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Comparative adjectives in English, French, and Ewe in Togolese high schools

Ananou, David Koffi, Ph.D.
The Ohio State University, 1992
COMPARATIVE ADJECTIVES IN ENGLISH, FRENCH, AND EWE IN TOGOLESE HIGH SCHOOLS

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School of Ohio State University

By

David Koffi Ananou, B.A., M.A.

* * * * *

The Ohio State University

1992

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Approved by

Advisor
College of Education
This paper is dedicated to my wife and children who have patiently waited for the completion of this period of academic pursuit to "have her husband and their father back."
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is my pleasure to recognize all those who have made a big difference in my life and scholarship especially during the years I have spent in Columbus, Ohio. Words of mine are too weak to express my gratitude to all those who have made my dream come true. Indeed, any attempt to thank all in writing will be worthless.

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Cultural Learning in the classroom, and Curriculum and Syllabus Design. Dr. Keiko Samimy

Satellite Area: Advanced French Grammar, Translation and France’s relations with its former colonies. Dr. Thérèse Bonin

Black Studies: Contempory African Literature. Dr. A. Irele
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CHAPTER I

The Problem

Introduction

Geography

Togo (République Togolaise), a sovereign western African republic, consists of that part of the former German colony of Togoland that was made French mandated territory after World War I. Situated on the Gulf of Guinea, it has a total area of about 22,000 square miles. From its 32 mile coastline, Togo extends northward for about 360 miles between Ghana to the west and Benin to the east to its boundary with Burkina Faso in the north. The country consists of primarily two Savannah plain regions separated by a southwest - northwest range of hills called "La Chaîne du Togo". Mont Agou which rises to about 3,235 feet is the highest elevation of Togo. The country is drained by the Mono, the Ogu and the Oti Rivers, and they render the soil fertile for agriculture.

Togo has a tropical climate in which rainy and dry seasons alternate. The rainy seasons occur from mid-April through June and from mid-September through October in the south. The narrow coastal zone is the driest region which receives about 35 inches of annual rainfall. Kpalime
region (Kloto) about 65 miles inland receives the highest amount of rain, about 70 inches annually. The north has only one rainy season with an average rainfall of about 45 inches pouring from June to the end of September; during the rest of the year, the warm dry harmattan is at its best. The south is humid with temperatures that range between 75°F—90°F whereas in the north, the temperatures range between 65°F—100°F.
Maps of Togoland and West Africa

Decalo, S. Historical Dictionary of Togo
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The Former Togolands

SKETCH MAP OF PARTITIONS OF THE EWE
(adapted from J. S. Coleman, Togoland, New York, 1956).

Decalo, S. Historical Dictionary of Togo, Page 90

Figure 1. Maps of Togoland and West Africa
Statement of the Problem

One of the persistent problems confronting Togolese learners of English as a foreign language in Togo is the mastery of comparative adjectives in English. To date, no systematic studies have been conducted to point out the sources of difficulty and offer viable solutions. Do these pupils' errors come from first language interference, the instructional materials used in teaching the comparative adjectives, the methods and techniques used by the teachers of English, or a combination of these factors?

This study addresses this question and provides both theoretical and practical solutions. In order to investigate the topic, data was collected from English as a Foreign Language pupils and teachers in four Togolese high schools. It was then analyzed and interpreted. Conclusions were drawn. Tests of statistical significance were run on the data to establish validity for the findings. Recommendations for instruction and curriculum in English as a Foreign Language teaching in Togo were presented based upon the findings that the study yields.

People

Togo's population of 3.4 million people is made up of about 40 ethnic groups. The two major ones are the Ewe in the South and the Kabye in the north. Population distribution in the country is uneven due to soil and
terrain variations, but generally it is concentrated in the south. Age distribution is also uneven; more than half of the Togolese are under 15 years old. The Year Book (1989) reveals that the ethnic groups of the coastal region, particularly the Ewe who are about 25% of the population, constitute the bulk of the civil servants, professionals and merchants due in part to the former colonial administrations which provided greater infrastructural development in the south. The Kabye who constitute 15% of the population live on marginal land and traditionally have emigrated south from their home area in the Kara region to seek employment. The New Encyclopedia Britannica (1987) asserts that most of the nation’s aliens live in Lome, the capital. The majority of the aliens are French, but there are a few mulattoes of Brazilian, German and French ancestry. Brazilians or Portuguese of Brazilian birth, constituted the original trading settlement in Togo, and today Brazilian mulattoes are closely associated with economic and political development.

Although Christianity has marked the country, about half of the population still adheres to traditional animistic beliefs. The main Protestant church has been governed for years by native moderators and since independence, the Roman Catholic church has been directed by a native archbishop. Islamic influence predominates in the north.
History

Eustace Yawo Egblewogbe (1975) and Samuel Decalo (1987) point out that the Ewe trace their origins to Oyo in Nigeria where they migrated in the thirteenth century via Ketou in the Republic of Benin (Dahomey) to Tado and then Notse where they settled, but in the seventeenth century, the Ewe dispersed from Notse as a result of the brutalities of their King Agokoli. Records from oral tradition reveal that several groups went to the Republic of Benin to found the Allada Kingdom while the others moved to the south of Togo.

Notse plays a significant role in Ewe traditions and folklore, and it is also referred to in oral history as Amedzofe "place of origin", Glime "in the walls" or Agbogbome "in the gates". Nowadays, a popular festival called Hogbetsotso or Agbogbozan is held annually in September in Notse to commemorate the exodus of the Ewe ancestors from King Agokoli's tyranny. This festivity brings back all the Ewe in the Southern Ghana and Southwestern Benin to Notse. F. K. Buah (1974) stresses that the Ewe are split in two: one part lives in the Republic of Ghana and the other in the Republic of Togo; an artificial frontier created by the European colonial powers (first Britain and Germany and later Britain and France) divided the Ewe in this way. The artificial boundary was inherited when Ghana and Togo became independent nations and has remained permanent to this day.
Until 1884, Togoland was an indeterminate zone between the military states of Ashanti and Dahomey. The only port was Aneho. Throughout the 18th century the Danes held the port for slave trade. But in 1884, Gustav Nachtigal succeeded in convincing the Togolese coastal Kings to accept German protection. In this way, a treaty was signed at Togoville between King Mlapa and Nachtigal. Arthur Knoll (1978) states that the Togolese in the South accepted the German occupation because they believed in this convenient myth of creation:

"God created two pairs of people, one black and one white. Each pair was given two baskets to choose from; the blacks chose a basket with agricultural implements and the whites a basket with a great book in it. With their tools the blacks tilled the soil and became strong, while the whites read their book and became wise. When the blacks drove the whites to the sea, God expressed sympathy with the latter and protected them. The result was that the whites, under God's favour, multiplied across the sea and later in Africa." p. 22.

Lome was selected the capital and by 1904, a jetty was built. Three railways were constructed to open up the interior so that the agricultural produce might be transported to the capital. The Germans gradually extended their control inland. Because it became Germany's only self supporting colony, Togoland was known as their model possession. German administration was efficient but marred by its harsh treatment of Togolese and use of forced labor. In 1914, Togoland was invaded by French and British troops and fell after a brief resistance. After the war, Togoland
became a league of Nations mandate divided for administrative purposes between France and the United Kingdom.

In 1956, the people of French Togo chose a plebiscite to become an autonomous republic with the French Union. The arguments of the French authorities notwithstanding, the United Nations refused to end the trusteeship status of Togo because although the country had internal autonomy, France had control over defense, foreign affairs and currency. In 1960, Togo severed its juridical ties with France, shed its United Nations trusteeship status, and became independent.

Background of the Problem

The teaching of English as a Foreign Language has been important in Togo because English is required in secondary schools in all French-speaking West Africa. In the early 1960s, English was introduced in the elementary schools in Togo; twenty Togolese individuals were trained locally by British educators under the auspices of the British Council. When the training was over, there arose grievances from some parents and some education authorities who complained that English would impede the progress of the pupils. For this reason, the trained teachers were sent to teach the subject in the secondary schools.

The graduation examinations at the elementary school (Certificat d’Etudes Primaires) and the Junior High School (Brevet d’Etudes du Premier Cycle) reside in the hands of
the Ministry of Education and the graduation exams at the Senior High School (Baccalauréat) lie in the hands of an examination council (Office du Baccalauréat) headed by faculty members of the University. Commenting on how examinations are considered to be the mark of success or failure in our society and how so much depends upon them, L. G. Alexander (1984) says:

"Examinations exert a pernicious influence on education; formal education, should among other things, train the students to think for themselves. But the examination system does anything except that. What has to be learned is rigidly laid down by a syllabus with the result that the student is encouraged to memorize. Secondly, examinations do not motivate a student to read widely, but to restrict his reading; they do not enable him to seek more and more knowledge, but induce cramming. They lower the standards of teaching, for they deprive the teacher of all freedom. Teachers themselves are often judged by examination results and instead of teaching their subjects, they are reduced to training their students in exam techniques which they despise."
(p. 44)

A typical example is that in the fourth year in Junior High School, while the pupils are studying for the "Brevet", and in the Senior High School, while they are getting ready to sit for the "Bac," the pupils seem to be concerned with the latest exam papers, always hopeful that they may be well prepared, lucky and strike the right questions. The situation is alarming. West Africa (1983) confirms

"methods of school inspection are being revised with more emphasis being placed on classroom visits to maintain higher standards of teaching."
(p. 344)
The language teacher's main and foremost task is to arouse the interest and enthusiasm of the pupil. This requires deep love for the language to be taught and a great deal of patience, energy and imagination. The teacher must reveal to the pupil the value and beauty of language. It is language and language alone that separates and differentiates man from animals and makes man superior to all other creatures in the living world. Without language, man would be another animal, incapable of communicating his thoughts, wishes and deepest emotions. Through a man's language, one can understand his culture, for language is a mirror of a man's way of life, thoughts and ideals. G. Fortuna (1964) laying emphasis on African languages in school added:

"Language is a highly developed and complex set of symbols which it takes the average child from four to five years to learn to operate. Therefore, the child must learn to respect this complex and yet completely organized vehicle for his thoughts, the vehicle through which he thinks, dreams, discusses his ambitions and describes his past activities, and shares his sorrows with others. One's mother tongue is the most precious part of one's culture; it links one to the past, to all the people who have shared the same way of life, the same thoughts and the same hopes." p. 19.

In the last fifteen years, with the communicative language teaching, it has become controversial whether anyone should study the structure of a language or not. The researcher does not advocate that grammar study should supplant any other forms of language study such as literature, literary analysis, composition, etc., but
grammatical study should be an aid or a tool for the better teaching and enjoyment of the above mentioned aspects of language study. Understanding of the structure of a language gives a better insight into the possibilities of that language. Some formal study of the structure of one's own mother tongue is an essential part of one's language and linguistic background. This rationale is based on several factors: one should not take any language, particularly one's mother tongue for granted. Language is a very highly complex set of symbols without which man would be a mere animal. Some insight into the mechanics of this set of symbols gives one a deeper understanding of the thought pattern and culture of the people who use the language.

Professor Mike Finneman, during the 1989 workshop for the Teaching Assistants that was held at the Ohio State University, reiterated that teachers should teach grammar but should not talk about grammar in class; grammar is a means to an end but not an end in itself. Furthermore he stressed that if examinations seem to require exclusive work on grammar, it may be that the nature of exams should be reconsidered. He later suggested that teachers teach a common grammar point without talking about it, get the grammatical concept across to the students via well-organized demonstration and practice—avoiding "explanation." Finally teachers should make practice "meaningful" that is, practice the grammar point in contexts
that require the student to give and get "real" information about each other.

The comparative adjectives have become an area of grammatical difficulty for the pupils in the South of Togo and the researcher has noticed that during his career as a teacher of English, the pupils have become confused in the way the labeling is done in the grammar books. The comparatives are mixed with the superlatives just as the way /since/, /for/, /ago/ are mixed and taught. The researcher believes that teachers of English have to be tactful in the way they handle the teaching of English grammar. For this reason, there is a need for teachers of English in Togo to be creative in teaching the comparative degree of equality, superiority and inferiority of adjectives. Various teaching strategies and techniques may also be introduced to help pupils when they are to use /than/ and /as/ because both conjunctions are translated by /que/ in French.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study is twofold. First, the study is a comparative analysis of adjectives in Ewe, French and English. The focus is designed to identify errors made by high school pupils in southern part of Togo, to classify these errors into patterns that share common features, and to explain the reasons for their occurrence. Secondly, the data from the study was used to design a coherent set of
recommendations to the educational authorities as to how teachers of English as a Foreign Language should be trained. The focus of the recommendations was based upon a program to train teachers to handle such difficulties.

To achieve this purpose, the researcher first analyzed the problem of comparative adjectives in Ewe, English as a Foreign Language and French, and surveyed pupils in English as a Foreign Language high school classes in Togo. The data obtained was systematically organized and analyzed. The four objectives are:

To establish a data base on the current English as a Foreign Language program in Togo.

To investigate the teachers' perceptions of the English as a Foreign Language, their strengths and weaknesses in their training as EFL teachers.

To observe the approach used by EFL teachers in teaching the comparative adjectives in English; to interview teachers about their practices in this area and help them to reflect upon their practice.

To develop a coherent set of recommendations for training teachers of English as a foreign language.

In the study, the following questions were addressed:

1. What patterns of errors do the high school pupils in the southern Togo make when they use the comparative forms of adjectives in English?

2. To what extent are these patterns caused by interference between Ewe and English?

3. To what extent are the causes of interference in using comparison be attributed?
   a) Ewe versus English patterns
b) teachers, textbook content

4. How can English as a Foreign Language
teacher training reduce the problem of
pupil adjectival usage errors?

**Significance of the Study**

A review of the literature has not revealed any study
to assess the impact of Ewe which is the first language of
Togolese pupils in the study on English. The need exists
for studies that examine the impact of L₁ on L₂ in Togo.
Numerous studies have been conducted to help Western
educators modify their practices when they teach in
developing countries such as Togo. By the same token, it is
necessary that there be similar studies to investigate what
happens in the Togolese classroom when native teachers are
teaching (e.g., the comparative adjectives). The
comparative adjective is an example of a grammar point which
might have been the focus of the study. A possible set of
alternative grammar topics would include: possessive
adjectives, passive voice, countable/uncountable nouns,
modal auxiliaries, relative pronouns, tag questions, present
perfect and phrasal verbs. This study is designed to help
improve the quality of the teaching of English as a Foreign
Language in Togo.

The information that will be obtained from this study
will be useful and disseminated to:

The Ministry of Education - (Department of Statistics);
educational planners and decision makers serving at the
Ministry of Education in Togo and Francophone Africa; in addition, other governments or agencies in developing countries involved in similar programs particularly the United States Peace Corps, the French Technical Assistants, the British Council, the Canadian University Services Overseas (CUSO) and the Missionaries. Finally, other educators and educational researchers engaged in further research in the area of teacher education, training of trainers, international education cooperation as well as textbook and material writers.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are used in the study and are defined here as an aid to readers.

**Baccalaureat or "Bac":** Graduation diploma given to a senior High School pupil after passing his/her examinations and it is an automatic admission to the University for a degree course in Togo and in several french speaking countries in West Africa.

**Brevet:** Graduation diploma given to a Junior High School pupil after passing his/her examinations in Togo.

**Comparative adjectives:** It is the manner in which an adjective is used to compare two people, things or qualities. There are three types of comparative forms of adjectives: comparative adjectives of superiority, inferiority and equality. The comparative adjective is an
example of a grammar point which might have been the focus of the study. A possible set of alternative grammar topics would include: possessive adjectives, passive voice, countable/uncountable nouns, modal auxiliaries, relative pronouns, tag questions, present perfect and phrasal verbs.

**Comparative adjective of superiority:** It is formed by adding "er" or by prefixing "more" to the positive form of the adjective. e.g. old= older than; beautiful= more beautiful than.

**Comparative adjectives of inferiority:** It is formed by prefixing "less" to the positive form of the adjective. e.g., expensive= less expensive than; warm= less warm than.

**Comparative adjective of equality (affirmative form):** It is formed by inserting the positive form of the adjective between the two "as", e.g., old = as old as; white = as white as.

**Comparative adjective of equality (negative form):** It is formed by insertive the positive form of the adjective between "not as .... as"; e.g., expensive = not as expensive as; easy = not as easy as.

**English as a Foreign Language (E.F.L.):** English is studied as one of the several foreign languages (German, Spanish, Russian). It serves little communicative function for the pupils once they finish the English course. Emphasis is on grammar, literature, culture and translation from and into
the target language. The use of English outside the classroom is very limited.

**Interference:** It is the presence of features of pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary that may be attributed to one's knowledge of another language. In this study, knowledge of the Ewe language is carried over into learner performance in English and it influences the learner to make errors in the use of the comparative adjectives when translating a passage from one language into another.

**First Language (L1):** In this study, "Ewe" is the mother tongue which the subjects have acquired. It is the language subjects in the study (both pupils and teachers) speak.

**Second Language (L2):** In the case of Togo, French is a second language because it is officially used within the country and it is learnt with much more environment support, the newspapers, radio and television.

**Assumptions**

The assumptions which guide the study are as follows:

An acceptable number of responses were received from the schools where the pupils were selected to participate in the study.

Teachers are trained to teach English as a Foreign Language in Togo.

The Ministry of Education has structured a quality program for the training of teachers of English.

Education planners have set a minimum standard which must be met with regards to teaching of English.
Teachers and pupils responded truthfully and completely to the survey items.

Teachers participating in the study followed the procedures outlined in the study.

Pupils remained unaware that they were part of an experiment until they were told so at the conclusion of the study.

Limitations of the study

Some pupils speak Ewe but cannot write it. Since the main purpose of this investigation is to identify errors Ewe-speaking pupils make while using the comparative forms of adjectives in English, this error analysis format is chosen to allow an in-depth look at the process from both a student and a teacher’s perspective. Consequently, the study is conducted with a specific ethnolinguistic population and thereby limited. It must be cautioned that findings may not be generalized to other ethnolinguistic groups of pupils and that any inferences must be made with caution. The comparative adjective is an example of a grammar point which might have been the focus of the study. A possible set of alternative grammar topics would include: possessive adjectives, passive voice, countable/uncountable nouns, modal auxiliaries, relative pronouns, tag questions, present perfect and phrasal verbs.
CHAPTER II

Literature Review

Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to describe selected past and present research pertaining to the comparative adjectives. To enable the reader to build a picture of the background for this research, this chapter will focus on reviewing the literature from the following areas of study: Language Learning, Contrastive-Error Analysis, Comparative adjectives, and Teacher Training.

Language Learning

Chastain and Woerdehoff (1968), in a methodological study in which they compared the Audio Lingual Habit Theory and the Cognitive Code Learning Theory, pointed out that students learning a foreign language as an academic subject and who have contact with that language for four or five class periods a week are in a different situation from those who learn a second language (L2) in the target language environment. This is because the quality and amount of input available to (L2) learners is much greater and much richer. Secondly, the quantity of opportunities
for real language use are much greater for L2 learners. They asserted that language students should focus on learning grammar in the context of communicative situations. They stated that students could not be expected to learn a foreign language as an academic subject in the same way as infants learning their native language or even as children learning a second language while in the target culture. This study revealed that teachers need to be flexible and incorporate various approaches into their lessons as required by the particular situation. Commenting on the behaviorists and the transformationalists view of language learning, Robert Krohn (1970) stressed that if language learning is viewed as the internalization of rules rather than the formation of habits, classroom grammar exercises should also be viewed differently. Instead of being the means for instilling habits, these exercises could be conceived of as one means of allowing the students to react to and manipulate the data in order to internalize rules. Thus, the student no longer acquired a set of overt habits; on the contrary, he acquired a set of internal rules which allowed him to use the language creatively, producing and understanding sentences he has never heard before. He reiterated that it was not enough to have students perform well in grammar exercises. They ought to use the language in non-classroom situations, express their ideas in meaningful ways and communicate with speakers of the
language. The contributions that the study of grammar can make to language learning can all be negated if the students are not able to communicate their thoughts in the target language. Krohn emphasized that the role of linguistics in Teaching English as a Foreign Language methodology has probably been over-rated in the past, especially whenever the claim has been made that a course for teaching English as a Foreign Language can be based directly on linguistic descriptions.

In a publication entitled "Children's first language as a model for second language learning" James J. Asher (1972) pointed out three critical elements—listening, reading and writing—in the way children learn their first language, and each of these elements is a clue for creating a strategy to learn a second language. The first element is that listening skill precedes speaking skills. For instance, it is common to observe young children who are not yet able to produce more than one-word utterances, yet they demonstrate perfect understanding when an adult says, "pick up your red truck and bring it to me". Not only is listening critical to the development of speaking, but children acquire the listening skill in a particular way. For example, there is a relationship between language and the child's body. Utterances, usually commands from adults, are used to manipulate the orientation, location, and movement of the child's entire body.
The hypothesis of the study was that acquiring listening skill in a second language could be accelerated if the training was based on how children learn their first language. The results demonstrated that a keen level of listening comprehension could be achieved in about one-half the usual training time. Even though there was no systematic training in reading, the experimental group achieved a reading skill that was comparable with a control group which emphasized reading and writing.

In second language learning, the teacher is faced with some methodological problems. The basic one is the size of the class. Most developing countries have classes of forty pupils in them with one teacher. Christopher J. Brumfit (1980) wrote:

Since it is universally agreed that language is learnt by practice, we somehow have to create a situation in which the teacher can produce active participation in the class by several people at once and not simply by the one-pupil-one teacher pattern which so much language teaching rests on. For this reason, we are forced to fall back heavily on group work, but this in itself raises further problems, because undirected and uncontrolled group work may produce only an illusion of learning. (p.33)

Educators in the 1990’s emphasize the learner, his strategies and needs, and criticize previous emphasis on the role of the teacher. Children and adults learn differently. Adults tend to learn from past experiences and they do not consider the teacher to be the giver of knowledge. They may regard the teacher as a co-facilitator. On the other hand,
children tend to learn through imitation, repetition and gestures. They see the teacher as the giver of knowledge and they learn a lot in the classroom when they are controlled by the teacher. They consider the teacher to be their model. Brumfit has stated that the teacher should not control his class in the sense of prearranging everything that is uttered but he should control it to the extent of organizing it in a particular way, and permitting freedom only within the limits of that framework.

With regard to the problems of errors, Brumfit and Corder (1967) seem to have similar ideas.

To demand simultaneous accuracy and fluent production is to demand the impossible for many students. For this reason, teachers need to become aware of the relative significance of various kinds of errors. Errors will show the teacher the kinds of problems the learner is facing and overcoming, but it must be recognized that some problems are more serious than others. (p. 126.)

In handling errors, teachers need to make decisions about what is immediately important and what can better be dealt with at another time. The teacher should be familiar with the kind of errors that occur frequently in his/her class and find ways to deal with them so that the students may benefit from the correction. Correction of errors is an integral part of the teacher's role and the issue is when and how it is to be handled. According to Lombardo (1985)

if errors are treated as a normal part of learning and even welcomed as an opportunity to grow in one's understanding of the language, then dealing with them can be a positive experience for
learners and a way for them to achieve real autonomy by developing their own criteria about how the new language is organized. (p. 10)

While some scholars refute the importance of the mother tongue and its impact on the target language, Ajiboye (1987) in his article clearly stated that the view is becoming increasingly accepted that even when all other conditions have been satisfied, as long as the power of the mother tongue on the target language remains unacknowledged, it will be difficult to assess performance in that language.

Cameron and Epling (1989) investigated interaction styles and success at problem-solving by students of English as a second language in Canada. Students were selected from a continuing education program at Alberta Vocational Centre. The subjects were chosen on the basis of active or passive participation in the classroom. Following this selection, subjects were randomly assigned to Active-Active, Active-Passive or Passive-Passive groups which were comprised of eight same-sex dyads. Each dyad was required to solve ten problems on a two-way interaction tasks. Results indicated that Active-Active and Active-Passive pairs were equally successful at the task and both were superior to the Passive-Passive group. It is argued that these results have practical importance for teaching English as a second language. One recommendation is that when teachers involve students in pair activities, passive students should be placed with active ones.
Tracey Derwing (1989) conducted research in which a native speaker/non-native speaker (NS/NNS) conversational adjustment in the relative proportions of information type was examined in relation to communicative success. Communicative success refers to adjustments such as repetitions, comprehension checks, confirmation checks and clarification checks that are used in a conversation. Sixteen native speakers of English were paired with other native speakers and with low-proficiency non-native speakers. The subjects viewed a short film, the content of which they were to relay to their two partners independently. Communicative success was measured through comprehension questions addressed to the listeners at the completion of the task. The relative importance of propositional information in the narratives was determined and adjustments were measured. Analyses indicated that an increase in the proportion of background detail correlated with comprehension problems for second-language learners.

When the comprehensive scores were correlated with the proportions of information type, only Crucial Information was significant (Pearson r(14) = .50, p = .05, two-tailed). Minor Information approached conventional levels of significance (r(14) = -.49, p = .056, two-tailed). Because the Minor Information category subsumed both background detail related to the film and propositions that were entirely irrelevant, this category was subdivided. When
Pearson correlations were calculated on the revised categories, it was determined that only Background Detail correlated significantly with success ($r(14) = -.5315, p = .034$, two-tailed).

The findings regarding information types in this study point to the need for further research in this area. Follow up experiments are necessary in which the proportions of information types are controlled; in addition, subjects should be selected from several proficiency levels. A systematic examination of the nature of content adjustments to NNSs may provide insights that will enhance NS-NNS Communication and indirectly, language teaching and learning.

In like manner, Susan Ehrlich and others (1989) examined the role of negotiations of meaning in providing comprehensible input for non-native speaker learners. The study was conducted with native speakers—non native speakers (NS-NNS), and native speakers — native speakers pairs (NS-NS) involving a picture-drawing task, where one member of each pair instructed the other to draw simple objects. The results of the experiment suggested that the success or failure of meaning negotiations in providing comprehensible input depends on the point in the discourse at which they occur. The authors questioned a prevailing assumption in the second language acquisition literature that the mere quantity of meaning negotiations within a
discourse was an accurate predictor of the quantity of comprehensible input that resulted. They proposed that meaning negotiation should be analyzed within a discourse framework to explain the role of negotiations in creating comprehensible input.

Constance Shaffer (1989) conducted an experiment to determine if there was a difference in high school foreign language students' understanding of grammatical concepts depending on whether an inductive or a deductive teaching method is used. Students (N=319) from three high schools took part in the study, and one Spanish and two French teachers were also involved. No significant differences were found for the two methods of presenting grammar. However, the trend was in favor of an inductive approach for students of all ability levels learning grammar commonly considered to be difficult (i.e., grammar based on concepts not found in the students' native English).

To sum up, the productive skills of speaking and writing had been associated with the teaching of grammar in the past. But Rutherford (1987) pointed out that when the purpose of teaching grammar is to effect mastery of an inventory of grammatical constructs, the logical evidence for this mastery lies in "the appearance of the (correctly formed) construct in the learner's production" (p. 173). From what is now known about the language learning process, particularly through studies conducted in interlanguage, it
becomes apparent that there are two fallacies inherent in
the traditional conceptualization of language teaching. The
first one is the belief that language learning consists in a
regular accumulation of sets of discrete grammatically
entities. The second is the belief that the characteristics
of, or rules for, the formation of these entities can be
directly taught.

It is not only fitting and praiseworthy to have pupils
perform well in doing grammar exercises, they should be able
to use the language in non-classroom activities, express
their ideas in meaningful situations and be able to
communicate with native speakers. Listening skill should
precede speaking skill. The pupils should be made to
internalize the sounds before they are asked to pronounce
them. In addition, the teacher should be familiar with the
kinds of errors that the pupils make frequently and he
should know when and how to correct them.

Contrastive - Error Analysis

In the 1960's, when the Skinnerian theory of
behaviorism was exerting an influence in the field of second
language learning theory, errors were considered "like sin"
(Brooks, 1960); they were evidence of non-learning and were
to be avoided. It was during this era that Lado (1957)
hypothesized that learners apply knowledge of their first
language (L1) to the learning of a new language.
According to behaviorists, the notion of interference had a central place in second language acquisition. Theorists believed that errors were the result of negative transfer from a learner's first language. In order to predict the difficulty that the learner would encounter in the process of language learning, a procedure called contrastive analysis became a pedagogical tool. Teachers were to identify those areas in which L1 and the second language (L2) differ so as to foresee possible problematic transfer from L1 to L2; that information was expected to help them plan instruction tailored to the students' needs.

The rationale of contrastive analysis has three aspects: positive transfer, negative transfer and zero transfer. The notion of positive transfer included those instances in which the phonology and syntax of a learner's first language and the target language were identical, so that the learner could take advantage of the similarity. The notion of negative transfer was comprised of those cases in which one language possessed features that the other lacked and finally, zero transfer referred to those components not common to either language. Thus, the difficulty of mastering the comparative adjectives would fall into a category of negative transfer for Togolese learners of English as a foreign language because the English particle /than/ does not exist in Ewe.
Contrastive analysis, however, lacked an empirical database. Therefore, when researchers started examining language-learner language in depth, a gap between theory and reality became apparent. Hernandez-Chavez's study in 1972, for example, indicated that errors are not necessarily traceable to the learner's first language. The study showed that although Spanish plurals are similar to English plurals, Spanish-speaking learners still have problems in learning English plurals. This notion of developmental errors became the popular view during the 1970's. Dulay and Burt (1974) stated that research evidence drawn from the actual speech of children learning English as a second language showed that children do not use their "first language habits" in the process of learning the syntax of their new language (p. 134). Because predicted difficult areas that the learner may encounter are not always accurate, and because students with different native languages often make the same errors, researchers began to view errors from another perspective. This view meant that errors were not evidence of non-learning, and all errors were not the result of interference from the learner's native language. On the contrary, the view was that errors are caused either by difficulties in the target language itself, or from developmental causes.

Error analysis is a field which deals with the investigation of the language of second language learners.
Researchers like Bertkau (1974) have stressed that the child is an active participant in language learning and that the structure of the first language is the learner's first hypothesis about the second language. Many of them have agreed that the rules of the second language are determined from the structures of the second language and the errors indicate a search for regularities in the second language. Corder (1971) suggested that the language of the learner is a special sort of dialect with its own set of rules. Some of the rules of the dialect are peculiar to the learner's native language, others are to the target language and the rest to the learner. Corder (1967) revealed that in language teaching, there have been two schools of thought concerning learners' errors. The first one claimed that if there were to be a perfect teaching method, errors would never be committed and therefore, the occurrence of errors should be viewed as merely a sign of the present inadequacy of our teaching approaches. The other school of thought maintained that the world is imperfect and, consequently, errors always occur despite teachers' best efforts. Therefore, it was suggested that instructors concentrate on teaching techniques which deal with errors. The view was that teachers not regard a learner's errors as signs of failure and giving up, but simply as evidence of the learner's strategies of learning the foreign language. Corder's (1967) words reveal this perspective:
We cannot really teach language, we can only create conditions in which it will develop spontaneously in the mind in its own way. We shall never improve our ability to create such favorable conditions until we learn more about the way a learner learns and what his built-in syllabus is. When we do know this we may begin to be more critical of our cherished notions. We may be able to allow the learner's innate strategies to dictate our practice and determine our syllabus. We may learn to adapt ourselves to his needs rather than impose upon him our preconceptions of how he ought to learn, what he ought to learn and when he ought to learn it. (p. 169)

In order to understand the process of second language learning, researchers attempted to identify the source of learners' errors. Larry Selinker (1972), identified five possible sources of errors. (1) language transfer (transfer errors), (2) transfer of training (errors produced by teachers or training techniques used in the process of teaching), (3) strategy of learning (those created by the learner while being exposed to the new language), (4) strategy of communication (those errors produced in the learner's attempt to communicate with native speakers of the target language in real life settings), and finally (5) overgeneralization of linguistic materials (which includes errors made when the learner attempts to merely play with the new language) [1972, p 216-17].

It is very difficult to determine which errors are caused by interference and which are developmental in nature. A number of studies have investigated this problem. Dulay and Burt (1974) investigated the issue of interference
errors. They collected data from Spanish-speaking children learning English and identified 85% of the errors as developmental, 12% as unique, and only 3% as interference errors. Dulay and Burt concluded that children do not compare the L2 with the L1, but rather they rely on their ability to construct the L2 as an independent system.

Other research, however, showed little agreement with respect to the proportion of errors that can be identified as transfer errors. Tran-Chi-Chau’s (1974) study of Chinese adults indicated that 51% of the errors made were of the interference type. Lott (1983) investigated Italian adults and reported that 50% were interference errors. In contrast, George (1973) and Flick (1980) claimed a lower percentage of interference errors than Tran-Chi-Chau and Lott. George studied adults with mixed first languages and reported 33% interference errors. Flick, who studied Spanish adults, reported 31% interference errors. These contradictory results are, in part, due to differences of definition of error types.

Taylor (1975) administered a test requiring the written English translation of eighty Spanish sentences, to twenty native Spanish students of ESL at the elementary and intermediate levels. The results indicated that the errors made by the elementary and intermediate students were not qualitatively different. Taylor found that the elementary subjects’ reliance on the transfer strategy was higher than
that of the intermediate subjects, and the intermediate subjects' reliance on the overgeneralization strategy was found to be higher than that of the elementary subjects. He concluded that based on Ausubel's (1967) theory, elementary learners rely on their native languages because of their lack of familiarity with the new linguistic system, but learners gradually start to rely on their knowledge of the target languages. These findings appear to be consistent with Ausubel's theory—from the known to the unknown—which considers second language acquisition to be a process, dependent on a student's ability to assimilate and subsume new information into already existing cognitive structures.

Language teachers and researchers' interest has emphasized an attempt to understand how to help the language learner to become proficient in a target language. Interlanguage studies provide insight into the sequence that learners follow when they learn a language. On the one hand, researchers of both cross-sectional studies and longitudinal studies of interlanguage seem to agree that there is a natural order of language development, irrespective of differences in language background, age, or situation. On the other hand, researchers are also aware of the necessity to account for the variability of interlanguage. Thus, a foreign language teacher must correct the assignment he/she gives his/her students so that he/she may see whether the vocabulary, structure, and the
idioms that have been taught are applied in the right way. This technique serves as feedback the teacher receives because not only does it reveal the students' mastery of the material but it does tell the teacher whether he/she has taught the way it should be done.

In an article entitled "Some controversies in present day error analysis," Nickel (1989) revealed that the interlanguage discussion on the relationship between contrastive analysis (CA) and error analysis (EA) with the phenomenon of interlanguage (IL) that has been held for the last twenty-five years is not over. There are so many variables in foreign language learning. He stressed that the relationship between contrastive errors caused by native language interference and non-contrastive errors caused by native language interference and non-contrastive errors have been treated differently by various researchers and he suggested that more foreign language experiments be undertaken and social and personal factors be emphasized. His explanation was that under conditions of stress, such as examinations, language problems increase, even in the case of intelligent students. Inhibited and introverted learners succumb to interference, particularly in situations where spontaneous responses are called for.

Carlisle's (1989) descriptive cross-sectional study described and rated the writing of Hispanic students in a bilingual program and compared their writing with that of
Hispanic students in a submersion program and with native English speakers in a regular program. Five dependent variables were investigated: rhetorical effectiveness, overall quality of writing, productivity, syntactic maturity and error frequency. Analyses of variance for both grade and program revealed that the sixth grade subjects averaged 160 more words than the fourth grade subjects, or nearly 23 words more per essay. Considering that the average length of an essay in the current sample was 94 words the sixth grade subjects wrote essays that were nearly 25% longer than those written by the fourth grade subjects. In addition, the sixth grade subjects also wrote significantly longer T-units than the fourth grade subjects, the average difference being 1.71 words per T-units. Finally, the average number of errors per T-unit by the fourth and sixth grade subjects were not significantly different; whereas the fourth grade subjects made an average of 2.25 errors per T-unit, the sixth grade subjects had an average of 1.88 errors per T-unit a difference of .37 errors per T-unit. Thus, the fourth grade subjects made one more error for every three T-units than the sixth grade subjects.

A summary of the previous section stresses that in the 1960's, the behaviorists regarded errors as evidence of non-learning and errors were to be avoided at all costs. The rationale for contrastive analysis has three aspects: positive transfer, negative transfer and zero transfer. The
difficulty in mastering the comparative adjectives would fall into the negative transfer for the subjects in this study because the particle /than/ in English does not exist in Ewe. Corder revealed that in language teaching, there have been two schools of thought about learners' errors. One perspective claimed that if teaching method were perfect, there would be no errors, and in this case, errors should be viewed as a sign of deficiency in teaching approaches. The other maintained that the world is imperfect and as a result errors will always occur, no matter how hard teachers try. Selinker identified language transfer, transfer of training, strategy of learning, strategy of communication and over-generalization of linguistic materials as the major sources of errors. Interlanguage studies seem to provide insight into the sequence that learners follow when they learn a language. For this reason, contrastive-error analysis fits well into this chapter because it helps the researcher to find the sources of errors when the subjects describe the pictures in Ewe, French and English, translate the passages and answer the open-ended question.
Comparative Adjectives

The studies on adjectives and their comparison in English are few, except discussions in Jespersen (1917, 1929), Sapir (1949) and Small (1923, 1929) contain many interesting statements about the semantic relationships between comparative structures and others. The Donaldson and Balfour (1968) study on markedness showed that /more/, the unmarked form of the comparative adjective is acquired by children before its marked counterpart /less/, and that /less/ gets interpreted by children during a certain stage of language development as if it were synonymous with /more/. In addition to markedness, the Clark and Card (1969) experiment revealed that sentences using unmarked comparative adjectives such as /better/ are other things equal remembered more accurately than sentences using marked comparative adjectives such as /worse/ with the latter type of adjective often being simplified to the unmarked form /better/ in tasks involving sentence recall. The evidence from Igbo and other West African languages shows that there are languages which do not make use of a marked comparative construction.

Celce-Murcia (1972) conducted an experiment to determine the relative frequency of marked and unmarked forms, focusing on speech production of the comparative degree. The experiment was designed using the logical equivalence or random chance expectations as the null
hypothesis "A is more/greater than B" and B is less than A" would occur about an equal number of times. The notion of lexical markedness would predict on the other hand that "A is more /greater than B would occur rather significantly than "B is less than A."

Thirty six pairs of stimuli were used for the study. Each pair consisted of two objects that were similar except for a difference in one measurable dimension. The thirty six pairs of stimuli represented one of three categories that might prove to be qualitatively different. One twelve-pair category consisted of stimuli having "intrinsic" norms e.g., pencils, buttons, ribbons. The second category of twelve pairs consisted of stimuli that described "extrinsic" norms e.g., triangles, circles, and pieces of string. The third twelve pair category consisted of stimuli that represented quantities e.g., quantities of salt, flour, nuts.

Within each of the three pair categories the objects used were varied so that each one of the six proportions—all of which are possible when comparing measurements—could be tested. The stimuli were chosen and the paired objects were used to elicit one of the pairs of "marked" and "unmarked" comparatives. The subjects were volunteers, the majority of whom were the University of California at Los Angeles' undergraduates taking introductory courses in linguistics. All the subjects were native speakers of English.
Altogether, 40 subjects were tested (20 female and 20 male). The study showed three results. (i) Unmarked adjectives occur significantly more frequently than marked adjectives when a speaker of English uses the comparative of degree to express a difference in a measurable property (length, width, weight, amount) with respect to two otherwise identical objects. (ii) Sex was not a factor in the number of unmarked versus the number of marked forms used by a given subject. (iii) The hypothesis regarding the markedness values assigned to the numbers of each pair was supported. For the fact that the comparative of adjectives is not universally used in the same manner in all languages, it is useful to summarize, in the following pages, some of the research on this topic in other languages.

Because unmarked comparatives are by definition acceptable in nearly all environments, Ssensalo (1976) chose a factor dealing with the acceptability of marked qualifiers. In her experiment, fifteen students were from a literature class and thirty eight were from the TESL. The participants, who were all native speakers of English were given written tests and asked to either circle or fill in what they felt was an appropriate response. For each test section, subjects were given a time limit of four minutes so that their answers would be spontaneous and uncomposed. Responses to questions were recorded separately since they involved choices between two prefixed comparatives, rather
than one prefixed and one unprefixed one. Her findings underlined a definite, though not overwhelming tendency for unprefixed comparatives to exceed negatively prefixed ones in frequency. They also showed that prefixes were not the only factor that determined the frequency of a word, but that the ideas and implications associated with the vocabulary item were also important. Her study provided an identification of rules or conditions that governed the choice of marked and unmarked comparatives and which when properly applied, could improve the ESL student's usage of these structures.

Vannucchi (1977) stated that there are many possibilities for Portuguese speakers to express degrees of adjectives in the areas of the comparatives and superlatives. According to this researcher, the use of the comparative and superlative of adjectives in Portuguese is very complex as can be seen in the next few pages.

There is one main deep structure and a few rules that are responsible for the generation of an infinite number of surface structure manifestations. A group of finite rules is able to generate an infinite number of grammatical sentences in which the comparative adjectives occur.

- particle of the comparative + the sentence.
- Comparative of equality (e.g., t o como) = as adj. as {like}
- Superiority (mais (do) que) = more adj. than
- inferiority (menos (do) que) = less adj. than
It is interesting to note that /como/ can be substituted by /quanto/ or /que nem/.

(e.g., Joao e tao alto como Maria). John is as tall as Maria
(e.g., Joao e mais alto (do) que Maria). John is taller than Maria
(e.g., Joao e menos alto (do) que Maria). John is less tall than Maria

Variations of rule: When one has the comparative of equality used with /como/ or /que nem/ the tao of the first part can be omitted or moved to another position in the sentence.

... Joao e o alto como Maria.

que nem

In another variation, the adjective can be distributed in the surface structure, resulting in sentences like:

Joao e como Maria: alto (tambem)=also

... que nem

... John is like Mary: tall.

Variation of the rule when using the comparative of superiority or inferiority does not exist. What varies is the choice of adjective; this choice is ruled rather by social or literary prestige where people prefer to substitute the adjective by a more "accepted" adjective.

Comparative of superiority.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mais</th>
<th>Alto</th>
<th>(Do)</th>
<th>Que Maria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grande</td>
<td>Maior</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bom</td>
<td>Mellior</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mau</td>
<td>Pior</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Comparative of inferiority

Joao e menos (do) que Maria
grande Maior
bom Mellior
Mau Flor

Portuguese is potentially rich in expressing comparative adjectives. If this fact has confused many traditional grammarians, one can see that all the variations can be phrased down to the simple rule of the deep structure which generates an infinite number of uses of the comparative adjectives. Vannucchi has also provided the reader with many more examples of rule variation and use especially with the superlatives which are not the focus of the present study.

Kochineva (1979) discussed the various syntactic, morphological and semantic differences in the comparison of adjectives, adverbs and the words that indicate condition in the Russian language. In modern linguistics, it is considered that the degrees of these parts of speech are the same in general but only differ from the syntactic and semantic points of view. In the textbooks used in Russia at the University and high school levels, to teach Russian, emphasis is put on the syntactic and analytic ways of formation of comparative degrees of adjectives and adverbs. In the textbooks used in the elementary schools, the problem
centers around the features and differences in the formation of the comparative of adjectives and adverbs.

It is interesting to note that the words indicating condition in Russian are not studied as separate parts of speech and it is the duty and responsibility of the teachers to know the different homonymic adjectives and adverbs as well as their comparative and superlative degrees. The teacher should be well aware of the formation of the comparative adjectives, adverbs, and the words indicating condition in order to teach them.

In Russian, the formation of the comparative degrees of superiority and inferiority of adjectives is made with the help of words like /more/ and /less/ and each of them would have six forms; there is also a syntactic way of forming comparative adjectives and adverbs with the help of prefixes and suffixes to the adjectives or adverbs. In the majority of the cases, in Russian grammar, the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives and adverbs are studied together. Like most of the Indo-European languages, Latin grammar has some influence on the Russian grammar.

To sum up the formation of the comparative and superlative degree of adjectives, adverbs and the words indicating condition are very similar but are not the same. They have morphological and typical differences but in some cases, they can be homonyms.
Lundin (1980) reported that degrees of adjectival comparison are poorly represented in Semitic languages, and only in Arabic are there morphological means to express such categories; all other Semitic languages use descriptive or syntactic clues. In Arabic, the system of comparative of adjectives is not complete and a lot of relationship between words is shown with the help of description. Arabic, for example, has no form for the superlative or elative degree. Special attention is given to the diachronic development of the Arabic comparative based on southern Arabian inscriptions. In the analysis, Lundin put emphasis on the formation of the comparative degree of feminine adjectives in Ugarit, Akkad, Kushit, Chad and various Ethiopian Semitic languages.

Patrice French (1981) analyzed the comparatives in which ninety six undergraduates took part in return for class credit. Stimulus pictures were constructed in the following manner: two adjectives were chosen (long- short and high-low ) that were presented in both affect-congruent (AC) and affect-incongruent (AI) contexts. The adjective pair/long-short/ was presented in pictures describing both /long-short hair/ (AC) and /long-short skirt/ (AI). High-low was presented both in pictures in which two women were on stairs, one on a higher level than the other (AC) and in pictures in which one had a very high neckline and the other a very low one (AI). Thus, eight pictures were
described in terms of a three factor design. The results revealed that neither factor A, B nor C was significant as a main effect determining the ordering of terms. The only significant result was the interaction of content and presentation order as predicted by Osgood (1971). The results demonstrated that the natural preference for unmarked to marked ordering predicted by linguistic marking required the congruence of affective meaning.

While Donaldson, Balfour, Celce-Murcia, Ssensalo and French concentrated on the marked and unmarked comparative of adjectives, Klein (1982) presented a truth conditional semantics (which is a simpler and more readable version of his 1980's paper) for simple adjectival comparatives. His main idea was that semantics should hug closely to the surface syntax of the construction and should not depend on postulating degrees or extents as primitive entities. He raised a number of objectives which did not stem from any general antipathy to the use of logical tools in semantics theory. He pointed out that the logical languages adopted lacked those features of natural language which he claimed, provided the key to understanding comparatives. Finally he emphasized that the main symptom of this deficiency was a tendency for semantic representations of comparatives to be excessively abstract in relation to the sentences they purported to represent. He argued that adjectives that use degree for comparatives and equatives are vague and there is
not always a clear dividing line between things they are true of and things they are false of.

Gitterman and Johnston (1983) in their study explored factors other than the concept of comparison which influence the learning of specific comparative adjective forms, namely (a) the nature of the perceptual input and (b) the nature of the event. Thirty subjects aged 4: 5 to 7: 9 were asked to describe objects reflecting various attribute differences in both multiple-object comparison and single-object, dynamic-change tasks. Children used comparative adjectives to talk about dynamic changes prior to static comparisons, and attributes based on visual or tactile input were easier than those based on both. The results of the study indicated that perceptual cue redundancy and heterogeneity affects the learning of attribute dimensions, and that children first use the /er/ suffix in a non comparative sense. The results point to three distinct phases in children’s mastery of comparative expressions; even before young children demonstrate an ability to compare objects according to their relative positions along a dimensional continuum, they use comparative adjectives to talk about within-object changes. In addition, children use comparative adjectives to express mature notions of between-objects comparison, but only for certain dimensional attributes such as size. Finally, they construct a wide variety of attribute dimensions and extend their comparative
expressions to these new domains. Progress during this latter phase seems to be influenced in part by the redundancy and heterogeneity of the perceptual cues which are available to aid children in their developmental tasks.

Seuren (1984) pointed out that quantitative comparison of unequal entities is expressed in many different ways in the languages of the world. Furthermore, there are the /than/ languages which have a semantically non-transparent particle to link up the two terms of comparison, as well as a morphological or lexical marking expressing the notion /more/ or the notion /less/. Some languages, moreover, sometimes have a /more/ marking on the adjective. Surinam Creole, has besides a /than comparative/, also a comparative with the serial verb /psa/ (meaning exceed) but with the adverb /moro/ (meaning more) to modify the adjective. Besides, in many West African languages as well as in many Creoles whose speakers originate from West Africa, one finds a rich and reproductive use of serial verb constructions alongside with frequent reanalysis of serial verbs into prepositions, adverbs and particles.

Seuren stressed that the /than/ languages are the least transparent of all, which probably explains why their constructions of comparison are so complex. What is known of the history of the comparative constructions in at least the Germanic and the Romance languages indicates that older stages of the construction in these languages were more
transparent. In his analyses, he revealed that although many, perhaps even most, historical details are shrouded in mystery and may even remain that way forever, enough is known to assert with some confidence that the European/than comparatives/ derived historically from semantically more transparent constructions. Thus, a confirmation is provided by Italian which has two comparative particles, /di/ (from Latin/de/meaning/from/) and /che/ (from/ the Italian counterpart of French meaning/que/). (p. 123)

The overall conclusion of Seuren's article is that one must seriously reckon with the possibility that comparatives are the result of historically preceding semantically transparent constructions into either new construction types or already existing grammatical categories. The /than comparatives/ by themselves typically form new construction types in the languages where they develop.

Leon Stassen (1984) argued that from a universal point of view, the comparative construction should not be looked upon as "a primitive" or "autonomous" construction type; rather, its particular formal manifestation in a given natural language can, to some extent, be predicted from the formal manifestation of other syntactic patterns occurring in that language. In this way, the universal investigation of comparative constructions may be of interest to syntacticians, semanticists and cognitive psychologists alike. The data upon which this cross-linguistic survey of
comparatives is based is gained from a sample of 110 languages, chosen from genetically diverse language families, and in each of these languages, the linguistic manifestation of the comparative construction is identified.

The result of this research is relevant to those investigators who are interested in the development of a formal semantic theory for comparative constructions. The researcher felt that attempts in this area have been, so far, hampered considerably by the fact that they are commonly based upon an analysis of the English comparative. It is rather unfortunate, given the highly marked status of the particle comparative in English and other European languages. Thus, cross-linguistic work may contribute to the insight that the English comparative, when seen in the light of more general universal facts, is a hybrid construction which combines characteristics of various different construction types available in the language. It may be expected that this insight will have its repercussions on the form which a semantic theory of comparison in English should be assumed to take.

Andres Romero-Figueroa (1986) made an analysis of comparative structures in Warao (language spoken in Venezuela). In his study, he has his linguistic entities drawn from a seventeen language sample. Figueroa stated that in Warao, the grammatical categories involved in comparison are adjectives, adverbs, nouns and verbs. He
demonstrated that Warao has comparative of equality. In general, the data has suggested that grammatical equality similar to English, same, like alike, equal etc., is prevalent in the language. The understanding of how comparison works in Warao is facilitated if a review of the syntax of the basic sentence of the language is offered.

Structurally speaking, fully expressed adjectival comparatives in Warao consist of two juxtaposed sentences, one containing standard of comparison and the other containing topic of comparison. Some constituents which are repeated in the standard of comparison and topic of comparison sentences, that is to say, constituents that are common to both, are often left out, and the remaining are joined together to give rise to the corresponding comparative unit. Figueroa has stressed that all languages within the Romance family still use a few synthetic comparative adjectives inherited from their mother Latin. This shows that the Indo-European languages have been influenced by Latin.

Rusiecki (1987) has given a clearer picture of the comparatives. He introduces a number of terms and concepts that play a crucial role in the book, discusses certain problems related to the derivation and interpretation of comparatives and even argues against the widely postulated theory that comparatives should be derived from positives. In addition, he cites examples and designs items to elicit
information concerning the semantic interpretation of sentences with gradable adjectives. He then argues that the semantic interpretation of adjectives in predicative function is largely valid also for adjectives in attributive function.

Furthermore, the author summarizes the result of his investigation and reveals that the semantic analysis of any sentence with a gradable adjective in predicative function must take into account several factors.

It is unfortunate that his discussion of negation used in the comparatives is not adequate. In French, it is common place to have a negative element in a sentence where the comparative particle is not isomorphic with a negative, adversative or disjunctive conjunction.

Elle est plus lourde que je (ne) pensais
. . . . . (She is heavier than I thought)
. . . . . C’est plus difficile que je (ne le) croyais
. . . . . (It is more difficult than I thought)

Rusiecki’s study reveals that comparative of adjectives in today’s English, refuse to be neatly classified; one can see that it is often very difficult to elucidate the relevant semantic parameters and their interaction in sentences introduced by /than/. Small (1923) summarized this difficulty in these terms:

By a comparative study of the related languages, I have brought out that the adversative relation which is very evident in the phenomenon of comparison in English, is genuine Germanic idiom. It is this feature in English comparison, especially in the particle /than/ that forms the
semantic connection or link between our speech and the older members of the Indo European family.

Alvre (1987) reported a study on the synthetic equative degree of adjectives in Finno Baltic languages. It is noted that only a few Indo European languages are able to express equation synthetically; various examples from Celtic dialects are cited. It is observed that equative adjectives are rare also in Finno-Ugric languages with the exception of the Finno Baltic group where two types of equative constructions occur; suffixed adjectives and patterns of the two types of equative constructions are examined and word formational models are identified for various Finno-Baltic languages. The findings of the study show that the equative, both in Celtic and Finno-Baltic languages is relatively late formation.

Vorotnikov's (1987) study examined the comparative degree in Russian belletristics. It found that the particle /po/ is used to create an "emotional atmosphere" and stimulate the reader/hearer to a certain reaction. Coercive, informational and communicative functions of the particle are distinguished and its meanings in each of these functions are identified. In the informational function, the particle /po/ is used to express (1) the largest possible degree of a given feature in a given situation; (2) a weak low manifestation of the feature compared in two carriers and (3) the initial stage of the
increase/decrease of a feature manifestation. In the coercive function, /po/ conveys the speaker’s positive evaluation of the content of the expression. In the communicative function, the particle /po/ is used to (A) soften the negative evaluation on the part of the hearer or the positive evaluation on the part of the speaker (B) mollify the hearer’s probable objection and (C) soften the expression of need or request.

Manfred Bierwisch (1988) outlined a theory of gradation that builds upon a number of previous analyses, preserving as far as possible the concepts that have already been clarified but modifying the structure of earlier proposals in crucial respects. The reason for adding a new theory to those already existing is two-fold. First, the new theory accounts for a number of relevant facts that have systematically been ignored by early analyses. Secondly, it relates these facts to those already analyzed in a way which does not merely give a descriptive account but rather an explanation in terms of a few underlying conditions from which the whole range of facts follow in a natural way. To conclude, Bierwisch lists the main points that the theory shares with some or all of its predecessors and those in which it differs from them.

In short, one of the most basic and powerful of human cognitive processes is the ability to comprehend and express the fact that there is some similarity or difference between
two things. Usually, such a similarity or difference is expressed in terms of degree, extent or quality.

The Donaldson and Balfour study showed that /more/, the unmarked form of the comparative adjective is acquired by children before its marked counterpart /less/. The Clark and Card experiment revealed that /better/ is remembered more accurately than /worse/. The Celce-Murcia study showed three results: unmarked adjectives occurred more frequently than marked adjectives; sex was not a factor in the number of unmarked vs the number of marked form used by a given subject, and the hypothesis regarding the markedness values assigned to the numbers of each was supported. Ssensalo’s finding underlined a definite, though not overwhelming tendency for unprefixed comparatives to exceed negatively prefixed ones in frequency. Kochineva pointed out that in Russian, the formation of the comparative and superlative of adjectives is very similar but it is not the same. Adjectives do have morphological and typical differences but in some cases, they can be homonyms. Romero-Figueroa’s study suggested that grammatical equality similar to English (same, like, alike, equal, etc.) is present in Warao. Rusiecki’s analysis gave an extensive description of the comparatives but his discussion of the negative and comparative is not satisfactory. Nevertheless, his study revealed that the comparative of adjectives in contemporary English has refused to be neatly classified.
In the preceding section, it was stated that all languages have ways of expressing comparison but that the devices used differ greatly from one language to another. Depending on the types of comparatives used in the native language of the students, different types of problems will occur, especially at the initial stage of learning. And for that reason, this review of studies on comparatives is incorporated in this chapter to serve as a background in the present study.

**Teacher Training**

The previous three sections dealt with the content of studies of English as a foreign language. However, the training of teachers is also important because Rivers (1987) pointed out "first, in all teaching, comes the student—the raison d’être of teaching". (p. 5) Teachers need to know the needs of the students, their ways of learning and what interests them most. For these reasons, teachers need to be trained in order that they may shoulder their responsibility and achieve their goals and objectives.

Professional development is an on-going activity that helps teachers to develop and maintain their professional growth. Teachers need to keep abreast of the expanding pool of knowledge. In the twentieth century, knowledge is quickly outdated and newly created knowledge will affect the direction that language teaching will take and the roles
that language teachers will play. For this reason, Mary Ashworth (1985) stated:

Unless teachers keep up-to-date through personal reading and retraining, they will be in no position to control their futures. (p. 136.)

François Wess (1972) recommended video micro-teaching in that the student teacher can use it in presenting a lesson to his peers, or to a small group of students, and at the same time, technical coordinators can observe him and take notes. In addition, at the end of the lesson, the students are asked to complete a questionnaire based upon his teaching behavior. When the students depart, the student teacher with his colleagues, and the technical coordinators can watch the tape and comment on the teaching behavior. After this critique session and after reading the returned questionnaires from the students, the trainee is asked to teach the same lesson, with the necessary changes to another group. This approach is known as micro teaching; not only does it give the trainee the self evaluation, but the trainee is allowed to view his lesson, analyze his own behavior and try to correct his own mistakes.

De part son efficacité et son caractère centré sur la pratique, le micro-enseignement convient tout particulièrement aux activités de recyclage et de formation continue et la flexibilité de son emploi est telle que son champ d’application s’élargit constamment. (P.37.)

Micro teaching provides opportunities for student teachers to practice the required skills in their classrooms
before their peers, under the supervision of trained and experienced teachers. This technique helps trainees feel at ease in front of a real class situation and enables them to find solutions to problems that may arise.

In a 1986 English Language Teaching Journal entitled "You try doing it with a class of forty," Nolasco and Arthur described some of the problems language teachers have in Morocco. Their report revealed that teachers need to take account of learners' expectations and gradually introduce change. They also found a considerable gap between the theory of communicative methodology and the realities of teaching in classes of forty or more learners. They pointed out that in a secondary school system, learners may be particularly resistant to change if the change that is required of them runs counter to what is taking place elsewhere within the system. The creation of a set of expectations is, therefore, essential to the acceptance of change by learners, who, in turn, have some influence on teachers' behavior. It may be that learners new to language-school situations are more willing to accept something new because they are in a different learning environment from what they have been used to, and therefore the introduction of change is less of a problem. Nolasco and Arthur recommended that teacher trainers focus on student needs and expectations as a starting point and
develop this skill by formulating suggestions for new methodological practices in terms of practical procedures.

Rod Ellis (1986) emphasized that in comparison to the richness of the debate about the English Language Teaching practices, teacher-training practices for the English Language Teaching have received relatively little attention. Ellis has developed a schema in which a broad distinction between experiential and awareness raising practices is made. He provided an analytical framework for describing the various kinds of activities that can be used and the different training procedures for exploiting them. He suggested that if teacher trainers were to develop their understanding of teacher-training practices further, they would need also to decide upon evaluative criteria for making selections from the range of options, both in training plans and implementing programs. Teacher-training practices can be divided into those that are experiential and those that are awareness-raising. Experiential practices involve the trainee in actual training; this occurs through teaching practice which the trainees are required to teach actual students in real classrooms, "or the actual teaching can take place in 'simulated' practice when the trainees engage in peer teaching. Awareness-raising practices are intended to develop the trainees' conscious understanding of the principles involved
in EFL teaching or the techniques that the teachers can use in different kinds of lessons". (pp. 91-92).

The article stressed that the two types of practices are not exclusive; teacher training will often involve both kinds, although it is true that experiential practices are more common in pre-service teacher-training. Experiential and awareness-raising practices need not be separated; they can be combined in a single activity.

George Terroux (1988) described teacher training courses that could act both as a stop-gap in emergency situations, and as an integral part of a more elaborated teacher-training project. Although the purpose of this project was to train EFL teachers in Hispanic countries, it had a lot of relevance for Canadian teachers and trainers as well as Canadian ESL specialists who were involved in its production there. Local specialists were trained in using the material in the training of EFL student-teachers. Both teacher-training material and personnel trained in using it were made available to the Department of Education.

Experience drawn from the project suggested that video, as a medium, can be effective but it, too, has its limitations. Secondly, relevant, print material can help the students learn the foreign or second language. Thirdly, according to Savignon (1983), "materials are but a starting point. Teachers are the ones who make materials work. They make
them work for their students and for themselves in the context in which they teach". (p. 138)

The proficiency movement has had influence on student outcomes and curriculum design, but has had less impact on teacher education in Foreign or second language. Bernhardt and Hammadou (1987) revealed two themes in their review of literature on foreign language teacher education: 1) there is a need for more practical training experience, rather than lectures on theory, and 2) there should be more collaboration between university instructors, teachers in the field and preservice teachers-in-training. They also gave recommendations of the kinds of new knowledge that may be provided to teachers and how newly developed instructional materials may be used.

Joiner (1980) called for more integration of laboratory and clinical experiences into the training program and improved working relationships with local school personnel; in addition, she emphasized an experimental approach which seeks to discover new models for teacher education and supervision.

Patrikis (1987) in his article reported that the Consortium has identified the need for improved teacher training.

The need for a joint program to train current teachers of all languages in the Consortium in the most effective methodologies is unanimously recognized. Historically, most of these institutions have not had fully developed programs in applied linguistics, and some have not had
formal programs to train their language teachers be those teachers, professors of literature, graduate students, or native speakers. (p. 423)

Hancock (1981), in his article on teacher education, stressed that continuous updating of guidelines is essential because the realities facing the foreign and second language educator have changed since the 1960s. Hancock, et al (1978) in an effort to provide leadership in revising programs for the training of foreign and second language teachers suggested this model: "practical command of language, language analysis, culture, teaching-learning process and professional awareness." (p. 183)

Fanselow (1987) put emphasis on the "teaching act" which is at the heart of all teacher-learner interactions. He proposed that teachers be trained to investigate the teaching act; it is a promising means towards raising teachers' awareness to the point where they are able to specify many intangible or unexplained aspects of both successful and not-so-successful lessons.

To sum up his article, Hancock exhorted the educators who design teacher training programs "to establish flexible models of teacher education, models that would allow various designs, - conventional, competency-based and humanistic". (p. 192)

Chastain (1988) offered the profession an introduction to current issues in foreign language teaching. He advised teachers to maintain high standards to educate but not to
entertain, to be sensitive to the delicate interplay among teacher, individual student and class. Two messages could be derived from this book: lessons should be organized around a process approach, including the phases of preview, view and review; and the activities should focus on meaning, moving from presentation to communication.

While the above mentioned scholars concentrated on adequate training of foreign language teachers, Jarvis (1983) laid emphasis on research in teacher education rather than on craft knowledge, research on content coursework; he also stressed field placement and experience, as well as topic sequence in methods courses in communicative language teaching and on supervision. Further study and a database in these areas are needed.

In contemporary foreign language education, the communicative syllabus is the new approach in language teaching and it is a response to social needs of adults. The program takes into consideration the needs of the students. Their motivation is high and most of them have a prior knowledge in their first language. Teachers must be trained in the selection of instructional materials and they need to analyze the kinds of opportunities for communication these materials offer for problem solving, negotiation, and self-expression. In this vein, Omaggio (1986) and Rivers (1987) have recommended authentic materials because they
acquaint the students more directly with real language than any other material used alone.

In brief, Teacher Training is important to a foreign language teacher who is interested in learning about alternative systems for testing or grading his/her pupils; it is beneficial to the one who feels a need to improve his/her relationships with pupils and who is not sure how to begin. Training enables the foreign language teacher to become even more sensitive to individual differences among learners—to learner interests, needs and abilities as well as to differing learning styles. During the training, it is important to have the prospective teachers view a variety of methodologies presented in an objective manner so that they may decide for themselves which teaching methods and classroom activities are best for their particular teaching situations. Howard B. Altman (1979) reiterated training in these words:

"...Training programs must become much broader in scope. Graduate students should benefit from the kind of internship and residency that physicians, undergo prior to receiving a license. Interns and residents perform all the duties of experienced physicians, but they do so under close supervision. By the time their training program is completed, they have demonstrated not only their newly acquired knowledge but also their skills in applying that knowledge. (p. 35)."

Furthermore, training helps the language teachers build upon their past experiences, improve their skills so as to be more efficient in the classroom. Above all, it enables
the foreign language teachers not to become slaves to the textbooks but to be creative especially in using visual aids and other teaching materials to illustrate some grammar points such as the comparative adjectives to their pupils.

Summary

In this chapter, a review of the literature has been presented including: a) studies of second language learning through formal instruction, stressing the flexibility of the teacher and giving importance to listening in the four skills. The differences between child and adult language learning and the differences existing between a foreign language learner and a second language learner were also highlighted; b) studies that illustrate the contrastive-error analysis that deal with the investigation of the language of the second language learners and advise teachers not to regard learners' errors as signs of inhibition but simply as evidence of their strategies of learning; c) studies of the comparative of adjectives in different languages revealing that the devices used differ greatly from one language to another; and d) studies that highlight foreign language teacher training with a specific interest in technology, micro teaching, and recommendations for professional growth that will enhance the teaching of the comparative adjectives in Togolese high schools.
We are in an era where there has been a shift in psychological and linguistic theory; cognitive psychology has supplanted behaviorism and generative linguistics has supplanted structuralism. The result is no longer a teacher-centered methodology but a student-centered one which focuses on experiential instruction. Herschensohn (1990) defined it in these lines:

The teacher presents grammar points inductively, using realia in visuals which involve students directly. The target language is used exclusively both to maximize its presence and to reduce grammar explanation to its most succinct form. The teacher is limited to a grammar explanation which is comprehensible to students at a given level. (p. 456)

In teacher training, prospective teachers should be taught that in their grammar presentations, the students should participate in the target language and the students should be able to formulate a simple grammar rule for themselves. This means that although grammar plays a critical role in the classroom, it should not detract from a focus on communicative competence.
CHAPTER III
PROCEDURES

Introduction


Therefore, the researcher has chosen these three methods in addition to a survey and audiotaped interview to collect data.

The present study was conducted to investigate what happens in the Togolese high schools when Togolese teachers
teach the comparative adjectives in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) program. The methods used were picture description, translation, open-ended questions for the pupils, a questionnaire and an audiotaped interview for teachers. These methods were used for the pupils because each one reflects a different elicitation method, not reflected by the other two; they thus, form a unified data base. It was judged that inter-correlations between these variables would yield a higher degree of reliability than either factor alone.

**Methodology**

In this study, the following questions were addressed:

1. What were the errors in the use of comparative adjectives in English, French and Ewe based on the picture?

2. What were the errors in the use of comparative adjectives in English, French and Ewe based on the passage?

3. a) Is there significant difference between performance on pictorial tasks?

   b) Is there significant difference between performance on passage tasks?

4. Are there significant differences by gender, types of school and chronological age of the Togolese high school pupils on the picture and translation tasks?

5. How can English as a Foreign Language teacher training reduce the problem of pupil adjectival usage errors?

   First, picture description below (See Appendix B) has the advantage that the researcher was able to provide
pictorial cues to elicit a particular structure. The subjects were able, however, to provide the simplest structure which satisfied the objective. While the researcher has control over the structures, specifically the use of the correct comparative adjectives, the subject determines the number of the comparison of adjectives he/she may use. Subjects were given three different pictures for which they had to provide descriptions in three languages: English, French and Ewe.

The English picture was taken from *Pronouns Through Pictures* Harris Winitz (1982) p. 26. In picture one, for instance, two families, the Johnsons and the Williams have gathered to celebrate Christmas. Mr. Johnson has a bigger present for his wife. She is happy. On the other hand, Mrs. Williams is angry and disappointed because her parcel looks smaller. In describing the same picture, subjects used adjectives (such as big, small, fat, happy, unhappy, awful, lucky) but in the majority of the cases did not use the comparison of adjectives (e.g., in picture two, they are unhappy because their present isn't big enough). (See Appendix B)

The French picture was taken from *Jeune Afrique* (1990) No. 1514, p. 35. The subjects had to describe the picture. Many of the subjects named the four presidents and labeled them according to their respective countries, but some subjects failed to recognize the leaders by their names.
Others used "papa" to describe Houphouet Boigny. "Papa" in this sense connotes that he is old, if not the oldest of them all. "Eyadema et Mobutu paraissent plus jeunes que les deux autres. Houphouet est plus âgé que Mitterrand" [Eyadema and Mobutu look younger than the other two. Houphouet is older than Mitterand]. (See Appendix C).

The Ewe picture is taken from Nunyawo Gomedzeabale (1975), p. 18. A medical doctor is examining a girl at the hospital. The girl is not as tall as the nurse. Her mother is older than the nurse, and she is sitting watching them. "Dọyọla kple efe kpedẹŋụtọ la le ṣetugbuia ṣe kpọ m. Ṣetugbuila metsi o eye mek abe dọyọ la fe kpedẹŋụtọ ene o. Ṣetugbui la fe dada nọ anyi ṣe zikpui me. Etsi wụ kpedẹŋụtọ la eye wọle wọkọ m". (See Appendix D)

Secondly, the translation task consisted of sentences from Ewe into English, French into English, and English into Ewe. In this task, the subjects had to demonstrate the use of the comparative adjectives for error analysis. In a translation, the investigator focuses on the specific syntactic rules which he likes to test. In this case, he controls the structures under the study, whereas in an open-ended question, the subjects provide the structures. Nickel (1989) has stated that the translation task is not necessarily a type of elicitation resulting in more transfer errors than, for instance, composition. Some students who
are advanced in the foreign language may realize that translations do contain transfer temptations and therefore may be more careful than they would be in answering an open-ended question. In the latter it appears that they neglect form perhaps in lieu of their interest in communication and content. The sentences which the subjects had to translate from Ewe into English were very short. For example, (a) Ami fe kusi la keke wu Ama tɔ e. [English translation] Ami's basket is larger /wider/ bigger than Ama's. (b) Le Adzo Kple Ami dome, amekae dze tugbe wu? [English translation] Between Adzo and Ami, who is the more beautiful/ who is the prettier? In sentence (A) the subjects had to use the comparative degree of superiority. "large, wide and big" are the adjectives to be used. In sentence (B) the subjects had to use the comparative degree instead of the superlative degree because the sentence is referring to two people. (See Appendix E)

In the sentences which the investigator constructed for the subjects to translate from French into English, the vocabulary was simplified to enable the subjects to read and translate with as few obstacles as possible, and to be able to apply the grammar rules of the comparison of adjectives. The purpose was to investigate if they remembered the rules, and to allow the researcher to do an analysis of their errors if there were any.

(a) Un cheval n'est pas aussi rapide qu'un train.
[A horse is not as fast as a train] [English translation]
(b) Koffi est plus âgé que moi, mais je suis plus lourde que lui.
[Koffi is older than I (am) but I am heavier than he (is)]
[English translation] (See Appendix F)
In sentence 'a' (above) the subjects were to use the comparison of equity, negative form (i.e. not as fast as).
A horse is not as fast as a train. In sentence 'b' (above) the subjects were to use the comparative degree of superiority: "old and heavy" are the adjectives: old is a short adjective and heavy is an adjective that ends in "y". Therefore, the subjects were expected to use /older than/ and /heavier than/

In the sentences which the investigator constructed for the subjects to translate from English into Ewe, the vocabulary was at the appropriate level for second year high school pupils, and the only thing they had to demonstrate was the proper use of the comparative adjectives.

(a) Mr. Amouzou who teaches English is as old as Mr. Anani.
[Afetɔ Amouzou sinye Enlisigbe nufiala tsi abe Afetɔ Anani Akɔta nufiala.]

(b) They are much younger than Mr. Adjavor.
[Wo nye ḋekakpui wù Afetɔ Adjavor. (See Appendix G)]
In sentence 'a' (above) the subjects had to use the comparative degree of equity, positive form. "tsi abe".
In sentence 'b' (above) the subjects had to use the comparative degree of superiority. ɖɛkakpui ɯu.

Thirdly, subjects were asked to answer open-ended questions on different topics in Ewe, French and English. According to the Nachmias (1987), the virtue of the open-ended question is that it does not force the respondent to adapt to preconceived answers; having understood the intent of the question, one can express one's thoughts freely, spontaneously, and in one's own language. (p. 257).

The researcher chose this method so that the subjects might generate their own ideas, and grammatical constructions. For the Ewe section, they were asked to write a paragraph in which they compared the members of their family. If the subjects did not have brothers and sisters, they could write about their cousins or about their friends. In the French section, the subjects were requested to write a paragraph in that language in which they compared their activities during the Christmas vacation with the activities they did during summer vacation. In the English section, the respondents were instructed to write a paragraph in the foreign language in which they were to compare the place or the town where they live with some place/town where they had lived in the past.
It was assumed that the three tasks of the pupils—picture description, translation and open-ended question—provide a fuller representation of a pupil’s usage than any one procedure alone.

Population and Sample

The sample consisted of 160 subjects who were randomly selected from four schools. Each school contributed 40 subjects for participation in the study. The population from which sample subjects were drawn was second year high school pupils who are native speakers of Ewe, ranging between eleven and seventeen years old and who were currently studying English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Togo. The information on each subject’s background was obtained through a questionnaire which was distributed at the beginning of the experiment. (See Appendix A)

Second year high school pupils were selected because it is at this stage that the pupils are likely to have language interference problems (Ewe, French and English). Among the four schools selected, two are state-owned, and two are mission schools. These schools were selected because they are representative of Togolese high schools. The quality of instruction in these institutions, the facilities they provide, the quality of the teaching staff and the types of pupils who attend these schools are not significantly different than the average high school in Togo.
Investigating the effect of a particular grammatical concept such as the comparison of adjectives on a picture description, a translation, and an open-ended question task requires subjects to understand how the grammatical concept should be used. The subjects in the study have been studying EFL for two years on the average of four hours a week, and have some background in the use of the comparative adjectives.

Ratings for picture tasks (one and two) used a 9-point likert type rating scale. Picture number 3 used a 4-point likert type rating scale. In order to adjust for differences in the number of likert scale points, all three scales for the three pictures were converted to a 4-point likert scale. This plan allowed for comparing differences between scales having the same number of evaluation points.

Ratings for the passage tasks A, B and C used a thirteen and 8-point likert rating scale. Passages A and B used a 13-point likert type rating scales, whereas passage C used an 8-point likert scale. In order to adjust for differences in the number of likert scale point, all three scales for the passages were converted to an 8-point likert scale. This method allowed for comparison between passages. (See Appendix L)

The open-ended question task was no longer included in the analysis because there were so many missing values.
Research design

To analyze question 1, a tabulation was made consisting of frequencies of the number of incorrect responses and omissions in describing a pictorial scene. In addition, a tabulation was compiled consisting of the type of adjective miscues used in a comparative statement.

To analyze question 2, a tabulation was made of the frequencies of the errors in selecting the correct form of the comparative adjective. Adjectival miscues were identified in subjects' translations from Ewe into English, French into English and from English into Ewe.

To analyze question 3, a one-factor repeated measurement design was employed. The independent variables are the subjects. The dependent variables are scores on pictures A, B, and C.

To analyze question 4, a three factor MANOVA was employed. The independent variables are gender with two levels (male, female), type of school with two levels (government, mission), and chronological age with two levels (11-13, 14-17). The dependent variables are ratings on the pictorial and passage tasks. This procedure would indicate if significant differences exist among the levels of the independent variables on the dependent variables.

For all data, the mean, and the standard deviations were obtained in the analysis. The researcher believes that part of the problem in question 5 stems from lack of
adequate training of teachers. This question is designed to offer possible recommendations to better train our teachers of English. In this way, the number of errors would be reduced and the pupils would be more conscious of the problem. Besides these statistical analyses that were used for the pupils' tasks, a questionnaire as well as audio-taped interviews for the teachers were also employed. Each facet of the research design is outlined below with respect to its function in the collection, and analysis of the data.

Data Collection

Tasks for the pupils

Lococo (1976) used three methods for L2 data collection which were free composition, picture description, and translation. Her comparison was based on percentage of errors in a grammatical category and in a source category. Three procedures were used in eliciting data in this study. First, subjects were given three different pictures which they had to describe in English, French, and Ewe. Secondly, they read three passages, one in each language to be translated (one from Ewe into English, one from French into English and the other from English into Ewe). These translations were necessary in order to determine the types of errors the subjects made in the use of the comparison forms of adjectives in the three languages, and what was the
source of the errors. Furthermore, these translations were needed to find out whether there was greater variation for some error categories in one language than another. Therefore, subjects were asked to translate from Ewe into English, French into English and English into Ewe.

Taped Interviews

The personal interview can be regarded as a face-to-face interpersonal role situation in which an interviewer asks respondents questions designed to obtain answers connected with the research hypotheses. The majority of the interviewees are teachers of English in the schools whose pupils did not participate in the study. It is believed that their responses would shed some light on the way the comparison forms of adjectives is taught in their classes. The investigator explained to the respondents the nature of the questionnaire and asked them to answer in complete sentences.

Nachmias, D. and Chava Nachmias (1987) defined the scheduled-structured interview as an interview in which the questions, their wording and their sequence are the same for every respondent (p. 236). The researcher selected this type of interview for the study in order to ascertain that when variations appear between the responses, they can be attributed to the actual difference between the subjects and not to variations within the interview. These interviews were initially audiotaped and subsequently transcribed by a
native speaker of English who is a graduate student at the Ohio State University. The data and the results of the interviews are presented in Chapter four.

The experimenter visited the four schools and familiarized himself with the subjects, explained the purpose of the research and entertained questions from subjects a few days before the experiment. During the experiment, subjects were tested individually in their classrooms for a period of 55 minutes. At the beginning of the session, subjects received oral instructions from the researcher. These instructions introduced them to the general nature of the task. Subjects were told that they were participating in an experiment in which they had to make use of their knowledge of three languages (Ewe, French, and English) and that their main task was to answer the question as quickly as they could.

The value of the open-ended question is that it does not force the respondent to adapt to preconceived answers. Subjects were informed that the results of the experiment would help improve some aspects of the English Language teaching in Togo because recommendations would be made to the Ministry of Education concerning teacher training and how visual aids should be used in teaching English in the future.
Gaining Access

Understanding the idea of fieldwork relations plays a role in qualitative research. Bogdan (1982) pointed out that "the first problem to face in fieldwork relations is getting permission to conduct your study " (p.120). This investigator gained access to the field by taking these measures:

1. Establishing relationship with DIFOP (Division de la Formation Permanente) Curriculum Development Center in Lome, Togo early in October 1990.

Four months prior to the study, the investigator, in a telephone conversation, contacted the Coordinator of the Eve Division at DIFOP about the steps to take in order to get the permission to conduct the study in the high schools. After discussing the research project with the coordinator, he reassured the investigator that he would do all that was in his authority to alleviate the bureaucratic formalities for the researcher. A week later, the investigator sent the coordinator a letter to thank him for his generosity, and to describe to him in a few lines the purpose of the study. The investigator was then asked to submit a written proposal of the research project to the Director of Scientific Research in Lome and to address subsequent questions to him.

2. Establishing harmony with the Director of Scientific Research February, 1991.
The investigator was in Lome to contact the Director of Scientific Research and was asked to submit a formal application letter, stating the goals and objectives of the research. Fortunately the researcher and the newly appointed Director have known each other for years and he was prompt about processing the administrative formalities. He told the researcher that he would inform the Minister of Education about the urgency of the situation and persuade him to approve of the application and inform the high school authorities about his consent to the research project. (See Appendix H)

3. Establishing rapport with the participants

February 12, 1991

The investigator contacted several high schools in Lome to find out for himself whether Ewe was taught in the second year classrooms and whether there were at least forty Ewe speakers in the class. It was during that exploration that the investigator learned with surprise and dismay that although the school reforms had stipulated that local languages were being taught in schools, they were not taught in all the classes because material and human resources had not be available. The interest in the study of the Ewe language was more felt in Catholic and Protestant religious mission schools than in the government schools. Thus, the government's policy to teach local languages as a means to
rehabilitate cultural values is theoretical but not practical in that not many teachers have been trained to do the job. During the month of February, the investigator was able to select the schools and to explain to the head teachers as well as the teachers of English the purpose, the nature, and the duration of the study. The investigator met with the subjects, familiarized himself with them in the classrooms, explained to them the reason he was in the country, and whether they were willing to participate freely in the study. They agreed, and after the investigator had received a written confirmation for permission from the Minister of Education, a date was set aside to conduct the experiment in the four schools. (See Appendix I)

Instrumentation

In addition, a survey of teachers' background, and their training was distributed to teacher subjects to gather their views about their education level and the type of training they received (in-service training versus pre-service training), the number of years of experience in teaching, the types of schools where they teach, teachers' sex and finally other subjects they may teach. (See Appendix J)

Furthermore, teacher subjects were interviewed, using a preestablished set of questions in English for future analysis. Questions included "What are the most frequent
errors the pupils make in speaking, reading and writing English?" The researcher insisted if they could give a few examples to illustrate the errors. They were also asked how they present grammar to their pupils, whether or not they were satisfied with the way the comparison of adjectives is presented in their textbooks, and how cultural information is presented in their textbooks.

The results of these two qualitative data gathering procedures were tabulated to show if the pupils in the government schools did significantly better than those in the mission schools.

**Pupils’ Questionnaire**

The questionnaire in Ewe, French, and English was constructed within the language level of the pupils so that they might be at ease in performing the task required of them. The materials and tasks were appropriate in form and content with the level of the pupils’ proficiency. The level of linguistic and cultural difficulties of the sentences was determined at the Division de la Formation Permanente (DIFOP) in Togo. This institution has as its major function the curriculum development and workshop for teachers. Items of the instrument were presented to a six-member committee who rated each item with regard to level of linguistic difficulty, and cultural authenticity. Item changes were made in accordance with their
recommendations and suggestions. These recommendations consisted of modifying the length of the translation passages and the selection of authentic pictures as representations of the three languages.

In summary, the following procedures were implemented in this study. A total of 160 subjects consisting of Ewe speakers in their second year of high school in Togo. Subjects were studying EFL. The researcher prepared three sets of stimulus materials for the subjects, and the study took place in March, 1991 in four high schools in Togo, two state-owned and two mission institutions.

**Pilot Study**

The researcher recruited ten francophone African students at the Ohio State University to pilot test the procedures of the study. This was a necessary step before conducting the study in Togo in order to determine clarity of instructions and whether or not the tasks for the pupils, especially in French and English, would function properly. There were also two Ewe speakers who took part in the pilot study in the Fall of 1990. It was determined from the results of the pilot study that the long sentences in the translation passages should be eliminated and that the Ewe picture be changed into a hospital scene because it conformed more to the cultural values of the Togolese pupils. Based on the pilot test, long sentences in the
translation passages were shortened and reworded. In addition, the Ewe picture was changed to show a doctor and a nurse who were attending a patient whose mother sat watching them in a Togolese hospital.
CHAPTER IV
ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

In chapter 1, the problem, purpose, significance, and limitations of the study were defined and discussed. In addition, the five research questions were presented. Chapter 2 contained a review of related literature in the areas of language learning, contrastive-error analysis, comparative adjectives, and teacher training. The focus of the chapter was devoted to studies of the comparative adjectives in different languages revealing that the devices used differ from one language to another. In Chapter 3, the method and the sources of techniques employed to collect and analyze the data were described.

The present chapter is concerned with the analysis and presentation of data collected in the study. Data were obtained from 160 subjects in four high schools in Togo (West Africa). The overall goal of the study was to determine the extent to which high school pupils between the ages of 11 and 17 years have achieved mastery of the use of comparative adjectives in English as a foreign language. In this regard, the investigation sought to answer the following questions:
1. What were the errors in the use of comparative adjectives in English, French, and Ewe based upon a picture stimulus?
2. What were the errors in the use of comparative adjectives in English, French, and Ewe based upon a passage?
3. (A) Is there a significant difference between performance on pictorial tasks?
   (B) Is there a significant difference between performance on passage tasks?
4. Are there significant differences by gender, type of school, or chronological age of the Togolese high school pupils on the picture and translation tasks?
5. How can English as a Foreign Language teacher training reduce the problem of pupil adjectival usage errors?

Each hypothesis was examined based on data gathered from the subjects concerning comparative adjective usage in Ewe, French, and English as well as the questionnaire and taped interviews given to the teachers of English in Togo. The data analysis was conducted using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) at the Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. The following section presents data categorized by research question:
What were the errors in the use of comparative adjectives in English, French, and Ewe based upon the picture stimulus?

In describing a picture in English, subjects used a series of adjectives whose frequency of occurrence and percentage are as follows:

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjectives</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>big</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>35.62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a small present</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>31.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happy</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>23.12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not happy</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>angry</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unhappy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>former couple, latter couple</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad mood</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>big present than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.87%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2

Adjective Usage in Picture Description in French

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Usage Examples</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subjects who did not write Eyadema</td>
<td>1.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects who mistook Mobutu for Kerekou</td>
<td>1.87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects who mistook Mobutu for Sekou Toure</td>
<td>1.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects who mistook Mobutu for Babangida</td>
<td>1.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects who did not mention Mobutu</td>
<td>9.37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects who did not mention Houphouet Boigny</td>
<td>2.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects who did not mention Mitterand</td>
<td>2.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects who used &quot;Le vieux Felix Houphouet Boigny&quot;</td>
<td>1.25%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3

Adjective Usage in Picture Description in Ewe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects Description</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Ewe picture is a hospital scene</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>78.12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother has two daughters: one a nurse, one a patient</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor is holding two females' hands</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two doctors in a room</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A family scene</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are four people in the room</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjectives used</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sue</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>50.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ṝẹvị kpui</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15.62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nyagã</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsitsito</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.12%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What were the errors in the use of comparative adjectives in English, French, Ewe based upon the passage?

In translating the passage from Ewe into English, subjects used incorrect responses of comparative adjectives whose frequency of occurrence and percentage are listed below.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>Incorrect responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. larger/wider/bigger than</td>
<td>big than</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>big for</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>big which</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>biggest than</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td></td>
<td>73.31%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows that "big than" amounted to 26.66% of the total numbers of incorrect responses to the correct form number 1. It is followed by "big for" which amounted to
21.66%, then by "big which" 13.33% and "biggest than" 11.66%. The remaining (26.69%) percentage is distributed over different incorrect responses. The multiplicity and variety of the errors produced in an inconsistent manner reflect the individual differences.

The remaining responses (13.76%) are unevenly distributed over different incorrect responses without any systematicity.

Table 5 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>Incorrect responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. prettier/beauter/</td>
<td>more beautiful</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>27.58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>than</td>
<td>than</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>beautiful than</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>27.58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>beautiful for</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18.96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>beautiful which</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>more nice</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gooder than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>beautiful than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wonderful than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nice to</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>86.18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from Ewe into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>Incorrect responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. bigger/fatter and taller</td>
<td>old than</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17.46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>than/nicer/neater/cleaner than</td>
<td>big tall than</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17.46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(tonal language)</td>
<td>tallest and biggest</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9.52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>big and taller than</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bigger and longer</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>big than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>big and tall who</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>big with</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>more fatter</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total %</strong></td>
<td><strong>80.93%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from Ewe into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>Incorrect responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. The prettier/the more beautiful?</td>
<td>beautiful</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>53.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the most beautiful</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17.59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>more beautiful</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>beautiful than</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the beautiful</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total %</strong></td>
<td><strong>96.43%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from Ewe into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>incorrect responses</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. older than/stronger than</td>
<td>strong than</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26.41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>stronger than</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>old than, strong</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>old for</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>oldest than, hard</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>than</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td></td>
<td>67.89%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from Ewe into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>incorrect responses</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. sweeter/more delicious</td>
<td>sweet than</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>36.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>than</td>
<td>delicious than</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sweeterter than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>good for</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gooder than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td></td>
<td>63.77%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In translating the passage from French into English, subjects produced incorrect responses of comparative adjectives whose frequency and percentage are listed as follows:
Table 6

Adjective Usage in Translation from French into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>Incorrect Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>later</td>
<td>ago</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>70.27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>after</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14.86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>latter</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>letter</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total %</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>94.58%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from French into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>Incorrect Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cleaner/neater</td>
<td>clean</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>55.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>most clean</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cleaner</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>more cleaner</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>neat</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>clear</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total %</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>86.49%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from French into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>Incorrect responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. less large</td>
<td>not bigger than</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19.40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>than/ less big</td>
<td>very smaller than</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16.41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>than</td>
<td>small than</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>small big than</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10.44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bigger than</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a little big than</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.97%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>biggest than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fatter than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td></td>
<td>80.56%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from French into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>Incorrect responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. older than</td>
<td>old than</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>40.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>oldest than</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14.28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>more older than</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14.28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>old for</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>more old than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td></td>
<td>85.70%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from French into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>Incorrect responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. heavier than</td>
<td>heavy than</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>53.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lourder than</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>heavier than</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>heaviest than</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>weigher than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>big than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>more heavier than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total %</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>94.98%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from French into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>Incorrect responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. not so fast/</td>
<td>not quickly than</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>43.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not as fast as</td>
<td>not fast than</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>not rapid than</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>isn't quicker than</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>not hurry up than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>isn't rapider than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total %</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>86.25%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from French into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>incorrect responses</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7. the more expensive</td>
<td>expensive than</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the most expensive</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>more expensive</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cheap than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>coster</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>expensive in the</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>twice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td></td>
<td>84.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from French into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>incorrect responses</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8. nicer/ prettier/</td>
<td>beautiful than</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>42.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more beautiful than/</td>
<td>very nice than</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21.42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>better than/</td>
<td>most beautiful than</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14.28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>than/</td>
<td>nicest than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td></td>
<td>89.26%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from French into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>incorrect responses</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9. less cold than</td>
<td>more cold than</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cold than</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td></td>
<td>37.49%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from French into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>incorrect responses</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10. warmer/ hotter</td>
<td>hottest</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21.05%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>as hot as</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hot than</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td></td>
<td>52.61%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from French into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>incorrect responses</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11. better than</td>
<td>love the dog</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>73.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>than the cat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>like the dog</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>as the cat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total %</td>
<td></td>
<td>88.78%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from French into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>incorrect responses</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12. more faithful</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6 (continued)

Adjective Usage in Translation from French into English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>Incorrect responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13. more</td>
<td>most precious</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>precious</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In translating the passage from English into Ewe, subjects used incorrect responses of comparative adjectives whose frequency and percentage are shown in Table 7.

Table 7 Translation from English into Ewe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correct form</th>
<th>Incorrect responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. tsi abe/</td>
<td>tsi wú</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>90.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sõle fe me kple</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ðo fe ðeka kple/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsi sõ kple</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. wonye ðeka kpuì ametsitsì wú</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>66.66%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>:wo wè ðèvì wù</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 shows the frequency and percentage of incorrect responses subjects used in translating the passage from English into Ewe. Infrequent incorrect responses subjects wrote were not tabulated.

Is there significant difference between performance on pictorial tasks?

This research question tested the assumption of significant differences on pictorial tasks. Table 8 presents means and standard deviations of pictorial
descriptions and passage translations by language.
Inspection of this table shows that pictures described in the French Language obtained the highest mean value (1.98).

Results of analysis of variance of pictorial description
Table 9 presents data on the analysis of variance of pictorial descriptions by language. Inspection of this table shows that a significant difference was obtained for language $F(2,248)=69.90$, $p < .0001$. This signifies that the pupils responded in a significantly different manner when describing pictures in English, French, and Ewe. In order to determine which of the pairwise comparisons of language description contributed to the significant $F$ test, a post hoc procedure was employed. Application of the Tukey post hoc procedure obtained significant differences for all three possible pairwise comparisons. Significant differences (.05) were obtained between the means in French (1.98) and Ewe (1.59), and English (1.26); as well as significant differences between the means of Ewe (1.59) and English (1.26) pictorial descriptions.

Are there significant differences between performance on passage tasks?

Inspection of Table 8 shows that the translation from Ewe into English obtained the highest mean value (1.90). The smallest mean value was obtained when the translation was from English into Ewe (0.74). Table 10, an analysis of variance of passage translations by language shows that
significant differences were obtained when passages were translated from one language into another language, $F(2, 96) = 18.55, p < .0001$.

Results of analysis of variance of passage translations

In order to determine which of the pairwise comparisons of language translations were contributing to the significant F test, the Tukey post hoc was employed. The findings showed that significant differences (.05) were obtained between the mean for the translation from Ewe into English (1.90), and the mean for the translation from French into English (1.00), and for the translation from English into Ewe (0.74).

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviation of Pictorial Descriptions and Passage Translation by Language

\[
\begin{array}{lll}
\text{N} = 125 & \text{Means} & \text{S.D.} \\
\hline
\text{Pictures: By Language} & & \\
\text{English} & 1.26 & 0.649 \\
\text{French} & 1.98 & 0.154 \\
\text{Ewe} & 1.59 & 0.540 \\
\hline
\text{N} = 49 & & \\
\text{Passages: By Language} & & \\
\end{array}
\]
Table 9

Analysis of Variance of Pictorial Description by Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15.8746</td>
<td>69.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>0.2835</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residuals</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>0.2268</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>374</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .0001
Are there significant differences by gender, types of school, and chronological age of the Togolese high school pupils on the picture and translation tasks?

This research question tested the assumption that there were no significant differences between groups of subjects on selected variables with regard to pictorial descriptions. A three-factor MANOVA (gender, type of school, age group) conducted on three dependent variables measuring pictorial descriptions in English, French, and Ewe obtained no significant differences for the independent variables in Table 11.
Table 11
MANOVA of English, French, and Ewe Pictorial Descriptions By Gender, Type of School, and Age Group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Wilks Lambda</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9777</td>
<td>0.804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9479</td>
<td>1.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Group</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9926</td>
<td>0.265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender x Type of School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9859</td>
<td>0.506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender x Age Group</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9819</td>
<td>0.652</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of School x Age Group</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9721</td>
<td>1.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender x Type of School x Age group</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9506</td>
<td>1.838</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>108</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The interpretation was that there were no significant differences between contrasted groups for main effects or for cell interactions.

Tables 12 through 18 present the means and standard deviations for the sampled population of Togolese pupils (N=116) on each of the three picture description by type of school (mission, government), gender (male, female), age group (younger, older), and the interaction of the variables.
Table 12
Means and Standard Deviations of Pictorial Descriptions in English, French, and Ewe by Type of School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Type of School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>N = 116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
Mission = 52
Government = 64
Table 13
Means and Standard Deviations of Pictorial Descriptions in English, French, and Ewe By Gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
<td>74</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td></td>
<td>74</td>
<td>1.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td></td>
<td>74</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
Male = 74
Female = 42
### Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations of Pictorial Descriptions in English, French, and Ewe By Age Group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Younger</th>
<th>Older</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N = 116</td>
<td>N Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>0.662</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>0.143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>0.542</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:

Younger = 49

Older = 67
Table 15
Means and Standard Deviations of Pictorial Descriptions in English, French, and Ewe By Gender and Type of School.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mission</th>
<th>Government</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N = 116</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>male 27</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>0.555</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female 25</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>0.587</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>male 27</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>0.192</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female 25</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td>male 27</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>0.506</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female 25</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
Mission School = 52
Government School = 64
Table 16
Means and Standard Deviations of Pictorial Descriptions in English, French, and Ewe By Gender and Age Group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Younger</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Older</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>0.663</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>1.979</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>0.491</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>0.657</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
Younger = 49
Older = 64
Table 17
Means and Standard Deviations of Pictorial Descriptions in English, French, and Ewe by Type of School and Age Group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Type of Variable</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Younger</th>
<th>Older</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N = 116</td>
<td>N Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>Mission 23</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.572</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government 26</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.732</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>Mission 23</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>0.209</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government 26</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td>Mission 23</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>0.507</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government 26</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>0.562</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
- Younger = 49
- Older = 67
Table 18

Means and Standard Deviations of Pictorial Descriptions in English, French, and Ewe By Gender and Type of School, and Age Groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Miss. Mean</td>
<td>Govt.</td>
<td>Younger</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.636</td>
<td>0.928</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>0.354</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>Miss. Mean</td>
<td>Older</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.316</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>Govt.</td>
<td>Younger</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miss. Mean</td>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td>Older</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.514</td>
<td>0.492</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Govt.</td>
<td>Younger</td>
<td>Older</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.618</td>
<td>0.441</td>
<td>0.479</td>
<td>0.886</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inspection of these tables reveals that mean values when contrasted within a category tend to be similar. That is, mean performance between pupils enrolled in mission versus government schools, male versus female, or younger versus older pupils show differences in average performance.

Tables 19 through 25 present the univariate F-tests to determine if contrasted group means differed significantly
when presented with pictorial description in three different languages.

Table 19
Univariate F-Tests of English, French, and Ewe Pictorial Descriptions By Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.41576</td>
<td>0.247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.50993</td>
<td>2.244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.2144</td>
<td>0.073</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 20
Univariate F-Tests of English, French, and Ewe Pictorial Descriptions by Type of School.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>3.58177</td>
<td>2.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.26062</td>
<td>1.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.71201</td>
<td>2.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 21

Univariate F-Tests of English, French, and Ewe Pictorial Descriptions By Age Groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.13348</td>
<td>0.079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.0025</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.17757</td>
<td>0.601</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 22

Univariate F-Tests of English, French, and Ewe Pictorial Descriptions By Interaction of Gender and Type of School.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.1769</td>
<td>0.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.04654</td>
<td>0.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.28288</td>
<td>0.957</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 23

**Univariate F-Tests of English, French, and Ewe Pictorial Descriptions By Interaction of Gender and Age Group.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.66287</td>
<td>0.394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.23406</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.16152</td>
<td>0.547</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 24

**Univariate F-Tests of English, French, and Ewe Pictorial Descriptions By Interaction of Type of School and Age Group.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.54197</td>
<td>0.322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.6043</td>
<td>2.659</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.08731</td>
<td>0.296</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 25

Univariate F-Tests of English, French, and Ewe Pictorial Descriptions By Interaction of Gender, Type of School, and Age Group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>3.78126</td>
<td>2.245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.47572</td>
<td>2.093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe</td>
<td>1/108</td>
<td>0.44343</td>
<td>1.501</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results of multivariate analysis of variance measuring pictorial descriptions

The results of the statistical analysis show that although contrasted means differ, the difference in value is not significant. Males and females tend to perform in a similar manner when describing pictorial tasks in English, French, and Ewe. Similar results were found for mission and government and younger and older subjects on pictorial tasks.

In summary, the MANOVA analysis shows that no significant differences were obtained by the contrasted groups (males versus females, mission versus government, and younger versus older) on each of the three pictorial tasks. Mean performance tends to be similar with some variation;
however, the difference was not found to be significant in the analysis.

This hypothesis also tested the assumption that there were no significant differences between groups of subjects on selected variables with regard to passage translations. A three factor MANOVA (gender, type of school, age group) conducted on three dependent variable measuring passage translations in English, French, Ewe obtained significant differences for independent variables presented in Table 26.

Table 26

MANOVA English, French, and Ewe Passage Translation By Gender, Type of School and Age Group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Wilks Lambda</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4653</td>
<td>13.791 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6035</td>
<td>7.884 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Group</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5574</td>
<td>9.527 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender x Type of School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8317</td>
<td>2.428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender x Age Group</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5251</td>
<td>10.848 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of School x Age Group</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7487</td>
<td>4.023 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender x Type of School x Age</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7902</td>
<td>3.186 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05  ** p < .01  *** p < .0001
Inspection of this table shows that significant differences across the three dependent variables were obtained for Gender (p< .0001), Type of School (p < .0001), Age Group (p < .0001) and in addition to these main effects, significant differences were obtained for interaction cell means of gender by age group (p < .0001), type of school by age group (p < .01), and gender by type of school by age group (p < .05).

Tables 27 through 33 present means and standard deviations for the sampled population of Togolese pupils (N = 46) on each of the three passage translations by type of school (mission, government), gender (male, female), age group (younger, older), and the interaction of these variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 27</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Means and Standard Deviations of Passage Translations of English, French and Ewe by Type of School.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Variable</th>
<th>Type of School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe into English</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French into English</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English into Ewe</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| N = 46 |
| --- | --- | --- |
| | N | Mean | SD |
| | N | Mean | SD |
| N | 23 | 1.04 | 1.364 | 23 | 2.70 | 1.521 |
| French into English | 23 | 0.78 | 1.042 | 23 | 1.26 | 1.053 |
| English into Ewe | 23 | 0.65 | 0.714 | 23 | 0.87 | 0.968 |
Table 28

Means and Standard Deviations of Passage Translation Of English, French and Ewe By Gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N=46</td>
<td>N Mean SD</td>
<td>N Mean SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe into English</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1.79 1.69</td>
<td>18 2.00 1.645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French into</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1.00 1.019</td>
<td>18 1.06 1.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>0.464 0.508</td>
<td>18 1.22 1.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 29

Means and Standard Deviations of Passage Translation Of English, French and Ewe By Age Group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Younger</th>
<th>Older</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N=46</td>
<td>N Mean SD</td>
<td>N Mean SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ewe into English</td>
<td>23 23</td>
<td>2.35 1.668</td>
<td>23 1.39 1.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French into</td>
<td>23 23</td>
<td>1.35 1.265</td>
<td>23 0.70 0.703</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English into</td>
<td>23 23</td>
<td>0.65 0.572</td>
<td>23 0.87 1.058</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 30

Means and Standard Deviations of Passage Translation Of English, French and Ewe By Gender and Type of School.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Variable</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mission</th>
<th>Government</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ewe into English</td>
<td>male 13 1</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female 15</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1.595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French into English</td>
<td>male 13 1</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female 15</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English into Ewe</td>
<td>male 13 1</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female 15</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.507</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 31

Means and Standard Deviations of Passage Translation Of English, French and Ewe By Gender and Age Group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Variable</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Younger</th>
<th>Older</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ewe into English</td>
<td>male 11 3</td>
<td>1.483</td>
<td>1.323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female 12 1.75</td>
<td>1.658</td>
<td>1.643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French into English</td>
<td>male 11 1.55</td>
<td>1.128</td>
<td>0.65 0.786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female 12 1.17</td>
<td>1.403</td>
<td>0.83 0.408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English into Ewe</td>
<td>male 11 0.55</td>
<td>0.522</td>
<td>0.41 0.507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female 12 0.75</td>
<td>0.621</td>
<td>2.17 1.169</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 32
Means and Standard Deviations of Passage Translation Of English, French and Ewe by Type of School and Age Group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Type of Variable</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ewe into English</td>
<td></td>
<td>Younger</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.506</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>1.235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Older</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.441</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>1.549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French into English</td>
<td></td>
<td>Younger</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.358</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.461</td>
<td>0.519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Older</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>1.198</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.816</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English into Ewe</td>
<td></td>
<td>Younger</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.675</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.615</td>
<td>0.768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Older</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.506</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.200</td>
<td>1.317</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 33

Means and Standard Deviations of Passage Translation Of English, French and Ewe By Gender, Type of School, and Age Group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Type</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>N Female</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>N Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mission Mean</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.330</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.258</td>
<td>0.837</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.258</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Mean</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.750</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.676</td>
<td>1.265</td>
<td>1.282</td>
<td>1.414</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission Mean</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.833</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French into English</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.957</td>
<td>1.602</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Mean</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.272</td>
<td>1.225</td>
<td>0.926</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission Mean</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.833</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English into Ewe</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.577</td>
<td>0.753</td>
<td>0.441</td>
<td>0.577</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Mean</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.630</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.534</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td>0.518</td>
<td>0.707</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inspection of these tables shows variation in the magnitude of mean performance scores for both the main effects and interaction cell means. To determine which of the pairwise comparisons in Tables 27 through 33 contributed to the significant F-tests in the MANOVA presented in Table 26, Univariate F-tests were conducted on the independent variables and on each of the three passage translations of: (a) Ewe into English (b) French into English, and (c) English into Ewe. Table 70 presents the univariate F-test by gender on each of the three dependent variables.

Table 34
Univariate F-Tests of Ewe, French and English Passage Translations By Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ewe into English</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>2.21708</td>
<td>0.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French into English</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>0.23838</td>
<td>0.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English into Ewe</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>12.25763</td>
<td>39.435*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .0001

Table 34 presents the statistical analysis of the mean and standard deviation data shown in Table 28. Inspection of this table shows a significant difference in mean performance by males (0.46) and females (1.22) when
translating a passage from English into Ewe $F(1,38)=39.435$, $p < .0001$. Females tend to score higher than males. Table 35 presents the univariate $F$-test by Type of School on each of the three dependent variables.

Table 35

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ewe into English</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>68.48977</td>
<td>16.343**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French into English</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>0.6169</td>
<td>0.249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English into Ewe</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>3.1097</td>
<td>10.005*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < .003$     ** $p < .0001$

Table 35 presents the statistical analysis of the mean and standard deviation on data shown in Table 27. Inspection of this table shows significant differences in mean performance by mission pupils (1.04), government pupils (2.70) when translating a passage from Ewe into English $F(1,38) = 16.343$, $p < .003$. and significant differences between mission (0.65) and government (0.87) pupils when translating a passage from English into Ewe $F(1,38) =$
10.005, p < .0001. Government pupils tend to score higher than pupils in mission schools.

Table 36 presents the univariate F-test by age group on each of the three dependent variables.

Table 36

Univariate F-Tests of Ewe, French and English Passage Translations By Age Group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ewe into English</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>4.1406</td>
<td>0.988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French into English</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>6.59759</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English into Ewe</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>6.2669</td>
<td>20.162*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .0001

Table 36 in addition, presents the statistical analysis of the mean and standard deviation data shown in Table 29. Inspection of this table shows significant difference in mean performance by younger pupils (0.65) and older pupils (0.87) when translating a passage from English into Ewe. Older pupils tend to score higher on this task than do younger pupils. F (1,38) = 20.162, p < .0001.

Table 37 presents the univariate F-test for the interaction of gender by type of school for each of the three dependent variables.
Table 37

Univariate F-tests of Ewe, French and English Passage Translations by Interaction of Gender and Type of School.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ewe into English</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>17.69178</td>
<td>4.222 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French into English</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>0.01127</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English into Ewe</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>1.0788</td>
<td>3.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.05

Table 37 presents the statistical analysis of the mean and standard deviation data shown in Table 30. Inspection of the above table shows significant interaction effects between gender and type of school relative to the translation from Ewe into English scores. The interaction is such that for the mission schools, there is no significant (p < 0.05) difference between males and females while in the case of government schools, the females have significantly (p < 0.05) higher scores than the males.

Table 38 presents the univariate F-tests for the interaction of gender by age group for each of the three dependent variable.
Table 38
Univariate F-tests of Ewe, French and English Passage Translations by Interaction of Gender and Age Group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ewe into English</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>54.52763</td>
<td>13.011 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French into English</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>1.36314</td>
<td>0.551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English into Ewe</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>8.10004</td>
<td>26.059 **</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .001  
** p < .0001

Table 38 shows significant interaction effects and furthermore presents the statistical analysis of the mean and standard deviation on data shown in Table 31.

Inspection of this table shows significant differences in mean performance by interaction cell means (3.00, 1.75, 1.00, 2.50) for the passage translation of Ewe into English. In order to determine which of the pairwise comparisons contributed to the significant F-test, F (1,38) = 13.011, p < .001, a follow up test was required. The Scheffe, a post-hoc test, was selected to determine which of the possible six pairwise comparisons contributed to the significant F-test. The results showed that significant differences (.05) were obtained between the means of younger male pupils
(3.00) and older male pupils (1.00). All other comparisons were found to be not significant by the Scheffe procedure.

Table 38 also shows a significant difference for a second dependent variable. Inspection of this table shows significant interaction of cell means for the passage translation of English into Ewe F (1,38) = 26.059, p < .0001. In order to determine which of these pairwise comparisons contributed to the significant F-test, the Scheffe procedure was employed. This procedure revealed for the cell means (0.55, 0.75, 0.41, 2.17), significant differences between older females (2.17) and younger males (0.55), older males (0.41 and younger females (0.75). The data show that older females obtained significantly higher ratings than the other interaction cell group means.

Table 39 presents the univariate F-test by type of school by age group interaction on each of the three dependent variables.
Table 39
Univariate F-Tests of Ewe French, and English Passage Translation by Interaction of Type of School and Age Group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ewe into English</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>1.85401</td>
<td>0.442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French into English</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>0.01127</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English into Ewe</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>3.64427</td>
<td>11.724*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .001

Table 29 presents the statistical analysis of the mean and standard deviation data shown in Table 32.

Inspection of this table shows significant differences in mean performance by interaction cell means (0.70, 0.62, 0.62, 1.20) for the passage translation of English into Ewe. In order to determine which of the possible comparisons contributed to the significant F-test, F (1,38) = 11.724, p < .001. the Scheffe procedure was employed. This procedure revealed significant differences (.05) were obtained between older government pupils (1.20) and younger government pupils (0.62), older mission pupils (0.62), and younger mission pupils (.70). The data show that older government pupils were rated significantly higher than other interaction cell group means. Table 39 also shows
significant interaction effects for the passage translation of English into Ewe.

Table 40 presents the univariate F-test by gender by type of school by age group interaction on each of the three dependent variables.

Table 40

Univariate F-Tests of Ewe, French and English Passage Translation by Interaction of Gender, Type of School, and Age Group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ewe into English</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>2.6126</td>
<td>0.623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French into English</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>2.40138</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English into Ewe</td>
<td>1/38</td>
<td>1.96717</td>
<td>6.329 *</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05

Table 40 presents the statistical analysis of the mean and standard deviation data shown in Table 33. Inspection of this table shows significant differences in mean performance by interaction cell means (0.50, 0.083, 0.022, 1.50, 0.57, 0.67, 0.63, 3.50) for the passage translation of English into Ewe. In order to determine which of the possible pairwise comparisons contributed to the significant F-test, $F(1,38) = 6.329$ p < .05, the Scheffe procedure was
employed. This procedure revealed significant differences (.05) were obtained between older female government pupils (3.50) and younger male mission pupils (0.50), older male mission pupils (0.22), younger female mission pupils (0.83), older female mission pupils (1.50), younger male government pupils (0.57), older male government pupils (0.63), and younger female government pupils (0.67) for the passage translation of English into Ewe. The data show that older female government pupils score significantly higher than do the other pupils in the cell group means.

Results of Multivariate Analysis of Variance Measuring Passage Translations

In summary, the three factor MANOVA showed that significant differences were obtained for the main effects and for the four interaction effects for the passage translation tasks. No significant differences were obtained by the MANOVA for the picture description tasks. Figures 2 through 7 illustrate the interactions.
Figure 2. Interaction of gender and type of school as shown in Table 37

Figure 3. Interaction of gender and age group as shown in Table 38
Figure 4. Interaction of gender and age groups as shown in Table 38.

Figure 5. Interaction of type of school and age group as shown in Table 39.
Figure 6. Interaction of gender and type of school for younger age group as shown in Table 40.

Figure 7. Interaction of gender and type of school for older age group as shown in Table 40.
With regard to the passage translation tasks, most significant differences were obtained on the dependent variables, English into Ewe translations. The second most frequent differences were reported on passage task, Ewe into English. No significant differences were found on the dependent variables, French into English passage translations. The findings also show that females score generally higher than males; government pupils score higher than mission pupils; older pupils score higher than younger pupils; older government pupils score higher than younger government pupils; and older female government pupils score higher than similar comparable groups.

How can English as a foreign Language teacher training reduce the problem of pupil adjectival usage errors?

Examination of the data gathered from the questionnaire and taped interviews given to the teachers in the four high schools in Togo is shown in Tables 41 through 46. Altogether, there were 16 subjects who participated in this survey. There were seven female teachers and nine male teachers who taught in the four schools; of this number, three of the male and three of the female teachers taught both English and Ewe; the remaining four female and six male teachers taught English only.
Table 41
Demographic Data of Questionnaire for Teachers
Number of Classes Taught in Each School

N = 16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classes 1st</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classes 2nd</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classes 3rd</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classes 4th</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classes 5th</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic subjects taught</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English &amp; Ewe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: classes 1st ----------> first year in high school  
classes 2nd ----------> second year in high school  
classes 3rd ----------> third year in high school  
classes 4th ----------> fourth year in high school  
classes 5th ----------> fifth year in high school

Schools A,B,C,and D represent the four schools in which questionnaire was asked for:

A ----------> Kodzovikofe government high school  
B ----------> Strebler Catholic mission high school  
C ----------> Witti government high school  
D ----------> Protestant mission high school

Table 41 illustrates the types of school, classes teacher subjects taught, their sex and language(s) taught.
When subjects were asked to circle their highest degree, the sixteen subjects were found to have the following: about 18.75% of them held only their high school diploma, 43.73% held their teachers’ college certificate, 18.75% held their undergraduate degree and 12.5% their masters’ degree. In addition, 12.5% did not receive any teacher training; 25% received in-service training, 50% received one or two years of training and 12% were trained for four years. Teachers in the government schools had more years of teaching experience than those in the mission schools. All the teachers were exposed to some kind of training but 25% of the mission teachers did not receive any.
Table 42

Demographic Data of questionnaire for teachers Highest Degree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
a = High school Diploma
b = Teacher’s College
c = Undergraduate Degree
d = Master’s Degree
x = Subject left it blank

Table 42 illustrates the educational background of teacher subjects.
Table 43
Demographic data of questionnaire for subjects' training.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: Teacher Training
a = None
b = in-service training only
c = one to two years of training
d = four years of training
Table 43 illustrates the pedagogic training subjects underwent.
Table 44

Demographic Data of questionnaire for teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥ 15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: Number of years of teaching experience

< 5 years or less
6-10 = 6 to 10 years
11-15 = 11 to 15 years
≥ 15 = 15 years and above

Table 44 illustrates the numbers of years of experience subject teachers had.

Thirty-five percent of the subjects found the teaching of essay writing difficult because the pupil’s vocabulary was limited and the majority of the pupils did not have the textbooks. In the government schools, the state had not been provided the pupils with the textbooks required as the classes were large. There were 80 to 90 pupils in each class. As a result, three pupils shared a textbook. In the mission schools, some parents had not been able to buy the
textbooks for their sons and daughters, partly because the
textbooks were expensive and partly because they had three
or four children to send to high school.

A total of 31.25% of the teacher subjects found
vocabulary difficult to teach because the schools lacked
visual aid materials. Besides, the pupils stated that they
would like teachers to explain or translate everything in
French. Others stated that the passages were loaded with
too many new words for them to learn and the teachers did
not include variety in their fifty-minute lessons. The lack
of textbooks and poor reading comprehension ability of the
pupils were the major concerns teachers indicated. For this
reason, teachers did most of the talking in class. For the
sake of variety, some teachers would like to introduce
songs, games, and puzzles, but they themselves described
weaknesses in these novelties, stating that they would
prefer not to be laughed at by pupils.

Approximately 25% of the subjects reported grammar
teaching to be difficult, but they did not explain which
specific grammar point caused them the most difficulty. In
sum, all the teacher respondents pointed out that their
classes were large and the size of the classes hindered
their effectiveness.
Table 45

Demographic Data of questionnaire for teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>years of classes taught</th>
<th>class code</th>
<th>teacher sex</th>
<th>Exp.</th>
<th>Highest Degree</th>
<th>Training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th</td>
<td>1, 2, 1</td>
<td>F, M, F</td>
<td>16, 11, 21</td>
<td>b, a, b</td>
<td>d, b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th</td>
<td>1, 2</td>
<td>F, M, F, F</td>
<td>8, 12, 15</td>
<td>x, a, b</td>
<td>c, a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>2nd, 1st, 2nd</td>
<td>1, 2</td>
<td>F, M, F, F</td>
<td>15, 21, 18</td>
<td>b, b, b</td>
<td>c, d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>2nd, 1st, 4th</td>
<td>1, 2</td>
<td>M, F, M, F</td>
<td>5, 13, 4</td>
<td>a, c, d</td>
<td>b, b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
Class Code:
1 = English
2 = Ewe

Highest Degree:
a = High school diploma
b = teacher’s college
c = undergraduate degree
d = Master’s degree

Teacher Training
a = none
b = In-service training only
c = one or two years of training
d = four years of training
x = subject left it blank

Table 45 illustrates the schools, the classes subject teachers taught, the class code, subjects' sex, their experience, their highest degree, and professional training.
Table 46
Difficulties subjects experienced

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Difficulties</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Schools</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A</strong> = Kodzoviakofe government high school</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B</strong> = Strebler catholic mission high school</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>C</strong> = Witti government high school</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>D</strong> = Protestant mission high school</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Difficulties
Reading Comprehension 1
Lack of textbooks 1
Vocabulary 2 1 1
Grammar 1 3
Essay - lack of vocabulary 3 1
Essay - lack of teaching materials 1 1
Songs, Games, puzzles 1
More than 90 pupils 1

Key:
A = Kodzoviakofe government high school
B = Strebler catholic mission high school
C = Witti government high school
D = Protestant mission high school

Table 46 illustrates the difficulties teacher subjects encountered while teaching English in the various classrooms.

Results of the Interviews

These interviews were an attempt to determine the most frequent errors pupils make in speaking, reading and writing English. They were held so that teachers might tell the investigator how they teach the comparative adjectives and
what they were willing to share of their experiences as language teachers. The study aimed at making recommendations to the educational authorities as to how teachers of English in Togo should be trained in the future so that they may be better prepared.

While the researcher was in Togo for data gathering purposes, he was also able to conduct an audio-taped interview with 14 Togolese teachers of English in their respective schools. According to these interviews (See Appendix K), conducted in English, 57% of the participants confirmed that the most frequent errors that their pupils made were errors in pronunciation mainly due to the influences of French. About 21.4% of the teachers attributed the errors to the limited vocabulary of the pupils.

In the reading skill, 86% of the subjects stated that the most frequent errors their pupils made were pronunciation and intonation based on the influence of French (e.g., to ride, to get rid of, written, sheep, ship). Fourteen percent of the respondents maintained that their pupils scatter the words instead of combining them during their reading exercises, (e.g., word by word readers).

In writing, 50% said that the pupils make spelling errors, omit "g" in "playing" and forget to double the last consonant in "stopping, begging, running, bigger, and fatter." Others pointed out that the pupils confuse the
order of subject, verb and object and they also mix the tenses. Thirty six percent of the participants stressed that the role of grammar in language learning is to lay emphasis on word order and on the smooth usage of the language. About 25% stated that grammar helps the pupils to express themselves correctly and the rest said that grammar enables the pupils to correct themselves, and grammar helps them find the difference among pidgin English, West African English and Standard English.

For the presentation of grammar, 60% of the teachers answered that they use pattern drills. Twenty-five percent of the sample stated that they write the sentence on the board, underline the grammar point, ask a few questions, explain the grammar point, give a few examples and ask the pupils to make sentences based upon the examples given. Fifteen percent of them revealed that they frequently use visual aids.

When they were asked whether they were satisfied with the way verbs are presented in their textbooks, 64.28% confirmed their satisfaction because a lot of cognates are used, which makes the verbs easier to learn. About 29% stated that sometimes too many verbs are listed to be learned by heart, and, in their opinion, it would be better to present the verbs in a way the pupils can use them without first reviewing a long list.
Nearly 72.42% of them stated that they were satisfied with the way the comparative adjective is presented in the textbooks. On the other hand, 28.57% expressed their dissatisfaction, and suggested that it would be better to use the comparative adjectives in a dialogue rather than trying to exhibit the grammar rules. Others suggested that the teacher's book is not adequate for teaching this grammar point.

When the subjects were asked how they would change the materials they use if they could, 28.57% of them responded that they would use more pictures because pictures capture pupils' attention, 36% would like to have the same books as those used in the government schools, and 23% would like to have shorter and simpler texts that would be more connected.

As far as the presentation of cultural information is concerned, 57% of the subjects stressed that African and European culture prevailed in their textbooks; 42% emphasized that Togolese teachers of English need to write textbooks to make English a lot easier for the pupils so that pupils may also have an appreciation for their own culture. They stated that too much of what is in their book is based on Nigerian culture, even the names of the characters.

Sixty-four percent of the subjects revealed that the pupils who have difficulties with English, experience similar difficulties in French, because English is typically
explained in French. Sometimes, the pupils do well in English, but when it comes to translation, they tend to perform poorly. Thirty-six percent of the subjects stated that the pupils participate more in Ewe than in English except when it comes to reading and writing in Ewe because they did not study the Ewe language at the primary school. Sixty-four percent of the teachers replied that they do not know much about the performance of their pupils in Ewe because they do not teach that language.

As for the difficulty encountered in the classroom, 50% of the interviewees described large class sizes, stating that these class sizes hampered their efforts to teach effectively. Twenty-nine percent of them told the researcher that they need to have more workshops and seminars to keep them abreast of the new trends in foreign language teaching, and 21% stated a desire to have teaching aids, and to be trained overseas, preferably in Great Britain or the United States of America during the summer months in order to be more fluent in English.

Discussion

In describing the pictures, there were not many errors in the use of the comparative adjectives. Inspection of the data suggested that the subjects employed the strategy of avoidance, especially in the description in English. Brown (1980) explained this strategy in these terms:
Avoidance has cognitive and semantic manifestations when a learner avoids a whole topic of conversation about which perhaps he feels linguistically uncomfortable. Or a learner may, for similar reasons abandon a particular message he has started because of difficulty in expressing certain ideas in the target language. Linguistic manifestations of syntactic avoidance occur when a person opts for a simpler structure that gives enough information by way of presupposition for communication to continue. (pp. 88-89)

This procedure explains why there were not many errors in the descriptions of the picture. Subjects used simpler structures to communicate their ideas while avoiding the use of comparative adjectives. Schachter (1974) and Kleinmann (1977) in their studies have shown that error analysis fails to account for the strategy of avoidance. When a learner avoids a particular structure—in this case, the comparative adjective—he/she may be assumed incorrectly to have no difficulty therewith. The absence of error does not necessarily reflect native-like competence because the learner may be avoiding the structures that are too difficult for him/her.

The error in the comparative adjectives became evident in the translation of the passages from one language to another. Having identified the errors subjects had made in the passage translations, the researcher's job is to classify these errors and attempt to determine their source. Why did the subjects make these errors? To enumerate all possible sources of foreign language errors would be impossible since there are hundreds of such sources.
Nevertheless, the investigator has outlined a number of major sources of learner errors, but pinpointing factors that are significant in a teacher's understanding of learners' inter-language system in this study. Errors collected in the use of comparative adjectives may be put into four categories:

2. Substitution of some other function word for /than/.
3. Inappropriate use of /as/ in equative construction.
4. Use of the superlative where comparative is required.

OMISSION OF THE COMPARATIVE INFLECTION

Omission of the comparative inflection was more pronounced in the errors because subjects were most likely thinking in their first language (L1) which is Ewe while translating. They were translating word for word and were substituting "than" for wú (que) in French which does not exist in Ewe as Migeod (1972) stated p. 81. Inspection of the frequency of errors reveals that subjects made more of these errors than others.

Ami tsi wú Adzo (Ewe)
Ami old than Adzo (English)

This negative transfer has influenced the subjects a lot.
SUBSTITUTION OF SOME OTHER FUNCTION WORD FOR /THAN/
Substitution of some other function word for /than/ was the second major error as probably the subjects were thinking in French. What probably came to their mind was the relative pronoun /que/ = /which/ in English or they put the sentence differently

"Le panier est large pour Ama." (French)
The basket is large for Ama. (English)

INAPPROPRIATE USE OF /AS/
This shows that subjects did not master the equative construction and were translating directly from Ewe.

not far to Lome (English)
medidi tso Lome (Ewe)

not far from Lome also (English)
medidi tso Lome abe (Ewe)

Even in the translation from English into Ewe, the error percentage was the highest (90.56%). Subjects used the comparative of superiority /wú/ instead of the equative comparative /abe/. This is in line with Clark and Clark's (1977) studies that children use positive terms more than negative terms.

USE OF THE SUPERLATIVE WHERE Comparative IS REQUIRED
(Le plus cher des deux)
Subjects translated word for word without thinking that because there are two things, the comparative has to be used.

**Ewe influence. Examples from subjects' errors**

1. Ami is older Adzo.
   
   Old is translated by /tsi/ in Ewe. Therefore /er/ is translated by wú.

2. Ami is bigger in age than her. (bigger in age = older)

3. Banana is good to eat than Orange. (English)
   
   Banane est bonne à manger que l’orange. (French)

4. Adzo is big and taller than. In Ewe the first adjective is used in the simple form but in English it should be put in the comparative of superiority.

**French Influence (Examples drawn from pupils’ errors)**

1. Between Adzo and Afi which is beautiful?
   
   Entre Adzo et Afi qui est belle? (French)

2. The hat for Abalo is nice to Afi
   
   Le chapeau d’Abalo est joli à celui d’Afi (French)

3. Between Adzo and Afi which one is the most beautiful?
   
   Entre Adzo et Afi qui est la plus belle? (French)
4. Aneho is not far from Lome like Kpalime.
Aneho n'est pas aussi loin de Lome comme Kpalime
(French)

5. My grandfather is older for my grandmother.
Mon grand père est plus âgé pour ma grand'mère.
(French)

6. Between Adzo and Afi who is beautiful?
Entre Adzo et Afi qui est très belle? (French)

**Interpretation of Major Findings**

In the picture description the pupils responded significantly differently in English, French and Ewe. French obtained the highest mean value (1.98), Ewe (1.59) and English (1.26). The difference in the means between Ewe (L1) and French (L2) can be attributed to the fact that French is the official language in the country and subjects have been studying it for eight or nine years whereas Ewe is, on the whole, used for oral communication. It is also the stigmatized view of Ewe that makes pupils less careful about making errors. There is a social value attached to speaking and writing correct French in Togo. The mean outcome (1.26) in English is the expected one due to the relatively short period of exposure to English in comparison to French and Ewe.
Significant difference in the passage translation from English into Ewe can be caused by the fact that there are more acceptable answers in Ewe. Some of these answers are formal, and others are vernacular. Due to the fact that pupils have been minimally exposed to formal standard Ewe, they obviously result to vernacular (unwritten) responses. Another factor might be that pupils did not spend much time learning the Ewe language—the reason being that Ewe classes are held twice a week, 50 minutes each time and the teachers have not received enough training to cope with the situation.

It is the investigator’s understanding that pupils are not used to this type of exercise due to the scarcity of paper in the country. This understanding became clear from responses the pupils gave upon handing them the tasks; in other words, many pupils were astonished to see themselves receiving several sheets of paper stapled together. Others went on further to comment, "Where has he (the researcher) got all this paper from? He must be very rich to have that much paper to distribute to everybody."

The significant differences in the passage translation from Ewe into English suggest that subjects have been learning English for two years only and they meet in class with their teachers four times a week. The results of the questionnaire and interviews given to the teachers reveal that the classes are very large and the size of classes
hinders the effectiveness of the teachers. Subjects have been learning French for eight years and English grammar is explained in French.

The results of the questionnaire for teachers corroborate the higher score of the government pupils than the mission pupils. Teachers in the government schools had more years of teaching experience than those in the mission schools and although all the teachers in the survey were exposed to some kind of training, 25% of the mission teachers did not receive any. It became apparent that teachers in the government schools were better trained and there is sequential uniformity in the textbooks used in the government schools. More time is spent on religious education in the mission schools than in the government schools as far as extra curricula activities are concerned. In addition, teachers in the government schools are better paid than those in the mission schools and they are more secure when they retire.

The findings that females score higher than males should not be surprising when one takes into account the fact that very few female pupils graduate from high school as opposed to a larger percentage of male graduates. This entails that only the highly motivated female pupils remain in school as opposed to the average male pupils. Another reason for females scoring higher than male pupils could be the sense of responsibility that has been instilled in them
at an early age. Young girls are trained at the age of six years to be future mothers and assume responsibility over household chores, washing dishes, fetching water from the river, cooking meals, and taking care of their younger brothers and sisters. Such a responsibility may transfer into other fields such as education and business. In Togo many successful business leaders are women who control the market.

A review of the study's findings shows that there were significant differences by gender and type of school when subjects described the picture in English, French, and Ewe. This result may have occurred because subjects used structures to express their ideas and by so doing may have avoided the use of comparative adjectives which they might have found difficult. Another probable factor is the subjects' lack of familiarity with activities involving a picture description as a means of language learning. It is also possible that the pictures were not sufficiently clear or the instructions were not adequate to help subjects with their descriptions.

The findings reveal that older males score higher than younger males. This result can be attributed, in part, to longer exposure to the languages studied. The older males repeated the class, and that is why they performed better than the younger ones. A study is needed to determine the impact of the policy of having pupils repeat their classes.
As for the teaching of Ewe, the findings showed that teachers are not sufficiently trained for this subject and not many hours are devoted to teaching this language. Based on these findings, recommendations for the teaching of Ewe in the schools include the following points. The Togolese government is faced with a decision concerning the teaching of Ewe. Although the government desires to promote Ewe, this language is not of much utility in the world outside of Togo. Togolese pupils may be at a disadvantage if emphasis is placed on studying Ewe. The government situation can be summarized in these terms: how much should Ewe be promoted versus French, English, or German? The alternative might be that the Togolese government should examine models from multilingual countries where multi-languages are promoted. The best examples are Belgium, Canada, and Tanzania.

The number of teachers who participated in the study prohibits generalizations. However, tentative conclusions were drawn. For that reason, future studies of this nature should include a representative sample teacher subjects. The findings which indicate that government pupils tended to score higher than mission pupils also corroborate the results of the teachers’ survey. Government teachers reported more training than mission teachers and the former were more experienced as well. If there were more uniformity in the textbooks in both types of schools and if the books should be made available to every pupil, some of
the differences in teachers might have been less pronounced. Teachers should encourage active participation of the pupils in class, present grammar inductively in class, and use visuals and other stimuli to maintain pupils' attention and involve them directly in learning the language. Teacher training should be a primary criterion of being hired in the language teaching profession because training in both teaching and language correlate well with establishing standards of education.

Finally, periodic refresher courses and seminars should be organized so that language teachers may learn about and keep abreast of the new trends in the field. Furthermore, study abroad opportunities are needed and should be provided for the language teachers. In that way, teachers have the opportunity to upgrade their linguistic and pedagogic skills as well as learn aspects of the culture in which the language is used.
CHAPTER V
Summary and Recommendations

Overview

The purpose of this study was to investigate errors Togolese high school pupils in the south make in the use of the comparative adjectives, classify these errors, and recommend teacher training procedures. The comparative adjective is an example of a grammar point which might have been the focus of the study. A possible set of alternative grammar topics would include: possessive adjectives, passive voice, countable/uncountable nouns, modal auxiliaries, relative pronouns, tag questions, present perfect and phrasal verbs. It was hoped that this original contribution to literature about the errors these pupils made would facilitate an understanding of teachers of English as a foreign language as well as English as a second language.

The dissertation began with a brief description of the geography of the Republic of Togo, West Africa. This was followed by the statement of the problem and its background, purpose of the study as well as its significance. The second chapter dealt with an extensive review of literature on language learning both in the naturalistic aspect and the
formal one, and highlighted major studies in both ESL and EFL settings. Learning a foreign language is not simply a matter of acquiring right answers to given stimuli; it goes beyond that. Maurice (1988) suggested that humor, if used as an affective technique, can be of some help to the language teachers in their task of facilitating language acquisition within the classroom.

Teachers' behavior towards their pupils errors have differed according to period. About fifteen years ago, errors were regarded as a sin and the pupils were punished whenever they made any errors in their exercises. In the early 1990's, psycholinguistics has changed the mentality of language teachers towards the errors their pupils make in foreign language learning.

Foreign language education in contemporary times has two schools of thought vis-a-vis pupils' errors. The first school believes that pupils make errors because teachers do not have suitable materials and their teaching techniques are inadequate. The second school maintains that since we live in an imperfect world, errors cannot be avoided no matter what methods or materials we use. It is not always clear that an error is the result of transfer from the mother tongue. In this study, while the pupils were
translating passages from one language to another, errors were made as a result of negative transfer. Knowledge of the Ewe language has helped the researcher in detecting and analyzing such errors. Michaelides (1990) wrote.

In foreign language teaching, it is an advantage to know the learners' mother tongue. The obvious advantage of the local teacher over the native teacher of the target language is that he can help the learners get over their difficulties with certain troublesome language features by means of clear explanation in the vernacular and quick comparison with the mother tongue. This procedure works quite well with mature students, who can reason and see distinctions more clearly than younger students; it is moreover, economical of time. (p. 29)

Inter-language theory has had very little to say about the comparative adjectives behavior of non-native of English. None of the main sources discuss learners' comparative adjective problems in any depth, and most of them ignore the question completely or treat it in a very superficial fashion. There are, in fact, only a handful of high quality studies which have attempted to consider the implications of how learners handle comparative adjectives, and even these studies have generally taken a very restricted view of what their proper field of inquiry was. In the case of the comparative adjectives in Ewe, French, and English, no studies were found in professional literature. Based upon this fact, the researcher pursued the investigation in four schools in Togo. The last part of this chapter focused on teacher training.
The role of the language teacher in the 1990s is not easy. New factors are being discovered every day that may play a part in language learning. For this reason, linguistic structure is not the only necessary component for a good language teacher. Teachers should have a broad knowledge of the social environment of their pupils, different pedagogical techniques in addition to techniques that would enable them to diagnose psychological problems of their pupils.

The third chapter outlined a plan for investigation of the problem statement. Schools were selected and administrative formalities were performed prior to initiation of the study. Altogether there were 160 subjects between the ages of 11 through 17 years who were asked to describe pictures in Ewe, French, and English and translate passages from (a) Ewe into English, (b) French into English and, (c) English into Ewe. Questionnaire and audio taped interviews were given to teachers who taught in the four schools where the study was conducted. Chapter 4 was a presentation and analysis of the data obtained through the methodologies described in chapter 3. It was the most specific chapter that was the basis of the paper. Data relevant to errors in the use of comparative adjectives while describing the pictures in the three languages were introduced. Data relevant to errors found in passage translations from Ewe into English, French into English, and
Ewe into English were presented. Data relevant to errors by type of school, gender and age group across languages in picture description and passage translations were later presented. These data were also compared to determine significant differences. The final section summarized questionnaire and taped interviews that were given to the teachers in the four schools.
Recommendations for the Teaching of Comparative Adjectives

The data suggest the following recommendations for the teaching of comparative adjectives in the high schools in Togo. The list includes practical suggestions for the West African school context. Many recommendations are presented in a manner that classroom instructors may use. Similar teaching recommendations for other grammar topics can also be made. In other words, the focus on the comparative adjective represents only an example.

1. Visual aids should be brought into the classroom to capture and hold the pupils' attention.

2. Objects and realia should be used in the language classroom.

Examples:

- a set of suitcases
- a set of kitchen pans
- a set of bags
- a set of spoons, forks, knives, balls

3. Have the results of the soccer league in Togo. By looking at the scores and the rank of the teams, the pupils can study the comparative adjectives; strong, weak, good.

4. Make use of the map of Togo as if it were a geography lesson.

   (a) Write down the population of Lome, Atakpame, Sokode, Kara, Kpalime, Aneho,
Tsevie. Let the pupils use large, small. The population of Lome is larger than that of Atakpame, and so forth. 

(b) Write down the mountains and rivers. 
use high/low, long, and so forth.

5. Use the results of athletic competition to describe athletes. Example: fast, good, strong, and so forth.

6. Divide the pupils into groups and give them assignments.
(a) Send a group to the supermarket—Look at the price of items and report to class.
(b) Send a group to the local market—Look at the price of items and report to class.
(c) Send some pupils to the railway station, lorry station or travel agencies—Air Afrique, UTA, Ghana Airways for the price of an air ticket.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Route</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lome to Accra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lome to Abidjan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lome to Lagos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lome to Libreville</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lome to Paris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lome to New York</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Show the pupils the picture of different cars and ask them the approximate price.
Having known the prices, they can make use of the comparative adjectives. (Expensive)

8. Ask the pupils to go to their parents at home and have proverbs in Ewe with comparatives that can be translated into English.

9. Draw three pupils on the board.

Koffi     Yao     Ayi
\[ \begin{array}{c}
  \text{Koffi} \\
  \text{Yao} \\
  \text{Ayi}
\end{array} \]

\[ \begin{array}{c}
  0 \quad 12 \\
  8 \quad 10 \\
  15 \quad 20
\end{array} \]

e.g. Yao is shorter than Ayi. Ayi is more intelligent than Koffi, Koffi is as tall as Yao.

10. Introduce the adjectives.

Day one: tall, short, rich, poor, strong, long, small, Day two: intelligent, beautiful, expensive, difficult.

Day three: easy, happy, pretty, dirty, busy.

Later: big, fat, thin,

Ask the pupils questions related to the family, hometown (familiar environment) allowing them to use the comparative.

Houphouet Boigny is older than Rawlings
Koffi is stronger than Yao
Koffi is as tall as Kokou
Ayi is as clever as Dovi
Ayele is not as rich as Afi
Koffi is not as poor as Agbezuge
Mercedes is more expensive than VW
Afi is more intelligent than Ayele

11. Teacher should focus on adjectives relating to human physical qualities as Brinton and Neuman (1982) stated (p.112).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Body Size</th>
<th>Appearance</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>short/tall</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fat/thin</td>
<td>handsome</td>
<td>beautiful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plump/skinny</td>
<td>good-looking</td>
<td>pretty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cute</td>
<td>cute</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nice-looking</td>
<td>nice-looking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ugly</td>
<td>ugly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Hands</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>old/young</td>
<td>big/small</td>
<td>big/small</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>narrow/wide</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eye Color</td>
<td>Eye Size</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brown</td>
<td>big/small</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dark</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blue</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hair color</td>
<td>Hair quality</td>
<td>Complexion quality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>black</td>
<td>oily/dry</td>
<td>fair or light</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brown</td>
<td>long/short</td>
<td>dark</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grey</td>
<td></td>
<td>poor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>white</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>light/dark</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teeth</td>
<td>Nose</td>
<td>Neck</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>white/yellow</td>
<td>big/small</td>
<td>thick/slender</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>good/bad</td>
<td>thin</td>
<td>long/short</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>long</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cute</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Once these adjectives are introduced, the teacher can deal with the comparative of adjectives (superiority) by using the pupils in the classroom as visual aids. e.g., Koffi is taller than John. Joe is younger than Fred.

Ask the pupils to make sentences to describe two pupils who are standing in front of the class and who have (a) different hair (dark), (b) different height (short), (c) different size (thin).

e.g., Koffi’s hair is darker than John’s.

Ask pupils to make sentences by using these adjectives in the comparative.

1. Ayele (15 years) Afi (12 years) young/old
2. Lome Lagos big/small
3. Koffi (90 kg) Koku (75 kg) heavy/light

12. Compare the following countries to Togo in area and population.
Table 47
Comparison of Area and Population of Some Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Square Miles/Km²</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Togo</td>
<td>21,924</td>
<td>56,785 km²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>92,098</td>
<td>238,533 km²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>478,839</td>
<td>1,240,192 km²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>459,075</td>
<td>1,189,000 km²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gabon</td>
<td>103,347</td>
<td>267,667 km²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>356,681</td>
<td>923,800 km²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cole d’Ivoire</td>
<td>124,503</td>
<td>322,463 km²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>4,127</td>
<td>10,690 km²</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. Using the information below, compare the distance between Lome and two other towns. e.g., Lome is closer to Aneho than it is to Kpalime. Lome is not (as, so) close to Kpalime as it is to Aneho.
Table 48

Distance from Lome to Other Cities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance from Lome</th>
<th>Distance from Lome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tsevie</td>
<td>32 km</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kpalime</td>
<td>123 km</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aneho</td>
<td>44 km</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sokode</td>
<td>355 km</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atakpame</td>
<td>167 km</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kara</td>
<td>430 km</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notse</td>
<td>100 km</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dapaon</td>
<td>650 km</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Use these sentences to teach the comparative of equality.

1. He is stubborn. He is like a mule = He is as stubborn as a mule.
2. This bed is hard. It is like a rock = This bed is as hard as a rock.

Change these pairs of sentences as the examples above.

1. The linen is white. It is like snow.
2. This "brochette" is hot. It is like fire.
3. The noise is very loud. It is like thunder.
4. The meat is tough. It is like shoe leather.
5. This place is quiet. It is like a church.
6. The fruit is sweet. It is like candy.
7. She is timid. She is like a mouse.
8. She looks fresh. She is like a daisy.

NB. "aussi....que" se traduit par comme.
14. (a) Ask the pupils to give you adjectives they know.
(b) Write these adjectives on the board in four different columns.
   if the adjective takes er use column 1.
   if the adjective takes more use column 2.
   if the adjective takes ier use column 3.
   if the adjective is monosyllabic use column 4.

Why did the teacher classify the adjectives? Omaggio (1986) stated that grammar rules are not explicitly taught. They are assumed to be learned through practice. Pupils are encouraged to form their own generalizations about grammar through inductive methods.

Use the pupils in class as visual aids; use also the objects in the classroom: tables, desks, pencils, pens, rulers etc... Use the height, weight, and age of the pupils. Put the pupils in a team. Two to four pupils in a group. They should come up with as many comparisons as possible. They should make use of the things in the classroom. Have a game. Those who use original comparative of adjective should be awarded a point.

Start with er adjective.
(a) Koffi is taller than John.
(b) Put the rule for /er/ adjective on the board.
(c) Use an adjective that takes /more/
    Paul is more intelligent than Abalo.
(d) Put the rule for /more/ adjective on the board.
Ask the pupils to show you the difference.

(e) Written Practice. Mechanical Drills

2. Two nouns and an adjective.

John is older than Paul. (old)

Practice Negative constructions

John is not older than Paul.

15. Team up with one of your classmates. Compare yourselves in different ways. First, stand up next to each other. Compare your height. Now write a sentence with the adjective /tall/ that explains the comparison. Example: I am taller than Joe.

Now continue to make comparisons.

a. Compare your height again. Use the adjective (short).
b. Compare your weight. Use the adjective (heavy).
c. Compare the length of your hair. Use the adjective (long).
d. Compare the size of your hands. Use the adjective (big/small).
e. Compare the size of your feet. Use the adjective (large).
f. Compare your eyes. Use the adjective (dark).
g. Compare your shoes. Use the adjective (comfortable).
h. Compare your pencils. Use the adjective (sharp).

16. Introduce adjectives that end in the letter Y.

Example: Happy, easy, dirty, lazy, pretty, and so forth.

Ask the pupils to remove "Y" and add ier to the consonant. Happier, easier, and so forth.
Example: English is easier than German.
Teach the Possessive Pronouns in between the lessons. Mine, yours, and so forth....
Example: His bag is more expensive than mine.

17. Complete each sentence with the verb "to be" and the comparative form of superiority of an adjective. Use the list below.

- difficult
- expensive
- wide
- heavy
- slow
- sugar
- turtles
- A computer
- This exercise
- A concorde
- Diamonds
- Apples
- for you
- these apartments
- A brick
- A river
- Sweet
- useful
- healthy
- spacious
- fast
- lemon juice
- giraffes
- a typewriter
- the last exercise
- a Boeing 707
- pearls
- chewing gums
- dormitory rooms of village du Benin
- a feather
- a stream

18. Write a sentence that compares each set of items.

Example: a bus / an aeroplane. (fast)
An aeroplane is faster than a bus.

1. a rock / a piece of soap. (hard)
3. English grammar / Ewe grammar (easy)
4. A soccer match / a basketball game (exciting)
5. The roar of a motorcycle / the roar of a jet plane (loud)
6. A politician's job / a teacher's job (important)

19. Use the information in each item to write a comparison. Use the adjective that is given and the verb "to be."

1. A lion can run 50 miles per hour. A zebra can run 40 miles per hour. (fast)
2. A human being can run 27 miles per hour. A cat can run 30 miles per hour. (slow)
3. Robert's grade was 15/20 in English. Tom's grade was 10/20 in English. (good)
4. Yao was born in 1975. Koffi was born in 1979. (Young)

20. Make a table and ask the pupils to compare the subjects in it.

a.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupil</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Height</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Lbs that can be lifted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Koffi</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4'6&quot;</td>
<td>13/20</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yao</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4'10&quot;</td>
<td>10/20</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example: Yao is taller than Koffi. Koffi is older than Yao.
20. (continued)

b.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupil</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Height</th>
<th>Weight</th>
<th>Year in College</th>
<th>Can run the mile in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6'</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>5:30 lbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6'3&quot;</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>4th</td>
<td>6:00 lbs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example: Paul weighs more than John. (Paul is heavier than John) John runs faster than Paul.

c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupil</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Height</th>
<th>Weight</th>
<th># of brothers and sisters</th>
<th>Year in College</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Akoko</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5'6&quot;</td>
<td>118 lbs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akoele</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5'6&quot;</td>
<td>118 lbs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example: Akoko is as old as Akoele. Akoele weighs as much as Akoko.
Recommendation for further research and Implications

As a follow-up, the researcher suggests that further investigation and studies be conducted in the following areas:

1. Pupils who repeat class, score higher than new ones. Does this imply that one should encourage the policy of having pupils repeat classes or find the reason for it?

2. Formal training in French seems to have produced subjects who are more competent in French than their native Ewe. A study is needed to analyze this problem.

3. Other grammatical structures should be investigated by the use of a similar procedure. A consideration of the results may provide a better assessment of a pupil’s competence in English.

4. Teachers who want to increase their understanding of classroom interaction should be encouraged to be actively involved in classroom research themselves—find the relationship between classroom behavior and language learning.

5. Further study of language teachers’ response to student language (e.g., adjective usage) errors should be conducted with a larger sample to confirm or reject findings of the present study.
Numerous implications can be drawn on the basis of the findings of this study. One implication is the need to strengthen the learners' academic proficiency in Ewe to facilitate the learning of English the school. However, whether Ewe academic proficiency is causative in the success of English needs to be examined in experimental research. Another implication is that correcting student errors in classroom linguistic exercises may or may not have an effect on high school English in Togolese school. Finally, teachers surveyed in the study reported a need for study abroad in England or the United Stated as a means towards building their fluency in English and indirectly their performance as teachers. A pilot project could be conducted to study the accuracy of their perception. A small-scale, controlled study of selected representative teachers of English could be conducted to reveal ways that teachers' linguistic skills, cultural knowledge, and instructional (teaching) skills can be improved. Such a study could involve pre-testing and post-posting of both teachers and their pupils with a three-four month study abroad experience. The results could be important for establishing both policies and staff development opportunities for English language teachers in Togo and other countries.

Conclusion

Error analysis has helped the investigator identify, classify, and analyze adjectival errors of the subjects in
this study. Language teachers should be cautious about placing emphasis on student errors at the expense of a focus on communicative language teaching. There is some evidence to support the notion that fluency should precede accuracy.

Brown (1980) wrote:

The comprehension of language is as important as production. It so happens that production lends itself to analysis and thus becomes the prey of researchers; but comprehension data is equally important in developing an understanding of the process of second language acquisition (p. 116).

Foreign language teachers in Togo no longer have to rely entirely upon textbooks written by our former colonizers. Times have changed. Teachers should learn that authors write textbooks for large audiences and no matter how careful, well-intentioned, and inspired they may be, there is no way the author can foresee and anticipate the needs of every teacher and pupil. Togolese teachers of English need to work together and write their own textbooks that deal with the culture of the country since that is one way to help pupils develop more effective language learning strategies. The Ministry of Education has a role in providing seminars, staff development, and study abroad opportunities for the teachers of English so that they may raise their linguistic and teaching skills.
APPENDICES
APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE PUPILS
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE PUPILS

(Written)

School:__________________________________________________________
Class:____________________________________________________________
Teacher:____________________________________________________________________

1. School___________________________________________________________
2. Age______________________________________________________________
3. Sex_______________________________________________________________
4. Form (class)____________________________________________________________________
5. Which language do you speak at home?____________________________
6. What grade do you usually get in English on examinations?
   Please circle one:
   A.  B.  C.  D.
   16/20 or more  13/20 or more  10/20 or more  9/20 or less

7. How interested are you in English? Please circle one:
   A.  B.  C.  D.
   Very Much   A little   Very little   Not at all

8. What aspects of English grammar cause you the most difficulty? (Please write one or two points and describe them if you can.)
APPENDIX B

Picture Description in English
Describe these three pictures in English. Make your sentences into a story describing what these people are saying to each other. Use all these three pictures.

1. couple #1
2. couple #2
3. couple #2

[Image of three comic strips showing interactions between people giving gifts and receiving gifts.]
APPENDIX C

PICTURE DESCRIPTION IN FRENCH
FRANÇAIS

Faites une description de cette image.

Développez cette image en une courte composition.
APPENDIX D

PICTURE DESCRIPTION IN EWE
ףו נְיָﬠֵﬠַﬠַﬠ הַﬠַﬠַﬠַﬠ.
לֵﬠַﬠ הַﬠַﬠַﬠַﬠַﬠַﬠַﬠַﬠ הַﬠַﬠַﬠַﬠ הַﬠַﬠַﬠ הַﬠַﬠַﬠ.
APPENDIX E

TRANSLATION FROM EWE INTO ENGLISH
DE NYADOANYI SIA GOME DE ENLISIGBE ME
Ami ḋe kusi la keke wú Ama tće.
Abalo ḋe kuku la do atsyṽ wú Afi tće.
Adzo lolo eye wòkō wú Ami; gake Ami tsi wúi.
Le Adzo kple Ami dome ḍe, amekae dze tugbe wú?
Mamanye tsi wú tugbuinye gake tugbuinye sese wúi.
Akọnu vivi wú dọ́nụti. Anexo medidi tso Lome gbo abe
Kpalime ene o. Afe si le kpoa dzi la lolo eye woko wú
esi le balia me.
APPENDIX F

TRANSLATION FROM FRENCH INTO ENGLISH
Deux jours plus tard, elle m'a dit : Lomé est plus propre et moins grand qu'Accra. Kofi est plus âgé que moi, mais je suis plus lourde que lui. Un cheval n'est pas aussi rapide qu'un train. Mon père a une radio et un téléviseur; lequel est le plus cher des deux ? Ton sac est plus joli que le mien. Février est moins froid que Janvier et il fait plus chaud au Togo qu'aux États-Unis. J'aime le chien mieux que le chat et il est plus fidèle. Le fer est plus utile que l'or, mais l'or est plus précieux.
Mr. Anouzou who teaches English is as old as Mr. Anani, the Math teacher. They are much younger than Mr. Adjavor. Frankly speaking, Mr. Adjavor is the oldest teacher in the school. He is going to retire soon. Mr. Amouzu and Mr. Anmani are good teachers, but Mr. Anani is more serious than Mr. Amouzou. The teacher of English is livelier and friendlier than the Math teacher; he participates more in social activities than Mr. Anani does and he does not work as hard as Mr. Anani does.
APPENDIX H

LETTER TO THE DIRECTOR OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH IN TOGO
Monsieur le Ministre de l'Education Nationale et de la Recherche Scientifique

LOMÉ

S/C Monsieur le Directeur de la Recherche Scientifique

LOMÉ

Monsieur le Ministre,

J'ai l'honneur de venir avec déférence solliciter de votre bienveillance une autorisation en vue de procéder aux recherches linguistiques dans (4) quatre établissements secondaires de la ville de Lomé dans le cadre de la préparation de ma thèse (Ph.D) doctorat d'État dans l'Enseignement de l'Anglais.

Lesdites recherches porteront sur trois langues, notamment, l'Ewé, le Français et l'Anglais.


Espérant qu'une suite favorable sera réservée à ma présente requête, je vous prie de croire, Monsieur le Ministre, à l'expression de mes sentiments respectueux.

ANANOU Koffi
APPENDIX I

LETTER FROM MINISTER OF EDUCATION
Le Ministre de l'Education Nationale et de la Recherche Scientifique autorise Monsieur ANANOU Koffi, Enseignant à l'Université du Bénin à entreprendre de février à mars 1991 des recherches dans quatre (4) établissements secondaires à Lomé, sur le thème du "Comparatif des adjectifs en Ewé, Français et Anglais".

L'intéressé devra se conformer aux engagements figurant sur la fiche de demande d'autorisation de recherche.
APPENDIX J

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TEACHERS
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TEACHERS

(Written)

School:----------------------------------------------------

Class:-----------------------------------------------------

Teacher:---------------------------------------------------

1. School---------------------------------------------------

2. Sex------------------------------------------------------

3. Subjects you currently teach.-------------------------

4. Number of years of teaching experience.----------------

5. Your highest Degree: Please circle one:
   A. High School Diploma       B. Teacher's College
   C. Undergraduate Degree      D. Master's Degree

6. Teacher Training: Please circle one:
   A. none                      B. In-service training only
   C. One or two years of      D. Four years of training
      training

7. What aspects of English do you find most difficult to teach?     (Please explain briefly.)
APPENDIX K

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR TEACHERS
(Oral)
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR TEACHERS
(Oral)

School: -------------------------------------------------------------
Class: -------------------------------------------------------------
Teacher: -------------------------------------------------------------

1. a. What are the most frequent errors that your pupils make in speaking English? Would you please give one or two examples.

b. What are the most frequent errors that your pupils make in reading English? Would you please give one of two examples?

c. What are the most frequent errors that your pupils make in writing English? Would you please give one of two examples?

2. In your opinion, what is the role of grammar in language learning? (Could you explain what you mean?)

3. How do you present grammar to your pupils?

4. Are you satisfied with the way verbs are presented in the textbooks you currently use?

5. Are you satisfied with the way the comparison of adjectives is presented in the textbooks? What suggestions do you have for teaching this topic? (Explain)

6. How would you change the materials (textbooks) you use if you could? Please explain.

7. How do the instructional materials you use present cultural information?

8. Do the pupils in your classes who have difficulties with English, usually experience similar difficulties in French? (Explain). What about in Ewe? (Explain)

9. Is there anything you would like to tell me about teaching English that I have not asked you?
APPENDIX L

RATING SCALE

PICTURE DESCRIPTION
Rating Scale

Picture Description

A. & B. 0------------8 (9)
C. 0------------3 (4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Passage Translation Conversion of Raw Scores: Collapsed

A & B 0------------12 (13)
C. 0------------7 (8)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

APPENDIX M

KEY FOR PUPILS' TASKS
KEY FOR PUPIL'S TASKS

Description in English

In picture one, the Johnsons and the Williams are together to celebrate Christmas. Mr. Johnson has a bigger present for his wife. Mrs. Williams is angry because her parcel is smaller than Mrs. Johnson’s.

In picture two, Mr. Williams is telling his wife that he will buy her something better next year. This year has been bad for him and he has spent more money at the beginning of the school year. That is why he is poorer than last year.

In picture three, Mrs. Williams looks sad but her husband is saying: "it is not the size of the present which is important but the gift itself. Perhaps your gift is more expensive than Mrs. Johnson’s.

Description in French

No. 1 = Eyadema, No. 2 = Mobutu. No 3. = Houphouet. No 4 = Mitterrand.

Eyadema et Mobutu paraissent plus jeunes que les deux autres. Houphouet est plus âgé que Mitterrand. Il a des problèmes pour marcher et c'est pourquoi Eyadema qui est plus jeune le tient par la main. Mitterrand et Eyadema marchent avec assurance. On peut conclure qu'ils connaissent bien les lieux. Quant au vieux Léopard, il cherche les escaliers. Le public autour des Présidents est en fête. Mitterrand est le maître de la situation. Il est
le guide; il est plus sûr de lui que les autres qui ne dépendent que de sa décision.

Description in Ewe.


Passage Translation

Ewe into English

Ami’s basket is larger/wider/bigger/than Ama’s.
Abalo’s hat is prettier/nicer/more beautiful/than Afi’s.
Adzo is bigger/fatter/and taller (nicer, tonal neater, cleaner) than Ami but Ami is older than she is.
Between Adzo and Ami, who is the prettier/the more beautiful?
My grandmother is older than my grandfather but my grandfather is stronger than she is.
A banana is sweeter/more delicious/than a lemon.
Aneho is not so far from Lome as Kpalime is.
The house which is on the hill is bigger and taller than the one in the valley.
Two days later she told me: Lome is cleaner and less large than Accra.

Koffi is older than I am but I am heavier than he is.

A Horse is not (as fast as) a train.

My father has a radio and a TV set, which of the two is the more expensive? / Which is the more expensive of the two?/

Your bag is nicer/prettier/more beautiful/than mine.

February is less cold than January and it (is) warmer in Togo than in the United States. (gets)

I like the dog better than the cat and it is more faithful.
Iron is more useful than gold but gold is more precious.

REFERENCES


Taylor, B.P. (1975). The use of overgeneralization and transfer learning strategies by elementary and
intermediate students of ESL.  Language Learning, **25**, 73-107.


