objectives become complete and meaningful when they consist of both behavior and content because behaviors are ends and content is a means to an end. For instance, (as broadly indicated on pages 12 to 14) the intention to develop communicative competence, makes one to select and organize the kind of content that suits this purpose.

The subsequent portion of this chapter, thus, reviews types, selection and gradation of the English curriculum and their influence on English proficiency of the learners.

2.2 Types, Selection and Gradation of English Curriculum Content

A glance at the history of language teaching reveals a remarkable stability of language content. Grammar items have been a sole content for a long time. For a while it was fashionable to label language content as "structure" rather than grammar but the content changed little, apart from a greater concern with reducing the learning load in each unit. Both have dealt with abstract rules that govern the grammatical system, not actual situation of language use (Johnson, 1983:10-11; Harmer, 1988:23; Mordoch, 1989:16).

The grammar (structural) syllabus is criticized from a number of directions, indicating the effect on English competency of the learners. One of the common criticisms advances that structural content pays scant regard to meaning and essentially to the development of communicative potential of the learners. The grammatical system often reduces the motivation of those who need to see some immediate practical return for their learning. It aims at teaching the entire system regardless of the fact that not all parts of the system will be equally useful for the learners. The bringing together of grammatically identical sentences also becomes highly artificial since in real act of communication it is sentences that are alike in meaning that occur together and not those that are alike in structure. Although structural content teaches the right language items, it often introduces them in the wrong situations, being employed for the wrong purpose. It illustrates sentences functioning in unreal situations. And all these attribute to learners' deficiency in using the language (Lesson, 1975:7; Mackey, 1978:244; Johnson, 1983:109; Wilkins, 1987:82-83; Cunningsworth, 1989:22).

As a result of criticisms on structural approach to language teaching, a situational approach to language pedagogy has come forth. In this approach, language always occurs in a social context, not divorced from actual conditions of language use when it is being taught. This has created the possibility of a learner-centered syllabus to

replace the subject based grammatical one. It has induced a prediction of situations in which the learners likely operate through the foreign language. However, this has brought about a question, "How is it feasible to produce a complete syllabus according to situational criteria?" In practice, this is difficult. To wish to describe situations is to wish to describe the world, reality, life itself (Wilkins, 1987:83-84; Dubin and Olshtain, 1988:45).

As an outgrowth of situational language content, functional content has emerged. According to Harmer (1988:22) and Dubin and Olshtain (1988:44) functional content refers to the process of conveying meaning. It is not concerned with all situations but with what a learner wants to communicate. Functional content deals with language learning as a process of developing a capacity to operate in situations of language use. It is concerned with functional items like expressions of invitation, suggestion, apology, refusals and so on (Wilkins, 1987:84; Mordoch, 1989:16).

Functional content is not also free of contravention. One of the challenges is that it is difficult to order functional content according to any standard of difficulty. For example, the contents of structural syllabus are grammatical items and can be arranged on the basis of grammatical complexity. But this condition cannot take place in functional syllabus design since the grammar to perform functions vary, do not follow regular patterns. Secondly, a lot of functional language in some textbooks tends to be phrase like rather than sentence like. Although teaching phrases has some value, students may not be given an opportunity to create new language patterns as in the case with grammatical items (Diller, 1978:23-36; Bernadette, 1980:326; Johnson, 1983:9; Harmer, 1988:23).

The controversy between structural and functional content has currently resulted in the necessity to treat both side by side under the umbrella of notional content. Many language specialists like Harmer (1988:23), Yalden (1989:28), Cunningsworth (1989:16), Mordoch (1989:15) note that no one can produce a functional course without also teaching

language form because of the fact that functions are expressed through grammar; and grammatically broken sentences are either non-communicative or convey what is not intended. The authorities strongly argue that the learner has to deal with the formal system (lexis, morphology, syntax, phonology), the socio-linguistic system (use of the language) and the semantic system (notions, concepts and logical relations) to be proficient in the language.

Of course, these language items are presented in various forms: literature, academic subjects, interesting facts, dialogues, poems, riddles, idiomatic expressions to presumably develop the learners' four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and mental faculties, emotions and feelings. In connection to the above mentioned arrays of pros and cons, therefore, this paper tries to examine kinds, proportions and relevance of grades 9-12 English curriculum content and their effects on English competency of the learners.

Further, no curriculum can teach all of language items at a time. Language items need careful selection. One of the things a curriculum designers considers while selecting content is the purpose of teaching. The reason why students need to learn a language plays pervasive role in selecting content (Haycraft, 1989:9). For instance, a media student requires an ability to read with speed. Waiters of hotels ought to have a special kind of listening and speaking skills (Harmer, 1988:20). Users of English as a medium of instruction want English which suits this purpose (Williams, 1983:253).

The amount of language mastered and the skill which the learners may already have acquired also influence the selection of content (Mackey, 1978:163; Dubin and Olshtain, 1988:5). Researches on the process of reading, for example, depict that successful reading depends on the readers' background knowledge (Williams, 1983:255; Brock, 1990:23).

The other factor to be considered while choosing content for teaching English as a foreign language is students' interest. Mordoch (1987:17), Haycraft (1989:7) and

* Coady cited in Brock (1990:23) stress that the content of the course must be suited to the learners' own culture, age and aspiration so that it would become of optimum interest and relevance.

The length of time covered by the course also affects the selection of content (Mackey, 1978:63; Dubin and Olshtain, 1988:32). The material in two years course at two hours a week cannot be the same as that in four years at five hours a week.

A content selected for European comfortable classrooms which are equipped with modern technologies of overhead-projector, tape-recorders, radio, language laboratory and computer should be quite different from language content in overcrowded classrooms of developing nations which are handled by a teacher and a textbook alone (Harmer, 1988:21). Richards and Rodgers (1988:156) also suggest that when one selects a language content he/she has to consider the conditions of teaching in the classrooms.

Multi-dimensionality is another important criteria that demands attention while selecting content of the English curriculum. According to Williams (1983:255), Harmer (1988:243), Cunnigsworth (1989:5-20) a content is said to be multi-dimensional if it at least:

- . takes into account currently accepted flexible methods of teaching the language;
- . caters for individual differences;
- . considers vocabulary on the basis of frequency and functions;
- . presents vocabulary in appropriate context and situations;
- . gives practice in controlled and free composition.

If the above and other important criteria for content selection are not considered, language items doomed to be amassed accidental facts; do not help to bring about proficiency in the language. Chanceful conglomeration of content hardly improves language command of the learners. Consequently, this paper tries to investigate into the criteria employed while selecting content of grades 9-12 English curriculum.

A content which is selected cannot be taught at once. Certain content must come before or after another in such a way that one smoothly lays a firm ground for the continuing one. Questions like: What goes with what? What comes before or after what? must deserve attention.

Of course, in structural syllabus, one of the main criteria for content gradation is structural simplicity (Johnson, 1983:70; Harmer, 1988:23). Units with simple structures are placed before those covering more complex structures.

But a criterion of structural simplicity cannot be easily applied in organizing functional content. It is not possible to say an expression of invitation is simpler than expression of greeting, apology or interruption. The grammar used to perform functions extremely varies. It does not regularly follow simple or complex structures (Diller, 1978:23-36; Johnson, 1983:71; Harmer, 1988:23). How a functional syllabus designer arranges functional content is, therefore, presently a matter of intelligent guess and personal judgement. It demands further research and investigation (Cunningsworth, 1989:22).

Both in structural and functional syllabus, as a principle, the beginning should be slow and well founded. Unless the first layer is firm, nothing could be built on it, for the whole features will be developed from the foundations. Small units should be taught before larger ones, a few should come before many, the brief before long, the simple before the complex and these immensely increase the learnability of language items and positively influence language capacity of the learners (Mackey, 1978:205; Dubin and Dlshtain, 1988:73).

In summary, thoroughly stated objectives help to select content, facilitate teaching-learning processes, evaluate language proficiency of the learners and develop their language command. Carefully selected and graded content also serve to ease instruction and build up language competency of the learners. Patently, the reverse also holds true.

In addition to curriculum objectives and content, factors such as classroom physical learning environment;

availability and use of instructional media; preparation and use of course, unit and daily lesson plans; use of teaching method, techniques and evaluation strategies influence language proficiency of the learners as indicated below.

2.3. Instructional Facilities, Plans, Methods, Techniques and Evaluation Strategies of Implementing the English Curriculum

An environment which is aesthetically satisfying promotes learning. The colour of the walls, chalkboard and ceiling have a great effect on the learners. Furniture squeaks, scraps and lumps; door slams in the corridor damage the quiet tone required for instruction. Insufficient amount of light, inadequacy of chairs, tables and space hamper instructional processes. A room that is too hot makes the learners sleepy. Students who are aggressive tend to become more aggressive in overcrowded conditions. Those who are shy and retiring withdraw into themselves. The larger the number of students in a class, the more difficult it is to use appropriate methods, techniques and evaluation strategies (Mehl and Others, 1965:147-149; Grambs, Carr and Fitch, 1970:98-99; Larsen, 1971:399; Davies, 1981:108-123).

In addition to physical learning environment, the availability and use of instructional media play special role in teaching English as a foreign language. If, for example, hands-on-materials (realia) are not available and used, students do not get a good opportunity to efficiently deal with real world, understand their names, construct sentences and build up discourse (Grant, 1982:244; Azeb Desta, 1984:26; Haycraft, 1989:48).

The teacher, the students as well as class furniture are also indispensable teaching aids in a language class. For example, if a student wants to know the meaning of "agony" in a reading passage, the teacher instead of giving unhelpful definition can immediately collapse on the table and roll around in exaggerated "agony". The students probably laugh at the teacher but they will be startled

into attention and will not fail to recall such a dramatic exemplification of unfamiliar words (Ellis and Tomlinson, 1986:306).

In the absence of real objects, models in miniature or in enlarged forms can be procured and used to represent realities and events (Kochhar, 1985:144).

Photographs, posters, cartoons, pictures, charts, graphs and diagrams also help to reduce monotony of verbal learning and summarize content of the curriculum with minimum words and lines (Crow and Others, 1961:239-246; Panchal, 1984:31-33; Sheerin, 1987:127).

Radio and tape-records serve to practise intonation, inflection or rhythm patterns. By recording instructional activities teachers would be in a position to recognize the amount of positive reinforcement they give to their students. Real speech situations may also be recorded and used as stimulus for summary and composition (Grant, 1982:259; Ellis and Tomlinson, 1986:304-305; Panchal, 1984:33; Hycraft, 1989:113).

Both teachers and students commonly use textbooks. A textbook helps as a guide for the teacher, a memory aid for the learner, a permanent record or measure of what has been learned, an exercise ground for reading (Billows, 1981:70; Harmer, 1988:219).

Nevertheless a textbook is an essential asset, yet it may not contain all necessary language items. It has to be supplemented by handout, supplementary reading materials and workbooks (Grant, 1982:257; Kochhar, 1985:100).

In sum, the above mentioned instructional materials seem to make language instruction real, concrete and vigorous. Where they are scarce or unavailable their merits will not be obtained and smooth language teaching-learning process does not take place. It is in this sense that the study tries to check the availability and use of English instructional media in senior secondary schools at capitals of Ethiopia administrative regions.

The other factor that influences language instruction is the preparation and use of course, unit and daily lesson plans.

The teachers either jointly or individually prepare course plans for a year, a semester or a quarter. All available textbooks in an area, curriculum guides, supplementary reading materials, students' entry behaviors and classroom conditions are all surveyed while preparing course plans. Then, general concepts, attitudes and skills to be taught are listed along with objectives, learning experiences and strategies (Hoover, 1973:30-39; Grant, 1982:142-143).

Unit plans are more specific than course plans. Most unit plans last for two to six weeks. The length and scope, of course, vary depending upon topic, theme or grade level (Oliva, 1988:424).

A lesson plan, on the other hand, is an expanded portion of a unit plan. It charts out daily instruction; involves specific objectives, teacher and student activities, assessment and time blocks (Hoover, 1973:39). Lesson plans should be realistic as much as possible. They must be prepared in the assumption that a substitute teacher can use them, nevertheless they differ from brief outlines to detailed descriptions (Grant, 1982:143).

The preparation of course, unit and daily lesson plans is a stage at which teachers interpret the curriculum to their students and facilitate its implementation. Teaching without instructional plans seems to greatly influence language teaching and apparently language capacity of the learners in that plans:

- . allow the teacher to command the future rather than the future commands the instruction;
- . help the teacher to clarify his thinking about objectives, students' interest, means of motivation and teaching materials;
- . facilitate wise use of time;

- . assure balance, consistency, variety, flexibility and sequence in teaching;
- . provide for fresh, up-to-date presentation of lessons;
- . contribute in teacher's professional growth and development (Harmer, 1984:91; Harmer,1988:221; Husain, 1990:34). Consequently, this study looks into how grades 9-12 English teachers prepare and use course, unit and daily lesson plans.

Obviously, instructional plans are set in motion through methods-means to ends. In fact, there are plathora of methods to teach English as a foreign language : the grammar translation method, the direct method, the conversation method, the oral method, the audio-lingual method and the communicative approach. However, some of these are vague and inadequate to be considered as methods because they limit themselves to a single aspect of a language (Mackey, 1978:156). Among these various kinds of methods, this paper focuses on three widely known methods: the grammar-translation method, the audio-lingual method and the communicative approach, for they appear to be relevant to the study.

The procedure of grammar-translation is that students learn about the grammar rules and vocabulary of the target language. They learn grammar deductively; that is, they are given grammar rules and examples, are told to memorize and then asked to apply the rules to other examples. They define parts of speech, memorize dictionary and translate selections using a bilingual dictionary or glassary (Lado:1964:4; Panchal, 1984:15; Richards and Rodgers, 1989:3-4).

In the grammar-translation method, literary language is considered superior to spoken language. Pronunciation receives little, if any attention. Teachers use the native language as a medium of teaching the target language. Tests refer to translation, grammar rules and explanation of a foreign culture. The learners regard the instructor as the source of knowledge and authority in the class(Larsen-Freeman, 1986:6-12; Dubin and Olshtain, 1988:48).

The great focus on communication warranted the inadequacy of the grammar-translation method. Students who have devoted several years to study a foreign language, by the grammar translation method, are found, in most cases, to lack the ability of using the language and have a distaste for the language (Panchal, 1984:15). Diller (1978:36) notes that words and structures learned through the grammar-translation method are "dead, and do not stand for any living concept or thought_ _ _ the words are not our words, the thoughts not our thoughts."

A reaction against the grammar-translation method has resulted in language learning by the direct contact with the foreign language in meaningful situations. This idea led to the development of the audio-lingual method (Larsen-Freeman, 1986:31; Dubin and Olshtain, 1988:48).

Here, language learning is thought as a kind of habit formation which can be accomplished through conditioning and drills. Substitution, transformation, question-and-answer techniques are used to present new vocabulary and structures. Students induce grammar rules from the examples offered by the teacher. Cultural information is either embodied in the dialogues or delivered by the teacher. Presentation of the four language skills strictly follows the sequence of listening, speaking, reading and writing. The students' native language is considered as a taboo, not employed in a class. In tests, students are often asked to distinguish minimal pairs or supply appropriate grammar forms. Successful responses are positively reinforced (Larsen-Freeman, 1986:43-44; Richards and Rodgers, 1989:51).

Although the audio-lingual method is still widely praised, the idea of behaviorists (such as Thorndike and Skinner) which equates language learning to mere habit formation has been seriously challenged. Cognitive psychologists and transformation generative linguists (like Bloom Field and N.Chomsky respectively) ratify that language learning does not take place only through mimicry memorization (Harmer, 1988:30; Dubin and Olshtain, 1988:48;

Nunan, 1990:25). For instance, Noam Chomsky (1966:153) (as a challenge to behaviorist theory of language learning) raised questions like: If all language learning is learned behavior, how is it that young children can say things they have never said before? How is it possible that adults all through their lives say things they have never said before? How is it possible that a new sentence in the mouth of a four-year-old is the result of conditioning?

According to Chomsky(1966:153), language is not only a habit structure. Rather, it involves great abstractness and intricacy both in pronunciation and formation of sentences. It is a process whereby people use their minds and fellow members. Learners are seen as active agents in their learning rather than as mere respondents to stimuli in the environment. This paved a ground for the emergence of the communicative approach.

The basic principle underling the communicative approach to language learning is that students must learn not only to make grammatically correct propositional statements but also develop the ability to use a language appropriate to a given context. Students are expected to know linguistic forms, meanings and functions (Dubin and Olshtain, 1988:88 and 106; Richards and Rodgers, 1988:71; Nunan, 1990:25).

The range of exercises and techniques compatible with the communicative approach are unlimited, provided that they enable the learners to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum and engage learners in communication. In fact, activities such as role play, games, problem solving tasks, negotiation of meaning and interactions are common examples (Larsen-Freeman, 1986:132; Valden, 1989:37; Richards and Rodgers, 1989:76).

Activities that are truly communicative, according to Carroll (1980:1) and Morrow cited in Larsen-Freeman (1986:132) involve three features: information gap, choice and feedback. An information gap occurs when one person in an example knows something that the other person does not. If, for instance, two people know today is Tuesday and one asks, "What is

today? and the other answers, "Tuesday", this exchange is not communicative. It does not contain an information gap. Moreover, the speaker need to have a choice of what he will say and how he will say it. If the exercise is tightly controlled (like in chains of drills) and makes students say something in only one way, here there is no choice and the language is not communicative. Communication also needs to be purposeful. A speaker has to get the opportunity to evaluate whether or not his purpose has been achieved, on the basis of the information he receives from the listener. The other characteristics of the communicative approach is the use of authentic materials. Learners need a chance of being exposed to the language spoken by the natives.

Moreover, the learners take on the four language skills right from the beginning in an integrated way. Just as oral communication takes place through negotiation between the speaker and the listener so too is with written language. The writer composes with the readers' perspectives and the readers try to understand the writer's intention (Larsen-Freeman, 1986:133-134; Richards and Rodgers, 1989:81).

Judicious use of the native language is possible. Teachers provide directions of homework, classwork and tests by using the native language. Both accuracy and fluency bear due attention while evaluating the learners. A teacher also informally evaluates his students performance in his role as an advisor or co-communicator. He tolerates errors of forms considering them as a natural outcome of communication (Richards and Rodgers, 1989:67-68).

Although each method has got its own evaluation technique (as indicated above), it seems worthwhile to review some general kinds, procedures, values and influence of evaluation in a language class, because evaluation is a yardstick by which language competency of the learners is measured. Cooper (1986:361) indicates that it enables teachers to obtain information and make decisions about teaching-learning processes.

Apparently, there are two general categories of evaluation known as formative and summative. Formative evaluation takes place continuously and focuses on present mastery of content and skills. It aims at helping the teacher to diagnose daily progress of students to meet their current instructional needs. Whereas, summative evaluation generally takes place near the end of a semester or unit; focuses on an in depth assessment of students' achievement for the purpose of assigning grade and determining their levels (Grant, 1982:299; Harrison, 1989:1-6).

One of the strategies of formative evaluation is homework. It has got great educational benefit since it enables the learners to independently plan and perform their work; helps to improve their ability to use books and resources outside the school; develops moral and intellectual qualities of self-reliance, self-direction and initiative; establishes a habit of reading—a habit which goes a long way in the pursuit of knowledge (Kochhar, 1985:103).

Quiz and classwork also play tenacious role in that they provide immediate feedback in learning particular element of the English language and facilitate the arrangement of remedial works.

Further, placement and proficiency tests have got paramount importance. Placement tests enable one to sort out new students into certain groups; concerned with students' present standing and general activity rather than specific point of learning. On the other hand, proficiency test aims at assessing the student's ability to apply what he has learned in actual situations. It answers the question, "Having learned this much, what can the student do with it?"

Needless to say, the basic objective of language learning is to use it in order to understand what is learned or read, and respond to situations. It does not aim at only demonstrating grammatical patterns. Authorities like Whiteson (1981:348); Chenoweth (1987:26) and Harrison (1989:11), hence, note that these objectives should be kept

in mind while designing tests. They claim that tests of a foreign language should seek for useful information about functional language ability, general language proficiency and some areas of linguistic knowledge. In order to fulfil these purposes, Harrison (1989:11) suggests what is known as content specification. He states:

Content specification is important because it ensures as far as possible that the test reflects all the areas to be assessed in suitable proportions and also because it represents a balanced sample without bias towards the kind of items which are easiest to write or towards the best material which happens to be available.

Correction acts as an integral part of tests, home and classworks. It provides feedbacks to the learners. Through continuous corrections, teachers improve their students acquisition of language (Murphy, 1986:146; Haycraft, 1989:123). But to test and correct only grammatical mistakes seems to ignore the more fundamental problems of meaning and depth. If only grammatical aspects are tested and corrected, the learners would most likely assume that grammatical accuracy, not meaning is important (Chenoweth, 1987:26).

So far, theoretical frameworks on the nature of objectives, types, selection and gradation of content and their influence on language proficiency of the learners have been reviewed. The effect of physical learning environment, instructional media, preparation and use of instructional plans, teaching methods, techniques and evaluation strategies on efficiency of language learning have been highlighted.

Now, in the forthcoming chapter, procedures and methods employed to collect data about the features of objectives and content of grades 9-12 English curriculum; its implementing facilities, plans methods and techniques in schools at capitals of Ethiopian administrative regions will be in order.

CHAPTER 3 - PROCEDURES AND METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

3.1 Tools and Techniques of Collecting Data on Grades 9-12 English Curriculum Objectives

First, objective - reputation matrix indicated in Abebe Bekele's (1986:48) article, "Insight into the Concepts of the Curriculum," had been adapted and English language objective-feature categories were established. Then, all grades 9-12 English curriculum objectives in Ethiopian School Syllabuses (1984:193) were listed down and checked against the categories with the help of 3 post graduate students (who have acquaintance with formulation of objectives) in order to minimize the subjectivity that may occur while labelling them.

The categorization involves those objectives which are:

- 1) relatively clear in behavior and content;
 - 2) ambiguous in behavior and content;
 - 3) concerned with cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains;
 - 4) referring to receptive skills (listening and reading);
 - 5) dealing with productive skills (speaking and writing).
- The results of these categories have been converted into percentile, carefully examined and discussed.

3.2 Tools and Techniques of Gathering Data on Grades 9-12 English Curriculum Content

Bernadette (1980:326), Johnson (1983:56-60), Wilkins (1987:82-90), Harmer (1988:22-23) and Yalden's (1989:28) conceptual categories of language content (as structural, situational, functional, etc. content) and that of grades 9-12 English textbooks had been taken into account, and content-kind matrix was developed. After formulation of categories, the size of kinds of content throughout the books was identified and categorized with the help of 4 English

language teachers teaching in 4 senior secondary schools, assuming that the teachers have a good knowledge of their texts and help to avoid predispositions that may occur while classifying the contents. The outputs of content-kind categories have been changed into percentile, their kinds, proportions and relevance have been scrutinized and discussed.

All reading passages (about 80 in number) were read, and labelled vis-a-vis subjects being provided in senior secondary schools, as already established categories which enable to see how much the passages are factual and horizontally relate to other subjects.

All target words (about 1119 in number) in the reading passages had been checked against Thorndike and Lorgner's (1963) category of vocabulary items (see page 40). Whereas, all exercises were read and classified in relation to kinds of content (see page 43) with the help of the above 4 teachers. Then, vocabulary items and exercises pertaining to respective categories have been converted into percentile and overhauled vis-a-vis their types, proportions and relevance.

Raygor's Readability Estimate cited in Baldwin and Kaufman (1977:152-153) was employed to check readability levels of grades 9-12 English texts, for it is considered to be easy, fast and valid. The research conducted by Baldwin and Kaufman (1977:152) indicates that the Raygor's Readability Estimate "does not sacrifice accuracy for simplicity and time." (For detail procedures of Raygor's Readability Estimate see Appendix-B).

Moreover, vocabulary and exercise counts took place to find out the amount and kind of vocabulary and exercises presented in each textbook. This together with readability indices have been used to look into content gradation of the texts.

Besides analyses of documents, unstructured interview (see Appendix-D) was made on formulation of objectives, selection and gradation of content, with members of the English Panel in the Institute for Curriculum Development and Research (ICDR) and used in the process of discussion.

3.3 Tools and Techniques of Obtaining Data on Grades 9-12 English Curriculum Implementation

Data on grades 9-12 English Curriculum implementation refer to physical conditions of English classrooms; availability and use of instructional media; preparation and use of course, unit and daily lesson plans; teaching methods, techniques and evaluation strategies. Information about these instructional components was collected with the help of three instruments:

1) Questionnaire : The first draft of close and open ended questionnaire of 70 items had been administered to 40 teachers in 4 senior secondary schools located in Addis Ababa. Getting clues from the way teachers responded to the first draft, form and content of some items were revised and 9 items were totally discarded for they were thought to be redundant.

After clarity and relevance of the questionnaire had been ensured, 61 items (see Appendix-C) were administered to 143 English language teachers in 10 senior secondary schools (4 in Addis Ababa and 6 in various administrative regions). The 10 schools had been selected with the help of quota sampling technique in order to represent 40 government senior secondary schools in 20 capital cities (towns) of the former administrative regions.

One-hundred-twenty one teachers, more or less, responded to the questionnaires and returned them. Questionnaires which were entirely and rigorously completed by 100 teachers were chosen, assuming that this would serve to make the responses reliable and valid. Then, the responses have been converted into percentile, tabulated and discussed.

2) Interview : In order to complement the questionnaire both structured and unstructured interviews (see Appendix -D) were made with 10 English language department heads and 10 randomly selected English language teachers in the 10 schools. The responses of structured interviews have been

calculated out of 100 and interpreted. Whereas, the responses to unstructured interviews have been used in the process of discussing data.

3) Observation : Grades 9-12 English classes were visited for 4 periods in each school. Availability and use of curriculum documents and instructional aids were checked with the help of check-lists (see page 9), examined and discussed.

Samples of course and daily lesson plans, examination and test papers were collected from all schools. Their form and content deserved careful observation and analysis. Kinds of test items and their content have been quantitatively handled and discussed.

3.4 Model Used in the Study

The above methods and procedures were established by adapting a model of curriculum and instruction evaluation developed by African Primary Science Programme (APSP) cited in Urevbu (1986:67-76). The model was adapted in such a way that it serves as a means of collecting data on grades 9-12 English curriculum and its implementation.

As Urevbu(1986:76) noted the APSP model is a survey study and gathers data on both curriculum and instruction with the help of document analysis, questionnaire, interview and observations. Although the model uses tests in order to assess learning outcomes of students, it is much concerned with illuminating the nature of curriculum materials, instructional milieu, methods and techniques with which this study deals as variables to cause students' deficiency in English. (For detail information on APSP model, see Appendix G).

Data obtained with the help of this model will be presented and discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4 - ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

4.1 Data on Grades 9-12 English Curriculum Objectives

The Categorization of grades 9-12 English Curriculum objectives which had been established by adapting that of Abebe Bekele (1986 :48) and labelled with the help of 3 post graduate students of curriculum will be presented in the first table.

Table - I
Features of Grades 9-12 English Curriculum Objectives

Objectives	Features									
	Levels of Clarity		Category of Domains				Category of Language skills			
	Clear in Behavior and cont.	Ambiguous in Behavior and cont.	Cognitive	Affective	Psychomotor	Does not Refer to Speci. Domain	Receptive Skill	Productive Skill	Both Receptive and Productive Skills	
The students will be able to:										
*. Have greater and much more consolidated knowledge of the spoken and written forms of the language;	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	
. Have a higher and more refined power of fluency;	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	
. Have a full mastery of English with precision and relative perfection;	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	
. Raise their speed of reading upto(150-200) words per minute with a great deal of understanding;	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	
. Compose a good paragraph of (20-30) lines;	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	
. Easily develop a good paragraph;	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	
. Follow sequence of ideas;	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	
. Identify a theme in a passage;	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	
. See interdependence of things and phenomena in a series of separate paragraf ;	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	
. Be equipped with basic and standardized English to help them pursue various levels of advanced fields of study. **	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	
Key :0 =Does not refer to the indicated feature										
	Total	6	4	5	0	2	3	4	2	4
1=Refers to the the indicated feature	Percent	60%	40%	50%	0	20%	30%	40%	20%	40%

*SOURCE: Ministry of Education(1984). Ethiopian School Syllabuses, Addis Ababa: Unpublished,P.193.

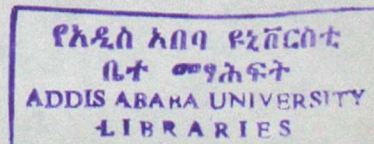


Table - I indicates 4 interrelated points about features of grades 9-12 English Curriculum objectives.

1) Some of the objectives (40%) are ambiguous - lack clear behavior and content. For instance, What does one understand by curriculum objectives as the following?

The students will be able to:

- . Have a greater and more consolidated knowledge of - - - the language;
- . Have a higher and more refined power of fluency;
- . Have a full mastery of English;
- . Be equipped with - - - standardized English .

Obviously, these statements are nebulous both in behavior and content. "Verb to have" with which the objectives begin do not clearly envisage what the learners will be able to think, feel or do. Jumbles of phrases like "greater and more consolidated knowledge of the language," "higher and more refined power of fluency," "a full mastery of English" do not signify specific content. They lend themselves to various interpretation and meaning; and are very much confusing to visualize and draw out content with which the students deal.

John Stoddart (1986:35), who made research on "The use and Study of English in Ethiopia" found out similar result regarding English curriculum objectives. He says", _ _ _much objectives as do exist are so vague to be almost meaningless."

If curriculum objectives are vague, there will be no sound basis for drawing out instructional objectives, selecting and organizing instructional content. Choosing suitable methods and techniques will also become perplexing. Robert Mager (1975:5) stresses, "If you do not know where you are going, it is difficult to select a suitable means of getting there."

Moreover, unless curriculum objectives are properly stated, it will become troublesome to evaluate their attainment. Students language problems won't be well identified and it is difficult to take necessary measures on

the right time. This appears to make the learners remain deficient in the language.

2) In addition to being ambiguous, most of the objectives seem to be redundant. Similar intent of tantalizing objectives occur one after the other with different wordings. The following are examples.

The students will be able to:

- . Have a higher and more refined power of fluency;
- . Have consolidated knowledge of _ _ _ the language;
- . Have a full mastery of English;
- . Be equipped with _ _ _ standardized English.

Here, there is no strong semantic variation among the statements. Anyone who might "have consolidated knowledge of the language" is thought to "be equipped with standardized English" or vice-versa. Besides that they are superfluous, they incline to be unrealistic. "Full mastery of English" or "higher and refined power of fluency" appears to be illusion, particularly, when one thinks in terms of the present English status of grades 9-12 students.

3) Some of the objectives (30%), in the table, have got also a mitigating tendency to be categorized into one of the domains: cognitive, affective or psychomotor. This confirms their ambiguity.

Almost half (50%), whatever they lack clear behavior and content, refer to the cognitive domain. Only 20% aims at psychomotor domain. The affective domain, which comprises feeling, emotion, attitude and value systems, has not been totally included. It seems that appreciations, aspirations, moods and attitudes that students develop in the process of language learning have been left to chances.

Comparatively seen, a large emphasis on the cognitive domain and the total abundance of the affective domain indicates that the curriculum aimed at a narrow segment of what a comprehensive curriculum ought to ameliorate. And such curriculum objectives appear inadequate to concomitantly develop students' language skills, sensitivities, emotions and ways of expressing them.

4) The categorization of the objectives into language receptive (listening and reading), and productive (speaking and writing) skills depicts that the weight given to the productive skills is minimal (20%). But, unless productive skills deserve appropriate emphasis, the pervasive need of speaking and writing skills in everyday communication in general and instructional process in particular is difficult to be gained. The latent language that a great proportion of objectives in grades 9-12 English curriculum provoke scantily help the learners become competent in the language.

One might ask, "What made the grades 9-12 English curriculum objectives so deficient as indicated above?" The information obtained from the English Panel in the Institute for Curriculum Development and Research (ICDR) points out that the objectives were formulated in a very hasty and spontaneous manner. Their clarity in behavior and content, categorization into various kinds of domains and language skills were not critically thought of. Because, there was an urgent political need to come up with a new curriculum overnight as a substitute for the old one, right after 1974 Ethiopian reality.

However, teaching English without diligently and clearly formulated objectives seems to be as valueless as firing a bullet without thoughtful target. As indicated above, hotch-potch curriculum objectives don't help to draw out appropriate instructional objectives, select and organize content, choose appropriate teaching methods and techniques, evaluate learning outcomes, and therefore, inadequate to inspire English proficiency in the learners.

In addition to curriculum objectives, the content of the curriculum to which students are exposed, positively or negatively influence their language command. Content is a vehicle through which knowledge and skills are transmitted in order to bring about some change of behavior. The next part, hence, deals with grades 9-12 English curriculum content.

4.2 Data on Grades 9-12 English Curriculum Content

Table - II

Proportion of Kinds of Content in Grades 9-12 English Textbooks

Kinds of Content	Proportion of Kinds of Content in The textbooks				
	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12	Mean
Factual description of things and phenomena in a form of reading passage	30.9%	34.2%	39.6%	49%	38.4%
Situational Content	2.9%	4.4%	3.6%	2.1%	3.3%
Functional Content	-	-	2.7%	-	0.7%
Poems	-	-	0.9%	2.8%	0.9%
Definition of vocabulary items	21.3%	17.5%	15.3%	15.4%	17.4%
Mechanics (spelling, capitalization and punctuation marks)	2.2%	2.6%	-	0.7%	1.4%
Description of structural items	39%	34.2%	37.9%	30.1%	35.3%
Differentiation of phonemes	3.7%	7%	-	-	2.7%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Situational content deals with interactions between things and people in certain time and space. It comprises list of situations like playing, shopping, banking, farming and so on. On the other hand, functional content is concerned with what is done with the language. If, for instance, one wishes to invite someone, he/she uses the language of inviting: Would you like to come to the cinema? or How about coming to the cinema? In day-to-day activities people use functional language for greeting, inviting, complaining, offering, requesting, discouraging, suggesting, giving advice, expressing sorrow and happiness.

The investigation into grades 9-12 English textbooks in light of situational and functional content (as indicated in Table -II) shows that the textbooks are almost aloof of both kinds of content. Only 3.3% and 0.7% represent situational and functional content respectively. With the exception of exercises (which have been independently treated on PP.43-44)

a relatively large proportion (35.3%) of the books subscribes to structural descriptions.

Yet, structural textbooks are criticized from a number of angles, indicating the effect on English competency of the learners. One of the common criticisms is that structural content pays scant regard to meaning and communicative potential of the learners. It hardly builds up the ability to express oneself in various situations. Johnson (1983:12) metaphorically notes that learning only about the language is as ridiculous as " _ _ _ a computer programmed with future sentences but unable to adjust itself to the communicative needs of situations." Structural items are often introduced in wrong situations, being employed for wrong purposes. Apart from being "situationally dishonest" structural items happen to be "functionally dishonest". They illustrate sentences functioning in unreal situations and make the learners misuse the language. Moreover, the structural content aims at teaching the entire system regardless of the fact that all parts of the system will be equally useful for the learners. Much monotonous grammatical descriptions and patterns also tend to reduce motivation of the learners who need to see some immediate practical return for their learning.

On the other hand, the nearer language content comes to real situations and functions, the more interesting and easier it will be for the learners. Realistic content which students likely meet outside the classroom, stimulates their desire to learn the language and facilitates its instruction. Students involve themselves more when a lesson allows them to talk, read or write about realities than when it makes them deal with linguistic abstractions. A great deal of abstraction often ends in confusion; and this is a big challenge to language learning and language competency of the learners.

To recognize the desirability of communicative language is not in any way to claim that structural knowledge is unnecessary or unimportant. Because, no one can produce a

functional or a situational course without also dealing with structure. Grammatical knowledge is a part of communicative knowledge and language textbooks ought to ensure that students could manipulate the language structurally as well as functionally. Cunningsworth (1989:15) proposes, " _ _ _we have to make the selection from the possible form (structure) which can be used to express a function)."

Worthy textbooks do not only possess language content in a form of structures, situations and functions but also in a form of poems. However, very limited proportion (0.9%) of the books alludes to this language asset. Making poetry as small as this throughout grades 9-12 English textbooks seems to be renouncing an effective labour saving content of absorbing useful language. Billows (1981:238) notes that discarding poetry out of textbooks is to abandon opportunities to humanize and warm what otherwise may be a very dry and chilly traffic in words and information. He says, "It is to neglect an important and powerful aid in establishing in the pupils mind a favourable mental set." Poetry has got a strong appeal to the introverted personality giving shape and integration to fantasy. It is also a vehicle of expression to the extrovert.

Further, the textbooks do not sufficiently contain mechanics (spelling, capitalization, punctuation marks) and pronunciation, entailing students' deficiency in these aspects.

Besides structural items, the textbooks are full of factual descriptions in a form of reading passages (38.4%) definition and illustration of vocabulary items(17.4%).

A look into the relevance of reading passages and vocabulary items will be in order in the next few pages.

Table - III
Conceptual References of Reading Passages in Grades 9-12
English Textbooks

Conceptual References	Proportion of Reading Passages in No and %									
	Grade 9		Grade 10		Grade 11		Grade 12		Mean	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Marxist-Leninist Ideology (Political education)	2	10%	7	35%	6	30%	7	35%	5.5	27.5%
Artistic (literary)work	2	10%	1	5%	2	10%	2	10%	1.8	8.8%
Language	2	10%	1	5%	-	-	1	5%	1	5%
Mathematics	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Physics	1	5%	1	5%	-	-	1	5%	0.8	3.8%
Chemistry	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	10%	0.5	2.5%
Biology	4	20%	2	10%	2	10%	3	15%	2.8	13.8%
Physical education	-	-	-	-	1	5%	-	-	0.3	1.3%
History	2	10%	1	5%	2	10%	-	-	1.3	6.3%
Geography	1	5%	1	5%	1	5%	-	-	0.8	3.8%
Agriculture	2	10%	2	10%	2	10%	2	10%	2	10%
Productive technology	1	5%	2	10%	1	5%	2	10%	1.5	7.5%
Book Keeping	-	-	2	10%	-	-	-	-	0.5	2.5%
Economics	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Difficult to Categorize	3	15%	-	-	3	15%	-	-	1.5	7.5%
Total	20	100%	20	100%	20	100%	20	100%	20	100%

Table-III indicates that the reading passages in the textbooks are composed of Marxist-Leninist ideology (political education) (27.5%), biology (13.8%), agriculture (10%), productive technology (7.5%), history (6.3%), language (5%), physics (3.8%) and so on. This means that the reading passages horizontally relate to other subjects being provided in senior secondary schools. Learning physics, geography or history is supposed to familiarize the learners with vocabulary items and conceptions of various subjects so that English could be reinforced to serve as a medium of instruction.

On the other hand, such subject oriented reading passages also seem to have drawbacks. Often, they will not

be in a position to lay out situational or functional language to make the learners use the language rather than giving much attention to facts and information. Moreover, factually dozed reading passages appear to suppress comprehension capacity and motivation of the learners while reading. The more reading passages are largely factual and unfamiliar to the learner, the more they become boring and difficult to grasp what they portray. Brock (1990:23) concedes that reading passages should stress readers background rather than dealing with unfamiliar conceptions. According to him, factually saturated novice reading passages depress interest of the learners.

In spite of this, more surprisingly, the largest proportion (27.5%) of the reading passages aims at injecting Marxist-Leninist ideology -factually stuffed content which is far away from learners background. To this end, the Grade 9-12 English Curriculum Guide (1982:6) states:

...as long as English continues to be used as a medium of instruction in the junior, senior high schools as well as higher institutions for some years to come, the content expressed in the language need to be primarily ideological or political. In other words, it means that the emphasis should be more on giving "ideological English" than on conventional English.

Many English reading passages, therefore, are descriptions about "primitive society", "slave owning society," "feudalism" "capitalism," "socialism," "socialist economy," "socialist morality," roles and functions of socialist "youth association", "peasant association," "cooperatives" and so on. Most of them are also highly loaded with broad concepts and confusing abstractions. For

instance, one of the grade 12 reading passages entitled, "The Social Basis of Trotskism" reads:

_ _ _ The petty bourgeoisie, subjectively, wishes to become rich, to attain height of capitalist economic power objectively, however, its interests lie with the struggle against imperialism because imperialism removes the economic ground from under its feet. Only under a socialist system will the petty bourgeoisie of today become a free member of society, unafraid of the future, since under socialism it will be transformed into one engaged in a socially useful productive labour.

Here, the two sentences seem to be very much inflated with technical terms of lofty concepts. More often than not, the learners hardly visualize conceptions like "petty bourgeoisie", "capitalist economic power," "imperialism," "socialist system" or "socially useful productive labour." Learning English (as a foreign language) through such ideological passage (alien content) appears to be as confusing as defining new words with unknown terms. Some English language teachers might also be neither interested nor be able to deal with ideological obstructions.

Compared to those passages with academic, vocational and ideological conceptions, those with literary themes are few in number and small in proportion. Only 8.8% of all grades 9-12 English reading passages have got literary themes—consisting of some artistic setting, antagonistic or protagonistic characters, surprising events and some sort of climax.

But such limited literary works scarcely provide the learners with insight into various taste of life: hate, love, greedy, or misery. It appears they are very much limited to stimulate aesthetic tones and deepen dimension of thoughts.

Moreover, if a language class falls short of literary works, students will not get adequate opportunity to deal with language in a social setting, in a meaningful context. Bosturkmen (1990:18) says, "Literature contributes to the purpose of language learning in that it represents language in use." Literature breaks the psychological barrier that

stands among the learners or between the teacher and the learners. While dealing with themes like pride, Prejudice, fear, courage, hate or love, students speak or write with little concern about themselves and making mistake, because they play out the roles of some characters. Beyond being an excellent means of practising language, literature appears to establish an enthusiastic classroom atmosphere.

Whether or not reading passages present factual information or literary work, they often introduce new vocabulary items. The vocabulary items presented through reading passages, of course, need to be geared at those words which are the most frequent and are most likely met by the students. According to Bright and McGregor (1970:18) and Mackey(1978:177), such words are the most useful and enable the learners use the language in day-to-day communication activities. The subsequent table and analysis, therefore, overhaul the relevance of vocabulary items in grades 9-12 English reading passages vis-a-vis Thorndike and Lorge's category of vocabulary items.

Table - IV

Target Vocabulary of Grades 9-12 English Textbooks vis-a-vis Thorndike and Lorge's Category of Vocabulary Items

Thorndike and Lorge's Category of Vocabulary Items	Target Vocabulary Items of the Textbooks	
	No	%
Words with 100 or more times frequency of occurrence per million	124	11.1%
Words with 50-99 times frequency of occurrence per million	180	16.1%
Words with 20-49 times frequency of occurrence per million	249	22.3%
Words with 10-19 times frequency of occurrence per million	193	17.2%
Words with 6-9 times frequency of occurrence per million	104	9.3%
Words with 3-5 times frequency of occurrence per million	114	10.2%
Words with 1 or 2 times frequency of occurrence per million	94	8.4%
Words with less than 1 times frequency of occurrence per million	61	5.5%
Total	1119	100%

According to the popular frequency list of Thorndike and Lorge (1963), there are about 1000 most frequent English words with 100 or more times frequency of occurrence per million. There are also about 1000 basic vocabulary items which have 50-99 times frequency of occurrence per million. Any word that belongs to these two categories is considered as the most common and part and parcel of the 2000 basic vocabulary of standard English. This means that words with 50 and more times frequency of occurrence per million are thought to equip students with necessary vocabulary items for speaking, reading and writing. Bright and McGregor (1970:18) say:

_ _ _ on any page of print on whatever subject and however high the vocabulary level, at least three-quarter of the words used were among the commonest 2000 words in the language. When these had been learned, only one word in four would present a difficulty.

Similarly, Mackey (1978:177) states that since the most frequent items are those which the learner is most likely to meet, they are the ones which should be selected for teaching.

However, according to the findings indicated on Table-IV and that of Mekonnen (1984:57-62), from 1119 target vocabulary items only 27.2% comes under the category of the 2000 basic vocabulary items with 50 or more times frequency of occurrence per million. The rest do not belong to the most common English words. In other words, the proportion of the most frequent vocabulary items (27.2%) is very much less than the proportion of the less frequent words (72.8%).

This is then simply stuffing the learners up with too many least frequent and less important words in the language although a small number of the most frequent ones enable the students to effectively use the language.

Even if there is an assumption that the senior secondary school students might have mastered the basic words in the primary or junior school, it would be still unreliable. Because, according to Mekonnen's (1984:62) investigation into junior and senior secondary school vocabulary items, there are only 146 words which belong to the most frequent 2000

words in grades 7 and 8 textbooks, and 304 in grades 9-12. Then, if word building is assumed to develop at the same rate beginning from lower grades, the number of basic words could probably be a bit larger than that of senior secondary school. But it is difficult to estimate that all the remaining 1550 basic English words (2000-146+304) are mastered in the lower grades.

According to frequency level, therefore, the grades 9-12 vocabulary items seem to be selected for the native speakers who have the chance of mastering the basic words even before going to school, rather than the foreign students who learn the language after going to school.

What is more, infrequent or less important words though properly and intensively learned, in the class, no doubt are immediately forgotten since they lack practical ground in every day communication activities. Learning infrequent or less important words appears to makes students poor in active vocabulary items. The more students are poor in vocabulary, the less they would be able to construct sentences or use English; and this implicates students' deficiency in the language.

Together with a great proportion of grammar, factually dozed reading passages and less frequent or less important target vocabulary items which have been shown above, the textbooks contain a great deal of exercises. The next table and discussions are thus concerned with content of exercises throughout the textbooks.

Table -V
 Conceptual References of Exercises in Grades 9-12 English
 Textbooks

Conceptual References	No and % of Exercises in the Textbooks									
	Grade 9		Grade 10		Grade 11		Grade 12		Mean	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Functional Content	-	-	-	-	2	1%	4	2.8%	1.5	1
Vocabulary items	45	19.1%	42	14.6%	46	21.9%	27	18.8%	40	18.6
Comprehension of reading passages	32	13.6%	65	22.6%	38	18.1%	40	27.8%	43.8	20.5
Structural items	148	62.7%	155	53.8%	123	58.6%	66	45.8%	123	55.2
Mechanics	6	2.5%	6	2.1%	-	-	6	4.2%	45	2.2
Differentiation of Phonemes (Pronunciation)	5	2.1%	20	6.9%	1	0.5%	1	0.7%	6.8	2.6
Total	236	100%	288	100%	210	100%	144	100%	219.6	100

Table-V depicts that there are, almost, no exercises (1%) which are concerned with functional language. On the contrary, the largest proportion (55.2%) refers to structure. Their form varies from some direct questions to many completion and transformation exercises.

These kinds of exercises sparingly ensure cognitive involvement, for they mainly focus on mechanical manipulation of sentences on the basis of rules generated from linguistic data. They make the learners superficially reproduce language forms rather than creatively use the language.

The second great proportion (20.5%) of the exercises deal with comprehension of reading passages. These exercises are in a form of direct question, fill in the blanks, true-false, and multiple choice; make the learners sort out factual information from what they read, and somehow hoped to develop receptive skill. However, they are very much limited

to develop productive skills—the ability to summarize, analyse, review or elaborate pieces of prose.

On the other hand, 18.6% of the exercises is of vocabulary items. Very few of them are presented in a form of direct question. But a good deal alludes to multiple-choice, matching and completion. Most of them are concerned with meaning and usage of words. Like in reading comprehension, the form of many exercises do not allow the learners to creatively use the target words for various functions. They do not, as such, help to develop productive skills.

Exercises on pronunciation (2.6%) and mechanics (2.2%) are minimal. Pronunciation exercises solely refer to differentiation of some phonemes. Exercises on mechanics also appear insufficient to arm the learners with proper use of capitalization, spelling and punctuation marks.

In relation to the nature of content, the way it is graded influences the learnability of the material and language proficiency of the learners. A lot of language specialists like Mackey (1978:73), Diller (1978:23-36), Johnson (1983:71), Dubin and Olshtain (1988:73) and Cunningsworth (1989:22) assert that, as much as possible, language items should be arranged so that the few come before the many, the brief before long, the simple before the complex. They say that such a gradation enhances concept organization and simplifies the learnability of the material, but amassed or conglomerated content hampers concept formation and efficiency of language learning. In line with this, Table VI and its discussion examine content gradation of reading passages, vocabulary items and exercises in grades 9-12 English textbooks.

Table - VI
Content Gradation of Grades 9-12 English Textbooks

Items of Gradation	Readability Levels, Size of Vocabulary and Exercise Items in the textbooks				
	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12	Total
Readability level	5	8	7	9	-
Vocabulary items:					
Words with 100 or more time frequency of occurrence per million	41	63	14	6	124
Words with 50-99 times frequency of occurrence per million	53	77	36	14	180
Words with 20-49 times frequency of occurrence per million	91	86	40	32	249
Words with 10-19 times frequency of occurrence per million	50	56	55	32	249
Words with 6-9 times frequency of occurrence per million	20	31	25	28	104
Words with 3-5 times frequency of occurrence per million	22	23	35	34	114
Words with 1 or 2 times frequency of occurrence per million	14	19	28	33	94
Words with less than 1 times frequency of occurrence per million	11	16	10	24	61
Total	302	371	243	203	1119
Exercises :					
True-false	8	-	3	11	22
Matching	41	60	26	25	152
Completion	149	170	136	45	500
Multiple - choice	36	53	27	40	156
Essay Type	2	5	18	24	49
Total	236	288	210	144	879

Table -VI reveals 3 interrelated points about the gradation of grades 9-12 English textbooks.

1) The grades 9,10,11 and 12 reading passages have readability indices of grades 5,8,7 and 9 respectively. Although the students are incapable to read, the readability indices of all textbooks are far less than the desired grade levels. Moreover, their levels of readability haphazardly proceed from one grade level to another. A grade 9 student who is dealing with the textbook of grade 5 readability, automatically jumps to the book with readability index of grade 8 and then, falls back to the book with readability index of grade 7, and then forced to continue with the book that has readability index of grade 9. Particularly, the grade 9 textbook seriously lags behind the expected standard. It has readability index of grade 5. The grade 10 textbook is more difficult than that of grade 11.

2) More frequent (basic or simple) words are introduced in grade 10 textbook than in grade 9. From words with 100 or more times frequency of occurrence per million, 63 have been presented in grade 10 and 41 in grade 9. From the second category, 77 words have been introduced in grade 10 and 53 in grade 9. More difficult (less frequent) words have also been introduced in grade 10 than in grade 11 (see the 5th and the last categories in Table-VI). The arrangements of these words would have been in the reverse order so that students face simple words before learning the difficult ones.

All in all, the number of words goes on decreasing as the standards of students proceed from lower secondary (grades 9 and 10) to upper secondary (grades 11 and 12). There are 302 target words in grade 9, and 371 in grade 10. This declines to 243 in grade 11 to 203 in grade 12.

Looking into the above facts, it is possible to say that neither quality nor quantity of the words have deserved diligent consideration while grading them.

3) The number of essay type of exercises increases as the standards of the students improve. This is a strong aspect as far as gradation is concerned, because the students

are expected to express themselves more in higher grades than in lower ones. However, the total number of other kinds of exercise (true-false, matching, completion and multiple choice) declines as the students proceed from lower secondary (grades 9 and 10) to upper secondary (grades 11 and 12). Although the content of these exercises appears similar, their total number slopes down from 283 in grade 10 to 192 in grade 11, and 120 in grade 12.

In synthesis, this unsystematic gradation of reading passages, vocabulary items and exercises seems to influence their learnability. The more language items are illogically graded, the less they become meaningful. Something meaningless is hardly integrated and makes clutnch of thoughts. If students are challenged with difficult language content before learning simple ones, it appears to spurt negative feeling and bring about hatred towards the language. A student neither appreciates nor reacts to ideas he/she does not comprehend.

At this juncture one might ask "What made grades 9-12 English curriculum content as defective as discussed above?" The information obtained from the English Panel in the Institute for Curriculum Development and Research (with the help of unstructured interview indicated on Appendix-D) shows the following 4 interrelated points.

- 1) The spontaneous onset of the 1974 Ethiopian Revolution resulted in an abrupt need of changing the old curriculum. The ruling power (The Provincial Military Administrative Council) was very much ambitious and instantaneous to get rid of the old curriculum, assuming that the old curriculum was outdated and reactionary. Accordingly, the Ministry of Education through its Curriculum Department (at present called Institute for Curriculum Development and Research) asked to design a new curriculum and write textbooks over-night on a green-table irrespective of critically examining the prevailing frontiers of knowledge in language, learns' and societal needs.

2) Western educational advisors, who were sharing their experiences, automatically forced to leave the country, right after the revolution. Socialist educational advisors came to Ethiopia and substituted those who left the country. The new advisors played very significant roles in turning curricular activities from Marxist-Leninist perspective.

3) All western reference materials were regarded as reactionary. The indigenous ones were considered as old as the past regime. Consequently, socialist ideological reports, magazines, news papers or propaganda materials happened to be from where facts and information could be tapped.

4) The idea of "transitional curriculum" is another factor that shaded the light of scrutiny in selecting and organizing the curriculum content. The designers of the curriculum (who did have little training of designing the curriculum) fooled themselves that the hotch-potch curriculum would be soon revised and adjusted to the needs of the learners and the society.

Specifically seen, these interrelated feedbacks (obtained from the English Panel in the Institute for Curriculum Development and Research) imply that students' general and specific needs as well as interests were not assessed. The gifted, the creative, the emotionally disturbed had not been identified and given attention. But, respected curriculum expert, Ralf W. Tyler (1949:11) says that if a content of a curriculum deals with matters of interest to the learners, they will actively and wholeheartedly participate in what they are learning. A well known language teaching methodologist, Harmer (1988:3) also notes that a motivating content makes some kind of internal drive that encourages the learners to pursue a course of action.

In principle, content is selected in relation to shortcomings of the learners so that it acts as a bridge between deficiency of the learners and the desired outcome. However, this gap, the difference between the status of the learners and their expected profile of English at each grade level of senior secondary school had not been studied.

The kind of English that is required by Ethiopian society for both academic and occupational purposes was not also assessed. The cultural heritages, social and economic realities of the country and the actual use of the language did not get attention. However, a widely acknowledged language specialist, Robert Lado (1964:23) states, "Language does not develop in a vacuum. Language is a part of the culture of the people and the chief means by which members of a society communicate."

Looking into the situation where instruction of English takes place is also crucial. A class of twenty in a well-lit comfortable classroom is treated quite differently from overcrowded classes where continuous sophocation and related problems make learning difficult. But such factors as the number of students in a class, the type of classrooms and availability of teaching materials were not carefully thought of though these play important roles to determine the type and size of curriculum content.

Collecting data about students, society and subject matter is not time specific that takes place only at the beginning or at the end. It is a continuous activity that takes place before and after specification of objectives, after evaluation of instruction and the curriculum. However, the English Panel still complains that there is shortage of trained man-power and facilities to collect data from various corners of the country. Needless to say, unless data are collected, it is difficult to revise the curriculum and lay a ground to, at least, minimize students' deficiency in the language.

Besides curriculum objectives, kinds and gradation of content (which have been discussed above), the nature of classroom physical learning environment; availability and use of instructional media; preparation and use of course, unit and daily lesson plans; teaching methods, techniques and evaluation strategies significantly influence English proficiency of the learners. The result of investigation into these instructional components in schools at capitals of Ethiopian administrative regions will be presented in the next part of the paper.

4.3 Data on Grades 9-12 English Curriculum Implementation

Table - VII

Responses of Grades 9-12 English Language Teachers about Physical Condition of their classrooms

Classroom Physical Conditions	Responses of the Teachers											
	To a Large Extent		To Some Extent		To a very Little Extent		Not At All		No Opinion		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Overcrowded	79	79%	18	18%	3	3%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Equipped with chairs (benches) and tables	-	-	35	35%	65	65%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Clean and appeal to aesthetic senses of the learners	-	-	27	27%	58	58%	15	15%	-	-	100	100%
Without glare and reflection	-	-	23	23%	77	77%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Free from various kinds of noises	-	-	45	45%	55	55%	-	-	-	-	100	100%

The environmental conditions under which students deal with their instructional work greatly affect their learning. An environment which is conducive and aesthetically satisfying helps to promote curriculum implementation and enhance learning (Mehl and others, 1965:146; Grambs, Carr and Fitch, 1970:98-99; Larsen, 1971:399; Davies, 1981:108-123).

Nevertheless, the responses of grades 9-12 English language teachers on Table-VII and class observations indicate the unfavourableness of grades 9-12 English classrooms.

A large proportion of the respondents (79%) felt that their classrooms are overcrowded to a large extent. Observations of the writer also warrant that suffocation is the first sensation that one feels while entering the classes. The number of students in a class ranges from 65-100 and above. Most of the classrooms appear to be so compacted that they do not allow free movement.

As 65% of the respondents pointed out there are no adequate chairs (benches) and tables. Three to four students were observed to share a single bench and table that is supposed to accommodate two students.

According to 58% of the respondents the classrooms lack neatness. They don't appeal to aesthetic senses of the learners. The floor, walls, ceiling and chalkboard appear to be tedious.

In views of the great majority of the respondents (77%), the classroom windows insufficiently provide day light. They allow glaring and reflection. The sites of some windows were observed to invite students to watch outside while teachers were teaching.

According to 55% of the respondents, classes are free from noise pollutions to a very little extent. Many classrooms were seen to suffer from various kinds of noises in neighboring classrooms and corridors.

Clearly, such uncomfortable physical learning environment horribly affects the teaching of English. It damages the quiet tone required in the instructional process. Hostile classroom set up makes both the teacher and the students irritable. Davies (1981:10) says, "People who are aggressive tend to become more aggressive in overcrowded conditions. People who are shy and retiring withdraw into themselves."

Where the number of students in one class ranges from 65 to above 100, it is difficult to maintain appropriate and effective classroom management. A teacher will not be in a position to provide necessary attention and assistance for each and every student. Appropriate classroom lay out and seating arrangements that suit various purposes such as conversation, choral reading (group reading), panel discussion, group work fail to be maintained. Speaking reading and writing skills are hardly exercised by each and every student in the class.

As it will be revealed in the forthcoming discussions, unfavorable learning environment seriously hammers the use of teaching methods, evaluation techniques, roles of teachers and students.

In addition to physical learning environment, the availability and use of instructional media attribute to facilitate or hamper the instruction of English. Panchal (1984:31) Maclaughlin and others (1986:423), Sheerin (1987:127), Hycraft (1989:48) underline that without necessary instructional media teachers would become handicap to effectively carry out their tasks. The next discussion, hence, deals with the availability and use of grades 9-12 English instructional materials in schools at capitals of Ethiopian administrative regions, as obtained through the check-list indicated on Table-VIII.

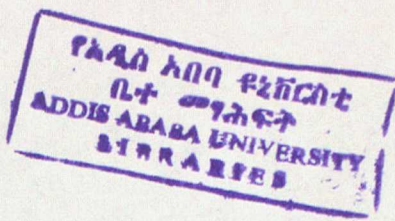


Table - VIII
Availability of English Instructional Media in Senior
Secondary Schools

Instructional Media	Available		Not available	
	No of Schools	%	No of Schools	%
Grades 9-12 English Curriculum Guides	1	10%	9	90%
Grades 9-12 English Syllabus	2	20%	8	80%
Grade 9 Teacher's Guide	2	20%	8	80%
Grade 10 Teacher's Guide	1	10%	9	90%
Grade 11 Teacher's Guide	3	30%	7	70%
Grade 12 Teacher's Guide	2	20%	8	80%
Supplementary Reading Material for Grade 9	-	-	10	100%
Supplementary Reading Material for Grade 10	-	-	10	100%
Supplementary Reading Material for Grade 11	-	-	10	100%
Supplementary Reading Material for Grade 12	-	-	10	100%
Workbook for Grade 9	-	-	10	100%
Workbook for Grade 10	-	-	10	100%
Workbook for Grade 11	-	-	10	100%
Workbook for Grade 12	-	-	10	100%
Handout for Grade 9	-	-	10	100%
Handout for Grade 10	-	-	10	100%
Handout for Grade 11	-	-	10	100%
Handout for Grade 12	-	-	10	100%
Some set of real objects	-	-	10	100%
Models	-	-	10	100%
Pictures	-	-	10	100%
Flash cards	-	-	10	100%
Charts	-	-	10	100%
Cartoons	-	-	10	100%
Photographs	-	-	10	100%
Radio and Tape-recorders	8	80%	2	20%

Table-VIII indicates that almost all schools (7-9 out of the 10 samples) do not possess grades 9-12 English syllabus,

curriculum and teacher's guides. But these curriculum documents serve as sketch-maps of instruction and need to be used together with textbooks. If they are not available, as the case in point, it is difficult to conduct systemized instruction. Objectives, methods and procedures of teaching, and allotment of time for each unit fail to be well understood. This makes teachers to solenly rely on personal whims in formulating objectives, selecting teaching methods and techniques, budgeting time, preparing course or daily lesson plans. Nevertheless, mere personal impressions may not meet the demand of effective English instruction.

Further, many English language teacher interviewees complain that almost half of their students are without English textbooks. Obviously, if a student has no textbook, he doesnot get a convenient opportunity to follow what the teacher teaches. Teachers will be forced to spend much time by giving a lot of notes on the blackboard. Students fail to get a good chance of doing class and home works. A textbook is a crucial device in the classroom as well as at home.

Moreover, Table-VIII reveals that supplementary reading aids, workouts and handouts are inavailable throughout the 10 schools and not used while teaching English. However, unless supplementary reading materials are employed, it is difficult to enrich the instruction, develop students' reading habit and broaden their frontiers of knowledge. In the absence of workbooks, the provision of hometake assignment may not easily take place. It appears also insurmountable to sufficiently supply short notes and enrich the texts without using handouts.

Real objects and specimes are powerful interest arousing devices in teaching the language. They appeal to the five senses-touch, sight, hearing, smelling and taste. Despite this, the information on Table-VIII portrays the non-existence of the tradition to collect and use real objects. Teacher interviewees say that they make use of only students and classroom furniture as far as real objects are concerned.

In the absence of real objects, models in miniature or in enlarged forms are prepared and used to represent

realities and events. Yet, the table depicts the inavailability of models throughout the schools. Many school pedagogical centers were observed not operating due to lack of raw materials and coordination.

Although pictures help to simplify abstraction, deal with sentence construction and tell story; charts and diagrams have value to present a body of knowledge with minimum words and lines; cartoons represent personalities and events and strongly appeal to emotion; flash cards help to introduce new words, tell story and enhance English learning, none of these instructional aids are available (see Table-VIII) to be employed while teaching English.

According to Grant (1982:259), Panchal (1984:33), Hycraft (1989:113) radio and tape-recorders play important role to teach language. They act as aids to develop correct oral language patterns or listening skills. Particularly, tape-recorders serve as an excellent means of self-evaluation. By recording their instructional activities, teachers determine the amount of positive reinforcement they give to their students. But, though radio and tape-recorders are found in 8 schools (out of the 10 samples), they are not employed while teaching English. Rather, they are used for recreation purposes during breaks.

In such an instance-where almost all print and non-print instructional devices are inavailable and hardly used- obviously teachers would become the only source of information, no stimulus variation is properly secured. The sense of hearing becomes the champion of learning.

However, the more learning is confined to the sense of hearing, the less span of attention and less acquisition of language will take place. Language learning becomes dull and futile exercise. No students' improvement in the language is expected to evolve.

Table - IX
Responses of Grades 9-12 English Teacher Interviewees
about Their Preparation of Course, Unit, Weekly
and Daily Lesson Plans

Items	Responses of the Interviewees			
	Yes		No	
	No	%	No	%
Prepare :				
Course Plan	20	100%	-	-
Unit plan	-	-	20	100%
Weekly plan	20	100%	-	-
Daily lesson plan	-	-	20	100%
While preparing course plan:				
Assess students' entry behavior	-	-	20	100%
Use curriculum guide	1	5%	19	95%
Use the syllabus	2	10%	18	80%
Use teacher's guides	3	15%	17	85%
Use supplementary reading aids	2	10%	18	90%
Use textbooks	20	100%	-	-

As Table- IX indicates the grades 9-12 English language teachers in schools at capitals of Ethiopian administrative regions prepare two kinds of plans: course and weekly lesson plans. The interviewees explained that they jointly (at departmental level) prepare a course plan at the beginning of a year. Whereas, they produce weekly lesson plans individually once every week to be checked by the head of English language department and the academic vice director. Neither unit nor daily lesson plans were found to be prepared in all the schools visited.

Normally, when course plans are prepared, entry behavior (learners' behavior related to prerequisite capabilities for instruction) are assessed through tests. Curriculum guides, supplementary reading aids, teacher's guides, syllabi and textbooks would be consulted. Then, rational; objectives; general concepts, skills and attitudes to be instilled; teaching strategies and resources are outlined.

Yet, Table-IX shows that the preparation of course plans lacks preassessment of entry behavior. According to 85-95% of the respondents neither curriculum guide, the syllabus, teacher's guides, nor supplementary reading aids are employed, because they are unavailable in almost all schools (see Table-VIII). As 100% of the respondents indicated, they use a narrow segment of a curriculum material the textbook. A look into sample course plans also vivifies they lack rational and resources and their objectives are stated in teacher's behavior (see Appendix -E as an example).

As far as weekly lesson plan is concerned, teachers use the same format supplied by each school although the formats vary from school to school and their preparation from teacher to teacher. The objectives of many weekly lesson plans were observed to be stated either in general terms or in teacher's behavior (see Appendix-F for example). This implies that teachers do not clearly envisage their specific target, what their students perform at the end of each lesson. Such unsharpened imagination of intended learning outcomes, presumably, leads to a transmission of content without aiming at certain change of behavior. It likely emulates a problem of what to evaluate and how to take remedial measures.

The spaces for "Teaching Aids" and "Remarks" are empty in almost all plans observed foreshadowing that teachers do not use teaching aids, and do not bother to comment about their teaching progress and problems.

The spaces for "Content," "Teacher's Activities" and "Students Activities" contain some fragments of words, phrases, or sentences which cannot be easily understood. It seems that teachers carelessly prepare the plans.

The format of many week plans involves "Introduction", "Presentation," "Stabilization" and "Checking and Evaluation". But, teachers were observed not to follow these instructional steps while teaching. It appears lesson plans are prepared not on the basis of conviction and for use, but due to the demand and pressure of school regulations.

Whatever planned is set into operation through teaching methods and techniques. As Raimes (1986:535), Richards and

Rodgers (1989:15) indicated methods and techniques correlatively help to accomplish what has been planned. They orderly present language material and act as a means to an end. Thus, with the help of Tables X-XII and their discussions methods and techniques applied to teach English in senior secondary schools at capitals of Ethiopian administrative regions will be examined.

Table - X
Responses of Grades 9-12 English Language Teachers about
Their Techniques and Methods of Developing Students'
Listening and Speaking Skills

Techniques and Methods Employed	Responses of the Teachers											
	To a large Extent		To some Extent		To a Very Little Extent		Not At all		No Opinion		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Oral drills	12	12%	25	25%	63	63%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Dialogues	4	4%	12	12%	84	84%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Speech recorded by tape-recorders	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	100%	-	-	100	100%
Classroom dramas	-	-	-	-	7	7%	93	93%	-	-	100	100%
Role plays	-	-	2	2%	8	8%	90	90%	-	-	100	100%
Discussions	4	4%	23	23%	73	73%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Problem Solving exercises or riddles	-	-	-	-	11	11%	89	89%	-	-	100	100%
Listening Comprehension	-	-	-	-	25	25%	75	75%	-	-	100	100%
Dictations	-	-	16	16%	28	28%	56	56%	-	-	100	100%
Debates	-	-	-	-	2	2%	98	98%	-	-	100	100%
Impromptu	-	-	10	10%	19	19%	71	71%	-	-	100	100%
Short oral reports and announcements	-	-	-	-	5	5%	95	95%	-	-	100	100%
Guided interviews	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	100%	-	-	100	100%
Negotiation of meanings	-	-	-	-	9	9%	68	68%	23	23%	100	100%
Panel discussions	-	-	-	-	2	2%	98	98%	-	-	100	100%
Translation exercises	-	-	6	6%	27	27%	67	67%	-	-	100	100%
Lecture and explanations	88	88%	7	7%	5	5%	-	-	-	-	100	100%

In words of Kochhar (1985:343), "The best curriculum and the most perfect syllabus remain dead unless quickened into life by the right method of teaching." Of course, he comments that there is no royal road to successful teaching. Metaphorically, he stresses, "There are _ _ _ high ways, royal roads and narrow lanes, delightful paths and rough ones" which need to be tried for meeting a purpose. He suggests that teachers should be able to use permutation and combination of techniques and methods to make teaching interesting, vital and living.

Incongruously, as Table-x exhibits, this salient suggestion is not applied while developing listening and speaking skills of grades 9-12 students. No permutation of techniques and methods are sufficiently used. No combination of them are safely employed. According to the great majority of the respondents ranging from 71-100%, the use of techniques (in the communicative approach) like extemporaneous speech, dialogue, role play, classroom drama, debate, panel discussion and guided interview is almost nil. On the other hand, 88% of the respondents said that they apply lecture and explanations as dominant methods to develop students' listening and speaking skills.

Many English language teacher interviewees complain that they, particularly, depend on the lecture method due to the fact that communicative techniques such as role play, debate, conversation, negotiation of meanings do not lend themselves to present a great deal of information to a large number of students (who are poor in English) within a short period of time. Classroom observations also warrant that teachers rely on pure lecture, even sometimes pure lecture in Amharic.

However, although pure lecture may serve some context of teaching, it is a subject of much criticism. It makes learners to be passive agents in the teaching-learning processes and quickly develops a deadening monotony. It is teacher-centered; does not guarantee that the learners understand what is taught; does not cater for individual differences. More often than not, students hardly develop listening and speaking skills when all speech are made by the

teacher and students become passive spectators. In this connection, Perrot (1982:19) proposes that lecture without students' participation should never exceed 10-20 percent of the lesson. This means that a teacher should use at least an augmented lecture (lecture involving questions and answers).

Moreover, language specialists like Raimes (1986:535), Harmer (1988:34), Richards and Rodgers (1989:76) note that if students get only an input (as the case in pure lecture), they end up with a lot of language items but with no ability to retrieve them when they are needed. The authorities claim that it is when students get a chance to produce outputs and use language that they would be able to assess the language they have stored in their brains; and such a purpose is realized through techniques of the communicative approach like negotiation of meaning, impromptu role play, games and so on.

Table - XI
Responses of Grades 9-12 English Teachers about their
Techniques of Developing Students' Reading Skills

Techniques Employed	Responses of the Teachers											
	To a Large Extent		To some Extent		To a very Little Extent		Not at all		No opinion		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Teacher's oral reading	68	68%	17	17%	23	23%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Student's turn by turn oral reading	20	20%	49	49%	31	31%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Pre-reading questions	-	-	25	25%	75	75%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Interpretation of reading passages by the students	-	-	25	25%	75	75%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Interpretation of reading passages by the teacher	86	86%	9	9%	5	5%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Oral reading drills	64	64%	25	25%	11	11%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Silent reading by the students	59	59%	22	22%	29	29%	-	-	-	-	100	100%

Looking into Table - XI, one understands about 3 important points.

1) A large proportion of the teachers (68%) responded that they use more oral reading of their own than turn by turn oral reading of their students while teaching reading. Perhaps, this is due to the reason that turn by turn oral reading by all students in a large class is time consuming. The duration of each period does not allow many students to orally read turn by turn in a class. If a lot of students read turn by turn, they simply repeat again and again what has been read by other students, and this seems very much boring for both the learners and the teacher.

2) According to 75% of the respondents pre-reading questions are employed to a very little extent. The same holds true with students interpretation of reading passages in views of 65% of the respondents. Probably, this is so due to the reason that students are very poor in English to answer pre-reading questions and inteprete reading passages. Lack of sufficient pre-reading and interpretive questions in the textbooks also appears to be the other reason.

3) Sixty-four and fifty-nine percent of the respondents respectively said that reading drills and silent reading are utilized to a large extent. Certainly, oral reading drills and silent reading engage all students without much problem. A teacher carries on oral reading drills with the help of his model reading being followed by a group of or, all students. Silent reading will also be practised by students under mere supervision of a teacher.

Yet, it is doubtful as to how much the dominant use of oral reading drills and silent reading help to develop students' reading skills. Oral reading drills are, more or less, mechanical exercises through which students practise the sounds or grammar of the language without much thinking or comprehension. Silent reading where 3 or 4 students share a single bench and table, and almost half of them are without textbooks also appears to be impractical. The classroom physical and psychological conditions do not permit silent reading in its true sense.

Unless students read aloud in the class, teachers may not get the opportunity to clearly understand reading difficulty of their students. Remedial measures will also become difficult. Further, in the absence of pre-reading questions students might not get the chance to envisage important points of the material intended to be read. It is also when students occasionally interpret what they read that they are expected to develop the habit of critical reading.

Table - XII
Responses of Grades 9-12 English Teachers about their
Techniques of Developing Students' Writing Skills

Techniques Employed	Responses of the Teachers											
	To a Large Extent		To Some Extent		To a Very Little Extent		Not At all		No Opinion		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
News reports	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	100%	-	-	100	100%
Personal letters	-	-	-	-	22	22%	78	78%	-	-	100	100%
Business letters	-	-	-	-	7	7%	93	93%	-	-	100	100%
Announcements	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	100%	-	-	100	100%
Autobiographies	-	-	-	-	2	2%	98	98%	-	-	100	100%
Self-initiated writings	-	-	-	-	9	9%	91	91%	-	-	100	100%
Essays	-	-	3	3%	15	15%	82	82%	-	-	100	100%
Applications	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	100%	-	-	100	100%
Invitations	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	100%	-	-	100	100%
Substitution exercises	63	63%	30	30%	7	7%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Transformation exercises	42	42%	54	54%	4	4%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Fill in the blank exercises	69	69%	21	21%	10	10%	-	-	-	-	100	100%
Translation exercises	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	100%	-	-	100	100%

The responses of grades 9-12 English language teachers ranging from 78-100% in the above table reveal that they do not totally take advantage of free writing exercises like personal letters, essays, business letters, self-initiated

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writings, autobiographies, applications and invitations to develop students' writing skills. Rather, according to the responses ranging from 42-69%, teachers avail, to a large extent, controlled writing exercises such as transformation, substitution and completion.

This is because of the fact that the textbooks contain a very large number of controlled writing exercises in comparison to free writing exercises (see Table-VI). The teacher's guides also say, as such, nothing as to how teachers make use of compository exercises. The number of students with which a teacher in charge does not also encourage to give and check free writing exercises. At an average every teacher is assumed to face about 350 students (if he teaches for 5 periods and 70 students in a class) per day.

However, when a student does a lot of controlled writing exercises such as converting coordinated sentences into clauses, synthesising clauses into sentences, punctuating unpunctuated texts and correcting common errors, he/she becomes adapt at doing these exercises and, usually, unable to transfer the skill when it comes to free or continuous writing.

To develop writing skills, regular composition at length seems to be much better than isolated exercises on a specific linguistic aspect. Students become more fluent and more creative, and build confidence of expressing their thoughts in writing if they are exposed to shape their ideas and communicate them in writing to others. Blooliarsky (1981:463) claims, "To become better writers, children need opportunities to write and freedom to let their ideas flow." Raimes (1986:536) also stresses that no better way for students to develop writing skills than to produce the kind of practical writing that many people do in their daily life.

Along with kinds of teaching methods and techniques, the types of evaluation strategies and their content play essential role in teaching language. Evaluation is an integral part of teaching and a yardstick against which students progress and achievement are measured.

Consequently, Tables XIII and XIV, and their discussions are concerned with teachers' use of evaluation techniques, kinds of test items and their content.

Table - XIII
Responses of Grades 9-12 English Teachers about their
Evaluation Strategies, Degree of Provision and Checking

Evaluation Strategies	Responses of the Teachers																			
	Degree of Provision										Degree of Checking									
	To a Large Extent		To Some Extent		To a Very Little Ext.		Not At all		No Opinion		To a Large Extent		To Some Extent		To a Very Little Ex.		Not At all		No Opinion	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Classwork	84	84%	16	16%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19	19%	81	81%	-	-	-	-
Homework	64	64%	36	36%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	23	23%	77	77%	-	-	-	-
Quiz	-	-	-	-	41	41%	59	59%	-	-	-	-	-	-	41	41%	59	59%	-	-
Placement test	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	100%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	100%	-	-
Proficiency test	-	-	-	-	-	-	94	94%	6	6%	-	-	-	-	-	-	94	94%	6	6%

Eighty-four percent of the teachers responded that they give classwork to a large extent. According to 64% of the respondents the same holds true with homework. On the other hand, 59% of the respondents said they do not totally provide quiz. Moreover, almost all of them witnessed that neither proficiency nor placement test is administered to respectively test English mastery and level of the learners. Content specification of tests (a table prepared to specify proportion of kinds of test items and their content) is also unavailable in all schools visited.

The frequency of providing class and home works is greater than the frequency of checking them. Seventy-seven percent of the teachers expressed that they check classwork to a very little extent. And this is so for homework in views of 81% of the respondents.

Teacher interviewees complain the unmanageable number of students in a class does not permit to sufficiently check class and home works and frequently give quiz. They say that not only the length of a period becomes too short to check on all exercises of 65-100 and above students in a class but it is also very tiresome and boring to do all the checking. The major means of checking class or home work has become, therefore, simply observing the hands of those students who claim they have done. Often, students exchange their exercises and make checking by their own.

Vividly, the rewards of students for doing certain job is the feedback that a teacher provides. If this feedback casually extinguishes, the interest of the learners to do assignments likely wanes. The moral and intellectual qualities (which develops through home and class works) also appears to extrminate.

On the other hand, unless placement tests are subserved, it is difficult to sort out status or weakness of the learners and provide remedial measures. Further, students' ability to apply what has been taught will not be properly measured at the absence of proficiency test. Preparing test in such a way that they reflect all areas with appropriate proportions and kinds of test items also seems to be

insurmountable without using content specification of tests. All these seem to contribute to students' deficiency in English.

Table - XIV
Grades 9-12 Kinds of English Test Items and Their Content

Content of the test Items	Kinds of Test Items											
	True-False		Matching		Completion		Multiple-Choice		Essay		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Pronunciation (Phoneme differentiation)	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	0.2%	-	-	3	0.2%
Spelling	-	-	-	-	-	-	25	1.9%	-	-	25	1.5%
Meanings of words	-	-	78	6.1%	-	-	322	25%	-	-	400	31%
Punctuation	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	0.8%	-	-	10	0.8%
Comprehension of reading passages	34	2.7%	-	-	12	0.9%	294	22.9%	-	-	340	26.5%
Structure (Grammar)	8	0.7%	41	3.2%	10	0.8%	445	34.6%	-	-	504	39.3%
Communicative language (self-expression)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	0.3%	4	0.3%
Total	42	3.42	119	9.3%	22	1.7%	1099	85.4%	4	0.3%	1286	100%

According to the findings presented on Table - XIV, 39.9% of the test items refer to grammar, 31% to meanings of words, 26.5% to comprehension of reading passages, 1.9% to spelling, 0.8% to punctuation, 0.3% to self expression and 0.2% to pronunciation (differentiation of phonemes). This means that a great proportion of the test items subscribe to grammar, meanings of words and comprehension of reading passages, and a small proportion accounts to self-expression and pronunciation. It seems that teachers are obliged to give much consideration to structure, lexis and reading passages since these are the major language items which are found in grades 9-12 English textbooks and learned by the students (see Table-II).

However, to test only grammatical mistakes, meanings of words and reiterative understanding of short reading passages appears to ignore the more fundamental problems of content

and depth. If only structures, lexis and reading passages are solemnly considered, the learners will more likely assume that grammatical accuracy, memorization of new words together with reading passages are the most important aspects of a language. Possibly, they neither think of nor use communicative language.

As far as kinds of test items are concerned, Table-XIV shows that 85.4% constitutes multiple choice, 9.3% matching, 3.4% true-false, 1.7% completion and 0.3% essay. The proportion of subjective type of test items is almost nill. Perhaps, this is due to the reason that teachers want to use objective test item when they are in charge of large number of students. Correcting essay type test papers of several students seems to be very much wearing and time consuming.

But, if a teacher employs only objective test items no doubt that he/she is largely demanding isolated language forms rather than deeper and expressive language. Nevertheless, objective test items do not make the testees to use the language for organization and presentation of ideas. The testees behavior is limited to selecting from among the option which the test designer has put before them. They may not get an encouraging chance to generate, modify, develop or discuss impressions, views and opinions.

Administration of objective test items in overcrowded classrooms, as the case in point, also by and large appears to invite cheating. Grade inflation irrespective of English language proficiency might become a means to promote from one grade level to another. And this also appears to attribute in reverberating students' English illiteracy in senior secondary schools.

5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

The purpose of this study is to find out the causes for students' deficiency in English with particular reference to an evaluation of grades 9-12 English curriculum and its implementation in schools at capitals of Ethiopian administrative regions.

To this effect, theoretical frame works on the features of stating English curriculum objectives; types, selection and gradation of content; the effect of instructional facilities, plans, methods, techniques and evaluation strategies on efficiency of teaching and learning the English language have been reviewed.

Data on grades 9-12 English curriculum objectives and content are secured with the help of curricular document analyses and interviews made with members of the English Panel in the Institute for Curriculum Development and Research.

On the other hand, information on curriculum implementation is obtained through questionnaire and interviews conducted to grades 9-12 English teachers; class observations; instructional media check-lists; assessment of course and weekly lesson plans, examination and test papers in 10 senior secondary schools which have been selected with the help of quota sampling technique.

Then, all data have been converted into percentile tabulated, analysed, interpreted and discussed. In sum, the results of the study reveal the following findings.

As far as objectives of the curriculum are concerned, about 40% lack clarity and 30% have got a mitigating tendency to be categorized into one of the domains (cognitive, affective and psychomotor). Almost half (50%) refers to the cognitive domain, and only about 20% alludes to productive skills (speaking and writing). The affective domain, which comprises feeling, emotion, attitude and value systems, has not been totally included. It appears that the curriculum nebulously aimed at a narrow segment of what a comprehensive curriculum ought to ameliorate, implying a difficulty to

select and organize instructional objectives, content, methods and evaluation strategies.

Not only objectives but also content of the curriculum has got drawbacks. In spite of the fact that structural content plays scant role to develop communicative potential of the learners, a relatively large proportion (35.3%) of the content in grades 9-12 English textbooks subscribes to structural items. Only 0.7%, 1.4%, 2.7% and 3.3% respectively represent functions, mechanics, pronunciation and situations, entailing students' deficiency of using the language in these aspects.

Besides structural items the textbooks are full of factually dozed reading passages (38.4%); definition and illustration of vocabulary items (17.4%).

About 27.5% of the reading passages refer to Marxist-Leninist ideology (political education), 13.8% to biology, 6.3% to history, 5% to language, 3.8% to physics and so on. It appears that the reading passages are highly factual and unfamiliar to the learners although such reading passages are thought to suppress comprehension capacity and motivation of the learners. Mordoch (1987:17), Haycraft (1989:7) and Brock (1990:23) concedes that factually saturated novice reading passages depress interest of the learners and readability of the material.

Further, though the reading passages introduce about 1119 target vocabulary items, 72.8% do not belong to the most common English words. It seems the learners have been stuffed with too many least frequent and less important words in the language despite a small number of the most frequent (basic) ones appear to enable the learners effectively use the language.

As far as conceptual references of exercises are concerned, 1% subscribes to functional language, 2.2% to mechanics, 2.6% to differentiation of phonemes, 18.66% to morphemes, 20.5% to comprehension of reaching passages and 55.2% to structural items. These exercises are in a form of completion, substitution, translation, true-false and multiple-choice. They hardly ensure pressing cognitive

involvement and creative language use, for they mainly focus on mechanical manipulation of linguistic items (structure, phonemes and morphemes). Very few of them (about 49 in number) are presented in a form of direct question to make the learners generate, express or discuss ideas.

Looking into the gradation of the texts, one understands that the grades 9,10,11 and 12 textbooks have readability indices of grades 5,8,7 and 9 respectively, implying that the indices are far less than the expected grade levels and haphazardly proceed from one standard to another.

More simple (frequent) words have also been introduced in higher grades than in lower ones. From words with 100 or more times frequency of occurrence per million (basic or simple ones), 63 have been presented in grade 10, and 41 in grade 9. From the second category, 77 words have been introduced in grade 10, and 53 in grade 9. As concerns to the last category (words with less than 1 times frequency of occurrence per million, the most difficult ones), 16 have been presented in grade 10, and 10 in grade 11. Although the quality of words has not been considered, as a whole, the number of target vocabulary goes on decreasing as the standards of the students proceed from lower secondary (grades 9 and 10) to upper secondary (grades 11 and 12). There are 302 words in grade 9 and 371 in grade 10. This declines to 243 in grade 11 and 203 in grade 12. Nevertheless the content and types of objective exercises appear to be similar, their total number also slops down from 283 in grade 10 to 192 in grade 11, and 120 in grade 12. Such awkward gradation of various kinds of content, patently, seems to hamper the learnability of the material and language proficiency of the learners.

In synthesis, the information obtained from the English Panel reveals that objectives and content of grades 9-12 English curriculum have become defective as indicated above because the curriculum was designed spontaneously over-night without critically examining ways of stating curricular objectives, learners' and societal needs, theories and principles of selecting and organizing the curriculum.

Moreover, according to 55-79% of the grades 9-12 English language teacher respondents, the classrooms are unfavorable for curriculum implementation. The number of students ranges from 65-100 and above. Most of the classrooms appear to be so much overcrowded that they do not allow free movement, panel discussions, conversations, group work, turn by turn oral reading and free writing exercises.

In addition to the absence of conducive physical learning environment, most of the schools (7-9 out of the 10 samples) lack necessary print and non-print instructional media. Teachers appear to be the only source of information and stimulus variation.

In views of a great majority of the respondents (85-95%), no necessary curricular documents are utilized while preparing course plans. Teachers solenly use a narrow segment of a curriculum material-the textbook. A scruting into many instructional plans vivifies that their objectives are stated either in ambiguous terms or teachers' behavior (see Appendices E and F as examples). Such unsharpened imagination of instructional outcomes appears to bring about a foggy transmission of facts without aiming at certain change of behavior and likely emulates a problem in what to evaluate and how to take remedial measures.

Normally, instructional plans are set in motion through purmutation and combinations of methods and techniques. Nevertheless, 88% of the respondents said that they apply lectures and explanations as dominant methods to develop listening and speaking skills of the students. Techniques of the communicative approach like role play, drama, debate and panel discussions happened to be difficult for use because they do not lend themselves to present a great deal of information to a large number of students (who are poor in English) within a short period of time.

According to 59% and 64% of the respondents silent reading by the students and oral reading drills are respectively employed to a large extent. The reverse holds true to pre-reading questions and interpretation of reading passages respectively in views of 75% and 68% of the

respondents. Yet, it is very much doubtful as to how much the dominant use of oral reading drills and silent reading help to develop students' reading skills.

The responses of teachers ranging from 78-100% exhibit that they do not totally avail of free-writing exercises such as personal and business letters, self-initiated writings and essay despite these help to develop writing skills.

As concerns to evaluation strategies, neither proficiency nor placement tests are administered to test English mastery and level of the learners. Seventy-seven to eighty-one percent of the respondents expressed that the frequency of providing class and home work is greater than the frequency of checking. In such as instance, it appears difficult to sort out weakness and problems of the learners and provide remedial measures.

On the other hand, a great proportion of English test items (39.3%) alludes to grammar, 31.1% to meanings of words, 26.5% to comprehension of reading passages, and a small proportion (1.5%) to spelling, 0.3% to self expression and 0.2% to pronunciation. As far as kinds of test items are concerned, 85.4% constitutes multiple-choice, 3.4% true-false, 1.7% completion, and 0.3% essay. Content of communicative language and subjective test items deserved minimal attention lest they initiate communicative competence.

5.2 Conclusion

In light of the basic questions, data analyses, interpretations, discussions and findings, it is possible to conclude that one of the causes for students' deficiency in English is the design and implementation of the curriculum, which in accordance to the findings of this paper, focus on:

Ambiguity and insufficiency of the curriculum objectives; absence of communicative language; high dosage of grammatical descriptions; irrelevance of reading passages, vocabulary items and exercises as curriculum contents and their unsystematic selection and gradation; shortage or absence of appropriate instructional facilities, plans, methods, techniques and evaluation strategies for implementing it.

5.3 Recommendations

On the basis of data analyses, discussions, findings and conclusions made on the proceeding part of this paper, the following suggestions are forwarded.

1) One of the major problems to cause students' deficiency in English appears to focus on ambiguity and insufficiency of grades 9-12 English curriculum objectives. Because, there will be no sound basis for selecting and organizing instructional content, teaching-learning procedures, ways and means of evaluation without thoughtful, clear and comprehensive objectives.

Hence, a complete change of grades 9-12 English language objectives with newly formulated objectives through the process of validation seems to be a commendable action to resolve the present problems both in the curriculum and its implementation. To this effect, the English Panel in the Institute for curriculum Development and Research (ICDR) has to attempt to diligently formulate comprehensive objectives and submit them with the help of questionnaire or opinion-poll to groups which are directly or indirectly concerned with improvement of students in the language-English teachers, Faculty of Language Studies, Faculty of Education, colleges of teacher education, educational officers and school directors. Such a process is hoped to serve the purpose of determining how much the objectives will be appropriate, comprehensive, clear, acceptable and valid.

2) Along with objectives, content of the English curriculum also need to be carefully revised. New English textbooks that encompass both communicative language and fundamental structures are required to be prepared. As current language teaching experts like Harmer (1988:23), Cunigworth (1989:16), Mordoch (1989:15), Yalden (1989:28) claim, sole dosage of structural items (the case in point) will not bring about efficiency in the language.

Moreover, teaching English through reading passages that have nothing to do with the students cultural backgrounds and interests seems to be as ridiculous as telling a story with a language that the learners scarcely understand. It appears

necessary that reading passages of the new textbooks suit the learners own culture; tailored into their interests, motos and aspiration. They must also sufficiently incorporate literary works. Literature goes beyond being an excellent way of practising language to being a device for establishing an effective classroom atmosphere that is conducive for language learning. It helps to use the language in a social context; provides a basis for conversation, group work, extensive and intensive reading, writing and problem solving activities.

3) Whether or not reading passages present factual information or literary work, they often introduce new vocabulary items. The vocabulary items, of course, need to be geared at those words which are the most frequent and most likely met by the students. Bright and McGregor (1970:18) and Mackey(1978:177) note that such words are about 2000 in number and enable the learners effectively use the language. However, according to the findings of this paper, only 27.2% of the grades 9-12 vocabulary items come under the category of the 2000 vocabulary items with 50 or more times frequency of occurrence per million. The rest (72.8%) do not belong to the most common English words.

This suggests that if the aim of teaching new words is to help students use the language effectively, the target part of the vocabulary they learn should contain the basic words. The items also ought to repeatedly occur in the textbooks until mastered by the students.

4) Besides kinds of content, the way it is graded influences the learnability of the material and language proficiency of the learners. A lot of language specialists like Mackey (1978:208), Diller (1978:23-36), Johnson (1983:71), Dubin and Olshtain (1988:73), Cunnigsworth (1989:22) assert that, as much as possible, language items should be arranged so that the few come before the many, the brief before long, the simple before the complex. It seems that such a gradation enhances concept organization and simplifies the learnability of the material. On the contrary, amassed or conglomerated content appears to hamper

concept formation. If students are challenged with difficult content before learning simple ones, it appears to spurt negative feeling and bring about hatred towards the language. Hence, haphazardly graded content of grades 9-12 English textbooks has to be graded in such a way that it accords with present theories and principles of grading the curriculum.

5) In addition to the drawbacks in the objectives and content of grades 9-12 English curriculum, the overcrowdedness of classrooms where the curriculum is implemented appears to cause the students deficiency in English. Because, overcrowded classrooms do not allow the appropriate use of teaching methods, techniques, evaluation strategies and classroom management. A teacher will not be in a position to provide necessary attention and assistance for every individual. Speaking, reading and writing skills are hardly exercised by each and every student.

Thus, the formulation and actualization of a policy that strictly determines the number of students in one class seems to be an urgent solution. Of course, in the long run, the Ministry of Education also has to try to seek for money denoting agents that set up many private or mission schools in order that the unmanageable number of students in a class and annexed problems of teaching English would formidably be minimized.

6) Along with conducive physical learning environment, teachers require necessary instructional media so as to effectively carry out their tasks. The wisdom of providing teachers with, particularly published materials is self evident in that they cannot be prepared at a school level. As no rational person would ask an architect to create a set of important plans without paper, reference books and drawing tables nor expect a carpenter to build a house, at least, without hammer and saw, it is difficult to expect a teacher effectively tutor without print and non-print curricular materials.

Therefore, the Educational Materials Production and Distribution Agency (EMPDA) in the Ministry of Education has to attempt to supply schools with prominent curricular

documents like English curriculum guide, the syllabus, teachers' guides and adequate textbooks. The availability of these materials help to get the best out of them and encourage teachers effectively exploit their talents. Teachers also have to find their own ways of preparing easily procured materials.

7) Instructional media are set in operation through course, unit and daily lesson plans. However, the best plans remain dead unless quicked into life by right teaching methods and techniques. It is also unprofessional to instruct without appropriate evaluation as it would be unworthy to let physicians practise without monitoring what happens to their patients.

These instructional technicalities are supposed to be properly and creatively utilized by teachers if they have got adequate professional training and education. "To perform professional duties one must be professionally qualified" (Lado 1964:8).

Consequently, it seems necessary that, as professionals, the grades 9-12 English language teachers ask themselves professional questions: What are our failures in teaching the English language? Are there ways in which we are hindering English language learning? Are our preparations, plans and methods fully consistent with our best understanding? Why are not our students as successful as they ought to be? By asking such questions and making judgements, teachers might be able to critically examine language pedagogical controversies and problems, and find remedial solutions.

On the other hand, it appears the responsibility of the Institute for Curriculum Development and Research to prepare seminars and refresher courses from time to time to introduce language teachers to current approaches and methods of teaching English as a foreign language. Colleges of teacher education also have to try to take the stocks of causes for students' deficiency in English, and direct or redirect efforts towards making teacher training more meaningful, effective and functional.

8) Generally, this is not a complete study. Primary and junior secondary school English curricular and instructional causes for students' deficiency in English have not been dealt with. The relation among curricula of primary and primary school teacher training, secondary school and that of secondary school teacher training are not examined. The effect of grades 6,8 and 12 national English exams on English proficiency of the learners and other possible variables did not deserve attention. Since this study has only focused on the design and implementation of the grades 9-12 English curriculum, the writer recommends that intensive and extensive studies in prospect be geared towards the causes for students' deficiency in English.

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APPENDEIX - A

Schools With Which the Study is Concerned

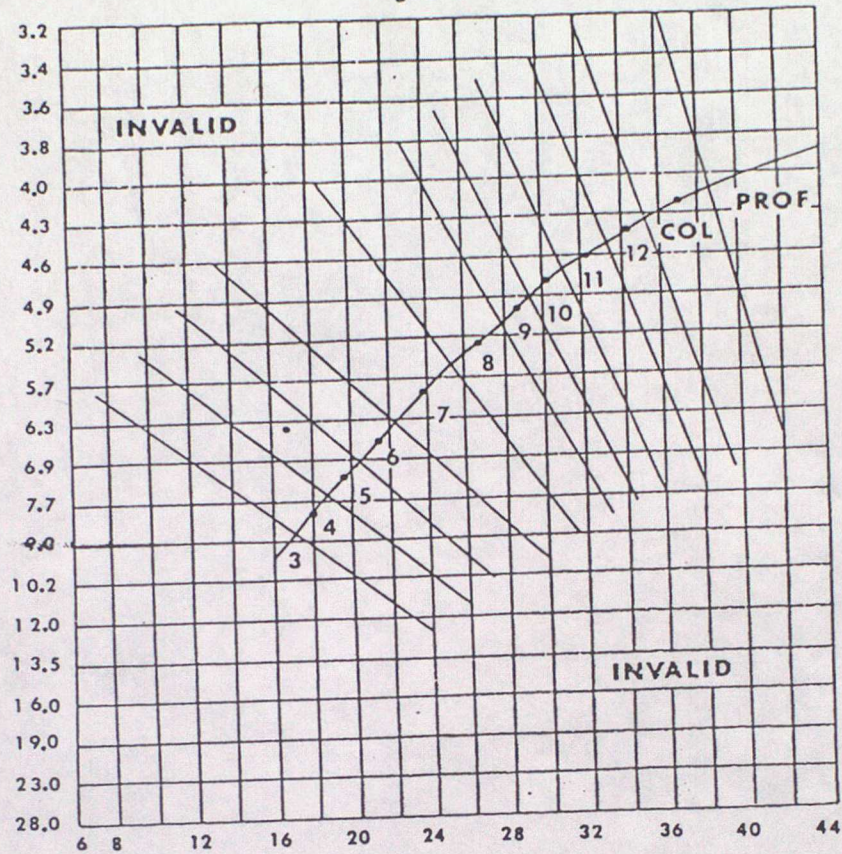
NO	Name of the School	Location	
		Administra-tive Region	Capital City /Town
1	Abyot Kirs	Addis Ababa	Addis Ababa
2	Addis Ketema	" "	" "
3	Ayer Tena*	" "	" "
4	Bole	" "	" "
5	Dejach Wondirad	" "	" "
6	Ethiopia Tekidem No.1*	" "	" "
7	Kefitegna Seven	" "	" "
8	Kefitegna Twelve*	" "	" "
9	Kefitegna Twenty-Three S.O.S	" "	" "
10	Kokebe Tsebeha	" "	" "
11	Kolfe	" "	" "
12	Medihanealem	" "	" "
13	Menelik II	" "	" "
14	Misrak*	" "	" "
15	Nefas Silk	" "	" "
16	Shimelis Habte	" "	" "
17	Tikur Anbessa	" "	" "
18	Yekatit Twelve	" "	" "
19	Haile-mariam Mamo	Northern Shewa	Debre Birihan
20	Ziway	Southern Shewa	Ziway
21	Nazereath*	Eastern Shewa	Nazereath
22	Dejazmach Geressu Duki	Western Shewa	Wolliso /Ghion
23	Nekemte*	Wollega	Nekemte
24	Assosa	Assosa	Assosa
25	Gambella	Gambella	Gambella
26	Mizan Teferi	Keffa	Mizan Tefere

27	Jimma*	Illubabor	Jimma
28	Arba Minch	Northern Omo	Arbaminch
29	Jinka	Southern Omo	Jinka
30	Awassa*	Sidamo	Awassa
31	Batu Terara	Bale	Goba-Robe
32	Robe	Bale	Goba-Robe
33	Assela	Arrisi	Assela
34	Chilalo Terara	Arrisi	Assela
35	Medihanealem*	Eastern Harargie	Harar
36	Harar	Eastern Harargie	Harar
37	Chercher	Western Harargie	Asebe Teferi
38	Dire Dawa	Dire Dawa	Dire Dawa
39	Asseb	Asseb	Asseb
40	Hotte*	Southern Wollo	Dessie

* Representative Samples

APPENDIX - B RAYGOR'S READABILITY GRAPH

Figure 1

**Directions:**

Count out three 100-word passages at the beginning, middle, and end of a selection or book. Count proper nouns, but not numerals.

1. Count sentences in each passage, estimating to nearest tenth.
2. Count words with six or more letters.
3. Average the sentence length and word length over the three samples and plot the average on the graph.

Example:

	Sentences	6+ Words
A	6.0	15
B	6.8	19
C	<u>6.4</u>	<u>17</u>
Total	19.2	51
Average	6.4	17

Note mark on graph. Grade level is about 5.

This graph is not copyrighted. It may be reproduced. Copies can also be obtained from Dr. Alton L. Raygor, University of Minnesota, 192 Pillsbury Drive S.E., Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455.

APPENDIX - C
QUESTIONNAIRE

Various studies warrant that a large number of Ethiopian senior secondary school students are deficient in the English language. The purpose of this questionnaire is, therefore, to collect some information from grades 9 - 12 English language teachers about the causes for students' deficiency in English Vis-a-vis instructional facilities, methods, techniques and evaluation strategies.

The responses of every teacher are extremely valuable to make the study reliable, valid and fruitful. Of course, all the responses which all the teachers provide will be kept confidential and used only for research purpose. You don't also write your names. So, please react to all the items frankly and honestly as much as possible.

I am very much indebted to your kind help!

Addis Ababa University

Education Faculty

Curriculum and Instruction Department (post - Graduate Programme)

Mellese Bedanie

DIRECTION I-Please, write down your responses to the following item, Your:- Age _____ Years

Sex _____

Qualification _____

Year(s) of Teaching Service _____ Year(s)

Teaching Load Per Week _____ Periods

The Subject(s) You Teach _____

The Grade(s) You Teach _____

Average Numbers of Students in Your Class _____

DIRECTION II- Please, read the following items carefully and put a tick(✓) mark against one of the following rating scales that you feel appropriate.

ITEMS	RATING SCALE				
	To a Large Extent	To Some Extent	To a very Little Extent	Not At All	No Opinion
<u>The classrooms you teach in are:</u>					
1. Overcrowded					
2. Equipped with Chairs/benches					
3. Clean and appeal to aesthetic senses of the learners					
4. Without glare and reflection					
5. Free from various kinds of noises					
<u>You develop your students listening and speaking skills through:</u>					
1. Oral drills					
2. Dialogues					
3. Speech recorded by tape recorders					
4. Classroom dramas					
5. Role plays					
6. Discussions					
7. Problem Solving exercises or riddles					
8. Listening comprehensions					
9. Dictations					
10. Debates					
11. Impromptu					
12. Short oral reports and announcements					

13. Guided interviews				
14. Negotiation of meanings				
15. Panel discussions				
16. Translation exercises				
17. Your lecture and explanations				
<u>You develop your students reading skills through:</u>				
1. Oral reading drills				
2. Students' turn by turn oral reading				
3. Pre-reading questions				
4. Interpretation of reading passages by the students				
5. Your interpretation of reading passages				
6. Your oral reading				
7. Silent reading by the students				
<u>You develop your students writing skills through brief:</u>				
1. News reports				
2. Personal letters				
3. Business letters				
4. Announcements				
5. Auto biographies				
6. Self-initiated writings				
7. Essays				
8. Applications				
9. Invitations				
10. Substitution exercises				

APPENDIX -D
INTERVIEWInterview with Members of the English Panel

1. How were the objectives of grades 9-12 English curriculum stated?
2. How was the content of grades 9-12 English curriculum selected and organized?
3. Why grades 9-12 English curriculum has not been revised?

Interview with Grades 9-12 English Language Teachers

1. Are grades 9-12 English curriculum guide, the syllabus, and teacher's guides available in your school? Do you use them? For what purpose?
2. Do all of your students possess English textbook?
3. Do you supply hand-outs to your students? If not why?
4. What kinds of audio-visual aids do you use while teaching English?
5. What kinds of plans do you prepare to teach English? How do you prepare them?
6. What type of teaching method(s) do you use while teaching English: Why do you use such a method(s)?
7. What type of evaluation technique(s) do you employ while teaching English?
8. How do you check your students home or class work?

Dep. copy

APPENDIX - E

SAMPLE OF COURSE PLAN

Awassa Comp. High School

Year :- 1983 E.C.

Yearly Lesson Plan

Subject Teachers' Name Mengiste-ab M/kyous, Mulugata Reta & Negatu Tadesse
Subject English Grade XI

No	Chapter/Unit	Aims	Topics/Contents	Peri- ods	Dura- tion	Remarks
1	General Introduction	To revise the main points of the topics to realize the difference and similarity b/n word - phrase - clause and sentences	Word, phrase & clause Sentence	5	3-12/1/82	
2	One and Two	To fasten their reading ability and to grasp the message of the passage to identify the meaning and use of some new word to realize Adv. Cl. of manner	Reading Passage Vocabulary Comprehension Structure - Adv. Cl. of manner " " " Result	15	15-3/2/82	
3	Review Unit One	to realize how to use auxiliary verbs to show present and past obligation	Should / ought to Have to Has to must Need to } infinitive	5	6-10/2/82	

Remarks by the department head:-

Tessera hedebo

Awassa Comp. High School
Yearly Lesson Plan

Year :- 1983 E.C.

Subject Teachers' Name Mengiste-ab Mihyesus Muligita Reto & Negotie Tadesse
Subject English Grade XI

No	Chapter/Unit	Aims	Topics/Contents	Periods	Duration	Remarks
	3 and 4	To fasten their reading ability and to grasp the message of the passage To identify the meaning and use of some new words To realize the use of Adv. clauses of Reason and purpose	Reading Passage Vocabulary Comprehension Structure - Adv. Cl. of Reason Purpose	15	13/2 - 11/3/82	
	Review Two and Units Five and Six	To identify nouns & adjectives To fasten their reading ability & grasp the message of the passage. To realize the meaning & use of some new words. To bring the use of Adv. Cl. of Comparison & Contrast.	Nouns used as Adj. Reading Passage Vocabulary Comprehension Structure Adv. Cl. of Comparison " " Contrast	10	4 - 15/3/82	
	Review Three and Units Seven & Eight	To realize the formation of adverbs. To fasten their reading ability and grasp the message. To identify the use and meaning of some new words and adv. clauses of Condition.	Formation of Adverbs Reading Passage Vocabulary Comprehension Structure - Adv. Cl. of Condition	15	18 - 5/4/82	

Remarks by the department head:-

[Signature]

APPENDIX - E
 SAMPLE OF WEEKLY LESSON PLAN Periodic Lesson Plan, of Ayer Tena Secondary Sch. 12-16.

Teacher's Name and Signature P. S. Nan (Phon 2) Date 11/6/83 Grade & Section 10 Subject English

Unit Twelve Topic Reported Speech (Structure)

- Objectives
1. The development of language skills - listening
 2. speaking, reading and writing
 3. The development of language elements

Period	Main contents	Teacher's Activity	Student's act.	Teacheing Mater. als
Date 1	<u>Reported Speech</u>	1. Interoduction <u>Creating situation</u> 2. Presentation: <u>Definition, differentiation explanation</u> 3. Stabili,ation: <u>Summary</u> 4. Evaluation: <u>By asking question</u>	Recall, Recognizing	charts and pictures where ever necessary
2	Changes that are made in Converting Direct in to	1. Interoduction: <u>Creates classroom of teacher</u> 2. Presentation: <u>Explanation</u> 3. Stabilization: <u>Summarizing up</u> 4. Evaluation: <u>By eliciting answers</u>	Compare and Contrast	
3	<u>Indirect Tense</u>	1. Interoduction: <u>Creating situation</u> 2. Prsentation: <u>Definition</u> 3. Statilization: <u>Summary</u> 4. Evaluation: <u>By asking questions</u>	Participate in class- discussion	

(Signature)

Period Date	Main contents	Teacher's Activity	Student's Act.	Teaching Materials Aid
4	<u>Adverbs</u> <u>Change</u>	1. Interoduction: <u>Creating situation</u> 2. Presentation: <u>Definition</u> 3. Stabilization: <u>Summing up</u> 4. Evaluation: <u>By asking questions</u>	Answer The questions orally and	
5	<u>persons</u> <u>Change</u>	1. Interoduction: <u>Eliciting answers</u> 2. Presentation: <u>Explanation</u> 3. Stabilization: <u>Telling the summary</u> 4. Evaluation: <u>By asking questions</u>	Also in written form.	
6		1. Interoduction: _____ 2. Presentation: _____ 3. Stabilization: _____ 4. Evaluation: _____		
7		1. Interoduction: _____ 2. Presentation: _____ 3. Stabilization: _____ 4. Evaluation: _____		

Remarks of the head teacher
(If any) _____

Name and Sig. H. H. H.
08/06/63

Remarks of the Vice Director
(If any) _____

Seen
Name and Sig. [Signature]

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APPENDIX - G

African Primary Science Programme (APSP) Model of Curriculum and Instruction Evaluation

Variables		Intents/ Assumption	Observation (Instrument & Techniques)	Judgement Decision
ANTECEDENTS	1. Man power-Quality - Qualification - Predisposition 2. Children -Intellectual ability - Socio-economic background 3. Learning environment - School setting - Administration - Economic resources - Cultural setting	D E S C R I P T I O N	1. Questionnaire, Surveys Direct Observation, Tests 2. Questionnaire, surveys, Tests 3. Direct observation Questionnaire, surveys	Based on data from intent/assumption and observations but SUBJECTIVE
TRANSACTION	1. Instructional materials - Nature and development strategies 2. Instructional techniques - Teacher-Child-material interaction 3. Supportive strategies - Teacher training interaction with policy-makers - Interaction with resource people 4. Interaction strategies		1. Readability indices, task analysis, cost effectiveness analysis 2. Direct observation using observation instrument 3. and 4 Direct observation survey	
OUTCOMES	1. The child 2. The teacher 3. Parents 4. Curriculum Innovation 5. Educational Administration and policy 6. Economic Implications		1, 2, 3 and 4 Test, Direct Observation, Designed Experimental Studies, surveys 5 Surveys, Direct Observation 6 survey, Designed Experimental studies, cost effectiveness analysis	

APPENDIX - H

Demographic Data of Grades 9-12 English Language Teachers

Age	No		%		Qualification	No		%	
	M	F	M	F		M	F	M	F
20 - 25 Years	1	-	1%	-	M.A	5	1	5%	1%
26 - 30 Years	18	3	18%	3%	B.A	53	6	53%	6%
31 - 35 Years	22	3	22%	3%	12+3	3	-	3%	-
36 - 40 Years	25	6	25%	6%	Diploma	25	3	25%	3%
41 - 45 Years	12	-	12%	-					
46 -50 Years	6	-	6%	-					
41 - 55 Years	4	-	4%	-					
Total	88	12	88%	12%		90	10	90%	10%

Years of Teaching Service	No		%		Teaching Load (periods)perweek	No		%	
	M	F	M	F		M	F	M	F
1 - 5	7	1	7%	1%	10 - 15	1	-	1%	-
6 - 10	22	6	22%	6%	16 - 20	26	2	26%	2%
11 -15	22	1	22%	1%	21 - 25	41	6	41%	6%
16- 20	29	3	29%	3%	26 - 30	21	3	21%	3%
21 - 25	9	-	9%	-					
26 - 30	6	-	6%	-					
31 - 35	2	-	2%	-					
Total	89	11	89%	11%		89	11	89%	11%