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TEACHING ENGLISH IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN TOGO: A TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

DISSERTATION

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

By
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2000

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ABSTRACT

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is the latest language teaching paradigm that dominates language education programs worldwide. The purpose of this study was to investigate the extent to which English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching in Togo has responded to communicative language teaching principles. In particular, the study sought to answer five research questions about the pedagogical orientation of the English teaching objectives and textbooks currently in use in Togolese senior high schools, and the match between EFL objectives and EFL textbooks. A content analysis research methodology was used for analyzing Togolese EFL textbooks and objectives. Analysis instruments were generated following Krippendorff's (1980) and Holti's (1969) theory of content analysis, and professional literature on CLT.

The findings indicated that the English language teaching objectives for the Togolese senior high schools have a structural rather than a communicative pedagogical orientation, as does one series of Togolese textbooks. On the other hand, the textbook for grade 13 was found to be communicative but somewhat inappropriate for an EFL context. The study concluded that CLT was still part of the null curriculum in Togo. Pedagogical inferences were made, based on the fact that these textbooks and the objectives have been in use throughout Togo
for more than a decade. It was argued that an evaluation of the English as a Foreign Language teaching system was overdue, and that the English teaching system in Togo needs increased professionalization in terms of staff development, curriculum, and instructional practices. Implications for the application of CLT in EFL contexts were discussed, and recommendations were made for a re-orientation towards an English as an International Language (EIL) conception of teaching, and an adaptation of emancipatory pedagogy for the teaching of English in the high schools and for the development of teachers. In addition, recommendations for further study and limitations of the study are described. The study also includes a bibliography and appendices.
Dedicated to my aunt Ologbin, and to Cathie, Adekonle, and Sabi
who learned the meaning of sacrifice the hard way.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

In the early 1970s, the field of language education witnessed the emergence of a new paradigm, communicative language teaching (CLT hereafter), which was based on new linguistic theories of language competence, and which was to quickly dominate language education programs. Since then a lot has been said and written about CLT and its supporting theories of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1972, 1983, 1991; Swan, 1985), and the debate is still ongoing (Celce-Murcia, Dornyei & Thurrell, 1997). Swan wrote in 1985 that "... Teachers feel guilty about not being communicative", but the same is still true today. Grittner (1990) identified CLT as "the newest bandwagon." He defined bandwagon as "... A movement that evokes a fervent commitment to a single unified theory of teaching, with the implication that the new method has demonstrated results that are far superior to those of any previous approach" (Grittner, 1990, p. 10). The danger with bandwagons, he continued, is that "They can end up inhibiting teacher creativity... impel teachers
toward a suspension of common sense, resulting in the abandonment of

techniques that were working well and the adoption of procedures that fail to
function in the local setting” (p. 39).

With regard to CLT, Nunan (1988) acknowledged that “Communicative

approaches are currently used in many different contexts and situations, not all of
which were intended by the original working party of the Council of Europe, and
in consequence some of the Council of Europe perspectives may not be
relevant” (p. 25). He explained that CLT originated from the Council of Europe
who wanted to specify “the sorts of things that language users might want to do
with languages used within the European Community. Consequently, they were
thinking of a specified group of adult learners using the languages of Europe to
carry out specific tasks which included not only economic and business activities,
but also recreational and touristic activities” (p. 25). Concurrent developments of
CLT in the U.S.A. focused on the observance of sociolinguistic norms of
appropriacy according to Hymes' (1971) views, as well as the language learner's
ability to interact with the speakers (Savignon, 1972). In interpreting Hymes'
views, Savignon (1991) claimed, U.S. methodologists tended to focus on native
speaker norms, and on the difficulty of “authentically” representing them in a
classroom of nonnative speakers, which caused the appropriateness of
communicative competence as an instructional goal to be questioned by
researchers like Paulston (1974).

The above overview shows that there are differing opinions about CLT
and that there is no monolithic CLT. As Berns (1990, p. v) rightly put it, “As
communicative competence is defined by the social and cultural contexts in which it is used, no communicative competence can serve as the goal and model for all learners.” It is to be understood then that, in designing a CLT program, it is important to consider the uses learners make of the target language, their reasons for using it, and their attitudes toward it.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Despite warnings against a blind adoption of CLT, literature in foreign language education shows that in most English as a foreign language (EFL hereafter) teaching contexts, as opposed to English as a second language (ESL hereafter), there is a tendency to adopt it without consideration of the learners’ needs or the socio-cultural context. This can be illustrated by the Chinese case: Many studies have discussed the practicality of the communicative approach for teaching English in China (Anderson, 1993; Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Maley, 1984; White, 1989). After deploring the fact that Chinese teachers of English continue to use mainly traditional non-communicative methodology, the studies implied that communicative teaching should be encouraged and integrated with traditional Chinese methods. As Maley (1984) warned, with the native speakers in mind, “As proponents of change, we need to be wary of throwing out the valued baby with the worthless bath water” (p. 169). The problem is that the proponents of change believe that the Chinese system successfully teaches a kind of English that may not be an appropriate kind for the needs of
contemporary society in China. They, therefore, hold that change is not only inevitable but also desirable (Maley, 1984, p. 166). When that position is taken, the opinions of the Chinese teachers of English (who are part of the context) are ignored, even when they “see communicative methods as suitable for the contexts and purposes of learning English as a second language (ESL)... and Chinese methods as suitable for the purposes and context of learning English as a foreign language (EFL)” (Burnaby & Sun, 1989, p. 227; parenthesis added). The question remains: To what degree will the new English teaching methods suit the real-life English needs of the Chinese students in the Chinese context? The Chinese situation is just one example among many.

Other EFL teaching contexts may not provide the opportunity for investigating this problem as extensively as China does. That is the case for the EFL context that this study will focus on, Togo. Togo is a Francophone West African country where, in 1986, the English language planners (a committee appointed by the Ministry of Education) opted for “new trends in the teaching of English” for “absolute priority must be given to communication, a factor of fulfillment and socialization” (Programmes, 1986, pp. 1-2). Besides, in addition to adherence to the new trends, new textbook series developed externally to Togo have been adopted: (a) The English-Africa series, by Kenneth Cripwell, published by Macmillan in 1986, and (b) a textbook edited by Prentice Hall, The American Way, published in 1986, for the final year of senior high school (grade 13). These outside textbooks, along with the newly adopted communicative syllabus, have now been in use for at least a decade. At this point, evaluation of
the English program is needed so that the whole English teaching process could be reviewed and reinforced for more efficiency.

In this EFL setting, the textbook is the backbone of an English language teaching program. Thus, the purpose of this study is to investigate the extent to which the Togolese English teaching system has responded to communicative language teaching principles and also to the local teaching context. The focus of the study is the analysis of English teaching objectives at senior high school, and the analysis of the content of English textbooks used at this level.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND DEFINITIONS

The study was based on an analysis of the textbooks in use in Togolese senior high schools since 1986, with a focus on the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) paradigm. It drew on the theoretical principles underlying CLT, from its foundational literature (Widdowson, 1978; Canale & Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1983) to the most recent, state-of-the-art literature (Bachman, 1990; Berns, 1990; Savignon, 1991; Celce-Murcia et al., 1997).

CLT or Communicative Language Teaching describes any approach to language teaching that claims to be based on a view of language as communication, and that is founded on an understanding of communication as meaning-making, and on an understanding of the variability of norms of communication from context to context (Berns, 1990). That implies that there are diverse models of CLT that apply to different teaching contexts and that base on
different interpretations of underlying theories (Rivers, 1973; Paulston, 1976; Piepho, 1979; Widdowson, 1979; Savignon, 1983). The language planner thus has a choice to make amongst different models.

The goal of CLT is to develop ‘communicative competence’ which is defined by Savignon (1983) as “the expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning involving interaction between two or more persons or between one person and a written or oral text”. Nonetheless, there are diverse views of communicative competence which determine each CLT model (e.g., functional approach, functional-notional approach, interactional approach), and the experts are yet to agree on an overall set of components of communicative competence. That also forces the curriculum designer to make an informed choice. As Mitchell, (1988, p. 109) rightly put it, “CLT is not a neatly packaged language teaching ‘method’, but rather a fluid set of ideas, which exists in so-called ‘weak’ and ‘strong’ versions.”

Communicative syllabi are the vehicles of CLT. They also vary in their purposes (i.e., what the learners should be able to do with the language) and designs (Krahnke, 1987; Yalden, 1987; Berns, 1990). However, they are all sensitive to the learners’ needs with regard to communication in the real world in the target language. That is where the differences between English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts come into play.

The use of these acronyms becomes more and more confusing and the binary distinction ESL/EFL does not hold any longer in a clear-cut way
throughout the world (Nayar, 1997). Nonetheless, there are distinct ESL teaching
contexts where English is used outside of the classroom in everyday life as a
Language of Wider Communication (LWC), for instance for official and
administrative functions (e.g., the USA, Australia, Ghana). On the other hand,
there are EFL contexts where English is taught in schools, but does not play an
essential role in national or social life (e.g., Korea, Togo, Peru). The differences
in sociolinguistic settings bring into question the issue of ‘authenticity’, with its
many dimensions. The discussion of these theories and concepts associated
with CLT and of their application to Togo was driven by curriculum theory in
general education, in this case ‘emancipatory curriculum’ (Grundy, 1987; Lange,
1990; Pinar et al., 1995).

Other definitions needed to provide a foundation for the upcoming
discussion:

Textbook: For the purposes of this study, a textbook should be seen as a
physical object, a book bound within covers, especially written for use in schools
to support a course or syllabus (adapted from Bourdillon, 1990).

Context: Refers to the teaching context or setting. In that sense, context
includes the sociolinguistic environment, the surrounding cultures, the learners’
language behaviors and language needs, the school system, the political and
administrative realities. Wherever ‘context’ refers to linguistic context, as in ‘the
linguistic context of an utterance’, it was specified.

Language teaching objectives: Should be understood to comprise both
the broad goals or general purposes of a syllabus and the formal statements
describing what the students should know and be able to do with the language as a result of instruction.

BACKGROUND CONDITIONS OF THE STUDY

Brief Survey

Togo is a small-size country of 56,600 km² (slightly smaller than West Virginia in the United States) on the West African coast (Ramsay, 1997). Its immediate neighbors are English-speaking Ghana to the West, Burkina-Faso to the North, Benin and Nigeria to the East. An international coastal road links Ghana, Togo, Benin, and Nigeria together, thus allowing commercial flow as well as cultural exchanges between the populations. Of relevance is the fact that Togo is a member of many inter-African or international organizations (e.g., UNO; The World Bank; The Economic Council of West African States or ECOWAS; the West African “Conseil de l’Entente”, Air-Afrique company; The Organization of African Unity or OAU; the “Union Monétaire Ouest-Africaine” or UMOA; the “Banque Centrale des Etats de l’Afrique de l’Ouest” or BCEAO). The country practices a non-aligned economic policy. Across the professional literature written on Togo, authors agree on the heterogeneous ethnic makeup of its population, often referred to as an ‘ethnic mosaic’ (Cornevin, 1962; Prouzet, 1976; Ramsay, 1997). More than 50 ethnic groups total up to 4,570,000 inhabitants (Ramsay, 1997, p. 63). It should be noted that many communities are astride the border lines (e.g., the Ewé and the Konkomba in Togo and Ghana,
the Gourma/Mossi in Togo and Burkina-Faso, the Mina in Togo and Benin).
Sometimes, the same cultural area overlaps three countries. For example, the
Ana-Ifé of Togo, the Nago of Benin, and the Yoruba of Nigeria are the same
people, as is illustrated in Curtin et al. (1992). Traditionally, the country has been
described as a ‘refuge territory’ for populations fleeing from the Asante wars to
the West and the Yoruba and Dahomey wars to the East in the early nineteenth
century (Curtin et al., 1992). That may account for the mosaic makeup.

Cornevin (1962) claimed there are about fifty language groups that the
linguists classify into the Kwa group and the Gur or Voltaic group. Ewe was
transcribed as early as in the seventeenth century by missionaries, and then
followed Kabye with colonization. But thanks to the religious endeavors of the
Summer Institute of Linguistics (SIL), an American group, many languages have
been transcribed using the Latin alphabet, and the Bible has been translated into
them (Kozelka, 1984). Prior to colonization, some languages became vehicular
languages for inter-regional markets (e.g., Cotocoli on the ‘Kola route’), and
others were specialized for use at church (e.g., Ewe in the South). The most
widely used languages, in relation to the percentage of their users, are Ewé,
Kabiyé, Ouatchi, Losso-Nawdum, and Cotocoli, according to Cornevin (1962)
and Kozelka (1984). The multitude of languages account for the fact that in
Africa, generally speaking, for most learners of French and English the European
language is either their third or fourth language (Treffgarne, 1975), and Togolese
learners are no exceptions in that respect.
Togo became independent in 1960. It was a German colony from 1884 until World War I, prior to being divided into two sections, with one third of the territory put under British tutelage, and the remaining two thirds simultaneously placed under the League of Nation's mandate with French rule. The portion under mandate was later transferred under the French tutelage from 1945 to 1958, when the territory acquired its full autonomy, preluding independence.

Before the West Africa Berlin Conference in 1884-5 which started the 'scramble' for Africa (Afigbo et al., 1993, p. 125), European missionaries and traders and slave hunters were roaming the coasts of the Gulf of Guinea, then known as the 'Slave Coast'. They were British, Brazilian, French and German, looking for zones of influence in the area today covered by Ghana (former Gold Coast), Togo, Republic of Benin (former Dahomey), and Nigeria. They opened trading posts along the coast, signing treaties of 'protection' and 'free' trade with illiterate chiefs, and from there reached for more possessions into the inland, (Afigbo et al., 1993).

**Education and Language Issues during the Colonial Period**

According to Cornevin, a specialist of Togo history and former colonial administrator, as the colonizers were settling along the Atlantic coast, they needed interpreters and clerks to carry on petty administrative jobs at the trade posts (1962, p. 201, my translation). For sometime, English and German training centers were run by missionaries, until the German Governor Seidel decided in 1903 the ban of English instruction on German territory, thus reinforcing his *Deutschland über alles* policy (Germany above all). From 1905 on, more
Regierung Schulen or public German schools were created, with one practical school in Nuatja for agriculture, and a professional school run by catholic priests in Lome for carpenters, locksmiths, blacksmiths, and bookbinders, etc. The catholic priests had a teacher training college of 42 in 1912.

However, German was not used in all schools. The lower level schools were run in the local language, Ewe, which was written since 1658 (Labouret & Rivet, 1929, cited in Kozelka, 1984) and subsequently developed by missionaries. Nevertheless, German education, for the 30 years it lasted, had its impact on the population. Its influence was most manifested in 1929, long after the Germans were gone, when the German-educated elite formed the Bund der Deutschen Togolander association that claimed the return of the German colonizers. Subsequently, they were expatriated by the French Governor Montagne and found refuge in the neighboring Gold Coast.

Kozelka (1984) suggested English also played a noticeable role in educational curricula of this period, especially with the advent of a British Wesleyan mission to the Mina area in the 1890's. Since it was the language of international trade along much of the coast, parents demanded that their children receive instruction in it. Interestingly enough, Cornevin (1962) also mentioned the fact that thousands of Togolese, mostly in the South, spoke a form of pidgin English at the turn of the century. As a matter of fact, certainly because of the early presence of English in the area, and also because of seasonal migrations to Ghana for work in the cocoa fields, the English language has influenced many Togolese local languages with a lot of borrowings from English. For instance,
Kozelka (1984) observed that in the Kabiye language (second in importance in Togo), the majority of borrowings are clearly adaptations from French and English (p. 284). Other in-vivo influences, in the form of unplanned borrowings from English, have been identified by Schmied (1997) in the Mina language. A few examples are: Sukulu (school), chicha (teacher), chimgom (chewing-gum), chochi (church), taya (tire) (p. 142). Such loan words can be documented in most Togolese languages. However, the illiterate speakers, the majority of the population, are not aware of the origin of the words if they do not speak some kind of pidgin English.

That development of English was to be stopped upon takeover by the French Administration after World War I. Kozelka (1984) claimed a French-only policy was instituted then, whereby only French was taught in the schools, recognized in courts of law, and used in administration, except for catechism and religious instruction, which was controlled by Christian missionaries. Under the French tutelage, the instruction cycle was completed with senior high schools which were organized as in France, with the same curricula. Textbooks were donated by France, including English texts, and most of the teaching personnel was French, until the early years of independence in the 1960's. The end-of-cycle exams were then externally imposed and controlled from Paris (for the Brevet d'Etudes du Premier Cycle, or BEPC, at the end of junior high), and from Bordeaux (for the Baccalauréat, at the end of senior high). The laureates at the Baccalaureat then went to France or Dakar (Senegal) or Bamako (present-day Mali) for higher education. Nowadays, those exams are locally organized, and
there exists a local university which is still to be completed with doctoral programs in most departments. French remains the main medium of instruction at all levels, as the official language.

French as the Official Language

A few researchers have argued against the use of the term ‘Francophone’ as it applies to African countries, on the grounds that only a tiny proportion of the population speaks French (Weinstein, 1980; Bokamba, 1984, quoted in Cline-Bailey, 1994; Treffgarne, 1986). In the same connection, Djite deplored the fact that “After 30 years of experimentation with international languages, most Africans have yet to learn to speak the official/national language of their respective countries” (1993, p. 163). Togo is no exception to that situation. It was suggested that in 1974, non-educated citizens with no French composed 80 percent of the male population and 96 percent of the female population in urban areas (Weinstein, 1980, referring to a study by Lynn Sedlack, 1978). Even though the literacy situation might have made little progress since then, the pervasiveness of French should not be under-estimated.

Cooper (1989) defined ‘official language’ as “a legally appropriate language for all politically and culturally representative purposes on a nation-wide basis (statutory function), a language which the government uses as a medium for its day-to-day activity (working function), and as a symbol of the state (symbolic function)” (p.100). In Togo, only French plays these three roles together, thereby acquiring both functional relevance and cultural relevance at the administrative and educational levels, and even at the personal and inter-
personal level, as it is not uncommon for a Togolese couple to adopt French in their home because they do not speak each other’s mother tongues. French is thus the language of the educated minority, as well as the language of the lower classes that may speak some local varieties. The roles of French in Togo can be best described by paraphrasing Kachru (1982): In Togo, French performs an ‘instrumental function’ in the sense that it is the medium of instruction at all levels of the educational system, other foreign languages being reduced to mere school subjects; French also has a ‘regulative function’, which entails its use to regulate conduct (e.g., in the legal system and in administration); In addition, it fulfills an ‘inter-personal function’, as the lingua franca used by two Togolese from different ethnic groups who might not be able to communicate otherwise, and as a code which allows access to modern technology; Finally, far more than the two local national languages (Ewe and Kabye), French is the language used in varied literary and artistic creations, which is referred to as the ‘imaginative/innovative function’. As can be seen, the French language plays a preponderant role in the lives of the people and of the country. Moreover, it has a psychological incidence on its speakers because of the French colonial policy of ‘assimilation’: From personal observation, generally speaking, the more you know French the less you are likely to master your mother tongue and its culture. That cultural alienation is one of the reasons why the Togolese Administration launched an educational reform in 1975, with the introduction of the two most widely spoken local languages at school, in the hope that they will become the medium of instruction and, eventually, replace French (Reforme, 1975; Prouzet, 1976). But
that scheme has not been carried out to date, and French continues to have preponderance over all other languages.

**English Teaching in Togo**

Shortly after independence in 1960, a shift was made from French expatriate teachers to British expatriates and American Peace Corps as teachers of English. However, from 1974 on, while the educational reform emphasized the teaching of English as a compulsory subject for junior high and senior high schools, the English teaching personnel was all Togolese, with an important input of Togolese English teachers educated mainly in Britain and in neighboring Ghana.

The 'togolization' of the English teaching personnel at secondary level accompanied the progressive 'africanization' of teaching programs, starting with junior high level. Treffgarne (1975) documented the use in Togo of *L'Anglais par l'Illustration*, by Richards & Hall, a textbook with a British middle-class orientation, while texts in which the African context was more apparent were being experimented. Today, only books set in Africa are adopted at junior high level (e.g., *English for French Speaking Africa*, by Mills, Zodeougan, & Tomalin), as a way of 'decolonizing' the Togolese educational system (Reforme, 1975).

It should be observed that policy and planning decisions are made at the level of the Ministry of Education, and are typically implemented in a top-down fashion through the inspectors, the principals, and then the teachers and the students. The English teachers' initial training is the joint responsibility of two higher education institutions. Senior high teachers are trained at the local
university where they get a Bachelor of Arts degree in three years, or a Master of Arts degree in four years in English education. As for the junior high teachers, they are trained at the High School Teachers' Training College or Ecole Normale Supérieure (ENS), where they complete a three-year program crowned with a Certificat d'Aptitude Professionelle pour l'enseignement dans les Collèges d'Enseignement Généraux (CAP-CEG). Nevertheless, the number of English teachers who teach English just because they speak it is growing since English classes are also increasing in number (Treffgarne, 1975, p. 81).

Fortunately, in-service courses are regularly organized mainly by the British Council-Togo and the USIA-Togo (United States Information Agency in Togo), in collaboration with Togolese Administration, but the costs are entirely supported by British and American Administrations, in addition to periodical refresher courses for teachers in Britain. Great Britain unilaterally decided to put an end to its assistance in 1992, but the United States has lately initiated the training of Togolese English language specialists in the U.S. at post-graduate level. It should be noted that while neighboring English speaking countries send their students and teachers to the Togolese university for refresher courses, the reverse is not true, probably because, as Treffgarne (1975) suggested, "[The Francophone countries] fear that their 'standard' English will be adversely affected by Nigerian or Ghanaian English". It is also worth mentioning that if there was a Language Teachers' Association in 1971, as was documented by Treffgarne(1975), the activities and influence of that association have been
constantly at zero level with regard to English. The one-party political atmosphere might be one reason for that anomy.

Prior to coming to the lycee, the students have had four years of English at junior high institutions called College d'Enseignement General (CEG). The current junior high English syllabi were designed in 1983, in reaction against the former syllabi which were based on the grammar-translation method. The planning authority is a Ministry-of-Education-appointed committee of junior high teachers and inspectors, and the textbook adopted is the English for French Speaking Africa series. This national curriculum is in essence functional- grammatical, and the teachers are expected to use it as a framework to develop their own teaching materials, following communicative techniques. Nonetheless, an unofficial study of the curriculum by Tarpley and Akindjo (1989) established that the largest section consists of a list of discrete grammar points to be taught, and the teachers are left to decide which grammar point they want to teach, and that does not help the many inexperienced teachers. On the other hand, many functions were adopted without regard to the social context nor to the status of English in Togo. Thus, French or the local languages are used for many of the functions listed on the syllabi, e.g., ‘going to the barber’s’, ‘filling in forms at the post-office, at the bank...’, ‘asking for information about a school’. Another contradiction with the communicative choice is the fact that the oral exam at the end-of-fourth-year exam, the Brevet d'Etudes du Premier Cycle (BEPC), was banned in the 1980s by a ministerial decision, on the grounds that it was no
longer discriminating, and has not been re-established to date. Consequently, the students typically enter senior high school with limited practice in oral skills.

Societal Allocation of Languages

This picture of the background conditions of the study gives an idea of the respective status of the local languages and foreign languages in the Togolese context. The many local languages are physically present because of their number, and because of the large number of illiterates who cannot speak foreign languages. In Kozelka's (1984) words, "[E]ither Ewé or Mina is understood, and can be used as a market language, by approximately 60 percent of the population, and Cotocoli and Hausa serve as trade languages in the Central and Northern areas, respectively" (p. 55). Yet, French has a preponderant role in peoples' lives and is the language of education. That pervasiveness of French caused Kozelka (1984) to doubt the sincerity of the Togolese authorities' commitment to promote the status of main local languages. But Treffgarne (1986) gave an account of the phenomenon:

Language policy in education is linked to language policy in the executive, legislative and judicial branches of Government. Hence, the particularly high prestige associated with one language, at the expense of other languages, may derive from its predominant role in these domains. (p. 144)

It can be observed today that the local languages remain as school subjects and have not replaced French as a medium of instruction, as the 1975 Reform had planned. The national languages policy in Togo might be plagued with shortages of teaching personnel and the logistical problems of developing local languages at the national level, the same way as in other African countries (cf. Treffgarne,
Kozelka's (1984) seminal study of language planning in Togo showed that, with respect to language behaviors, French is the most used language of the workplace, and the most frequently read language, which confirms its official language status. Conversely, English was listed as the least spoken language. Nevertheless, it came directly after French and Ewe as the most frequently used language in reading letters, novels and stories. These data best represent the Togolese English teaching setting as an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context, where the main importance of English is as a school subject, and where it plays little functional role outside of school for the high school student.

Treffgarne (1975) identified 'areas of contact' between French-speaking and English-speaking African countries where cooperation is developing (e.g., diplomacy, commerce and industry, banking, law, the army). But these are professional areas which could ideally be the focus of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) programs. The present study considered general English curricula at the senior high school level, and the background description was meant to help understand the social and educational context that these curricula were meant to serve.
RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study endeavored to respond to the following research questions. While questions 1 and 2 purports to examine communicative characteristics of the objectives and the textbooks contents, questions 3 and 4 deal with the modes of communication selected in the objectives and in the textbooks, question 5 focuses on the match between the textbooks contents and the objectives, and questions 6 and 7 look into applications of the results.

1. To what extent do the published English language teaching objectives for the Togolese senior high schools have communicative characteristics?
   a. To what extent do the published objectives match current CLT philosophy?
   b. To what extent do the published objectives state expected communicative outcomes?

2. Do the textbooks contents have communicative characteristics?
   a. Do the textbooks contents match CLT philosophy?
   b. Do the textbooks include more communicative than structural focus?

3. What is the mode of communication emphasized by the published objectives?
   a. Do they focus on oral communication?
   b. Do they focus on written communication?

4. What is the mode of communication preferred in the textbooks contents?
   a. Do the textbooks focus on oral communication?
   b. Do the textbooks focus on written communication?
5 To what extent do the textbooks match the objectives?
   a. In their characteristics?
   b. In their modes of communication?
   c. Do the expected outcomes in the objectives match the textbooks characteristics?

6 How do EFL teaching/learning contexts require modification of the Communicative Language Teaching principles in a context like Togo?
   a. In the authenticity principle?
   b. With regard to the importance of the target culture?
   c. What mode(s) of communication should be emphasized in EFL?
   d. What English language skills do students need to practice outside of the classroom?

7 Given the situation of EFL teaching in Togo, what type of program model should be recommended for the senior high school level EFL?
   a. Is CLT doable in a context like Togo?
   b. What content should be recommended?
   c. What format should be recommended?
   d. What are the implications for teacher development?
ASSUMPTIONS

The following basic assumptions are made, based on the researcher's beliefs and experiences, as background guidelines to decision-making throughout the study:

Because the educational system in Togo is centralized, all the senior high schools use the textbooks analyzed in this study, and abide by the objectives under consideration. Therefore, the Togolese EFL program is assumed to be homogeneous.

The goals and objectives are the right place to start questioning a teaching program. They should express the planners' ideas and guide them in the planning process. It is assumed that EFL teachers in Togo teach to the stated goals and objectives.

In every educational system, and particularly in under-developed countries, the educational practices and outcomes should be evaluated on a regular basis to avoid waste of human and material resources and to enhance the quality of the teaching/learning. It is therefore assumed a systematic study of EFL textbooks also can reveal important data concerning EFL teaching in Togo. It is my belief that every teaching program should contribute to development of human and economic resources of a community.
SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The impetus for this study has been the felt need to begin to establish baseline data for understanding EFL contexts (particularly Francophone African settings) where locally motivated research is scant. The study is an assessment of procedures in program development, but it is not an assessment of effectiveness. In that sense it can be considered as a formative evaluation which, it is hoped, will help improve the decision making process in Togo with regard to the teaching of English. On the other hand, as stated above, the teaching of English in Togo is on a bandwagon (not used pejoratively). This study should therefore shed light on aspects of the bandwagon phenomenon in teaching contexts where research is more consumed than produced, and consequently highlight the importance of research for autonomous teaching.

It is also expected that this study of CLT in an EFL context will inform CLT approaches, as well as show its real scope and limitations. While it sheds light on the nature of the Francophone EFL context, it is expected to add insights to the growing distinction between EFL and ESL contexts, and contribute to a broader understanding of the concept of authenticity in language education.

The results will be disseminated to the education officials and teacher training institutions, and an impact on the English language policies and planning is expected, in terms of the consideration of the students' and the social needs as the starting point of the teaching. The researcher's ambition was to subsequently replicate this study in other Francophone African countries, with the
goal of identifying similarities and differences toward a harmonization at a geopolitical level.

ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION

This first chapter establishes the justification of the study, and delineates the theoretical framework as well as the sociolinguistic context of Togo which serve as background to the investigations. The research questions are also presented. The second chapter reviews the evolution of CLT and gives an account of its principal tenets. Previous experiences of CLT in EFL contexts are also reported. Research procedures and instruments designed for the analysis of the English teaching objectives and of the textbooks in use are described in chapter 3. Chapter 4 includes the findings for research questions 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, the theoretical implications of which are drawn in chapter 5. In response to research questions 6 and 7, that last section proposes an English teaching model for the Togolese EFL context. The dissertation is concluded by a References section and an Appendices section.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

Communicative competence may be new as a term in language sciences, but it is not new as a concept. That one learns to communicate by communicating was illustrated earlier by Montaigne's (1580) account of how he learned Latin: He claimed to have learnt Latin by conversing with his tutor, as well as with his parents, without method, without a book, without grammar or rules, without a whip and tears (Savignon, 1983, p. 47). Commenius, who lived from 1592 to 1670, is also reported to have objected to the traditional grammatical analysis in teaching a second language in the Middle Ages. Likewise, in the nineteenth century, proponents of the Natural Method claimed that learners should be allowed to discover for themselves how to function in their new language. In 1904, that same idea was echoed by the Danish methodologist and linguist Otto Jesperson, who believed that "language is not an end in itself, but a way of communication between souls, a means of communication" (cited in Savignon, 1983, p. 48). Thus language teaching
specialists have been concerned with teaching for communication since the Middle Ages. So why is Communicative Language Teaching considered a new emergent paradigm in the early 1980's?

This review of the literature on Communicative Language Teaching purported to bring answers to this question, shed light on the nature of CLT, and give an account of how it is applied in a few EFL contexts. The ultimate aim of this review was to clarify the main tenets of CLT theory, the foundation of this dissertation. The different sections of the review discussed the genesis of CLT, highlighted its fundamental principles, exposed the differing conceptions of the notion of communicative competence, explained the different types of communicative syllabi, summed up the definitions of the different contexts of English Language Teaching and focused on the debate on CLT in EFL contexts, and discussed the newest trends in CLT. The last section related CLT and textbook politics. Also relevant to this study was information on the technique of textbook analysis. However, literature on textbook analysis was inserted into the research methodology chapter, for more coherence.

GENESIS OF CLT

As suggested earlier in the "Theoretical Framework" (first chapter), at the outset, in the early 1970's, there were two distinctive views of CLT, the North American view and the European view. According to Yalden, the European CLT stemmed from the interest the European linguists took in the language learner as
a member of society and in the social functions of language. That view, referred to as the “functional view of language”, holds that “[N]either a word nor its meaning has an independent existence.” The word can only be understood when placed in its “context of situation”, which means that the meaning of an expression can be arrived at only with reference to a given culture, and to the situation in which it is used. The functional view of language, Yalden (1987) continues, is interested in what functions language serves in the life of the learner as a member of society, or what s/he can use language for. That view, developed by linguists like Hallyday and Firth, and the ethnologist Malinowski, primarily served as basis for the elaboration of the Threshold Level, a listing of objective learner needs for each of the languages of Europe, defined by language specialists of the Council of Europe, in view of a better integration of that continent.

We learn from Savignon (1991) that, while the functional view focused on “what the learners should be able to do with the language”, there was concurrent development in Europe that focused on the ‘process’ of communicative classroom language learning. That trend was aimed at individual empowerment of the student, and was influenced by the writings of contemporary German philosopher Habermas. Following those ideas, language teaching methodologists (Candlin, Piepho) designed classroom materials that encouraged learner autonomy and learner participation in decisions on course content.
At the same time as these views of language were developing in Europe, according to Savignon (1991), there was a concern with context in the United States, but with a sociolinguistic orientation. The anthropologist Hymes (1971), in reaction to Chomsky's concept of formal linguistic competence with the native speaker as the norm, developed the term 'communicative competence', which represents "the use of language in social context, the observance of sociolinguistic norms of appropriacy" (Savignon, p. 264). Hymes' concern was with speech communities, and he wanted an integration of language, communication, and culture. However, in subsequent interpretations of Hymes' views, methodologists took the native-speaker cultural norms as the norm for appropriacy, which made it difficult to authentically represent them in the classroom, according to Savignon (1991).

At the University of Illinois where she was teaching in 1972, Savignon herself interpreted 'communicative competence' as "the ability of language learners to interact with other speakers, to make meaning, as distinct from their ability to perform on discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge" (p. 264). This view fostered a teaching practice where students were encouraged to take risks, and to speak in other than memorized terms: they should ask for information, seek clarification, use circumlocution and whatever coping devices they can to negotiate meaning and perform the communicative task at hand. Savignon adapted that interactive view of CLT to projects for the teaching of French in the U.S. where teachers were to focus on classroom process and learner autonomy. Games, role plays, pair and small-group activities are also used.
GUIDING PRINCIPLES

From the literature on CLT and related aspects (see for example Berns, 1990; Breen, 1985; Canale and Swain, 1980; Galloway, 1992, 1993; Hancock, 1994; Liontas and Baginski, 1995; Savignon, 1972, 1983, 1991; Savignon and Berns, 1984; Widdowson, 1983, 1996), the following principles were identified as forming the common ground on which CLT programs are rooted.

a. CLT puts emphasis on the learner in that a communicative approach must be based on and respond to the learner's communication needs. The teacher no longer has the central importance s/he had in the traditional language teaching approaches (e.g., audio-lingual, grammar-translation), and the teacher's primary role is to help the student learn.

b. Learner's needs must be specified in terms of the varieties of second/foreign language that the learner is mostly likely to be in contact with in a genuine communicative situation. Also to be specified are the levels of grammar accuracy required of the learner, the needs relating to setting, topics, and communication functions, and communication strategies s/he would need to compensate for communication breakdowns.

c. Selection of methods and materials should be appropriate to both the goals and context of teaching. It begins with an analysis of learner needs and styles of learning.
d. Grammar is not to be neglected in a communicative orientation of language teaching, for communication cannot take place in the absence of grammar, and learners focus best on grammar when it relates to their communication needs and experiences.

e. A crucial aspect of CLT is the use of 'authentic texts'. Authentic texts are all types of audio, video, and print materials produced by individuals using the target language as their L1, and addressing audiences within the target culture. The argument for authentic texts goes as follows: If you are going to teach a language as it functions in contextually appropriate ways, then you need to refer to how people who have the language as their L1 use it in communication.

However, related to the authenticity concept is a controversy, born from the fact that the message in authentic texts is tailored to the targeted audience. ESL/EFL specialists are divided alongside the problems created by the use of such texts (see below).

f. With respect to methodology, the second language learner must be given the opportunity to take part in meaningful communicative interactions in realistic second language situations. That means that the classroom activities must reflect those communicative activities that the learner is most likely to engage in outside of the classroom. As Canale and Swain (1980) put it, "[E]xposure to realistic communication situations is crucial if communicative competence is to lead to communicative confidence." Thus, the learner must be
provided with information, practice, and experience necessary to meet his/her communication needs in the second/foreign language.

g. likewise, learners should show what they've learned by performing tasks similar to those required in real-life situations. That is the purpose of “authentic assessment”. Generally speaking, in CLT, programs are elaborated in terms of functional competence or ability to use the language for a purpose. Consequently, learner achievement in CLT should be evaluated qualitatively and globally, as opposed to the quantitative and discrete-point assessment of linguistic futures of the Audiolingual Method. Thus, tests in CLT are expected to be integrative and to focus on a more holistic assessment of the learner's communicative ability.

h. An implication of CLT is that the teacher must be psychologically ready to yield from his/her central position of information giver to that of helper and facilitator of learning. S/he must be aware of the tenets of CLT, mostly the appropriateness and relevance of his teaching to students' needs. Overall, s/he must have a fairly high level of communicative competence in the second/foreign language in order to be efficient.

i. Also implicit in CLT is the understanding that language learning is both an educational and a political issue. Consequently, program design and implementation is a matter of negotiation between policy makers, language planners, linguists, researchers, and teachers, students, and parents. Likewise, evaluation of language programs requires a similar collaborative effort.
COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCES

Communicative competence is viewed in different ways by CLT theorists, depending on how language is defined (e.g., language as social behavior) or what the focus is on (e.g., focus on language learning). This section (and this dissertation) is considering communicative competence with a focus on language learning.

The term "communicative competence " is defined in broad terms and in specific terms. Generally speaking, it is understood as "the ability to put a language to use in appropriate ways in culturally defined contexts" (Nelson, 1992, p. 327). However, in the context of the classroom, communicative competence is defined by Savignon (1972) as "the ability of language learners to interact with other speakers, to make meaning, as distinct from their ability to perform on discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge". Savignon's definition is based on a view of language as interaction and characterizes the 'classroom model of communicative competence'.

The construct of communicative competence is comprised of several components, the number of which CLT theoreticians still have to agree upon. Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) are the first to propose a view of communicative competence with four components (a view also adopted by Savignon, 1983): grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence.
- **Grammatical competence** is 'linguistic competence' that concerns itself with grammatical well-formedness at the sentence level and with surface features like phonology and morphology. It has provided the focus for L2 studies for centuries, even though the descriptions of grammar have shifted from traditional grammars to transformational-generative through structural grammar. In sum, grammatical competence is mastery of the linguistic code of a language.

- **Sociolinguistic competence** has to do with the social rules of language use and requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used (i.e., participants' roles, information they share, the function of the interaction). Another key criterion of sociolinguistic competence is "appropriateness" or knowing what to say in a situation, how to say it, when to remain silent, or when to appear incompetent (Savignon, 1983, p. 37).

- **Discourse competence** deals with the connection of a series of sentences or utterances to form a meaningful whole. You need discourse competence to tell a recipe from a legal document, to identify the topic of a paragraph or chapter or to get the gist of a telephone conversation (Savignon, p. 38), all of which have their special organizational patterns, and the patterns play an important role in the interpretation and expression of meaning. In addition, the values, intentions and purposes of the teacher/learner and of the writer/speaker interfere to determine the meaning of a text (Moffat, 1993, p. 44).

- The last component of Canale and Swain's model is **strategic competence**: Communicative competence, whether in our L1 or L2, is relative, according to Savignon (1983), as no one knows all there is to know of French or
English or Japanese or Spanish. We make the best use of what we know of the contexts we have experienced to get our messages across. The strategies that one uses to compensate for imperfect knowledge of rules or limiting factors in their application (e.g., fatigue, distraction, lack of attention) may be characterized as strategic competence. Savignon (1972b) called it "coping" or "survival strategies". Strategies used by adults to sustain communication include paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, guessing, shifts in register and style, seeking clarification, message codification. The CLT specialists are still researching on how these various components of communicative competence interact during communication.

More recently, however, Celce-Murcia and Dörnyei (1995) felt the need for more detailed specifications of these components, for the sake of practicality in language teaching and testing, in language analysis, and in teacher training. They constructed a model that is meant "to serve as an elaborated "checklist" that practitioners can refer to" (p. 29), and that narrowed down Canale and Swain's 'sociolinguistic competence' by deriving "actional competence" from it. Thus, their "pedagogically-motivated model" has five components with the following contents:

- **Discourse competence** is at the core of their model. It is defined as the ability to select, sequence, and arrange words, structures, sentences, and utterances to achieve meaningful text (spoken or written). It includes cohesion (concerns bottom-up elements that generate texts), coherence (concerns the expression of content and purpose of propositions), deixis (links the situational
context with the discourse and has to do with personal factors, spatial factors, temporal factors, etc.), genre/generic structure or the formal schemata of a speech act, conversational structure (inherent to turn-taking system in oral conversation or other oral genres).

- **Linguistic competence** is close to Canale and Swain’s “grammatical competence”. However, it combines grammatical knowledge and lexical knowledge, with an emphasis on formulaic constructions. Linguistic competence comprises syntax, morphology, lexicon (receptive and productive), phonology (for pronunciation), and morphology (for spelling).

- **Actional competence** has been separated from discourse competence, and is defined as “competence in conveying and understanding communicative intent, that is, matching actional intent with linguistic form based on the knowledge of an inventory of verbal schemata that carry illocutionary force” (p. 17). The focus on illocutionary force, the authors observe, restricts actional competence to oral communication. The parallel they find in written communication to actional competence is “rhetorical competence” or knowledge of moves and lexical routines typical of any given written genre.

Actional competence is subdivided into two main sub-components, “knowledge of language functions” and “knowledge of speech act sets”. The language functions are categorized into seven (not exhaustive) areas: interpersonal exchange, information, opinions, feelings, suasion, problems, and future scenarios. As for “speech act sets”, they are also referred to as “verbal
exchange patterns" or “speech events” and represent conventionalized patterns of interaction surrounding a particular speech act (e.g., apology speech act set).

The authors justify the addition of actional competence component into communicative competence by the belief that knowledge of linguistic resources (i.e., conventionalized forms, sentence stems, formulaic expressions, rules of how to combine and sequence them to form complex actional patterns) is distinct from the knowledge of sociocultural rules and norms that are associated with an awareness of contextual variables. This is evidenced, for instance, in cases when a stylistically appropriate speech act fail to achieve the intended illocutionary intent.

- **Sociocultural competence** is the speaker’s knowledge of how to express messages appropriately in a social and cultural context of communication, observing pragmatics rules. It is to be noticed that this component of Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell's model is different from Canale and Swain’s sociolinguistic competence, because this model has included the linguistic component into actional competence rather.

Sociocultural competence includes four sub-components: social contextual factors (concerns the participants in the interaction and the communication situation: age, gender, relations, status, situation, etc.), stylistic appropriateness factors (addresses politeness conventions and strategies, styles and registers), cultural factors (involves sociocultural background knowledge of the target language community, awareness of major dialect or regional differences, crosscultural awareness), and non-verbal communication factors.
(kinesic factors, proxemic factors, haptic factors or touching, paralinguistic factors, silence).

- **Strategic competence** is conceptualized here as in Canale and Swain, but is restricted only to communication strategies. The components of strategic competence are avoidance or reduction strategies, achievement or compensatory strategies, stalling or time-gaining strategies, self-monitoring strategies, and interactional strategies.

To date, this model of communicative competence is the most comprehensive and the most detailed as for the contents of its components. But another model by Bachman (1990) and by Bachman and Palmer (in preparation) deserves to be mentioned. Their model, a product of research in language testing, is based on Canale and Swain’s (1980) model and is called a model of communicative language abilities. It divides language knowledge into two categories, organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge. The subcategories of organizational knowledge are grammatical knowledge (the same as in Canale and Swain, 1980), and textual knowledge (a more elaborate form of Canale and Swain’s discourse competence). Pragmatic knowledge is subdivided into lexical knowledge (knowledge of meanings of words and ability to use figurative language), functional knowledge (knowledge of the relationships between utterances and the intentions of language users), and sociolinguistic knowledge (same as Canale and Swain’s sociolinguistic competence). A third component of the model, distinct from language knowledge, is metacognitive strategies which interact with language knowledge. They comprise of
assessment, goal-setting and planning strategies. Bachman and Palmer understand "metacognitive strategies" as ability or capacity, rather than knowledge (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995, p. 9).

If the preceding can be taken as a general description of communicative competence, the literature in CLT insists that the context should determine a person’s communicative competence, and that there is no monolithic communicative competence for all. This means that there is more than one social setting in which appropriateness in using a language can be defined (Berns, 1990; Canale and Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1983). More specifically, with regard to English, Nelson (1992) warns that “Communicative competence (...) may become a problematic notion when applied in the situation of such a transplanted language, because the cultural contexts that define ‘appropriateness’ in the parent situation are not necessarily the same in the new situation” (p. 327). Thus, the communicative competence of an L2 English speaker in the States and the communicative competence of an EFL speaker in Japan, or in Germany, or in Togo, are all different communicative competencies. To the point where Nelson (1992) advises native speakers of English to adapt their competence variously to others’ appropriateness contexts when they travel.

COMMUNICATIVE CURRICULA

In CLT, communicative competence is the instructional goal in the mind of program designers and evaluators. But it is a relative concept, as stated
precedently. Subsequently, as stated in Mitchell (1988), “[CLT] is not a neatly packaged language teaching “method”, but rather a fluid set of ideas, which exists (at least) in so-called “weak” and “strong” versions” (p. 109). That fluidity of CLT may account for the variety of models of CLT teaching curricula.

As a matter of fact, as Yalden (1987) suggested, there is no single model of curriculum design which is universally agreed upon, and, usually, there is no commitment to just one approach. However, even though a combination of approaches is often used, the different models of curricula in CLT will be presented in isolation in this text for the sake of clarity. There are about eight curriculum types often discussed by curriculum theorists and applied linguists, with regard to CLT (Krahnke, 1987; Yalden, 1987; Richards, 1990): the functional, the notional, the situational, the topical, the skills-based, the task-based, the content-based, curricula. The proportional model (Yalden, 1987), is also discussed as an illustration of how to “integrate” or “combine” 2 or 3 different types.

The Functional Curriculum

The functional curriculum is organized around communication functions (e.g., identifying, describing, and apologizing). With this curricular approach, the teaching/learning objectives determine the functions needed by the learner, and the functions determine the selection and sequencing of the structures to be taught. The objectives are not determined in terms of linguistic or topical items.

The functional curriculum has been criticized for not developing interactional and communicative ability because the isolated functions are not
synthesized into discourse, and it teaches "patterns" and "routines". However, it may be more appropriate for specific and special purposes programs, because such programs basically examine functions occurring in various types of discourse (Krahnke, 1987).

The Notional Curriculum

The organizing principles here are conceptual categories such as duration, quantity, location, which determine what grammatical items to teach. As with the functional approach with which it is often combined/integrated, it is suitable for learners whose proficiency in the second language has to be specified for very particular and essentially narrow purposes. A combined functional/notional curriculum has been exemplified in the "Threshold Level", a general language teaching framework elaborated by the Council of Europe for European languages (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983; Munby, 1978; Van Ek, 1976; Wilkins, 1976).

The Situational Curriculum

The situational curriculum is one that is organized around speech settings or imaginary situations in which the target language is used. The primary purpose of such a curriculum is to teach learners the language that occurs in those situations. Examples of situations are: at the bank, asking directions in a new town, complaining to the landlord, meeting a new student. As Krahnke (1987) explains, the situations are expected to be relevant to the present and the future needs of the language learners, preparing them to use the new language in the kinds of situations that make-up the curriculum (p. 10). The situations or
settings determine whether the focus of a lesson will be on grammar, on vocabulary, or on a type of discourse.

According to Krahnke (1987), situational curricula can lead more directly than others to learners ability to communicate in specific settings, if the setting in which the language is to be used is "relatively closely" represented by the language in the pedagogical situation. However, he warns, "[T]oo great a use of predetermined and artificial situations can lead to lack of transfer, as students are led to rely on pre-learned routines and patterns of language use rather than creative and negotiated uses of language" (p. 45). The use of situational content may also reflect unwanted foreign language values where the learners or the instructional setting do not want cultural values to accompany the language (e.g., English for academic, business-related, bureaucratic, purposes).

The Topical Curriculum

The focus in the topical curriculum is around themes or topics such as food, health, clothing. The themes and topics determine the vocabulary and grammar to be taught. Yalden (1987) sees a close link between the topical or thematic model and the situational model, as both are concerned with language in a social context. Moreover, it is easy to imagine a situation such as "travel" which would comprise a series of situations such as "At the Bus Station; Arriving at the Hotel; Visiting the City Hall". Conversely, Yalden (1987) goes on, topics may be treated within situations: the situation might be "At the Hairdresser", and the topics "Weather; Travel; Hobbies" (p. 35).
The Skills-Based Curriculum

The skills-based curriculum is organized around skills such as the ability to identify the purpose and scope of a lecture; to identify and follow the topic of a lecture; to identify the relationships among units within discourse; to infer relationships (e.g., cause, effect, conclusion); to deduce meanings of words from context (Richards, 1990, pp. 5-6). The similarity between the definitions of the skills and statements of behavioral-type objectives should be noted. Krahnke (1987) defines skills as "things that people must be able to do to be competent in a language, relatively independently of the situation or setting in which the language use can occur" (p. 10, original emphasis). Thus, skills-based curricula group linguistic competences together into generalized types of behavior (e.g., listening to spoken language for the main idea, giving effective oral presentations, taking language tests) toward which the language is taught. That may account for the fact that it is also called a competency-based curriculum. In Krahnke's (1987) words, "The general theory (behind this model) is that the learning of complex behaviors such as language is best facilitated by breaking them down into small bits (skills), teaching the bits and hoping that the learner will be able to put them together when actually using them" (p. 52).

Consequently, skills-based language instruction is seen as having more valuable application in vocationally-oriented language programs (e.g., English for Specific Purposes or English for Academic Purposes programs) than in general-purpose language programs in which the needs of the learners are broad. In addition, Krahnke (1987) cited Auerbach (1986) as warning about social values contained
in many skills-based curricula: such an instruction can program students for particular kinds of behavior (e.g., obedience in a work setting).

The Tasks-Based Curriculum

As Krahnke (1987) describes it, the tasks-based curriculum is less linguistically focused than the preceding models of language curricula. It is organized around activities such as drawing maps, following directions, writing various types of letters, planning and carrying out a class picnic, producing collections of the learner's community folklore. The purpose of tasks-based instruction is to use learners' real-life needs and activities as learning experiences. Thus, language form is learned through language use. The language needed to carry out tasks is not taught beforehand, but discovered by students and provided by teachers as well as other resources available as the task is carried out. The activities that the learners have to do outside of the classroom, for non-instructional purposes, are the ones used in class. Those activities or tasks are "selected according to the students' cognitive and linguistic readiness for particular tasks, their need for the particular discourse or interaction type, and availability of resources for carrying out the tasks" (p. 59).

Little has been published on the use or any kind of experience with tasks-based instruction, claims Krahnke (1987, p. 63), but he assumes it is suitable for learners of all ages and backgrounds, and it addresses the transfer problem directly by using active and real tasks as learning activities. Tasks are easier to provide when the target language is spoken outside of the classroom. However, Krahnke (1987) claims, appropriate tasks can also be found in a foreign
language setting, with reliance on printed resources or resource persons for information. But this approach has its weaknesses, too.

The main weakness with tasks-based curricula, warns Krahnke (1987), lies in problems of implementing the instruction: First, because the tasks-based curriculum is not teacher-centered, it requires individual and group responsibility from the students, and a high level of creativity and initiative from the teacher. Second, where there are limited resources for gaining information directly in the target language, i.e., when the language is being taught outside the culture where it is used, tasks-based instruction may be difficult to implement. Finally, the global nature of tasks-based instruction makes it difficult to evaluate the students' improvements in their language proficiency.

The Content-Based Curriculum

It consists of the teaching of content (or information) in the target language, with little or no explicit effort to teach the language. Thus, by definition, it is identical to the curriculum of a content course in Science, Social Studies, Literature, or any other subject. However, a content curriculum might be supplemented by an instructional component focusing on aspects on the target language (e.g., spelling, vocabulary development, specific writing activities), but such specific language instruction is not regarded as the main contributor to target language acquisition.

According to Krahnke (1987), the learning theory associated with content-based instruction is Krashen's acquisition theory that accounts for language learning without explicit instruction, when the input is comprehensible. That
curriculum also assumes "a use-based theory of language that sees language as arising from the settings in which it is used" (p. 68), through the contexts of its functions and meanings.

Content-based instruction has been applied in immersion programs in the United States and Canada, and it allows students to learn subject-matter and language simultaneously. In addition, students learn language as it is used and not as an inventory of items and rules that they must later figure out how to use. Nevertheless, Krahnke (1987) warns, content-based instruction can lead to premature fossilization or overreliance on compensatory communicative strategies, if learners are not carefully monitored and given adequate feedback on their language proficiency. With regard to its applicability, he goes on, content-based instruction may not be appropriate where a second or foreign language may be regarded as a school subject by itself, because of limitations on instructional time and resources. Finally, if discrete-point tests are valued in the educational system, content-based instruction may have to be supplemented by some type of formal instruction (p. 72).

The above types of communicative curricula have been presented independently for reasons of convenience, but most curriculum specialists agree with Yalden (1987) that "it seems most unlikely that any one of the models will be universally accepted" (p. 120). Actually, adds Richards (1990, pp. 7-8), "There is little empirical evidence to warrant commitment to any particular approach to syllabus design. In practice, a combination of approaches is often used". Yalden (1987) advises that the curriculum designer be given the most freedom to
respond to learners’ changing or newly-perceived needs and that the teacher have a framework to balance his/her teaching with regards to forms and functions. The curriculum model that can achieve that double aim, she proposes, is the “proportional model”.

The Proportional Model

The proportional curriculum assumes that there need not be a strict separation between teaching formal and functional areas of language, and that shifts of emphasis onto different components of communicative competence, and onto different pedagogical strategies according to circumstances, should be allowed. Concretely, the proportional curriculum posits that, on the one hand, grammatical competence should be taught before sociolinguistic competence, even though speech acts and discourse skills should be introduced at a “relatively early stage” to guarantee balance. On the other hand, oral language should come earlier than rhetorical functions in written language, which should be introduced at advanced levels. The model includes more experiential or instrumental learning in subject areas at a higher level called “specialized phase”.

The proportional model has been given by Krahnke (1987) as an example of combining curriculum types, as opposed to integrating types. He makes a distinction between “combination” and “integration”. Combination refers to the inclusion of more than one type of curriculum, with little or no attempt to relate the contents to each other. That is the case, claims Krahnke (1987), when fluency activities (i.e., on skills, tasks) are added on to a structural, functional, or situational syllabus. With integration, on the other hand, an attempt is made to
inter-relate the contents of the different curriculum types. Krahnke (1987) illustrates integration with a case where, after a structural lesson on the subjunctive, students are asked to prepare stories on the theme “what I would do if I were rich” (situational). The curriculum experts suggest that integration is more difficult and complex to undertake than combination. It may also be more effective than combination that is divided into discrete compartments, because it reinforces and relates various curricula and content types. However, Krahnke (1987) suggests, “[W]hen specific knowledge and behavioral outcomes are desired, discrete combinations may be preferable to fully integrated syllabi” (p. 86).

CHOOSING A CURRICULUM

As can be seen, curricula types have their strengths and weaknesses; they respond to different perspectives on communicative competence and to different goals and objectives, all of which determine the choice of curriculum types for second/foreign language teaching. For the second/foreign language teaching planner or curriculum specialist, it might be helpful to know where those language curricula fit in with general curriculum theory in education.

The Curriculum Field in the USA

In the 1970's, there was a revival (or reconceptualization) of the general curriculum field in both Europe and the United States (Pinar et al., 1995) and in Australia (Grundy, 1987). That movement was grounded on the work of the
German philosopher Jürgen Habermas, namely his theory of 'knowledge-constitutive interests'. Central to that theory is the belief that humans are motivated by three vital interests in their drive for survival: technical interest (interest in controlling the environment), practical interest (interest in understanding the environment), and emancipatory interest (interest in emancipation and empowerment to engage in responsible and autonomous action based on authentic insights into the environment). These interests represent the three types of orientations through which knowledge is generated and organized in society (Grundy, 1987, p. 10). Three curricular paradigms are identified by curriculum inquiry as motivated by these three knowledge-constitutive interests: The traditional or technical curriculum (also called logical-positivist, scientific-technical, empirical-analytic, or systems-behavioral curriculum), the practical curriculum (also known as the conceptual-empiricist curriculum), and the emancipatory curriculum (also known as the reconceptualist, the critical, curriculum).

The technical curriculum is thus informed by the fundamental interest in controlling the environment (i.e., schools, teachers, students, etc.) scientifically in order for the goals to be achieved. It has been influenced by behaviorism and the industrial principle of taylorization from which it adopted technical rationality as a guideline. Behaviors and outcomes are predicted in the environment, and there is a hierarchy and a linear relationship between the components of curriculum, with the goals at the top and the outcomes at the bottom. Tyler (1949) is the lead figure who oriented curriculum in that direction.
The technical curriculum has its strength in its being goal-oriented and cost-effective, for it guides the practitioners towards better results. Thus, it is not surprising that the technical curriculum is prevalent in today's educational systems world-wide (Grundy, 1987). That is also why it has been associated with the movement of accountability in the schools. Nevertheless, the teachers and the students are prescriptively imposed upon and the curriculum actors are not free in their action.

As for the practical curriculum, it aims at improving the deliberation process of the curriculum, instead of its products as in the technical curriculum. In that Grundy (1987) sees the influence of Stenhouse's (1975) ideas on process curriculum. Motivated by practical interest, this curriculum is negotiated between the actors with the aim of improving the learning process. Because negotiation is fueled by the actor's practical judgement that generates action for something good, knowledge is individualized and appropriated, and the student has an active part in his/her own learning. However, Grundy (1987) claims, practical judgement is individual and subjective, and consequently not free from errors. In addition, the practical curriculum has the goal of providing a moral "good" to the actors, and the process can reach an end when that good is attained. Moreover, the negotiation is based on consensus, but consensus may be manipulated and formed around the opinion of the powerful, and the practical curriculum lacks the idea of critique.

The traditional/technical curriculum and the practical curriculum were the dominant curricular paradigms until the mid-70's when MacDonald (1978), a
curriculum specialist, exclaimed that the field was moribund (Pinar et al., 1995). A reconceptualist movement was then started in the United States by scholars like Apple, Giroux, Huebner, MacDonald, and Mann, with the influence of the Brazilian educationist Paulo Freire. The emancipatory curriculum originated in that movement. In addition to the critiques leveled at the traditional and practical curricula, those scholars claimed that curriculum was more complex than the traditionalists took it to be, and that it should not be prescriptive.

The emancipatory curriculum is informed by the emancipatory cognitive interest (Grundy, 1987), and rooted in commitment to critique and theory development, which should lead to emancipation and empowerment to engage in autonomous and responsible action based on authentic insights into the social construction of the world. In other words, it allows the search for the truth through self-reflection leading to autonomy. It encourages liberation from dogmatism and the pre-established social-order: Social order should not be taken for granted, as is the case with the traditionalists, because what appears natural may have been culturally constructed. That is the reason why there is no final “emancipated” stage in the curricular process, for every situation should be questioned. Finally, adds Grundy (1987), the liberation of concern in this paradigm is collective, not individual.

Bitter criticism has been voiced against the critical curriculum by Tyler's followers (Tanner and Tanner, 1980). They believe that curriculum should be apolitical, and consider reconceptualists as radicals whose claims are countercultural. However, the reconceptualization has allowed the opening of
curriculum to diverse interpretations. No longer is one paradigm dominant in the field, as curriculum has been investigated in the light of various contemporary discourses (e.g., curriculum as a political text, as a theological text, as a racial text, as colonial text, as a feminist text, Pinar et al., 1995).

**Categorization of ESL/EFL curricula**

Very few studies have discussed the links between ESL/EFL curricula and curricula in general education. Lange (1990) is one of the rare studies that examined English as second/foreign language curricula in the light of the technical, practical, and emancipatory curriculum paradigms. In the process, he felt the necessity to add a fourth category, the connective, to encompass those second/foreign language curricula that overlap the technical and the practical. His analysis concerns itself with curricular models that have been in vogue from the 1970's onward.

Just as the scientific/technical curriculum is dominant in general education, claims Lange (1990), it is equally dominant in second/foreign language education. The works of second/foreign language specialists of that period (Banathy and Lange, 1972; Brooks, 1964; Phillips, 1978) reflected the technical paradigm in that they proposed models that are analytic and linear: they would start with a needs analysis, then determine goals and set objectives, discuss content and resources (human and material), and evaluation. In the model presented in Phillips (1978), evaluation provides information that is fed back into the program, making it a cyclic curriculum. The technical/scientific orientation is best illustrated in the audiolingual approach proposed by Brooks.
(1964), which was based on insights from structural linguistics and behavioral psychology: language is seen as a rule-governed behavior, and language learning is habit formation where the practice of language forms is expected to lead to use of language. In other words, 'the sum of the parts equals the whole'. The problem with technical/scientific foreign language curricula is that they are prescriptive, and little time is spent on the student.

Lange (1990) included in his connective category communicative trends in language teaching, which he suggests connect the analytic, scientific and technical to the communicative, and thus continues the tradition of the sum of the parts equals the whole. To illustrate his view, he cites a few communicative models. In the work of the Council of Europe who devised the "Threshold Level" curriculum (Richterich, 1973), the emphasis is well and truly on communication; however, the analysis of language use is scientific and communicative needs have been analyzed in extreme details, in the attempt to allow the teacher or the curriculum developer to match needs with specific communicative goals, objectives, and tasks. Likewise, in the North American context, Savignon's (1983) view of communicative competence (as comprehending grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competences) has been informed by research in Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, and SLA. Other examples cited are Yalden's (1987) Proportional Curriculum, and the Proficiency Movement generated from the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines under the leadership of Omaggio (1986). The former, claims Lange (1990), suggests that the parts (the linguistic, communicative, and specialized phases) will give the learner ability to
communicate with the language, and that the whole of language is constituted of its parts. The latter also exemplifies an analytical and technical system that communication consists of steps and elements within those steps; that is, for the proficiency-oriented curriculum, progress is made by adding up competencies until native-speaker competence is reached. Moreover, these curricula are imposed on the learner, and little consideration is given to the understanding of “the self” and of “the other”, and to any use of language to act upon the human condition.

With regard to the practical curriculum, Lange (1990) suggests that the mainstream of language education (in the U.S., and perhaps elsewhere) is situated outside of this paradigm, the main tenet of which is to bring dialogue between the learner and his or her context so that the meaning of the context can be unveiled. The practical curriculum has a more personal orientation in which knowledge and experience are not only scientific and rational, but include information from the senses and from intuition. Lange (1990) identified only three second/foreign curricula that can fit into this paradigm, if the term curriculum is considered in a loose sense: These are Curran's (1972) Community Language Learning, Gattegno's (1972) Silent Way, and Lozanov's (1978) Suggestopedia.

With the Silent Way, learning is not restricted to any particular content, and learners discover the ability to judge the use of their own inner resources and knowledge. The teacher provides the challenges according to students’ current resources. Consequently, learning results in independence, responsibility, and autonomy. However, his/her connection to the community is
not clear. The same problem is experienced in Suggestopedia where learners use conscious and unconscious functions to relate to what is being learned and acquire qualitatively more insight into the content. The role of the teacher is to arrange for the removal of norms, limitations, and tensions that society has placed on learning. Nevertheless, the learner's tie to community is uncertain. Conversely, the learner learns with the community in Community Language Learning. The teacher/counselor manages the dialogue among the group and guides the learners “through stages of dependency upon, codependency with, and independence from the counselor” as they exchange their intended meanings with the group. Consequently, a sense of community is developed in which the learner feels supported. In sum, these three learning modes have the advantage of developing free individuals and learners who create meaning for themselves. However, only Community Language Learning goes beyond the individual and concerns itself with developing individuals who function within the group.

As difficult as it is to find ESL/EFL curricula efforts within the practical curriculum paradigm, it is even more rare to find ESL/EFL curricula responding to the emancipatory/critical paradigm. According to Lange (1990), Crawford-Lange and Lange (1983, 1987) and Wallerstein (1983) are among the few who explored emancipatory dimensions in second and foreign language education. In this category, he claims, language is meant to serve as a tool for understanding, knowing, and communicating. In addition, it is an instrument of action for the improvement of society, through which the learner develops his/her own voice,
responds to the voice of others, and works to form a world that is "honest and equitable".

Crawford-Lange and Lange (1983, 1987), using the work of Freire (1970, 1973) applied the emancipatory principles to reorient EFL curricula, away from a concentration on language to the use of language as a tool for uncovering the interrelationships, differences, and gaps between the target and native languages and cultures. The students should attend to awareness, understanding, and knowledge of both their own and the target languages and cultures, through problems posed to them around a theme in the classroom. As for Wallerstein (1983), she proposed the same problem-posing approach for ESL curricula addressing refugees and immigrants in the US. With this approach, the problems posed should be real problems that relate to these adult students' difficulties. However, these curricula remain to be disseminated in the ESL/EFL world, even though they reach beyond the communicative goal and focus more on the learner and the social context and are less analytical.

The aforegoing review is intended to help the language acquisition planner understand the scope and limits of his/her curriculum choice. Another important factor to consider when deciding on which curriculum type to choose is the language teaching context, for we do not teach in a vacuum. With regard to CLT, Berns (1990) suggests that one of its most important features is to be sensitive and responsive to the relationship between the type of communicative competence and the socio-cultural context in which language is learned and used. Specifically, "As no two contexts for the development of communicative
competence are alike, no two responses to the social and cultural realities of those contexts can be identical” (p. 169). Thus, it is to be understood that each local language teaching context is unique. However, with regard to English, there are broad context categorizations that subsume the distinctive contextual characteristics.

CONTEXTS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

One of the purposes of labeling and categorizing the English teaching and learning contexts, Nayar (1997) claims, is to offer useful perspectives in developing appropriate instructional strategies and teaching materials. Different criteria are used for different context classifications, and those criteria have implications, according to the experts, for a number of factors ranging from planning, funding, administration, target competence, teaching material, methodology, to teacher training.

Generally speaking, the difference is made between the core-English-speaking countries (e.g., Britain, the USA, Australia) and the periphery-English countries. The periphery-English countries are subdivided into countries that require English as an international link language (e.g., Japan and Scandinavia) and countries on which English was imposed during colonial times (e.g., Nigeria, Singapore), according to Phillipson (1992). But the core-periphery distinction does not take into account all the contexts where English is learned. Kachru (1986) made the distinction between the “inner-circle” (the core-English
countries), the “outer-circle” (the colonized countries where English is used as an official language), and the “expanding circle” where English is learned at school for the purpose of reading books in English or communicating with the people who speak it. Still, Judd’s (1980) distinction of ESL and EFL gives us more details and allows less confusion. He sees ESL as a “situation in which non-native English speakers spend a vast majority of their time communicating in English”, even though he recognizes the possibility of non-native speakers communicating among themselves. ESL countries are then the same as core-English countries. In the EFL situation, English is studied as one of many foreign languages and serves little communicative functions for the students once they finish the actual course. English has no special status or use over any other foreign language. But Judd’s definitions do not give an account of the phenomenon of “New Englishes”.

Sociolinguists (Kachru, 1986; Omodiagbe, 1992) suggest that outside of the core-English-speaking countries, English has lived through many sociolinguistic situations from which new “Englishes” originated. That term in the plural symbolizes all the formal and functional changes and various types of acculturation all over the world. Discarding the dichotomy native speakers/non-native speakers, Kachru (1986) makes the distinction between the “norm-providing” varieties of English (in the inner circle or ESL countries), the “norm-developing” varieties (in the outer circle or former British colonies), and the norm-dependent varieties (in the expanding circle or EFL countries). Kachru suggests
that those Englishes be taught and understood as an unprecedented phenomenon.

Lately, Nayar (1997) coined the label “English as an Associate Language” (EAL) to cover the English teaching situation and its status in the outer circle or former British colonies. In the EAL context, English has some communicative goal and some well-defined domains of use. It is both the official language and the medium of education. Nevertheless, environmental support is variable and unreliable because EAL communities are multilingual, and assimilation into the native-speaking community is not the aim in learning English. Also worth mentioning is the fact that, according to Nayar (1997), most if not all teachers of English are not native-speakers but Second Language (SL) speakers of their own variety of English. Overall, the EAL context is different from ESL and EFL contexts and represents situations of English learning (and teaching) in more than 30 countries with a combined population of over a billion. It is the realm of norm-developing varieties of English or New Englishes. It should be observed that, despite that sociolinguistic and pedagogic importance of its own, the EAL context has often been lumped together with EFL in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research, and still needs recognition. Consequently, the institutionalized and most discussed situations to date are ESL and EFL.

One major distinction between ESL and EFL is the way the target culture is dealt with in the teaching. In ESL contexts there is no question about learning the native-English culture or not as the learner needs it in order to be able to function in the surrounding society. Thus, for the ESL learner,
communicatively competent requires being culturally competent. In this context, there is the implicit commandment that "thou shalt not teach language without also teaching culture". When transposed onto the EFL context, that commandment takes on another connotation, according to Alptekin and Alptekin (1984). That requirement encourages a one-way flow of information from the Anglo-American centers or the core, and gives the illusion that native-speaker presence is necessary whenever English is used.

Nevertheless, a caveat must be taken concerning these clear-cut differences between EFL and ESL contexts. As a matter of fact, countries like South Africa and Zimbabwe are EAL, as well as ESL and EFL, and English can even be considered as a native language there, depending on which population bracket one is concerned with (cf. Nayar, 1997). On the other hand, some EFL countries are moving toward becoming an ESL context as the importance of English there grows bigger and bigger (e.g., Scandinavia), while some European EFL countries can afford bilingual high schools and bilingual immersion programs. In addition, among EFL settings there are countries (e.g., Senegal) with ESP (English for Specific purposes) programs in technical schools and EAP (English for Academic Purposes) in most university programs (Schmied, 1991). Still in other EFL countries, ESL practices from Britain or the US influence the teaching of English: For instance, in China some decisive exams like the "Graded English Tests" are modeled after the American TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language). It should be added that in most EFL contexts, even English
teachers do not know about the TOEFL until when they are seeking an American grant to study in the United States.

Despite the rootedness of the EFL and ESL concepts though, a new categorization has emerged in the last decade, English as an International Language (EIL), that Diaz-Rico (1999) termed the "post-modern" shift. In her own words,

The post-modern shift re-envisions the English language itself. The English we teach is postcolonial. It is not World English. It is the world's language. English as an International Language (EIL) has multiple vernaculars, and speakers have their own dialects, purposes, prejudices, and predilections. (p. 20)

Thus, EIL questions the one-way flow of cultural and linguistic information from the core to the periphery that is implied in the EFL/ESL dichotomy. EIL recognizes the need to sensitize both native and non-native English speakers to the complexities of international communications. Smith (1985) suggests that native speakers need training to facilitate interaction with native speakers of other varieties of English, as well as with non-native speakers of English.

EIL is described by Smith (1985) as a larger and more inclusive concept than ESL/EFL. EIL strives to create a learning environment where the cultural base of the language emanates from the users, not exclusively from native English speakers. Such an environment encourages retention and expression of the student's own ethnic, religious, and political background. The main tenet of EIL, Smith (1985) goes on, is that although language and culture are bound, "a language is not inextricably tied to a particular culture", and English can be used to express "any culture or ideological point of view" (p. 5). Consequently, the
stated objective of EIL classes is to make students aware of English as an
ternational language, to foster their aptitude for managing language diversity,
and develop a method for recognizing and managing communicative
misunderstandings. It ensues that the teaching material supporting this
egalitarian EIL philosophy would not be limited to information related to native
English speaking cultures. Examples of cultural assumptions and conventions
associated with speech acts serve to raise individual consciousness, and prepare
EIL students to expect differences rather than assume similarities in language
use in international settings. It should be observed at this point that, on the one
hand, the importance that EIL grants the local sociocultural context makes it
congruent with Lange’s (1990) emancipatory perspectives on ESL/EFL curricula
(see above). On the other hand, the EIL view of a language as not inextricably
related to a culture raises the problem of authenticity in language classrooms. An
examination of that tenet of CLT in the literature is in order here.

THE ISSUE OF AUTHENTICITY

In the language teaching profession, over recent years, some specialists
have insisted that the English presented in the classroom should be “language
naturally occurring as communication in native-speaker contexts”, in
Widdowson’s (1994) words, not produced for instructional purposes. This
language is called authentic text. Authentic texts should be texts (oral as well as
written) produced by members of a language and culture group for members of
that language and culture group. The specialists (Galloway, 1992; Liontas and Baginski, 1995) agree on one crucial point: Authentic materials convey a message that is tailored to a targeted and specific audience. They suggest the teacher should be required to "recreate for his/her students the receptive behavior a native speaker would exhibit when encountering a particular text type", and allow plenty of time for students to be "leisurely and unhurried consumers of authentic materials" (Liontas and Baginski, 109-111).

For these ESL experts, using authentic material is a unique opportunity for the teacher to make the foreign culture a tangible reality that draws both international attention and bears personal relevance to students' lives. It is a window to the world, "the bridge that spans the "textbook culture" and the existing, real, and continually evolving culture of the people behind the language" (Liontas and Baginski, 114). That view of authentic texts is concurrent with Cathcart's (1989) recommendation of a survival ESL curriculum based on authentic native-speaker/native-speaker discourse, because simulated texts may mislead the students about the nature of everyday interactions. Such a syllabus, based on analysis of authentic discourse, should be a "discourse behavior" syllabus, guided by the native-speaker behavior in the contexts of concern, and determined by the needs of a participant in a given situation. However, this view of authentic texts as a vehicle of the culture of "the people behind the language" has raised a lot of questions.

The first problem is about the representability of a selected authentic text. To paraphrase Nostrand (1989), in humanities the selection of authentic
materials is not guided by a concern for representability, and what is authentic for a materials writer may not be so for another native speaker or writer. The selection thus can be said to be not authentic reality, but the author's artifact. Galloway (1992) and Widdowson (1996) see a problem with the fact that authentic materials are native-speaker-driven texts. The argument is that since they are meant for native speakers of the target language, they presume and extensive user backgrounds or internal frameworks that foreign language learners cannot share, because they are not members of the target culture. Moreover, authentic materials can be contriving and alienating for an ESL learner, for instance, if reference to native-speaker norms is the gauge for authenticity. Thus, according to Widdowson (1996), they contradict the concept of autonomy of learners who should make the target language their own.

According to the idea of autonomy, he goes on, the learner needs to appeal to his/her own experience and to be engaged in his/her own terms, s/he needs to appropriate the target language in contexts of learning for autonomous learning to take place. Consequently, contexts that will be meaningful for learners have to be constructed in the classroom, out of their primary experiences of native-language and culture, as they cannot replicate versions of native-speaker contexts of use themselves. That means that, Nostrand (1989) confirms, "The fact that a text is authentic, then, does not assume that it gives a true impression, unless one adds to it the context it evokes in the mind of a person who lives in the culture", which is more often not the case. Finally, Widdowson (1994) concludes that only insiders can share the cultural presuppositions of an
authentic material and a sense of its idiomatic sense. Outsiders cannot have the
same understanding and cannot, therefore, ratify its authenticity. Thus, an
authentic text cannot be authentic in the classroom, for "authenticity is non-
transferable" (p. 386).

Solutions have been suggested to resolve the incompatibility between text
authenticity and learner autonomy. Galloway (1992) recommends in presenting
authentic texts the respect of the learner's own cultural background, of the
limitations of his/her developing second language culture combined with attention
to textual features. For Widdowson (1994) pedagogic texts are to be preferred to
authentic materials: "[L]anguage for learning does need to be specially designed
for pedagogic purposes so that it can be made real in the context of the students' own world " (p. 386). A third attempt comes from Breen who proposes a three-
dimensional perspective on authenticity.

Breen (1985) defines authenticity with regard to the different participants
in the classroom: the text and its content, the learner and learning, and the
classroom as social context. He sees authenticity as a relative matter when it
comes to teaching a new language to learners, for what is authentic is relative to
our purposes in the classroom and to the points of view of the different
participants. A learner will actually recreate a text (oral or written) in a way which
is perfectly authentic to his or her knowledge – or lack of knowledge – about the
conventions of communication comprised in the text. S/he will redefine any text
against his or her own priorities, precisely because s/he is a learner.
Consequently, "[T]he fact that a text has been produced by a fluent user of a
language for fluent listeners or speakers pales into insignificance when such a text is approached by a non-fluent learner of that language” (p. 62). This perspective is close to Widdowson (1994) and Nostrand (1989) above. For Breen (1985), the criteria that should guide the teacher's selection and use of texts should be, not in the texts, but in the learners. He sees the text as a potential means for the learner towards authentic communication in the target language.

Related to that definition of the text is a definition of an “authentic learning task”. A task is authentic to the purpose of learning a language when it “requires the learners to communicate ideas and meanings, and to meta-communicate about the language and about the problems and solutions in the learning of the language” (p. 66). In addition to authenticity of the text and of the task, the third dimension of authenticity is authenticity to the classroom. Breen (1985) claims that the main psychological and social function of a classroom is learning. The classroom is a social context where people meet for the purpose of learning something. In the language classroom, the subject-matter is the learning of how to communicate in a new language, for and about new knowledge. All activities that contribute to that authentic role of the classroom are authentic. He considers that all other questions of authenticity in language teaching may be resolved if the potential of the classroom is fully exploited. In the same connection, Swan (1985) warns that “The classroom is not the outside world and learning the language is different from using the language”.

The problem is that, with regard to CLT, it is suggested that “the best classroom is a non-classroom”. That means, Clarke and Silberstein (1988)
explain, that the best language classroom is the one in which students encounter the language in “real” situations rather than focusing on learning the language. Thus, the reality of the classroom is confused with the reality of the “real-world”, and teachers behave as if the classroom has no legitimate reality of its own. That has reached the level of acceptance as common sense in the field, and no one discusses it because everyone assumes that is what teachers are striving to accomplish. That's how, they proceed on, new movements and specifically CLT become invested with a “tyrannical” aura of authority. Thus, “communicative activities lose their status as one of the many techniques a teacher can utilize and become, instead, the implicitly mandated reality to which all teachers are expected to aspire” (p. 692). The idea of tyrannical authority of the CLT paradigm is illustrated next in the way CLT has been introduced in China, the largest of EFL countries.

**CLT in EFL**

The Communicative Language Teaching Project carried out in Bangalore, India, and directed by Prabhu (1979-1980), is one of the best known experimentations of CLT outside of the inner circle. However, the English teaching situation in India is EAL, India being a former British colony, and is different from the ESL/EFL focus of this literature review. Concerning EFL proper, three articles have been examined that discuss the feasibility of CLT in China. It is amazing that, despite the fact that the three articles span ten years of
investigation (Maley, 1984; White, 1989; Anderson, 1993), they all come to the same conclusion that CLT should be introduced to modernize the "traditional" Chinese ELT ways, for the following reasons.

There was an assumption that motivated the three articles: that China is a "traditional" setting and that ELT in China uses traditional methods. Therefore the purpose of the articles was to discuss the different ways to reconcile traditional practices and CLT. It should be observed that the three articles did not associate the beneficiaries to their projects.

White's (1989) study is an account of how she successfully introduced CLT in a course for adult Chinese students of varying backgrounds. She claims it is crucial to direct the course towards the students' expressed needs for CLT to be accepted. What her students wanted was vocabulary and improvement of reading skills. Thus, her course first put emphasis on developing their lexical through text-related activities. Then gradually, information-transfer tasks were introduced where they had to use the words to construct meaning, productively as well as receptively. The students proved they could put their language acquisition to work in meaningful ways. However, the study was not explicit on why CLT should be introduced. But from the insistence on "Chinese traditional setting" in the article, it can be deduced that CLT should be introduced because it is new.

Maley (1984) stated the same conviction in his study, but in a stronger way: Change is inevitable in ELT in China because a paradigm change is under way in the TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) field. It should be
understood then that “China should follow the change in the West”. His study raised the problem of how to implement CLT in traditional contexts, taking China as an example. It started with the premises that “[A]t least 90% of the contexts of teaching ESL/EFL in the world are of a non-innovatory, traditional type [and] [i]f we have a serious commitment to effecting change, however, we cannot afford to ignore this silent majority” (p. 159). The “we” in the quotation is striking and connotes an owner attitude. From his “outsider’s viewpoint”, as Maley (1984) put it, there are indications that the Chinese ELT system “may not be an appropriate kind for the needs of contemporary society.” That is why “change is not only inevitable, but also desirable.” He goes on to propose a change that starts from the language testing requirements and the syllabus (from the top down), as well as from teacher training (from the bottom up). Maley’s (1984) attitude in this study is an illustration of a modernization view of social change (cf. Cooper, 1989) whereby underdeveloped countries should develop by becoming westernized.

The third article by Anderson (1993) is written in the same vein. Her article starts by proving how traditional the Chinese ELT is (teacher-centered, emphasis on rote memory, huge class sizes, emphasis on writing, reading and literature. From these characteristics, obstacles to the introduction of CLT are stated out (e.g., lack of appropriate materials, teaching to the exams, conservative attitudes, students’ learning styles). These obstacles are then matched against the advantages of CLT, before the authors conclude that “These communicative activities may be a native speaker’s greatest contribution to English Language
Teaching in China.” It can be noticed that in this article, CLT is not questioned, and that only the Chinese ways are critiqued. In addition, CLT and the native speaker are put on top of the Chinese teacher and the Chinese teaching methods. Apparently, for these authors (who happen to be all three from the West), CLT is taken for a fad.

However, Chinese teachers are of a different opinion. They think that “communicative methods [are] more appropriate for ESL while Chinese methods [are] more suitable for learning English as a foreign language” (Burnaby and Sun, 1989). In their study, Burnaby and Sun (1989) interviewed Chinese English teachers who stated the rationale for the so-called traditional methods: “Through current Chinese teaching methods, Chinese students learn the analytical skills and knowledge of English grammar that they will need to use in the kinds of work that they will do in China – from reading technical articles to translation of documents”, they declared. In other words, the Chinese use their locally-inspired methods because it suits their students’ learning purposes. Moreover, they cited the context of the wider curriculum as a justification of why they do what they do: They were expected to cover the curriculum developed by the government (the Chinese educational system is centralized), to teach to the exams, namely to the American TOEFL, for those who want to study abroad.

Thus, it is to be feared that, in centralized systems where insiders’ voices are not preponderant, conflicting situations might arise. As Altbach (1991) observes, “Experts from the industrialized nations have been directly involved in disseminating research results throughout the world, and this has played a role in
conception of the textbook" (p. 252). The tyranny of CLT witnessed in the above three articles begs several questions, among which are the following: If CLT is introduced from outside, who is it that will write/adopt/select the textbooks and materials? What will be the contents of the textbooks? Whose authenticity will the books include? These are certainly not easy to answer or predict. Burnaby and Sun's (1989) conclusion of their study may offer a frame within which to find solutions: "Finally, western countries should do what they can do to enhance educational resources in China, but at the same time they must respect and appreciate the Chinese authority to set the priorities."

**CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Professional literature on CLT is voluminous and still expanding. However, this review has chosen to focus on understanding CLT as no monolithic paradigm. European and American views of CLT were explained, as well as the different conceptions of the notion of communicative competence that justify different types of communicative syllabi. The review did point out the guiding principles that unify the different syllabi, some crucial ones being the focus on learner's needs, the match between methods and materials on the one side, and goals and contexts of teaching on the other side, the use of authentic texts, and the importance for the learner to make meaning in realistic learning situations.

This literature review also gave an account of the place of communicative curricula within curricula within curriculum theory in general education, and
pointed out some criticism leveled at CLT. In addition, because of the central importance of the teaching context in CLT, the review emphasized clarifications of the different labels and categorizations of the different English teaching/learning contexts, and particular attention was granted CLT in EFL contexts. Likewise, the debate around the authenticity principle was described.
CHAPTER 3

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

INTRODUCTION

Professional literature in the Social Studies field has established that textbook analysis has a multitude of dimensions. Weinbrenner (1992) suggested five dimensions, each subdivided into categories: The “theory of knowledge” dimension is concerned with the description of the paradigmatic structure of the textbook, or the reconstruction of the fundamental epistemological approach used in the textbook. The “design” dimension focuses on the description and analysis of the content and is based on an approach incorporating informational theory, informational typography, and gestalt theory. The “subject content” dimension asks whether and to what extent textbooks on one subject make students capable of thought and influence their behavior. The fourth dimension is the “subject theory and methods”; it is concerned with issues on textbook selection and legitimation, the purposes of the textbook, the principles according to which it has been constructed, the level of learning it addresses, its didactic orientations, its congruence with the prevailing curricula and educational
guidelines. Weinbrenner's (1992) last dimension is "educational theory". More precisely, this study addresses the latter dimension.

The "educational theory" dimension questions the elements of the organization of learning procedures and of teaching methods adopted in the textbook. The dimension has levels of investigation, such as educational paradigm or basic didactic model, textbook type (workbook or textbook), didactic functions of the textbook (i.e., how helpful it is to teacher and student?), methodical functions (e.g., potentials for independent learning or critical thinking), text types, text structures, text intelligibility, and forms of communication and interaction. Clearly, one single study cannot encompass all the categories within a dimension. As a group of European Social Studies scholars rightly declared at the conclusion of their workshop in Braunschweig (Germany) in 1990, "It seems utopian to try and analyze all textbooks under all aspects. A pragmatic approach is necessary to find out whether a textbook is useful in a given situation and in the hands of a particular teacher or pupil" (Bourdillon, 1992, p. 109). Heeding that advice, this study emphasized the pedagogical orientations of the textbooks to be analyzed.

However, a few more details on the topic need to be given. A textbook analysis, in its orientation, may be presented as a 'deficit analysis' (i.e., concerns itself with shortcomings of existing material), or a 'status quo analysis' (i.e., a thorough description of the information represented in the existing books), according to Bourdillon (1992). Even though this investigation had an interest in innovating, in the sense that recommendations were eventually made for
improvements, it is to be situated in status quo analysis and is more descriptive than critical of the pedagogical orientations. Therefore, hidden messages and undeclared biases and prejudices, as well as readability and implicit content issues were not the focus. On the other hand, because emphasis was not on the didactic value of the books as such, preference was given to the written text, as opposed to the proto-text, a term which includes pictures, diagrams, maps, layout, color scheme, typography, etc. (Choppin, 1992; Slater, 1992).

The object of the research in this study has been essentially textbook analysis. Nevertheless, the group of European Social Studies experts mentioned above established that there was no universally recognized theory of the textbook, and that textbook research lacked reliable methods and instruments (Bourdillon, 1992). The literature search for this study showed there still was no textbook evaluation method, apart from didactic checklists proposed by methodology course books here and there. Consequently, a decision was made to do this textbook analysis using the content analysis research method. That method was also applied to the analysis of the English teaching objectives in Togo, the pedagogical orientation of which was contrasted with that of the textbooks in the study.

Content analysis, according to Krippendorff (1980), is a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context, a method of inquiry into symbolic meaning of messages. In other words, it is "a technique that enables researchers to study human behavior in an indirect way, through an analysis of their communications (...), e.g., textbooks, essays,
newspapers, novels, graffiti, films" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996, p. 405). In reference to this investigation, a content analysis of the English teaching objectives and of the English textbooks in use in Togo allowed to make inferences about the English language teaching and the educational system in Togo.

DATA SOURCE

Definition

In a seminal work on the methodology of content analysis, Krippendorff (1969) gave the following precisions:

In the environment of an analyst there always exists a real system which is singled out for attention. This real system may be called the source... The source is only partly observable to the analyst. Large segments of it remain, to a significant degree, inaccessible to direct observation (e.g., markings on stones are the only remains of an extinct but once complex civilization)... The analyst's efforts are motivated by his (sic) interests in acquiring (...) knowledge of more states or events that are not directly accessible to him... The analytical problem is to inferentially link available observations, the raw data, or, in short, text, to specific events, behavior, or phenomena associated with the source. (pp. 7-9; emphasis in original)

Thus, according to Krippendorff's definition of 'data source', markings on stones would be the data, the source of which is an extinct civilization. The extinct civilization would comprehend a system that could constitute the attention focus of a content analysis project. Similarly, in this study the focus of attention was the teaching of English in the senior high schools in Togo, the observable parts of which were the 'Objectives' document and English textbooks in use. Analysis of
these two observable parts of the data was undertaken, and inferences were made from the analysis results back to the Togolese English teaching context.

Collecting the Data

These observable data were mailed to the U.S. by the Togolese Senior High Schools Administration (Direction de l'Enseignement du Troisième Degré), upon my request of the current English teaching syllabuses and of the English textbooks in use (cf. the cover letter, Appendix A). The texts are described below.

**English Africa Seconde**, used for Grade 11 or Seconde (both student’s and teacher’s books), written by Kenneth Cripwell, a British text writer, and published by Macmillan in 1986.

**English Africa Première**, for Grade 12 or Première (The student’s book only, as the teacher’s book was not available), by the same author and publisher. This series had been presented to the Togolese Government (the first batch) by the British Council Representative in Togo, in the academic year 1989-1990.

**The American Way: An Introduction to American Culture**, used for Grade 13 or Terminale and written by Edward and Mary Ann Kearny & Joan Crandall, and published in 1984 by Prentice Hall Regents. This title was presented in 1991 to Togolese lycée English teachers by the American Cultural Center in Lome, Togo, during seminars (and without the teacher’s book).

With these three core texts came 1) the English syllabuses for Grades 11, 12 and 13, all bound in one document entitled *Programmes d'Anglais du Troisième Degré*, and 2) proceedings of two seminars organized in 1993 and 1995 by USIA-Lomé (United States Information Agency) for lycée English
teachers, both on the teaching of American Studies in Togolese senior high schools.

Overall, four types of documents were received. The three core texts, the teacher’s book for Grade 11, the English teaching syllabuses, and seminar proceedings, all of which constituted a wealth of information on the English teaching system in Togo. However, only the ‘Objectives’ section of the Programmes d’Anglais du Troisième Degré and the three core textbooks were selected for analysis. The accompanying documents were cited to support the decisions wherever necessary. It should be noted that the core textbooks sent (three) constituted the total population of textbooks in use. In sum, the observable data source comprised three centralized English syllabuses and three donated textbooks.

Overview of data

The English teaching objectives were contained in the Programmes d’Anglais du Troisième Degré, the syllabuses for Grades 11, 12, and 13. The whole document was produced by a committee of senior high English teachers and inspectors and local university professors, all commissioned by the Ministry of Education. The committee’s task was to update the 1985 syllabuses, “following suggestions and comments from lycée English teachers”. No more precisions were given about how these were collected. In addition, the syllabuses were to be updated to fall in line with “the newest orientations in the teaching of English” (i.e., Communicative Language Teaching or CLT).
The objectives section was comprised of ‘General English Teaching Objectives’ and ‘Specific English Teaching Objectives’ by level, forming a total of four typed single-spaced pages (cf. Programmes, 1988, pp. 1, 10, 19, 32). These pages dealt with language learning objectives and were analyzed as one document. Another section in the syllabuses dealt with ‘Official Instructions’. These were language teaching objectives that discussed what the teacher should and should not do, and therefore were not considered for analysis, except for paragraph 1.3.2 which addressed learning objectives and, therefore, was added to the corpus to be analyzed.

The English Africa series (Grades 11 and 12)

The two books in the series follow the same organizational pattern. Each book contain twenty units and each unit is divided into five lessons. The unit develops around a topic or theme, one or two functions, and a grammar structure.

Example of Unit One in English Africa Seconde:

Topic: Models

Function: Planning an activity

Structure: Adverbs (e.g., warmly)

Each lesson opens with a list of five words to be pre-taught by the teacher, and each lesson had a different focus: Lesson 1 is always a ‘reading and completing’ exercise. It consists of a cloze exercise. The pedagogical intent in insisting on this activity is, as the writer declared in Grade 11 teacher's manual introductory notes, to "develop the skills of anticipation in reading, using clues provided by the
context and structure of the passage" (Cripwell, 1986, p. 2). Lessons 2 and 4 are
an opportunity for structure and function practice. More precisely, "those lessons
give the pupils the language practice needed for different functions such as
asking, choosing, etc." (Cripwell, 1986, p. 3). The exercises may consist of
practicing grammar items, picture descriptions, etc., with many clues given (e.g.,
'...begin like this...', '...make up questions and answers like this...').

Lesson 3 introduces a new text (e.g., a passage, an advertisement, a
letter), which is the second text of the unit. The reading of the text is followed by
a series of exercises (e.g., comprehension checks, vocabulary checks, sentence
building), most of which are guided. Lesson 5 is, in the writer's words, "a revision
lesson (that) contains exercises, which relate to the language taught in lessons 2
and 4" (p. 3). As such, it is often focused on mechanics and structure practice at
different levels of difficulty and of control. Nevertheless, one also encounters
problem-solving activities like 'filling in a form' or 'making a flow chart'.

In sum, the organization of the lessons within a unit would indicate that
grammatical structures are given prominence over topics and functions. In other
words, language practice seems to be granted more importance than language
use. That is reflected in the two tests constructed for each grade level to "check
on the pupils' performance and to give them a target to strive for" (p. 3). The tests
are to be administered respectively at the end of unit 10 and unit 20, and appear
at the end of the teacher's manual only.

In each textbook, following the series of twenty units are a 'Grammar
Summary' section and a 'Word List'. The Grammar Summary explains the
grammar items the lessons focus on. References to the units and lessons where the items have been used can be seen in the margin. The Word List is alphabetically ordered and contains vocabulary items that are defined and referred back to the unit(s) and lesson(s) where they appeared in the book. If the Grammar Summary and the Word List make the books look students-friendly, it is equally noticeable that there is no preface to give the student instructions on how to use the book on his/her own. Moreover, only in the Grade 11 teacher's manual does the author introduce the series.

*English Africa* is a course intended for secondary schools in French-speaking Africa. "It assumes that the pupils will be able to understand more English than they can produce. More emphasis is therefore placed at the beginning of the course on listening and reading than on speaking and writing" (Teacher's manual, p. 1). We are also instructed that the content is organized "partly on the basis of grammatical structures ... partly on grouping structures such as functions" (Teacher's manual, p. 1), and the lessons in a unit are linked together by a topic or theme. A parenthesis should be opened here to observe the lack of leading organizational pattern, at least in the author's intentions.

According to him, *English Africa* provides a wide range of topics and activities, technical and information-related topics as well as literary and fictitious themes, so that those learners who are interested in an industrial or commercial career will see the relevance of English studies to their goals, as well as those who have an academic career in mind. In addition, the author continues, while giving attention to speech and accuracy, the series nonetheless incorporates a
strong bias towards communicative teaching, with a stress on fluency, and precedence of receptive skills (listening and reading) over productive skills, speaking and writing (Teacher's Manual, p. 1).

If it was obvious that *English Africa* series addressed a broad and diverse audience, only after a close analysis of the two textbooks was it possible to tell to what extent the books were really communicative, with regard to professional literature on CLT. The topics and functions were also discussed, after an 'eyeball observation', in the light of the Togolese sociolinguistic context, and of the objective needs of General English students.

**The American Way**

According to its authors, this text is intended for high intermediate to advanced ESL students, ranging from newly arrived immigrants in the United States to high school and college students, to visiting scholars and business people, and to government officials. It has been motivated by students' questions, both in the U.S. and overseas, related to institutions, behaviors and cultural patterns. Thus, the book is an introduction to the U.S. and its people. It is aiming not only at a fuller understanding of American culture by the students, but also at an increased understanding of their own countries, and eventually of other countries. This is clearly stated in the preface.

The core of the book is organized into twelve chapters, each presenting a cultural theme (e.g., The Protestant Heritage, The World of Business, Education in the United States). The next component of the book is a 'New Word Index' consisting in a list of words followed by numbers referring to the chapter where
the word appeared for the first time. The book concludes with a series of photographs illustrating various aspects of American life.

Each chapter is structured according to an identifiable pattern. A photograph illustrative of the theme addressed in the chapter opens every chapter. Then a passage interspersed with complementary pictures follows. After the passage comes a list of ‘New Words’. These are followed by definitions. An example from chapter 1, p. 6 is included below:

**Lifestyle**: the way people live: their clothes, their homes, their jobs, their leisure activities

**Generalization**: a statement that is generally true

The chapter is concluded by a series of ten to fifteen diverse activities. These may be classified into three categories: Language activities (e.g., ‘vocabulary check’), self-expression activities (e.g., ‘what’s your opinion?’, ‘have a debate’), and interaction activities (e.g., ‘cloze summary paragraph’, ‘ask Americans’, ‘people watching’). The activities series ends with ‘Suggestions for further reading’ which contains a list of famous American authors and their works dealing with the theme of the chapter. Here again, a systematic analysis of the content of the textbook was needed to determine what its pedagogical orientation really was, and whether it was appropriate for the Togolese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context.

For the purposes of the analysis, the content of a textbook was subdivided into four main components: Language samples or presentations, made up of written texts; Language explanations, i.e., vocabulary entries, grammar items,
and functions that are introduced in the book; Language activities, i.e., all exercises and activities prescribed for students to do in order to learn; the functions, topics and themes discussed in the book. The examination of each of these four components constituted a phase of analysis, just as did the analysis of the English language teaching objectives. In sum, five phases of analysis were considered, and the different phases were conceived in such a manner as to contribute different and complementary answers to the research questions.

PHASES OF ANALYSIS

Phase 1

This phase focused on the objectives of the teaching of English in Togo, and was expected to contribute answers mainly to research questions 1 and 3: ‘To what extent do the published English language teaching objectives for the Togolese senior high schools have communicative characteristics?’ and ‘What is the mode of communicative orientation of the objectives?’ The objectives corpus was examined in two steps.

Step 1

In a first step, a taxonomy of all the learning objectives contained in the corpus were established. At this point, it should be clear what was meant by ‘language learning objectives’. Nunan (1988, citing Tyler, 1949) suggested that there were four ways of stating objectives: objectives may specify 1) the things that the instructor is to do, or 2) course content (e.g., topics, concepts), or 3)
general patterns of behavior (e.g., ‘to develop critical thinking’), or 4) the kinds of behaviors which learners will be able to exhibit after instruction. The last type of objective, termed ‘performance objectives’ in professional ESL/EFL literature, was the one preferred by Tyler (1949) who was influential in the spread of objectives approach to syllabus design. He believed that objectives must be specified before content and activities “because their principal role is to act as a guide to the selection of the other elements in the curriculum” (in Nunan, 1988, p. 61).

The objectives approach have been adopted in the Togolese English syllabuses, as syllabus content is preceded by ‘General Objectives’ and objectives for each of the three levels (11th, 12th, and 13th grades, or Seconde, Première, and Terminale). Therefore, the study was dealing with performance objectives. According to syllabus planners, performance objectives should comprise three components: The performance component or what the learner is to be able to do, the conditions component or the conditions under which the learner will perform, and the standards or the criteria component or how well the learner is to perform (Nunan, 1988). Following is an example by Nunan (1988, p.64):

Objective: In a classroom situation, learners will exchange personal details. All utterances will be comprehensible to someone unused to dealing with non-native speakers.

Performance: exchange personal detail

Conditions: in a classroom situation
Criteria: all utterances to be comprehensible to someone unused to dealing with non-native speakers

In the taxonomy, the objectives were presented as full sentences, like the preceding example. That implies that some phrases were transformed into full sentences as illustrated below:

'The student must be able to read and write.' could be split into two complete sentences:

a. The student must be able to read

b. The student must be able to write

In addition, the information contained in the objectives corpus was reduced to only information relevant to language learning objectives. Information not related to learning objectives was simply ignored. That way of rephrasing sentences into a standard format was referred to as 'kernelization' in content analysis (Krippendorff, 1969, p. 85). Finally, the objectives in the corpus might not have a perfect structure with three components, but they were recorded all the same.

**Step 2**

The second step of Phase 1 considered an additional distinction often made by curriculum specialists among objectives type: the distinction between 'product objectives' and 'process objectives'. While product objectives describe what the learners will be able to do as a result of instruction, process objectives focus on the experience that the learner will undergo in the classroom. However, the specifications of process and product objectives, according to Nunan (1988), are not mutually exclusive. Thus, even though the objectives in the Togolese
English syllabi appeared as product objectives, the process dimension was not ignored in the category scheme developed for the analysis of the objectives.

The task at this step of Phase 1 was to classify the objectives in the Taxonomy on a contingency table based on four categorical variables: objective (product or process), performance (oral or written), condition (in the classroom or outside the classroom), and criterion (comprehensible or native-like). The unit of analysis was the sentence, and frequencies of the different types of objectives were recorded on the table using a unit recording protocol (cf. Appendix B), and analyzed.

**Phase 2**

This phase was a qualitative analysis of the themes, topics, and functions the passages in the textbooks dealt with. The purpose of this phase was to describe the nature of these themes and topics and functions. Their appropriateness was assessed with regard to the Togolese sociolinguistic context, the teaching context, and the General English students' objective needs (as opposed to subjective needs). This was the 'eyeball observation' phase which yielded a face appreciation of the textbooks before more in-depth analysis was undertaken in the following phases. An inductive analysis of the themes/topics/functions (whereby emerging organizational patterns were accounted for) was conducted, and their relevance to the Togolese context was discussed.

This phase thus contributed answers to research questions 2 and 4 essentially. For The American Way textbook, the themes listed on the table of
The presentations of new language elements were considered at this phase, as they can account for the pedagogical orientation of a textbook. For instance, it is known that methods like Grammar-Translation or Audio-Lingual Method emphasize form. However, proponents of CLT would agree with Larsen-Freeman (1997) that "While grammar does involve form, in order to communicate, language users also need to know what the forms mean and when to use them appropriately." The same applies to both lexicon and functions. In genuinely communicative textbooks, the presentation of new lexical items or new functions may include descriptions of the vocabulary items or of the functions and various ways of using them (cf., for instance, Jones and von Baeyer, 1997), integrating semantics and sociolinguistic rules of use. In that connection, Savignon (1983, p. 189) recommended that the explanations "should include attention to rules of language and language behavior along with systematic practice in their application."

Thus, explanations of lexical items, structures, and functions were examined in order to determine whether emphasis was put on form, or on use. A contingency table was constructed with the two variables 'explanation type' and 'emphasis'. The frequencies of the different explanations were recorded on the
contingency table (to be presented below) on which were crossing the two variables. The frequencies were then statistically analyzed.

Phase 4

Phase 4 focused on the analysis of language learning activities in the textbooks in order to determine what type of activities is prominent. Two categories of activities were considered: communicative activities and language arts activities (cf. 'Category Schemes' below). Other dimensions of the activities were taken into account in the analysis with research question 3 in mind: setting of the activity, its presentation mode, and whether it was controlled or not.

This study adopted a classification of activities in two categories with nine subcategories, which is different from ‘traditional’ classifications in mechanical, meaningful, and communicative activities. Paulston (1992) defines “mechanical drills” as drills where there is a complete control of the response and where there is only one correct way of responding. In “meaningful drills”, she goes on, meaning is involved, and there may be more than one correct response. But there is still control of the response, since the teacher always knows what the student ought to answer. The difference between a meaningful drill and a "communicative drill", she suggests, is that in a communicative drill, the student adds information that the teacher or the class did not know before, and the students are required to answer truthfully. However, Paulston (1992) observes, in practice it is not always easy to distinguish between the three categories, as a meaningful exercise can turn communicative when a student takes a question personally. In the same perspective, Littlewood (1981) suggests not to think of
these categories in terms of clear-cut distinctions, for the same activity can be
communicative for one learner, and 'pre-communicative' or structural for another.
He gives as example a question-answer practice about personal background
where students have to respond to the question 'Where do you live?' Some
learners may focus primarily on the meanings conveyed, while others may focus
on the forms to use. The activity will thus be communicative for the former but
pre-communicative or language-oriented for the latter.

However, the classification adopted here considered just the purpose of
the activities prescribed in the books and grouped them into Communicative
Activities and Language Arts Activities. In Communicative Activities, the learner
is asked to use the language for a purpose, while in Language Arts Activities (the
expression is from Savignon, 1983) the purpose is to equip the learner with some
of the skills required for communication and to have him/her produce an
acceptable piece of language. At this phase, these two activity categories were
crossed on a contingency table with variables 'setting', 'presentation mode', and
'control' (to be discussed below) for the analysis of the activities.

Phase 5

Phase 5 looked like an addendum to the preceding phase. It consisted in
deciding whether the passages or language samples in the books were used as
a display or as a real piece of discourse, based on how they were exploited. If
the activities following a text allowed the students to use their language ability in
interacting with the passage or their peers, then that sample was considered a
genuine 'text'. Conversely, if the activities were limited to simple language
manipulations, the passage was considered a 'pretext'. The term was borrowed from Savignon (1983, 33) discussing the selection of the language to which the learners should be exposed in CLT. In her words, “Most language textbooks are, in fact, grammar books. They select and sequence language according to formal or structural criteria, which may, for instance, be imbedded in a passage or dialogue. But these are not texts; they are, after all, pretexts for displaying grammar” (emphasis in original). Pretexts seem to be used to consolidate and extend knowledge of structure and vocabulary that has already been introduced, Widdowson (1983) confirmed, and that gives them the character of a display case and decreases their value as discourse.

Thus, this phase, by contributing insights on the quality of language samples in the textbooks, added elements of response to research questions 2 and 4 essentially. The other variables, ‘setting’ and ‘topic’ (also considered in Phases 2 and 4 for comparison/contrast purposes), were associated to variable ‘sample type’ to describe the passages. These three variables were cross-tabulated on a contingency table on which frequencies of activities were first recorded before being analyzed.

CATEGORY SCHEMES

Apart from the naked-eye observation phase, Phase 2, the other four phases in this study had each an analysis instrument that integrated many variables. The variable choices were based on the purpose of the phase, on the
research question(s) targeted, and on the nature of the data sources (textbook component to be analyzed or language teaching objectives). The variable choices were also inspired by professional literature on ESL/EFL and CLT, and by researcher's intuition. Within variables, categories or levels were determined, which were distinct and mutually exclusive. Following are descriptions of the category schemes for each phase.

Phase 1

At this phase there were three explanatory variables (performance, condition, and criterion) that were cross-tabulated with one response variable, objective type. All four were dichotomous variables. The two categories under 'objective type' were subdivided into sub-categories aimed at facilitating the scoring on the table.

1. 'Performance', as defined earlier, referred to what the learner was to be able to do. Its two levels considered here were 'oral' (or) and 'written' (wr).

2. 'Condition' referred to the conditions under which the learner was to perform. The levels taken into account were 'real-world' (r-w) our outside of the classroom, and 'pedagogical' (ped) or in the classroom.

3. The 'criterion' variable indicated how well the learner was to perform. It was subdivided into 'comprehensible' (comp) and 'native-like' (nat) performance.

4. The above variables all conjugated to determine an 'objective type', which was viewed as 'product' (prod) or 'process' (proc). Product objectives focused on 'grammar structures' (str) to master, 'functions and notions' (f/n) to be proficient in, 'topics' (top) to be knowledgeable about, and 'attitudes' (att) to
adopt. On the other hand, the focus of process objectives was either ‘tasks’ (tk) to accomplish or ‘activities’ (act) to carry out, a task being composed of a series of activities. The four variables were thus combined in a two (product/process) by two (oral/written) by two (real-world/pedagogical) by two (comprehensible/native-like) contingency table (cf. Table 1).

Phase 3

To examine the new presentations or explanations in the books, a two-dimensional contingency table was created. Dependent variable ‘emphasis’ of explanation was crossed with independent variable ‘type’ of explanation.

1. ‘Emphasis’ had two levels: emphasis on ‘form’ and emphasis on ‘use’, which were in turn divided into sub-categories. The emphasis on ‘form’ might be done in terms of ‘descriptions’ (des) of linguistic forms or of functions, in terms of ‘rules’ (rl) of usage, of ‘antonyms’ (ant) or ‘synonyms’ (syn), of ‘definitions’ (def), of ‘examples’ (ex), or any ‘combinations’ (combo) of the preceding. The emphasis on ‘use’ might be an explanation of the ‘context’ (cont) of use, or ‘illustrate’ (illu) the use of the element through examples, or a combination of ‘both’ (both) techniques. These subcategories formed the columns of the table.

2. The explanation ‘types’ were ‘vocabulary’ (voc), ‘grammar’ (gram), or ‘functions’ (func). These categories had only one level each and formed the rows of the contingency table. It should be observed that each type of explanation was examined with a different unit of analysis. Generally speaking, the unit of analysis for ‘explanations’ was the piece of explanation suggested. For ‘vocabulary’, the unit of analysis was the piece of explanation of the lexical entry. For ‘grammar’, it
Table 1: Contingency table for recording observed frequencies of Objectives type (D) by Performance mode (A), Condition (B), and Criterion (C).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Product</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>str</td>
<td>f/n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Or</td>
<td>r-w</td>
<td>comp</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ped</td>
<td>nat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wr</td>
<td>r-w</td>
<td>comp</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ped</td>
<td>nat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: str = structures; f/n = functions and notions; top = topics; att = attitudes; tk = tasks; act = activities; Or = oral; Wr = written; r-w = real-world; ped = pedagogical; comp = comprehensible; nat = native-like.
Phase 4

Language learning activities were analyzed at this phase. For that purpose, four categorical variables were selected from professional literature. There were three dichotomous independent variables, ‘setting’, ‘presentation mode’, and ‘control’; the response variable, also dichotomous, was ‘activities’. The four variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Emphasis</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Form</td>
<td>Use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>des</td>
<td>rl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabul</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: des = description; rl = rule; ant = antonym; syn = synonym; def = definition; ex = example; combo = combination of any of the preceding; cont = context; illu = illustration; both = illustration of use and context of use.

Table 2: Contingency table for recording observed frequencies of Emphasis of Explanation (B) by Type of Explanation (A).
were cross-tabulated, with the independent variables forming the rows and the dependent variable, which had two categories and nine sub-categories, formed the columns.

1. 'Setting', the same way as the 'condition' variable for Phase 1, referred to where the activity was to take place. The activity might take place in the 'classroom' (cr) or 'outside' (out) the classroom.

2. The 'presentation mode' variable referred to the modality of the activity, and echoed the 'performance' variable in Phase 1: The exercises might be conducted in the 'written' (wr) mode or in the 'oral' (or) mode.

3. The third explanatory variable, 'control', referred to whether the activities were guided or whether they allowed for student's creativity and spontaneity. The two levels here were 'yes' or 'no'.

4. The response variable, 'Activities', was divided into 'Communicative Activities' (CA) and 'Language Arts Activities' (LAA), which also had their sub-categories.

'Communicative Activities' comprehended the following sub-categories:

- 'Social interaction' (Si) activities are activities in which learners are to use the language which is not only functionally effective, but is also appropriate to the social situation s/he is in (Littlewood, 1981). Examples are discussion sessions, conversation sessions, simulations, role plays.

- 'Functional communication' (Fc) activities are activities where learners are to use the language they know in order to get meanings across effectively in solving immediate communication problems. In this category Littlewood (1981)
listed information-gap and problem-solving activities that involve information sharing or processing.

- 'Text transforming' (Tt) activities: e.g., free summaries, syntheses, unguided outlining, follow-up essays, unscrambling passages, unguided picture descriptions. These are activities, according to recent literature in reading and writing, that require the learner to construct meaning from text by organizing, selecting, and connecting elements from his/her background knowledge (Spivey, 1990; Blanton, 1994). In other words, these activities address deeper levels of analysis and exploration of the structure of the text, the character's motives, etc., and engage the learner into interpretation of meaning (Gajdusek & vanDommelen, 1993).

- 'Beyond the classroom' (Byd) activities are activities that take the learners into the surrounding community or bring the community into the classroom (Savignon, 1983). Examples are experiential activities, interviewing local people, field trips, discussing local news.

While the four preceding categories of communicative activities might be grouped under 'Interaction Activities', the fifth category was not concerned with interaction.

- 'Self-expression' (S-e) activities rather encourage personal L2 use and seek to involve the learner psychologically, as well as intellectually (Savignon, 1983). Some examples are class presentations, reporting an event, journal keeping, personal reading, letter writing.
'Language Arts Activities' (LAA) included four sub-categories. Generally speaking, those activities were controlled, and they focused on form or usage (cf. Widdowson, 1983; Paulston, 1992).

- 'Completion' (Cpl) activities require the learner to insert linguistic elements into a given syntactic framework, according to Widdowson (1983). Examples of completion activities are substitution drills, fill-in-the-gap exercises.

- In 'Transformation' (Trf) activities, learners either derive one sentence or phrase from another, altering the latter's form and meaning, or derive a structurally different sentence or phrase from another without altering the latter's meaning (Widdowson, 1983, p. 114). Examples of transformation activities are vocabulary expansion exercises, transformation drills, guided picture descriptions, reformulation drills, and sentence or paragraph translating.

- 'Comprehension activities referring to form and usage' (Caf) address surface level comprehension of the text and refer to facts in the text. Moreover, they make appeal to the comprehending skill rather than to the reading ability (Widdowson, 1983; Gajdusek & van Dommelen, 1993). Examples of such activities are text questions, reconstitution questions, identification questions, cloze passages for comprehension.

- 'Formal accuracy activities' (Fac) are defined by Savignon (1983) as activities that provide practice in the use of particular structures and vocabulary and that include attention to rules of language and language behavior. They train the learners in analyzing the language. Examples: dictations, spelling games, pronunciation games, memorization activities.
All these categories and sub-categories were cross-tabulated as below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Communication Activities (CA)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Language Arts Activities (LAA)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Si  Fc  Tt  Byd  S-e  Cpl  Trf  Caf  Fac</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cr</td>
<td>wr</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no  yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out</td>
<td>wr</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no  yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Si = social-interaction; Fc = functional-communication; Tt = text-transforming; Byd = beyond-the-class; S-e = self-expression; Cpl = completion; Trf = transformation; Caf = comprehension activities referring to form and usage; Fac = Formal accuracy; Cr = classroom; Out = outside; wr = written; or = oral.

Table 3: Contingency table for observed frequencies of language learning activities (D) by Setting (A), Presentation Mode (B), and Control (C).

Phase 5

The purpose of this final phase was to identify the purposes of the language samples in the books. That determined the sample type. Thus, 'Sample Type' was selected as the response variable. The analysis also yielded
information on the nature of the samples, specifically their 'Setting', the 'Topic'
dealt with in the sample, which were the two explanatory variables. The three
variables had each two levels.

1. 'Setting' was subdivided into 'Togo/Africa' (ToAf) and 'foreign' (fgn), the
latter designating any settings outside of the African continent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Sample Type</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Text</td>
<td>Pretext</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Togo/Africa</td>
<td>specific</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>general</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign</td>
<td>specific</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>general</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Contingency table for scoring observed frequencies of Sample Type by
Setting and Topic.

2. The 'Topic' variable referred to the main topic addressed in the text. It
could be a 'specialized' (sp) or technical topic dealing with a specific domain
(e.g., agriculture, business) or a 'general' (gen) topic dealing with an issue of common interest (e.g., war and its effects, technology transfer).

3. The 'Sample Type' variable had two categories, 'text' (Te) and 'pretext' (Prt) which formed the columns of the contingency table for this phase. A passage was labeled a 'text' when it engaged language learners in communicative activities mostly. But if it was used mainly for language arts activities, it was labeled a 'pretext'. The three variables were woven into a two by two table.

It should be noted that categories and sub-categories were represented by abbreviations or "tags," to borrow Weber's (1985) term. That prepared the ground for the analysis of the different components of the textbooks at each of the phases.

Instrument Validity and Reliability

The category schemes were researcher-generated. However, the categories and sub-categories were derived from professional literature on CLT, and an effort was made to describe them as explicitly as to make a subsequent replication possible and without ambiguities. An a-posteriori validation of this analysis instrument is expected for refinement purposes.

Nevertheless, a reliability test was carried out through a pilot-testing of these category schemes. The objectives taxonomy (Phase 1) and randomly selected samples of the texts to be analyzed (three units from each of the two volumes of English Africa, three chapters from The American Way) were submitted to an independent analyst, (an ESL/EFL doctoral student). These
documents were accompanied by descriptions of the category schemes for each phase, as well as scoring guidelines (See Appendix B). The category frequencies were to be recorded on scoring sheets (See Appendix C), and then reported on the appropriate contingency tables. The independent researcher's scores were compared to the researcher's scores for each category scheme, at every phase of the analysis. Differences in scoring were discussed and the procedures involved and the categories were explained, and the scoring was repeated as many times as necessary, until a correlation of (.90) at least was reached among the scorers. For instance, for the category scheme for analyzing language learning activities (phase 4), an average inter-rater reliability of .97 was arrived at, using the Pearson Product-moment correlation formula (Harris, 1995, p. 168; Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991, p. 434). What is desired, according to Fraenkel and Wallen (1996), is a correlation of .90. The same procedure was carried out for the category schemes for explanations and language samples.

The piloting experience revealed that a briefing on the analysis instruments prior to the study proper was mandatory, as was an on-going discussion on and explanation of the concepts and procedures involved, if the instruments are to be used by a group of researchers, so that they could have the similar interpretations of the pedagogical concepts forming the category schemes. In addition, the piloting called for a refinement of the category schemes for the analysis of "language explanations" and "language samples". The refined category schemes were placed following the original schemes in appendix C.
Subsequent to the piloting, the author analyzed the different texts at the different phases using the split-half procedure for internal consistency. It consisted in analyzing odd number units and chapters separately from even number units and chapters. The reliability coefficient, calculated through the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula (cf. Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996, p. 162) for explanations, samples, and activities, was .98. It should be observed that, at Phase 1, that procedure was not applied to the analysis of the language learning objectives which were just a four-page corpus. At this point, details on the analysis of the data are in order.

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The analysis of the data was conducted in three steps.

Tagging

To paraphrase Weber (1985, p. 26) who cited that procedure for classifying words in texts, tagging is the process of classifying units of analysis in texts. In this study, it consisted of applying the different category schemes to the different texts to be analyzed ('English teaching objectives' for Phase 1, language explanations for Phase 3, language learning activities for Phase 4, and language samples for Phase 5). Thus, at this step of the analysis, units of analysis for each phase were assigned to categories and “tagged” with abbreviations representing categories. The scoring guidelines (Appendix B) were helpful for this step.
Frequency Counts

The next step consisted of counting by hand the number of units that were classified under categories and subcategories using scoring sheets (Appendix C), and scoring the figures on the appropriate contingency tables. The frequencies in subcategories were then collapsed to have one global frequency under each category. In content analysis, counting is based on the assumption that higher relative counts (or percentages and proportions) reflect higher concern with a category, and counting may also reveal aspects of the text that otherwise would not be apparent (Weber, 1985). That was the assumption for this study, too. Additionally, the counts also indicated how a category varied from one teaching level to the next and from one textbook series to the other.

Chi-Square Analysis

The frequencies were then statistically tested. For that purpose, a chi-square test of independence was chosen because, while testing differences in proportion of frequencies on levels of variables, the chi-square test of independence also tested an implied hypothesis of association among variables (Harris, 1995, p. 373). However, a chi-square goodness-of-fit was also used whenever it was called for. On the other hand, for a more precise measure of the relationships between variables, tables crossing more than two variables (i.e., in Phase 1, Phase 4, and Phase 5) were broken into two by two sub-tables that were then tested, as recommended by Harris (1995).

For this analysis, the Complete Qualitative Analysis (CQA) was used. It is an MS DOS (IBM or compatibles) micro-computer program by Kennedy and
Bush (in press) that can be used to perform traditional two-dimensional contingency tables analyses, as well as other analyses (log-linear, logistic regression). In addition, computation of goodness-of-fit chi-squares were done by hand. For all these series of analyses, the alpha level was set at .05 ($\alpha = .05$).

**More about Validity Issues**

The study being a descriptive inquiry, there was no question about internal validity of the outcomes of the analysis (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996, p. 436). Besides, the total population of the English textbooks in use in senior high schools was considered. Moreover, the study having the quality of a case study, there was no claim of external validity either.

However, an ex-post facto validation would be needed to see whether the results and their interpretations and inferences made from them are accurate. According to Krippendorff (1980), content analysis results are assumed to represent some aspect of reality, and the nature of this representation must be verifiable in principle. To illustrate ex-post facto validation, he cited the case of a validation of inferred audience perceptions by correlating content analysis results with audience behavior, i.e., voting, consumption, or aggression (p. 28).

Likewise, the results and interpretations of this study could be subsequently validated by more studies that might, for instance, seek to establish a correlation between these results and classroom behaviors of English teachers in Togo, between the results and English testing procedures, or between the results and Togolese lycée students' attitude towards English, or between these results and the acquisition planning of English in Togo.
Interpretation

Interpretation in a piece of research consists of an explanation of the findings. The meanings of the results of this study were accounted for through inferences that related the results to the data source (the Togolese teaching context). The inferences made were based on literature on CLT theory, on curriculum theory, and on facts about the socio-linguistic context as described in the first chapter of the study. Eventually, the results were considered as indices of phenomena characteristic of the English teaching system in Togo, of the Togolese educational system indeed. That position was based on Krippendorff’s (1980) definition of indices as variables “whose significance in an investigation depends on the extent to which it can be regarded as a correlate of other phenomena ... as smoke indicates fire” (p. 40, emphasis in original).

Applications

The findings called for a reflection on the application of CLT in EFL teaching contexts, and for recommendations about the specific context of Togo. This final section of the procedures, like the preceding section, based on literature on CLT theory, but also on the specificity of ESL and EFL contexts, and on the particular English teaching context of Togo. Eventually, an English curriculum model was proposed for the senior high schools in Togo.
CHAPTER SUMMARY

This third chapter explained the methods and procedures used in the study. For the analysis of the published English language teaching objectives and the three English texts targeted, a content analysis method was proposed, following mainly Krippendorf's (1969) theory of content analysis. For the textbooks, only pedagogical orientations were examined, as all aspects of a textbook cannot be analyzed in a single study. In addition, the focus was on the written text, as opposed to the proto-text (Choppin, 1992; Slater, 1992), of which four components were studied: language samples, language explanations, language activities, and the functions, topics, and themes discussed in the books. Each of these components, as well as the Togolese English teaching objectives, constituted a phase of the analysis. A researcher-generated analysis instrument that integrated CLT concepts derived from professional literature was applied to each phase after piloting, except for phase two which was a qualitative analysis. The analysis consisted of the tagging of the different components of the texts using scoring guidelines (See Appendix B), then entering the scores unto scoring sheets under appropriate categories (See Appendix C), taking frequency counts under each category and statistically testing them using the Complete Qualitative Analysis (CQA) computer program by Kennedy and Bush (in press).
INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the data from the textbooks analysis are presented. The primary purpose of the study was to investigate the degree to which the teaching of English in the senior high schools in Togo follows communicative principles, as is claimed in the ELT objectives stated in the 1986 English syllabi. For that purpose, the three English textbooks adopted for the senior high (English Africa Seconde (Grade 11), English Africa Première (Grade 12), and The American Way for Grade 13), and the stated English teaching objectives for the senior high were examined, using the instruments described in Chapter 3 for analysis (See Appendices B and C for copies of the instruments). Further, the match between the textbooks analyses and the objectives analyses was also studied.

The raw data from these analyses are presented in Appendix E. However, a series of 2 x 2 contingency sub-tables were extracted from these general tables and there chi-squares were computed, in order to answer the related research questions. The data for each of the research questions introduced in Chapter 1
were presented and discussed with reference to CLT theory and curriculum theory. They were also examined as indices of phenomena characterizing the socio-linguistic context from which the data source was collected. Only data related to research questions 1 to 5 were presented in this chapter. Responses to questions 6 and 7 that are application questions constitute Chapter 5.

**RESEARCH QUESTION 1:** To what extent do the published English Language Teaching objectives for the Togolese senior high schools have communicative characteristics? That general question had been divided into two sub-questions a and b. The focus is first on sub-question a.

**Sub-question a**

To what extent do the published objectives match current CLT philosophy?

There are different types of objectives as is shown in textbooks on syllabus design. Objectives designed for a CLT program, according to literature on communicative approaches, should reflect the students' needs and the language teaching context. The needs here should clearly be communicative needs in the target language and in the real world (cf. Yalden, 1987; Nunan, 1988; Berns, 1990; Brown, 1995). With this in mind, the English Teaching General Objectives in Togo were submitted to the category scheme designed for the analysis of objectives, which yielded the frequencies on table E1 of Appendix E. It can be noted that there was zero frequency for process objectives. Thus, the
overall contingency table was treated as a general frequency table where all 53 objectives are product objectives. A series of frequency tables were then extracted from the general table, and these contributed answers to the above question.

To check if the English Teaching Objectives take into account CLT philosophy, three chi-square statistics were run to see which condition was preferred, which performance mode was preferred, and which criterion was preferred, given the EFL learning context of Togo. The frequency table for condition is as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>OF*</th>
<th>E Proportion*</th>
<th>EF*</th>
<th>(O - E)²</th>
<th>(O - E)² / E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Real-world</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>30.25</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogic</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>30.25</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \chi^2 = 2.28^{**} \]

* OF: Observed Frequency; E Proportion: Expected Proportion; EF: Expected Frequency

** p > .05

Table 5: Frequency of Conditions of Performance
A chi-square goodness-of-fit test was run to test the implicit null hypothesis that there was no statistically significant difference in the proportions of real-world objectives and pedagogic objectives. As can be seen from table 5, the chi-square goodness-of-fit test indicated that there was no statistically significant preference for either real-world objectives or objectives for the classroom, $X^2 (1, N = 53) = 2.28, p > .05$. Thus the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

However, professional literature on CLT suggests that in a communicative syllabus, the objectives should clearly indicate where the use of the language is to be the most significant for the students, given the context and given the students’ needs. In Togo we are in an EFL context where English is not the medium of communication outside of the classroom, and the English teaching objectives should reflect that reality.

An examination of frequencies of criterion performance (Table 6 below) gave another evidence that the EFL context of Togo had not been a determining factor in the design of the English teaching objectives for senior high schools.

In order to test the null hypothesis that native-like performance is as important as comprehensible performance within the English teaching objectives, their respective frequencies yielded by the analysis (25 and 28) were statistically compared. The chi-square goodness-of-fit test indicated that there was no statistically significant preference for either comprehensible use of English or for native-like use of English by the students, $X^2 (1, N = 53) = .16, p > .05$. The null hypothesis could not be rejected.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>O Frequency</th>
<th>E Proportion</th>
<th>E Frequency</th>
<th>$(O - E)^2 / E$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comprehensible</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-like</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[X^2 = .16^*\]

* p > .05

Table 6: Frequency of Criteria of Performance

In an EFL context where the teachers are not native speakers of English, and where English is not commonly used outside of the classroom, it is not realistic to expect the students to perform at the native-speaker level as a result of learning. Table 6 thus showed, as did Table 5, that the Togolese EFL context as well as the students' needs were not taken into account by the published objectives. Consequently, these objectives do not respond to the CLT requirements of a match between the language teaching/learning context and the objectives, and between the objectives and what the students need to do with the language. As Brown (1995) put it, CLT "focuses on the need for students to express intentions and meanings that are important to them in their lives", and when translating students' needs into goals and objectives, "the aim should be to isolate and state potential objectives (based on the goals) with as much precision as makes sense
in the context" (p. 78). Thus, students' needs and the language teaching context may not be dissociated in order to have a coherent program.

Sub-question b

Sub-question b reads as follows: "To what extent do the published objectives state expected communicative outcomes?"

To respond to that question, the following frequency table (Table 7) was extracted from Table E1 of Appendix E.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product Type</th>
<th>O Frequency</th>
<th>E Proportion</th>
<th>E Frequency</th>
<th>((0 - E)^2 / E)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structures</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>17.67</td>
<td>12.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funct/Notion</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>17.67</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>17.67</td>
<td>11.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[X^2 = 23.80^*\]

\(^* \ p < .05\)

Table 7: Frequency of Levels of Product Objectives

It should be recalled that Product Objectives are either structures to be mastered, or functions and notions to be proficient in, or topics to be knowledgeable about, or attitudes which consist of demonstrating listening, speaking, reading, or writing skills. The Topic level having zero frequency was subsequently ignored in the
analysis. The frequencies of the three levels retained in Table 7 were compared to see if there was any significant difference among them that reflected an orientation towards CLT. The null hypothesis tested was that there was no difference in the proportions of these three types of objectives and that there was no dominant trend.

The chi-square goodness-of-fit test indicated that there was a significant difference between the proportions of these three types of objectives. $X^2 (2, N = 53) = 23.80, p < .05$. However, to see what type of product objective was dominant, the objectives were alternatively collapsed so as to obtain only two categories, and the frequencies thus obtained statistically tested. Structures + functions and notions versus attitudes yielded an insignificant chi-square: $X^2 (1, N = 53) = 2.28, p > .05$. However, the following alternative was significant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product Type</th>
<th>O Frequency</th>
<th>E Proportion</th>
<th>E Frequency</th>
<th>$(O - E)^2 / E$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Funct/Notion</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>2.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Struct. + Attitu.</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>2.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 5.46^*$

* $p < .05$

Table 8: Frequency of Collapsed Levels of Product Objectives
The chi-square goodness-of-fit test indicated that there was a dominant trend: the preference for structural objectives and objectives that consisted in adopting attitudes where you demonstrate a language skill (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), to the detriment of functions and notions, $X^2 (1, N = 53) = 5.45$, $p < .05$.

Thus, it can be stated that the published objectives did not emphasize communicative outcomes, for structures and language skills were given priority over functions and notions. Functions and notions are one way to "do something with the language" and to use it for communication, as is recommended by professional literature on CLT (Yalden, 1987).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Objectives*</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Functions/notions</td>
<td>Attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real-world</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogic</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The "structures" objectives column only had a frequency of three (3) and was ignored.

Table 9: Observed Frequency of Objective Types by Setting
As a follow-up to these results, a contingency table (Table 9 below) was extracted from Table E1 (the data obtained from the analysis of objectives) to test the relationship between the types of outcome objectives and the setting condition. The test of independence indicated that there was no significant relationship between the setting variable and the type of objective variable, $X^2 (1, N = 50) = 2.35, p > .05$. As a matter of fact the Phi coefficient was .22, which signaled a weak relationship. That allowed to conclude that the published English teaching objectives overlooked the teaching setting, and consequently did not have communicative characteristics.

It was further pointed out that the weak relationship between the objectives and the setting belies the "preoccupation to give students the means for expressing themselves in diverse situations of everyday life", as is stated in the English teaching goals (cf. Appendix D), for no significance preference has been made for either pedagogical objectives or real-world objectives. In addition to this conflict between the English teaching goals and the English teaching objectives, it was observed that, because the goals amalgamated students' everyday life (goals 4 and 16), their "immediate needs" (goal 13), and their "future professional needs" (goal 15), it is impossible to reconcile those three preoccupations and make a choice of CLT model that makes sense in the Togolese general English context. As a matter of fact, Berns (1990) suggested there are different models of CLT that applies to different contexts. The goals also seems to put equal emphasis on the learners' being able to understand, speak, read, or write everyday communication English (goals 9 to 12), which
looks much like a four-skill approach that focuses on language instead of meaning making.

**Summary of Data for Research Question 1**

The data for research question 1 indicates that the Togolese English teaching objectives make no difference between the proportion of real-world objectives and pedagogic objectives, which means that the EFL context was not taken into account by the English planners. Likewise, the objectives do not show any preference for either comprehensible use of English or native-like use of English. Thus, the objectives do not follow CLT requirements of a match between the objectives and the language teaching/learning context. Besides, these objectives emphasize structures and attitudes where language skills are demonstrated rather than functions and notions. Thus the published English teaching objectives do not have communicative characteristics.

**RESEARCH QUESTION 2: Do the textbook contents have communicative characteristics?** This question has two sub-questions, of which the first was examined first.

**Sub-question a**

Do the textbook contents match CLT philosophy?

To respond to this question a series of analyses were conducted. The naked-eye observation (phase one of the analysis) was conducted for each of the textbooks in order to uncover their leading organizing principle. Table 10 sums up the topics and headings of units from *English Africa Seconde*.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Topic**</th>
<th>Function***</th>
<th>Structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Models</td>
<td>Planning an activity <em>(While I write that, you can draw.)</em></td>
<td>Adverbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>What happens next</td>
<td>Describing everyday activities <em>(If it is a school day, I go to school.)</em></td>
<td>Present simple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Giving directions <em>(First you cross the road. Then....)</em></td>
<td>Present continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Survival</td>
<td>Making decisions <em>(I have chosen a pistol first because....)</em></td>
<td>Defining relative clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Animals and their food (t)</td>
<td>Classifying and describing <em>(Ifeoma said that a herbivore was an animal that ate plants.)</em></td>
<td>Sequence of tenses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Calculating and measuring (t)</td>
<td>Describing measurements <em>(It is 2.5 meters long.)</em></td>
<td>Comparison of adjectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Comparing shapes and positions <em>(Which line is nearest to the biggest circle?)</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Families</td>
<td>Reporting time <em>(At two o'clock M. washed the clothes.)</em></td>
<td>Tenses and time markers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Giving instructions <em>(Moji, wash the clothes.)</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Regional geography (t)</td>
<td>Describing and comparing <em>(The rays of the sun are like a pair of scissors....)</em></td>
<td>Comparisons Reported speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Archaeology (t)</td>
<td>Explaining and expressing purpose <em>(He needed the axe so that he could chop wood.)</em></td>
<td>Past continuous and simple past</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Transport (t)</td>
<td>Giving instructions and making plans <em>(Fly North for 300 km, you will land at Maiduguri.)</em></td>
<td>Conditionals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Office work (t)</td>
<td>Making complaints <em>(There is a mistake in the bill you have just sent me.)</em></td>
<td>Adverbial clauses of reason</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Scope and Sequence Chart for *English Africa Seconde* (continues)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Topic*</th>
<th>Function**</th>
<th>Structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Electricity (t)</td>
<td>Giving instructions <em>(Make sure the switch is in the OFF position.)</em></td>
<td>Imperative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Child health (t)</td>
<td>Warning <em>(If the child loses too much water from her body she might die.)</em></td>
<td>Interrogative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Marriage</td>
<td>Describing <em>(The women... began to sing like birds.)</em></td>
<td>Short forms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Budgets (t)</td>
<td>Arguing about priorities <em>(We ought to spend more money on improving hospitals because there are so many sick people who need treatment.)</em></td>
<td>Gerund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Road safety (t)</td>
<td>Reporting intention <em>(We are going to stop it.)</em></td>
<td>Imperative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Food science (t)</td>
<td>Comparing <em>(There is less fat than water in milk.)</em></td>
<td>Passive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Farming technology</td>
<td>Giving advice <em>(If you used irrigation, you would be able to take water to fields that are usually dry.)</em></td>
<td>Prepositions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Passports (t)</td>
<td>Asking questions <em>(Have you ever been to Zaïre?)</em></td>
<td>Time markers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Clean living</td>
<td>Asking for advice <em>(Should I take a bath twice a day?)</em></td>
<td>Passive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Complaining</td>
<td>Making complaints <em>(Three times last week my letters were delivered to the wrong house.)</em></td>
<td>Past simple Past continuous</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Topics marked (t) are considered “technical” or “professional”.
** The illustrations of the functions in parenthesis are from the textbook.

**Topics**

The topics in the second column of Table 10 appear as they were listed on table of contents of the Grade 11 textbook. A look at that table of contents alone might make one believe that the textbook has a topical organization. However, inside the book, the units were headed by one or two functions, and one or two
grammatical structures. That announced an organizing principle combining topics or themes, functions, and structures. But that prediction was not confirmed after a closer look at the topics and texts, functions and structures.

The topics on Table 10 cannot all be qualified as topics or themes if topics are understood as abstract conceptual categories. The topics on the table are not at the same abstraction level. For instance, the topic for Unit 1, Models, refers to the task of making models; the topic for Unit 2, What happens next evokes a situation for applying the function in the unit (Giving directions), and the heading of Unit 3, Survival, rather describes a situation. Likewise, the heading for Unit 20, Complaining, is a function, according to Savignon's (1983) suggestion that "A function deals with what is said as opposed to how it is said" (p.12, emphasis in original). Nevertheless, 16 of the 20 headings of the units are real topics at the same abstraction level. The organization of the textbook could be said to be topical if the lessons of a unit were grouped around the topics (Brown, 1995), which was not the case.

As a matter of fact, inside the units there was more than one text, but the first text of the unit was always about the unit topic. However, the fact that these texts were systematically cloze passages lead to suspect that they were meant to enforce the cloze technique rather. The other texts inside the unit would illustrate the so-called functions and the structures. Another evidence that the topics were not the most important aspects of the textbooks was the fact that, for every text, five vocabulary words were pre-selected for presentation, no matter how familiar or difficult the selection could be for the students of this EFL learning context.
Thus, in every unit, twenty words were systematically presented (described, and
explained in the "Word list" at the end of the book). Yet, all the topics and texts
could not be expected to be familiar to the students to the same degree: The
unfamiliar texts (judging by the francophone EFL context, and by the students’
English background of four years) would be expected to have more unfamiliar
words to be explained. This treatment of the lexis could be interpreted as
reflecting the little importance granted the topics.

Another revealing fact about the topics was their quality that would make
them more familiar or less familiar to general English students like the Togolese
senior high school students. Of the twenty topics listed on Table 10, thirteen were
considered "technical" or "professional". A definition is in order at this point.

Paraphrasing Lannon (1988) on technical writing, a technical topic or text
is a topic on specialized information or a text containing facts and information
which is special or unusual to the learner in the target language, or information
which pertains to a specific field or subject-matter. Bernhardt (1993) called such
information “domain-specific knowledge” or “knowledge base handled down
through schooling, in History, Natural Science, Art, Social Science, etc.” A text
was considered professional if the domain-specific content was appropriate to a
specific profession. To illustrate, topics like Families or Marriage were considered
general; Electricity and Calculating and Measuring were considered technical,
while Child Health or Farming Technology were considered professional, for
students learning general English and with no more than four previous year of
English at a pace of three periods a week. It can be imagined the comprehension
problems such technical topics and the texts under them (to be discussed below) would pose to EFL students, with consequences on students' motivation for the language.

**Functions and structures**

The structures, clearly, were one organizing principle of this textbook. Apart from the structures listed on Table 10 and illustrated in the headings of the units, the structures were practiced in the activities following the texts, and there was a Grammar Summary section at the end of the textbook that referred back to the unit lessons, which was not the case for the functions.

The language functions were listed at the head of units and followed by a sentence illustrating their meaning. That is all that was done about their presentation before they were practiced in exercises. No ways of carrying them out were indicated, neither were other related words and expressions covered. Even though this study was not about a deficit analysis of the textbooks, it was pointed out that the presentation of the language functions was incomplete. That was important in order to decide what role the language functions played in the textbook. A close look at the illustrations of the functions on Table 10 lead to the claim that they rather emphasize the structural content of the functions, instead of their context of use. Actually, some functions were presented as structures either in the same textbook, either from one text to the other in the two *English Africa* books, as is shown on Table 11. No justification was given by the author of this treatment of the functions.

The fact that the functions were easily converted into structures is
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Adverbial clause of reason (10/S)*&lt;br&gt;She should send the letter to Mr. Omole because it is a bill for electricity.</td>
<td>Explaining reasons (10/P)**&lt;br&gt;I rubbed out that word because I made a spelling mistake.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Conditionals (9/S)&lt;br&gt;If I go by train it will take six hours.&lt;br&gt;Condition (4/P)&lt;br&gt;If Afolade had wanted a bicycle on April 5 he would have been able to afford it.</td>
<td>Making promises (16/P)&lt;br&gt;If you buy a TIME-IT watch, it will never lose time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The interrogative (12/S)&lt;br&gt;Who gave him the fish?</td>
<td>Asking for information (19/P)&lt;br&gt;When did this happen?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Adverbial clause of purpose (9/P)&lt;br&gt;Sunbo runs fast to overtake Femi.</td>
<td>Explaining and expressing purpose (8/S)&lt;br&gt;He needed the axe so that he could chop wood.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Conjunctions (6/P)&lt;br&gt;Although he was ill he went to work.</td>
<td>Assessing a situation (13/P)&lt;br&gt;Despite the fact that Nigeria is growing more rice than before, it is still not enough to feed the nation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Inside the parentheses, the numbers refer to the units, S stands for English Africa Seconde (Grade 11), and P stands for English Africa Première (Grade 12).

Table 11: Similar Functions and Structures in Grades 11 and 12 Textbooks

evidence that only the structural components of the functions were emphasized, to the detriment of their semantic aspect or the context of their use. In addition, most of the functions in the English Africa series looked like cognitive academic
tasks that would be individually dealt with in an academic setting. As an example, consider the series of functions on describing: describing everyday activity / classifying and describing / describing measurements / describing and comparing / explaining and expressing purpose / reporting time / reporting intention. These functions could be dealt with in a process writing class where students are introduced to different writing modes.

In sum, the functions do not have the same importance as the structures and the topics in the organization of *English Africa Seconde*. They are assimilated with structures, indeed, which foreshadow more structural than communicative activities. The topics are reflected in language samples, as are the grammatical structures, even though their meaning do not seem to count much, given the mechanical selection of twenty vocabulary to be presented in every unit; and the activities are mostly built around the structures and the topics. Thus, the *English Africa Seconde* textbook has a structuro-topical organization.

*English Africa Premiere* has the same characteristics as the preceding one, with a less voluminous Grammar Summary: The topics are more technical and professional than general, the structural components of the functions are the focus. Besides, there are a lot of functions and structures repeated from one book to the other. Thus, it also has a structuro-topical organization. To end the naked-eye observation phase for this series, the texts or language samples were focused upon to see if they reflect the technical and professional topics of the table of contents of the textbooks. That observation touched upon the issue of authenticity.
Language samples and authenticity

For the reason that the two texts of the English Africa series have similar characteristics, this section is illustrated by samples from Grade 12 textbook only. Tables 12 and 13 are lists of authentic texts. An authentic English text is,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Source*</th>
<th>Setting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sunning (poem) (2)**</td>
<td>By James S. Tippet</td>
<td>Non-situated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cat (poem) (2)</td>
<td>By Mary B. Miller</td>
<td>Non-situated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bats (poem) (2)</td>
<td>By R. Jarrel</td>
<td>Non-situated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nostalgia (poem) (5)</td>
<td>By Buchi Emecheta</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad habits (7)</td>
<td>Newspapers</td>
<td>Non-situated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My Mercedes is bigger than yours (7)</td>
<td>Novel by N. Nwanko</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My father (11)</td>
<td>Novel by K. Onadipe</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My sister (11)</td>
<td>Novel by K. Onadipe</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A modern Eskimo (13)</td>
<td>A magazine</td>
<td>Arctic circle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mis-use of our world (15)</td>
<td>A Conservation Society</td>
<td>Non-situated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The crocodile cult (17)</td>
<td>Novel by V. Thorpe</td>
<td>Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mine boy (18)</td>
<td>Novel by P. Abrahams</td>
<td>S-Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The bereavement (19)</td>
<td>Novel by J. Munonye</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sorrow of Kodio (poem) (19)</td>
<td>By L. Damas</td>
<td>Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brief visit to a wonderful place (20)</td>
<td>Novel by R. Umelo</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* As indicated by the author

** Numbers in parenthesis are the unit numbers.

Table 12: Authentic Samples with General Content
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Source*</th>
<th>Setting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Movement (2)**</td>
<td>From a textbook</td>
<td>Non-situated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come to Gambia (3)</td>
<td>Ad. from The Gambia</td>
<td>The Gambia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How is plywood made (8)</td>
<td>A textbook</td>
<td>Non-situated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The marathon (9)</td>
<td>A school magazine</td>
<td>Non-situated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gold medals won by men-1965 (9)</td>
<td>African Games report</td>
<td>Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A thrilling week of table tennis (9)</td>
<td>A newspaper report</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advances in education (10)</td>
<td>Newspapers</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevention is better than cure (12)</td>
<td>A school magazine</td>
<td>Non-situated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Japanese achievement (13)</td>
<td>A book about Japan</td>
<td>Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notions of longitude and latitude (14)</td>
<td>A textbook</td>
<td>Non-situated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Around the world in eighty days (14)</td>
<td>A novel by Jules Verne</td>
<td>Non-situated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing advertisements (16)</td>
<td>A textbook</td>
<td>Non-situated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading advertisements (16)</td>
<td>A textbook</td>
<td>Non-situated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mines (18)</td>
<td>A textbook</td>
<td>Non-situated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obituary (19)</td>
<td>A newspaper</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tributes to Mrs. Victoria Ene (19)</td>
<td>A newspaper</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money-lender (20)</td>
<td>A novel</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* As indicated by the author

** The numbers in parenthesis are the unit numbers

Table 13: Authentic Texts with Technical/Professional Content
according to Galloway (1992), a text written by a native speaker (this researcher has included anglophones in that group) that is meant for native speakers. There is a debate whether to include texts written for instructional purposes in that category (Widdowson, 1996), but this study ignored that difference. Authentic language samples were identified according to their sources. The two tables were contrasted following the quality of the samples and their sources, and the settings of the samples were subsequently discussed.

A look at the sources from both tables shows that general authentic language samples are excerpts from fiction works and poems for most of them, which the students can interpret in their own ways, according to their understanding of the text. They can see themselves and their own lives in those samples, which would make them familiar and readily comprehensible. These descriptions and narratives would address the students’ feelings and impressions (Lannon, 1988).

Conversely to the general language samples, the technical or professional language samples come mostly from textbooks and school magazines which deal with factual information and information pertaining to specific domains (e.g., mines, migration movements, specific sports, longitudes and latitudes). If the texts come from textbooks, it means that they were originally meant for native speakers of English or anglophones students who have English as their official language. Generally speaking, topical and professional language samples
presume, to paraphrase Galloway (1992) and Widdowson (1996), an extensive user background that EFL students cannot have because they are not members of the target culture. Such texts do not respect the students' educational background and the limitations of their developing English proficiency. In that case, autonomous learning cannot happen. According to Widdowson (1996), there is autonomous learning only when learners make the target content their own. Moreover, professional texts would be better suited for ESP (English for Specific Purposes) programs than for General English programs of the senior high schools.

It should be pointed out that some of these technical topics and texts would be part of students Science curricula (e.g., migratory movements, prevention is better than cure), Economics curricula (e.g., the Japanese achievement), Geography curricula (e.g., longitudes and latitudes). With such texts, if we refer to Kachru’s (1982) definition of official language, English duplicates the instrumental function of French, the medium of instruction at all educational levels. The danger here is that, in the EFL learning context, the students do not possess equal competence of French and English. One teaching situation that could justify such introduction to technical texts would be a content-based approach where the focus is put on content and the students learn the language incidentally. But this is a general English as a Foreign Language situation. In sum, technical and professional authentic texts in the English Africa series may be harder to comprehend for the learners, and consequently less
motivating and less interesting. Clearly, much of the content of this series does not much EFL students' objective needs.

Language samples and africanization of setting and content

The above conclusion still holds, despite the fact that many texts have an African setting. Treffgarne (1975) pointed at the link between students' poor motivation and course content with irrelevant socio-cultural contexts. That the case of language courses, she claimed, originally written for students in Britain or France and adopted in African countries. Nevertheless, she warned, "[A]fricanizing the content of a course will not necessarily make it more interesting." This applies to the English Africa series because of the technical and professional topics and the subsumed texts. No matter where it is situated, an ESL student learning general English would not readily understand a text on money matters, or obituaries, or a specific sport, or an advertisement with its embedded meanings. The EFL students would not be familiar with these themes, which would require that the teacher explain a lot of vocabulary words that might create cognitive overload and lack of interest.

Teacher-centeredness of English Africa series

It was explained above that the functions were not put into their context(s) of use for the students, and the vocabulary items were mechanically selected (20 words explained for every unit). The preceding sections emphasized the fact that many topics and texts would not be familiar to these EFL general English students. Moreover, the student's book did not have any introduction that explained the approach of the book to the students, it was accompanied by no
workbook, and there were no answer keys to the activities proposed. All these factors place more responsibility on the teacher's shoulders and make of him/her the central figure in the classroom. Besides, a look at the activities indicated that group activities are rare in this series, to the detriment of student-student communication. All these facts are indicators that the English Africa series is not learner-centered.

Organizing principle for The American Way

As can be seen from Table 14, Grade 13 textbook, The American Way, is all about basic American values and aspects of life in the United States, as was stated in the preface. According to its authors, it was intended to help increase college ESL students' awareness and understanding of the United States, their own country, and other countries. Thus, the cultural orientation was clear from the beginning, and language should be learned through culture. In other words, the text was meant for a content-based approach with a focus on the American culture. Consequently, no grammar or functions are dealt with in the book. Table 14 shows the themes discussed.

Clearly, the organization of the textbook is topical. There were twelve lead texts or language samples inside the book, and the language samples had no other titles than the topics featuring on the table of contents. They were lengthy expository passages discussing various aspects of the topics, and each was followed by a list of words that were defined and a series of activities on both language and culture. Just as the book itself was introduced by a preface that explained the objectives of the textbook to the students, every text was preceded
by an introduction that situated it, and was illustrated by genuine authored
photographs, which made this textbook user-friendly. The activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapters</th>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preface</td>
<td></td>
<td>Vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Basic American Values and Beliefs</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The Protestant Heritage</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The Frontier Heritage</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The Heritage of Abundance</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The World of Business</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Government and Politics</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ethnic and Racial Assimilation in the United States</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Education in the United States</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Organized Sports and Recreation</td>
<td>183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>The American Family</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>American Values at the Crossroads</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New Word Index</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14: Copy of the Table of Contents of *The American Way*
comprehended a lot of interactive classroom exercises, but there also were activities like interviews and research projects to be carried out beyond the classroom, within the community. Thus it can be concluded that The American Way has a topical organization, is user-friendly and learner-centered (works were even proposed for the students to choose from for extensive reading), and the activities were interactive and extended outside of the classroom. Students were thus brought out into the real world to use English and test their cultural awareness.

However, once again, the EFL context stands in denial of this textbook's objectives, starting with the fact that it is an ESL textbook, conceived for college students. The target students take courses in English if they are ESL students. Actually, being in an ESL context with a lot of English outside of the classroom, their learning efforts are supported by the environment, they have many regular more opportunities to learn English than do EFL students who can hear English on a regular basis only in class. Consequently, college ESL students and EFL high school students would not have the same English proficiency level. Thus, the content of The American Way would not respond to the students' English language needs, and it would not meet CLT requirement that the teaching material should respond to the students needs and match the teaching context requirements.
Second, it is to be feared that this textbook is not articulated with the English Africa series. At grade 12, their textbook had language samples of a maximum of two pages. In The American Way the language samples had an average length of eight pages. Such texts might take longer to understand and thus become boring to the students, not to mention the vocabulary overload that their presentation would create, with too many new concepts to be learned.

Finally, grade 13 textbook offered a lot of opportunities for activities beyond the classroom. However, all the outside activities were pre-empted in an EFL context, for the EFL context contrasted with many activities in the book.

Language explanations in English Africa series

The observed frequencies of explanation emphasis and of explanation type were crossed into a contingency table (Table 15) to see which explanation emphasis and which explanation type were dominant. The chi-square test of independence indicated that there was more emphasis on form than on use for all three types of explanations, $X^2 (2, N = 1867) = 169.85, p < .05$, with the least emphasis on functions (only 2% of the explanations of forms). The emphasis on form rather than on use is the reverse of what CLT requires, for communicative competence is defined as the ability to use the language (Nelson, 1992). Only the use of some structures was explained (11% of grammar explanations). The preoccupation seemed to be vocabulary explanations. However, the explanations
Table 15: Observed Frequency of Emphases of Explanation in the English Africa series

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explanation type</th>
<th>Emphasis of Explanation</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Form</td>
<td>Use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>1600</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1843</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Language explanations in The American Way

This text is a book on culture that discussed American culture and values. The explanations were only of 147 vocabulary words from the cultural language samples. No grammar or functions were considered. This is understandable because this textbook was meant for a content-based course in culture. Content-based courses assume that language acquisition arises from language use, rather than from explicit instruction, when the input is comprehensible (Krahnke, 1987).

However, as suggested by the naked-eye observation phase, it was doubted that grade 13 EFL students have the linguistic background necessary for
comprehending the 10-page-long language samples of *The American Way*. In addition, not all the activities created for language use in this text (e.g., activities outside of the classroom) were relevant to this EFL context with no native speaker of English outside. Thus, *The American Way* did not respond to CLT requirement of appropriateness to context.

**Setting of language learning activities in the English Africa series**

From Table E15 (See Appendix E) was extracted Table 16, with a focus on the setting of the activities in the *English Africa* series. As can be seen, there

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance condition</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication Activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>367</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16: Observed Frequency of Performance Conditions by Activity Types in the *English Africa* series
was absolutely no activity observed outside of the classroom, all activities being in the classroom. That was relevant to the EFL context where the classroom is the main place where English is practiced. However, CLT requires that classroom activities reflect communication activities that the learner is most likely to engage in outside. The extent to which the activities in this series did that is discussed below.

**Setting of language learning activities in The American Way**

Table 17 was collapsed from Table E10 of Appendix E to examine the relationship between the settings and the activities in this textbook. The

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance Condition</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communicative</td>
<td>Language Arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17: Observed Frequency of Performance Conditions by Activity Types in The American Way
proportions of the setting variable levels were also compared. A chi-square test of independence indicated that there was a significant difference between the proportions of setting frequency, with a preference for classroom setting, $X^2 (1, N = 166) = 6.97$, $p < .05$, even though the relationship between the activity type and the performance condition variables was weak, with a phi coefficient of .20.

Nevertheless, for the EFL teaching context of Togo, the percentage of activities outside of the classroom (36%) was not negligible, and that was a problem and a paradox. A problem because these activities could not be fully carried out as such for lack of native speakers, and a paradox because the outside activities were made up of interviews and diverse interactions with native speakers of English and their environment, the most communicative activities on the activities continuum. The teaching/learning context made a big difference here.

Language samples in the English Africa series

The way language samples are explored in a textbook can also account for the extent to which it is communicative or not (Savignon, 1983; Widdowson, 1983). Thus, language samples were analyzed in order to determine whether they were used for structural exercises, which would make them a "pretext", or whether they rather provided an opportunity for students to interact with them and with each other communicatively, which would make them a "text". The analysis results were entered on a cumulative table (E16 in Appendix E) from which Table 18 and Table 19 were extracted.
Table 18 cross-tabulated language sample type variable and setting of language sample variable. Ignoring the “undecided” level of sample type and the “foreign” level of setting which had relatively small proportions (8 and 3 respectively), a 2 x 2 table was obtained. A chi-square test of independence indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the proportion of samples used for genuine communication (i.e., texts) and the proportion of samples used as pretexts for structural activities, \( X^2 (1, N = 134) = 1.13, p > .05 \). If there is no preference for language samples that foster communication, then the text does not respond to CLT principles. On the other hand, according to the same chi-square test of independence, there was no

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Sample Type</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Text</td>
<td>Pretext</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Togo/Africa</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-situated</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18: Observed Frequency of Sample Types by Setting in the English Africa series
statistically significant preference for language samples set in Africa and those with no socio-cultural background (i.e., non-situated). That was evidence that the cultural content was not the series author's focus.

The differences in proportions of samples content (specific or general) shown on Table 19 was also tested. It should be noted that the "undecided" column was ignored on that table because of its relatively low score of 8. A chi-square goodness-of-fit test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the proportions of language samples with general interest content and samples with technical or professional content, $X^2 (1, N = 137) = .32, p > .05$.

It was hypothesized at the naked-eye observation phase that the technical

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Sample Type</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Text</td>
<td>Pretext</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19: Observed Frequency of Sample Types by Topic in the English Africa series
and professional language samples would pose comprehension problems to EFL students of Togo. The proportion shown on Table 19 (46%) could thus be a real problem for the accessibility of the textbook.

Language samples in The American Way

On Table E13 in Appendix E was recorded observed frequencies of language sample types in The American Way. Only the text/foreign cell had a frequency of 19, and any other cell had a 0 frequency. That showed that all language samples in this textbook were texts, set in a foreign context, the U.S. That was evidence of the communicative orientation of the textbook. An analysis of the activities in the textbook confirmed that trend already mentioned at the naked-eye observation phase.

Sub-question b

This question read as follows: Do the textbooks include more communicative than structural focus? To respond to the question, an analysis of the activities in the textbooks was carried out, with the following results.

Activities in the English Africa series

By collapsing the subcategories of Table E14 (cf. Appendix E) Table 20 was obtained. It cross-tabulated the activities variable with the control variable. A chi-square test of independence indicated that there was a significant difference between the proportions of communication activities on the table and of structural activities or language arts activities, with a dominance of structural activities,
Table 20: Observed Frequency of Types of Activity by Control in the English Africa series

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>127 (26%)</td>
<td>367 (74%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[X^2 (1, N = 494) = 249.51, p < .05.\] Actually, the ratio of structural activities to communication activities is one to three. The percentages of categories are in parenthesis on the table.

Likewise, that test of independence indicated that the majority of the activities were controlled (84%) as compared to 16% only for the non-controlled activities. The statistical test also indicated that there was a strong relationship between the control variable and the nature of the activities, with a phi coefficient of .71. Thus, the English Africa series includes has a more structural focus, which confirms the naked-eye observation results above.
Activities in The American Way

From Table E10 in the Appendices, Table 21 was extracted in order to test the differences between the proportions of types of activities and of control levels. A chi-square test of independence indicated that there was a significant difference between the proportions of communicative activities and of language arts activities, with a dominance of communicative activities. $X^2 (1, N = 166) = 89.53, p < .05$.

There also was a statistically significant difference between the proportions of controlled activities and of non-controlled activities, with a

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communi. Activ.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151 (91%)</td>
<td>15 (9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 21: Observed Frequency of Types of Activity by Control in The American Way
dominance of non-controlled activities (15% against 85%). Thus, *The American Way* has a communicative focus, which equally confirms the naked-eye observation trends.

**Contrasting the focus in the two textbooks**

*The American Way* and the *English Africa* series are contrasting in their communicative focus, as illustrated by Figure 1, to the point it can be

![Graph](image)

**Figure 1: Contrasting the Communicative Focus of the Two Textbooks**
hypothesized that there would be an articulation problem when students move from grade 12, after the English Africa series, to grade 13 where the English textbook is so different. Going from one grade to the other would mean, for a student, going abruptly from a structural approach to a communicative approach, from controlled exercises to non-controlled exercises where they are suddenly required to be more creative in the activities.

Summary of data for research question 2

To sum up the data for this section, it was claimed that English Africa Seconde and English Africa Premiere, as well as The American Way do not match CLT philosophy, for different reasons. On the one hand, the organizing principle in the English Africa series is structuro-topical with the activities grouped around structures and texts. It was observed that the functions in the series were rather treated like structures and their use was ignored in the explanations. As for the topics, it was observed that, at the conception of the books, no difference was made between general interest topics and technical/professional topics, which was not appropriate for this general English as a Foreign Language teaching/learning context. The series comprehended authentic texts, but the authenticity defeated the students’ objective needs. Moreover, it was established that this series includes a more structural than communicative focus, with all the activities set in the classroom and no differentiation made in the selection of real texts and pretexts. Besides, there are no group activities and most activities are controlled, which makes this series teacher-centered.
On the other hand, the activities in *The American Way* are grouped around cultural topics about the U.S.A. The analysis of the contents revealed that the text has a more communicative than structural focus, conversely to the *English Africa* series. All language samples are genuine texts that are interactively explored. However, owing to the CLT principle of the necessary match between the material and the students' needs, this textbook was not to be communicative in an EFL context. First, its target audience is ESL college students in the United States, which explained the length of the texts. College level English in ESL was assumed to be above the senior high school EFL students' level. Second, it was observed that one third of the activities were set outside of the classroom and required interactions with native speakers. Such opportunities are non-existent in the Togolese EFL context. Thus, if *The American Way* has intrinsic communicative characteristics, it does not respond to CLT philosophy. The analysis further focused on the communication modes selected in the objectives and in the textbooks in questions 3 and 4, of which the results follow. These questions are to be understood as addenda to the preceding questions.

**RESEARCH QUESTION 3:** What is the mode of communication emphasized by the published objectives? The question was subdivided into two sub-questions:

a. Do they focus on oral communication?

b. Do they focus on written communication?
With regard to the communication mode in the English Learning Objectives in Togo, the following frequency table was extracted from Table E1 (See Appendix E). On the table were recorded the respective frequencies observed in the published objectives, and the difference between the proportions was statistically tested by a chi-square goodness-of-fit. Actually, implicitly tested was the null hypothesis that there was no preferred emphasis on either oral or communicative performance in the published objectives. It indicated that there was no statistically significant preference for either oral or written modes of communication, $X^2 (1, N = 53) = .92$, $p < .05$. Consequently, the null hypothesis was retained.

Thus, to answer sub-question a, the published objectives did not focus on

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>OF</th>
<th>E Proportion</th>
<th>EF</th>
<th>$(O - E)^2$</th>
<th>$(O - E)^2 / E$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oral</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>12.25</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>12.25</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = .92^*$

* $p > .05$

Table 22: Frequency of Performance Modes in the Objectives
oral communication. They did not focus on written communication either, to respond to sub-question b, for there was no statistically significant difference between the proportions of oral and written objectives.

That finding was interpreted as indicating that the needs for English of the Togolese students were not taken into account in the published objectives. As a matter of fact, those students cannot logically have the same needs for oral English and written English in this EFL context where the population speaks dozens of other languages outside of the classroom, including French, the official language. What use the Togolese high school students make of English in that sociolinguistic context is not made clear in the published objectives. However, one principle of CLT requires that learners' needs be specified in terms of the varieties of second/foreign language that the learner is mostly likely to be in contact with in a genuine communicative situation (Berns, 1990; Cannale & Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1983; Widdowson, 1983). If no communication mode was specified by the published objectives, it means that no communicative competence was selected by the English language planners among the different communicative competences (e.g., the ones discussed in Celce-Murcia & Dörnyei, 1995). This situation has a high potential for curriculum implementation problems for, according to language curriculum specialists, the objectives and goals guide the curriculum specialists (Brown, 1995). It was hypothesized that the lack of choice of communicative competence would pose an implementation threat similar to the one created by the lack of choice of condition of performance, whereby there was no preference between pedagogical
performance (in the classroom) and real-world performance or performance outside of the classroom (See data for question 1, Table 5).

**RESEARCH QUESTION 4:** What is the mode of communication preferred in the textbooks contents?

  a. Do the textbooks focus on oral communication?

  b. Do the textbooks focus on written communication?

Sub-questions a and b were examined together in the same contingency table for each textbook. To respond to these questions, the analysis results of English Africa Seconde and English Africa Première were presented cumulatively, as the two books were similar in their characteristics, and written by

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Presentation</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Written</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>127 (26%)</td>
<td>367 (74%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 23: Observed Frequency of Activities by Presentation Mode in the English Africa series
the same author. And these results were paralleled to the analysis results of *The American Way*.

Oral and written communication in the English Africa series

Table 23 is an extract from Table E9 in appendix E which was collapsed alongside the Activities and Presentation Mode variables. The differences between the proportions of each level of the variables were submitted to a test. The chi-square test of independence indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the proportions of written activities and oral activities, $\chi^2(1, N = 494) = 9.51, p < .05$. This allowed to reject the implicit null hypothesis that there was no preference of either oral or written focus.

The statistic test also allowed to conclude that oral activities were practically nonexistent in this series (only 1%). Thus, oral communication was not the focus in this series. This confirmed the naked-eye observation that there were practically no group activities in the English Africa textbooks. A look at Table E14 in the appendices shows that under the communicative activities variable, social-interactive activities (Si), functional activities (Fc), and self-expression activities (S-e) recorded the lowest frequencies.

The above chi-square allowed to state that there was an overwhelming predominance of written activities in this series (99% of the activities). Table 23 indicates that the written performance mode was preferred for Language Arts activities (i.e., completion and transformation activities, comprehension questions...
referring to form, and formal accuracy activities), rather than for Communication Activities (e.g., text transforming activities, beyond the class activities, or self-expression activities). Thus, written activities are used, but not for communication. As was observed in question 2, communication was not the focus of this series, as the series has a more structural focus. Thus, there is neither oral communication focus nor written communication focus, even though written activities were predominantly used. The findings to question 2b above normally pre-empted this question regarding this series.

**Oral and written communication in The American Way**

Question 2 concluded that this textbook has a more communicative than structural focus, conversely to English Africa series. To determine what communication mode was preferred, the above table was extracted from Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Written</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151 (91%)</td>
<td>15 (9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 24: Observed Frequency of Activities by Performance Mode in The American Way
E10 of Appendix E. The difference between the proportions of the two levels of Performance was statistically tested. The chi-square test of independence indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the proportions of written activities and oral activities, with the predominance of written activities over oral activities, $X^2 (1, N = 166) = 4.99, p < .05$.

It was observed that, unlike the written activities in English Africa series, most of the written performance here applied to communication activities (88% of all written activities). The written communication activities were mainly non-controlled text-transforming (Tt) activities in the classroom and outside of the classroom, and non-controlled self-expression (S-e) activities in the classroom (See Table E10). The oral activities were mainly non-controlled social-interaction activities in the classroom and beyond the classroom activities.

The preference for written communication in this textbook over oral communication would be appropriate to this Togolese EFL context where English is not often spoken outside of the classroom by the peoples. However, about one third of the communicative activities were set outside of the classroom (See Table 17), which (among others) would make the textbook irrelevant to this context. The preference of a written focus by the analyzed textbooks accounts for the fact there was no accompanying audio material attached to them.
RESEARCH QUESTION 5: To what extent do the textbooks match the objectives?

This question wanted to test the CLT principle that selection of methods and materials should be appropriate to both the goals and context of teaching (Savignon, 1983). Our focus here was the teaching objectives and the materials. The question had two sub-questions:

a. In their characteristics?

b. In their modes of communication?

Sub-question a

To respond to this sub-question, only characteristics common to both the objectives and the textbooks were contrasted: The percentages of their proportions were statistically compared.

Contrasting performance conditions and activity settings

Table 25 and Table 26 include percentages of frequency proportions from Table 5 (for the objectives), Table 16 (for English Africa series), and Table 17 (for The American Way). Table 25 below shows percentages of real-world objectives and of pedagogic objectives, as well as percentages of outside activities and classroom activities in the English Africa series. Table 26 does the same for percentages of performance conditions of objectives and of activity settings in The American Way. The differences between the percentages on these tables were tested, for each table. One would expect the percentage of
one type of performance condition in the objectives to be about the same for a

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perform. Conditions and Activity Settings</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>English Africa</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Real-world (outside)</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogic (classroom)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>200</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 25: Percentages of Performance Conditions and of Settings of Activities in the Objectives and in *English Africa* series

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perform. Conditions and Activity Settings</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>The American Way</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Real-world (outside)</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogic (classroom)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>200</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 26: Percentages of Performance Conditions and of Settings of Activities in the Objectives and in *The American Way*
similar activity setting in the textbook if there is a perfect match between the objectives and the textbook. Thus, tested for these two tables was the implicit null hypothesis that there was no statistically significant difference between the percentages of performance conditions and the percentages of activities settings.

For the data on contingency Table 25, a chi-square test of independence revealed that there was a significant difference between the percentages of performance conditions in the published objectives and the percentages of activity settings in *English Africa* series, $X^2 (1, N = 200) = 49.85, p < .05$. That means that there are significant discrepancies between the performance conditions set in the published objectives and the settings of the activities in *English Africa* textbooks for grades 11 and 12.

On the other hand, for the data on Table 26, a chi-square test of independence revealed that there was no significance difference between performance conditions in the objectives and the percentages of activity settings in *The American Way*, $X^2 (1, N = 200) = 1.06, p > .05$. However, it was suggested above in the responses to question 2 that *The American Way* was designed for ESL students in an ESL context, and the activities were set in the classroom and in the surrounding environment. For the published English teaching objectives performance conditions to match with an ESL textbook activity settings is an evidence that the Togolese EFL context was overlooked by the English language planners. Figure 2 features graphic representations of the
diverse percentages of performance conditions and of activity settings put side by side in the real-world and in the classroom. The matches and mismatches stand out.

Matching criteria of performance and activity settings

Table 27 and Table 28 show percentages obtained from proportions on Table 6 (for the objectives), Table 16 for English Africa series, and Table 17 for The American Way. As with the preceding comparisons and those that came later, there always was the null hypothesis that, given a variable, the objectives and the textbooks percentages along the different levels of that variable would compare with no statistically significant difference.

For Table 27, a chi-square test of independence indicated that there was a significant difference between the percentages of criteria of performance in the objectives and the percentages of activity settings in English Africa series, $X^2 (1, N = 200) = 61.29, p < .05$. Likewise, for Table 28, a chi-square test of independence revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the percentages of the criteria of performance in the objectives and percentages of activity settings in The American Way, $X^2 (1, N = 200) = 4.08, p < .05$. Thus the null hypothesis was rejected. The statistical tests results mean that, for English Africa series, there is a discrepancy between what the objectives prescribe and the activity settings: While the objectives require 47 per cent of the students' performance should have native-like quality (this is assumed to take place outside of the classroom), English Africa series has no single activity
outside. On the other hand, for The American Way, the chi-square obtained means that, while the percentage of performance conditions in the objectives

![Graph: Contrasting Performance Conditions and Settings]

Figure 2: Contrasting Performance Conditions and Settings
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>English Africa</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native-like (outside)</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehensible (class)</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 27: Observed Percentages of Criteria of Performance and of Activity Settings for the Objectives and English Africa Series

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>The American Way</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native-like (outside)</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehensible (class)</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 28: Observed Percentages of Criteria of Performance and of Activity Settings for the Objectives and The American Way
match with the percentage of activity settings in *The American Way* (See Table 26), there is a discrepancy between the objectives and this textbook when the performance criteria come into question. While the objectives want 47 per cent of the activities to have native-like quality (i.e., outside), only 33 per cent of the activities of the textbook are to take place outside and thus require native-like quality. The different percentages for the objectives and the two textbook groups are represented in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Matching Performance Criteria and Activity Settings
If we take into account the fact that *The American Way* was originally designed for an ESL context, it should be observed that the Togolese English teaching objectives may be more demanding of students, with regard to quality of performance, than a teaching textbook designed for ESL student. One might also wonder why, within the English teaching objectives, the percentages of performance conditions (40 and 60 on Tables 25/26) do not match with the percentages of performance criteria here (47 and 53). The reason may be that some of the performance in the classroom is also expected to have native-like quality. That would be an aberration in an EFL context where the teachers are locally-trained in their majority (See Background of the Study, Chapter 1).

**Matching types of objectives and of activities**

The percentages on Table 29 and Table 30 represent the proportions of frequency of objective types on Table 8, of activity types on Table 20 for *English Africa*, and of activity types on Table 21 for *The American Way*. First, with the null hypothesis that there were no significant differences in mind, the percentages on Table 29 were tested. A chi-square test of independence showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the percentages of objective types and percentages of type of activities in *English Africa* series, $X^2 (1, N = 200) = 1.52, p > .05$. Thus, both the objective types and the activities in this textbook could be said to be more structural than communicative, as is illustrated on Figure 4.
Table 29: Observed Percentages of Types of Objectives and of Activities in the Objectives and English Africa Series

Second, the percentages on Table 30 were equally tested. The chi-square test of independence indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the percentages of objective types and of types of activities in The American Way. That pointed to a discrepancy: This textbook has more communicative activities than the objectives require (see Figure 4).
Table 30: Observed Percentages of Type of Objectives and of Activities in the Objectives and in The American Way

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of objectives and of activities</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>The American Way</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Functions/notions (Communicative)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes/skills (Structural)</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sub-question b

To what extent do the textbooks match the objectives in their modes of communication?

To respond to this question, the published objectives and the textbooks were compared at the level of the communication mode variable. Table 31 and Table 32 feature percentages expressing frequency of communication modes proportions on Table 22 for the objectives, on Table 23 for English Africa series.
Figure 4: Contrasting Objective Types and Textbook Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modes</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>English Africa</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oral</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 31: Observed Percentages of Communication Modes in the Objectives and in English Africa Series
and on Table 24 for *The American Way*. These percentages were graphically put side by side on Figure 5, which made discrepancies visually stand out. But statistical meaningfulness was needed.

For data on Table 31, a chi-square test of independence indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the percentages of communication modes in the objectives and in *English Africa* series. $X^2 (1, N = 200) = 76.15, p < .05$. Likewise, a chi-square test of independence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modes</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>The American Way</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oral</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 32: Observed Percentages of Communicative Modes in the Objectives and in *The American Way*

revealed that there was a significant discrepancy between the percentages of communication modes in the objectives and in *The American Way*. $X^2 (1, N = 200) = 18.47, p < .05$. 
These tests results revealed that English Africa series and The American Way did not reflect the English teaching objectives, with regard to communication mode. While the objectives required 57 per cent of the activities to be oral activities, English Africa series for grade 11 and 12 had no oral activity, and The American Way only included 27 per cent of oral activity. This was additional evidence that the Togolese English teaching objectives have overlooked the EFL context.

Figure 5: Communication Modes in the Objectives and the Textbooks
SUMMARY OF DATA FOR RESEARCH QUESTIONS 3, 4, AND 5

The data for research question 3 revealed that, in the published objectives, there was no preference for either oral or written communication modes, which indicates that there is no choice of any communicative competence. This situation was seen as having a high potential for generating curriculum planning and implementation problems. For question 4, it was established that English Africa series has neither oral nor written communication focus, its orientation being mainly structural. As for The American Way, its focus is communicative. However, about one third of the activities are set outside of the classroom and require interaction with a native speaker, which makes it inappropriate for an EFL context. The data for question 5 revealed a discrepancy between performance conditions specified in the objectives (mostly outside) and the settings of the activities in English Africa series (all in the classroom). Nevertheless, in this regard, there is a match between the objectives and The American Way, as if the objectives were designed for an ESL context. In addition, while the objectives require 47 per cent of the student's performance to have native-like quality, English Africa series has no activity outside of the classroom; and even the 33 per cent of out-of-class activities in The American Way is not enough to match the objectives requirements. On the other hand, both the objective types and the activities in English Africa series are more
structural than communicative. But The American Way has more communicative activities than the objectives require. Finally, there is a discrepancy between the objectives and the textbooks with regard to the communication mode.

FURTHER INTERPRETATIONS

It should be recalled that, in content analysis research method, the interpretations and inferences relate the results to the data source (the system that generated the data). In this study, interpretations and inferences are made in the light of CLT theory, of curriculum theory, and of the socio-cultural context which generated the data.

Despite the aforementioned problems, the teaching of English in the senior high schools in Togo have used the objectives and the books for more than a decade now. It should be recalled that the planners designed the objectives in 1986 in order to keep abreast with “the new trends in the teaching of English” and because “priority must be given to communication, a factor of fulfillment and socialization” (Programmes, 1986). However, the textbooks have been adopted for 10 years now (since 1990 for English Africa series and 1991 for The American Way). They have been in use since their adoption and have not being submitted to any kind of evaluation, to my knowledge. It looks very much like the teaching of English in the senior high schools has been living in a fallacy, a subject to the bandwagon phenomenon whereby the planners feel an obligation to follow the curriculum trends from elsewhere (in this case Great
Britain and the U.S. are the beacons). This teaching situation tells much about the English teaching system and, beyond it, the educational system in Togo.

First, for English teaching to be feasible the way it has been with these objectives and textbooks, despite the discrepancies, there are two alternative explanations: Either the objectives have been overlooked and the books taught as the curriculum (which does not matter since there is no evaluation of the system), or the objectives have been respected and the textbooks at the teachers' individual level. Thus, the system does not incorporate evaluation as part of the curriculum as has been recommended by curriculum specialists (Brown, 1995; Krahnke, 1987; Nunan, 1992; Yalden, 1987).

Second, the teaching is not based on local autonomous research, but depends on research from outside. The fact that the teaching of English in the Togolese high schools has been done with only three textbooks for more than a decade points to a lack of dynamics in the field, and to a materially deprived environment, the main consequence of which would be a lack of variety. Actually the textbooks are donations from Britain (English Africa series) and the U.S. (The American Way). Pinar et al. pointed to a growing internationalization of school curriculum in third world countries where textbooks produced for Europe and North America tend to be used. It was added, however, that "such textbooks do not tend to reflect the culture and history of these countries where they have been distributed, which may be viewed as representing colonial and neocolonial domination" (p. 795).
Third, the textbooks were not adapted to match the objectives probably because they had not been analyzed, or because there is no textbook selection committee which could see to it that the textbooks match the students' needs and the socio-cultural context. That means that the acquisition planning of English comprises shortcomings. Finally, what is transparent through these curricula irrelevancies and discrepancies is a lack of maturity of the field of English teaching in Togo. Treffgarne (1975) suggested that "the establishment of a strong Teachers' Association with good coordination between the executive committee and the branch representatives leads to a greater awareness of common problems in language teaching." Such an association does not exist currently in Togo.

Goodson (1992b), cited in Pinar et al. (1995), claimed that "Studying school subjects . . . provides us with a window on the wider educational and political culture of a country" (p. 793). This study is certainly informative on the maturity of the Togolese educational system and on the educational policy as a whole. It is to be feared that the educational system is not rooted in the Togolese socio-cultural reality, and there is no curricular evaluation to investigate it. Then the whole system might be 'mis-educating' the Togolese child.
FINDINGS FOR RESEARCH QUESTIONS 1 TO 5

This summary focuses on the data generated for research questions 1 to 5 regarding the Togolese English teaching objectives and the textbooks currently in use. Research questions 6 and 7 are application questions that are respectively implications of the findings for CLT and subsequent recommendations for the EFL teaching context in Togo.

The English Teaching Objectives

The analysis of the English teaching objectives revealed, on the whole, that they do not demonstrate communicative characteristics. First, the objective needs of the Togolese English learner do not seem to make any difference to the Togolese English language planners, for it is not clear which objectives are privileged for the EFL student: the real-world objectives or the pedagogical objectives? Second, no choice is made in the performance criteria between functional use of English and native-like use of English, which assumes that
these EFL students can do both. Third, it was also found that there was no preference for either oral or written communication modes in English. The lack of directions regarding the communication mode and the use of English to be emphasized is evidence that neither the EFL context nor the students' objective needs was a factor in the conception of these objectives. As such, the Togolese English teaching objectives violate the CLT principle that requires classroom activities to reflect those communication activities in which the student is most likely to engage (Savignon, 1983; Berns, 1990; Lointas & Baginski, 1995). The most obvious violation of the CLT principle is that the English teaching objectives state more structural than communicative outcomes. Consequently, according to this study, it was inferred that 1) the lack of directions might undermine the objectives role as a guiding document for the English teachers, and that 2) the English teaching profession in Togo might be evolving in a fallacy, since it is believed by the planners and the practitioners that the system is following a communicative methodology.

The Textbooks

The textbooks that accompany the objectives described above are English Africa for grades 11 and 12, and The American Way for grade 13. The analysis of the English Africa series revealed that this series does not match the CLT philosophy for several reasons: The activities in the series were organized around grammar structures instead of functions; the functions were rather treated like structures and their use was overlooked. Besides, there were no group activities. As for the topics in the book, no difference was made between the
amount of general interest topics and technical/professional topics, as if the textbooks were to be used for a content-based English class (the context of concern in this study is a general English EFL context). Thus, most authentic language samples were technical or professional (for instance, when they talked about anthropology, or being a secretary). It was hypothesized that EFL students would feel less interest for these topics because they rather relate to his/her world in French, not in English. It was also revealed that the series comprised more structural than communicative focus: there was no significant difference between the number of real texts triggering communication and pretexts used for manipulating the language. Besides, most activities were controlled, which made English Africa teacher-centered, and almost all the activities are written.

On the other hand, the analysis of The American Way revealed that the text had a communicative focus. This text was conceived for a course in American culture. All language samples inside were genuine texts that were interactively explored by the activities. Nevertheless, this textbook was written for a content-based ESL course on American culture at college level. Consequently, the language samples are many pages long, and about one third of the activities are set outside and require interaction with a native speaker of English. The analysis thus concluded that, even though The American Way has intrinsic communicative qualities, it does not match the CLT philosophy when transposed to an EFL setting such as Togo. It was hypothesized that it would be above the level of grade 13 students, and some of the activities are useless due to a lack of native speakers with whom students can interact.
Contrasting textbooks and objectives

It should be recalled that the English teaching objectives and the textbooks did not originate from the same source: while the objectives were locally designed, the textbooks were donated by Great Britain and by the United States after the objectives had been written. However, that is not intended to justify the discrepancies between the textbooks and the objectives, for there are many discrepancies. The objectives contrast with English Africa with regard to the performance conditions in the objectives (mostly outside) and the settings of the activities in this book (all in the classroom). In addition, none of the textbooks match the 47 percent of native-like performance that the objectives require. Even the textbook conceived for ESL only has 33 percent of outside activities. On the other hand, the objectives and English Africa series are more structural than communicative. However, The American Way focuses on meaning, to the detriment of grammar.

Given these discrepancies, and owing to the fact that the textbooks and the objectives have been in use for about a decade without being questioned publicly, it was further inferred that the English teaching profession in Togo still needs to mature, and that an evaluation of the whole Togolese educational system is necessary.
RESEARCH QUESTION 6: How do EFL teaching/learning contexts require modification of the communicative language teaching principles in a context like Togo?

First, it should be observed, subsequent to the results obtained, that communicative language teaching works everywhere where there is no critical analysis of the educational system and where there is no critique of the lack of evaluation, and where only a bandwagon effect leads to changes. This question was answered from the perspective of an EFL teaching/learning situation that raised questions. The question was answered in four parts according to its four subcategories.

Sub-question a: In the authenticity principle

The findings for Question 2 revealed that the textbooks include authentic texts of two kinds: general interest topics and technical/professional topics. The latter were claimed to be inappropriate for general EFL contexts where English is taught for general purposes. These texts would rather match English for Specific Purposes programs. Thus, it is not enough to include authentic texts in a textbook. Careful attention should be paid to the contexts of the authentic texts: it should match with the teaching context and the students' interests and level of proficiency. The level of difficulty of the text does matter in an EFL academic context, for the teacher is the only source of information the students would use to explain the text: the more difficult the text, the longer time it takes for its presentation. And the longer that lasts the more boring the text becomes.
The main argument against authentic texts in EFL is that most English teachers are non-native English speakers who, as such, do not share the insights of the target culture, and they cannot "recreate for [their] students the receptive behavior a native speaker would exhibit when encountering a particular text type", as was suggested by Liontas and Baginski (1995). That is another reason why attention should be paid to text contents, for a general EFL teacher would be more able to deal with general interests texts than with professional/technical texts, if s/he is trained for general English, and vice versa.

However, regarding authenticity in EFL, attention should be drawn toward professional literature that discusses the "tyranny" of CLT and that argues that concepts like authenticity confuse the reality of the classroom and the reality of the real world (Clark & Silberstein).

From the professional literature, there is an argument that since authentic texts are meant for native speakers of the target language, they presume backgrounds and internal frameworks that foreign language learners may not have, because they are not members of that culture. In addition, they contradict the concept of autonomy of learners, for learners should make the target language their own (Galloway, 1992; Widdowson, 1996).

Breen (1985) suggests that a learner will recreate a text to fit his/her experience and priorities; thus, there is no absolute authentic text. He also distinguishes authentic learning tasks that require the learner to communicate meanings and to communicate about the learning of how to communicate for and about knowledge in the classroom. From these perspectives, it looks like learning
authenticity that promotes learners' autonomy is more important and meaningful than text authenticity that imposes constraints on the learner and the teacher. Thus, when talking about CLT in EFL, text authenticity should be overlooked and learning authenticity, whereby the learner makes the target language his/her own, promoted. That is the idea behind the emergence of a new context categorization, English as an International Language, or EIL (Smith, 1985; Diaz-Rico, 1999). As stated earlier in the literature review, EIL raises the question of the one-way flow of cultural and linguistic information from the core countries to the periphery countries that is implied in the EFL/ESL categorizations. As such, this new trend takes into account the autonomy of the learner.

Sub-question b: With regard to the importance of the target culture

The analysis in this study did not focus on culture because culture was not targeted in the English teaching objectives. Nevertheless, The American Way was designed for a content-based course on the U.S. culture. Thus, even though no reason was given why the U.S. culture was preferred to other native English cultures, the American culture has been taught in grade 13. This sub-question raises the issue of the appropriateness of the teaching of American culture: why the American culture? Why a native English-speaking culture? And why not a culture from the “outer circle” which developed World Englishes? With the choice of culture comes the question of the choice of English: Why the American English and not the British English? And why not the Ghanaean English or the Indian English? A rationale should preside in responding to these questions. That
rationale should be founded on the teaching context and the students needs (Savignon, 1983, 1991; Berns, 1990).

With regard to the target culture, reference is made once again to EIL. To repeat the main tenet of EIL, “[A] language is not inextricably tied to a particular culture . . . And English can be used to express any culture or ideological point of view” (Smith, 1985). This decentralized view of the target culture has a potential to promote learners’ autonomy in EFL contexts like Togo. To select a native target culture and English from the “inner circle” in an EFL context like Togo has something arbitrary to it and, as Diaz-Rico would put it, “makes the English we teach post-colonial”. It is as if the Togolese student would have to deal with a native English-speaking American or British person every day.

Sub-question c: What mode(s) of communication should be emphasized in EFL?

One finding in this study is that 57 percent of the Togolese English language teaching objectives emphasize oral communication against 43 percent of written communication, and 47 percent of the students’ performance should have native-like quality. These objectives seem unrealistic and are discounted by the EFL context where people rarely interact in English, and by the academic reality where the textbook is the backbone of the syllabus and where the typical English teacher is a non-native speaker: in EFL, the English teacher is the students’ model for spoken English, and his/her English is likely to have non-native-like quality rather than native-like quality.

In such a context, if we refer to the different levels of the communicative activities variable (See Appendix C, Scoring Sheet for Activities), social
interaction activities (Si) would be minimized, as well as oral beyond-the-class activities, because of the scant opportunity to interact with native speakers of English. On the other hand, written beyond-the-class activities are possible in the form of text-transforming activities (Tt) that engage the learner to construct meaning from text. Written beyond-the-class activities are also possible in the form of self-expression (S-e) activities like journal keeping, personal reading, letter writing, personal reflection, etc. In addition, written activities for these subcategories are possible in class, too, as well as oral activities. Of course, most Language Arts activities would be carried out in written form. The only activity category that would be done orally in class is functional communication (Fc) activities that require immediate information sharing and processing. Thus, it would be more relevant in EFL contexts to emphasize written communication, for there are more opportunities for written communication than there are for oral communication.

Sub-question d: What English language skills do students need to practice outside?

The above section has pinpointed writing as a skill that can be used outside for communication. It follows as a corollary that reading can be equally practiced outside of the classroom. However, while these two skills indicate the presence of written English texts outside of school, spoken English is not absent in EFL. Lack of native speakers to interact with has always been deplored in EFL. Despite this, the media bring the native texts to the students in their homes and on the streets, mostly television and radio. Even in the most materially
deprived environment, radio can reach far. That is an important source of authentic English text to be tapped, which makes listening a skill the students still need to practice outside of the classroom. Treffgarne (1975) described radio programs designed to supplement English language courses in Francophone African countries. What this study proposes is a reverse process whereby the oral text from the radio (or television) will be the starting point of the lesson or unit: the goal here will be to teach the students how to critically receive the mass of information from these media, a major source of influence on the youth. This leads us to the next proposal of a model as an illustration.

**QUESTION 7:** Given the situation of EFL teaching in Togo, what type of program model should be recommended for the senior high school level EFL?

**Sub-question a: Is CLT doable in a context like Togo?**

The answer to this question is yes, because CLT is not specific to any particular context, even though there is no monolithic CLT. CLT principles can apply in all teaching contexts, provided they are adapted to fit the context when need be. What is important in CLT is for the language teaching to be grounded on and to respond to the learners' communication needs. Literature on CLT also insists that these needs be the varieties of second/foreign language that the learner is most likely to be in contact with in a genuine communication situation (Berns, 1990; Canale & Swain, 1980; Dubin & Olshtain, 1986; Hancock, 1994; Savignon, 1983, 1991; Widdowson, 1983, 1996).
Implicit to these CLT principles is the understanding that the students' needs will vary with the teaching situations. Thus, ESP students' needs are not the same as EFL students' needs, and in the same socio-cultural context, ESP students' needs are different from the needs of students in a general English program. The English teaching objectives in Togo were flawed by oversight of these CLT principles. Therefore, CLT can shed new light on English teaching in EFL contexts like Togo.

As an application of these CLT principles, the Togolese English planners, I believe, should start with finding a complete answer to the question “For what purpose should the senior high school student learn English?” The answer to this question, to be thorough, should take into account the bigger question “For what purpose are Togolese students to be educated?” The two questions are linked because the teaching of any subject at school should contribute to that general educational goal. For instance, in the school reform text published by the Togolese Ministry of Education in 1975, it is stated that “The emerging Togolese citizen should be level-headed, open-minded, creative, able to adapt to all new situations, and capable of acting upon his/her environment to transform it” (Reforme, p. 9, this researcher’s translation and emphasis). This general goal is emancipatory in its nature, in the researcher's opinion, and it sets a framework for goals and objectives for all school subjects, English included. Therefore, for the teaching of English to respond to the socio-cultural context, it should have emancipatory goals and objectives; and the implementation of such a program would naturally draw from emancipatory theories and pedagogy (cf. Gordon,
This is just an illustration of how CLT makes the teaching match the
context. Nevertheless, it should be observed that CLT does not have
emancipatory goals. CLT, according to professional literature, consists in
teaching/learning how to communicate in the target language in everyday
situations. The emancipatory goals go one step further than CLT, and they add
cultural context, problem orientation, and critical thinking to communication skills
(Wallerstein, 1983, p. 26). Therefore, what this study proposes for EFL contexts
like Togo is a combination of CLT and emancipatory pedagogy, whereby
communication with the English text and culture is invested in the development of
the English learner and his/her social environment. This means that the English
learner will communicate in English in order to learn.

Sub-question b: What content should be recommended?

The response to this question is two-fold: The first part is about which
English language to teach, due to the fact that American English is different from
British English, as is Kenyan English. The concept of EIL includes all these
varieties and puts them at the same prestige level. Consequently, Smith (1985)
suggests that even a native speaker of English (say, an American from Boston)
needs training in the other multiple “vernaculars” of English in order to facilitate
interaction with their speakers, as well as with non-native speakers of English. A
student in EFL would need all these varieties of English, as s/he might encounter
any variety at any time in the media. EFL teaching would thus be better advised
to adopt EIL principles. Students would be aware of all varieties of English, and
would learn them, starting with those varieties that occur in the local contexts and
continuing towards varieties that are contextually most distant. Thus, for Togolese English learners, local West African varieties of English, such as Nigerian and Ghanaean Englishes, would have priority in the curriculum.

The second part of the answer to this sub-question addresses content, as opposed to form. ESL/EFL English programs emphasize the need to teach the language and its culture because the two are bound, which is opposite to the EIL view in this regard. The EIL orientation suggests that English can be used to express any culture, which seems to explain how more varieties of English, called “World Englishes” by Kachru (1986, 1992), came into being. It ensues that EIL orients the focus away from the core English-speaking cultures. On the other hand, the emancipatory pedagogy principle suggests that the student should know both his/her culture and the culture of the language learned/taught. Actually, the target culture in emancipatory pedagogy is his/her culture. Thus, local culture should be the starting point for the English curriculum.

This study proposes an adaptation of the problem-posing approach (Wallerstein, 1983) to the EFL curriculum. This approach was used in the U.S. for English programs designed for refugees and immigrants. In addition, these programs posed real problems facing these adults in their new lives. The objective was to give the immigrants “the tools and confidence for thinking critically and for taking actions in their lives,” and to enrich the teachers, too. In an EFL context like Togo, English language planners may start by surveying the social context to uncover what the community issues and preoccupations are with regard to community development in a broad sense. From that observation,
problems will be identified that will become the topics that will start the curriculum, provided contrasting aspects of the same problems were found in the targetted English cultures. Such themes could include, for instance:

- Employment issues
- Environmental and ecological issues
- Urban and rural living
- Youth and drugs
- School education versus home education
- Technology
- Aid and development
- Races and ethnic groups
- Stereotypes
- Democracy and development
- The family and polygamy

From these topics, a proto-curriculum will be developed. The topics will determine the functions, lexis, and structures that need to be known when discussing the topics. At this stage, checklists should be consulted (e.g., Appendix II in Yalden, 1987). The next step will be to identify the texts (oral or written) discussing the same or similar problems through library research and textbook publishing catalogues. In addition, a wide range of radio and television programs will be surveyed to see which programs address which problems similar to the ones identified in the community. Where there is no text, a textbook should be written drawing from a variety of cultures for comparison purposes.
provided the message were in English. The criteria for selecting a text could be the degree to which it illustrates a problem or topic. Later, at the implementation level, students will be sent to uncover some of those texts themselves (e.g., from the media or libraries) and bring them to class. This would be a beyond-the-class activity. In sum, the content is rooted in the socio-cultural realities of the student from which the themes are selected. Moreover, these themes are studied in a contrastive way through similar problems in Anglophone contexts. Discussing a similar problem elsewhere is expected to lead to understanding of the Australian or Jamaican or Nigerian culture, for instance, as well as to self-awareness.

Sub-question c: What format should be recommended?

Here again, Wallerstein’s (1983) problem posing model can be adapted to EFL contexts. The problem posing approach is organized in units corresponding to themes or topics identified as problems in the community or in the lives of the students. A unit is divided into lessons. Each lesson starts with a “code,” which can be a story, a picture, a dialogue, etc. “Codes . . . are concrete physical expressions that combine all the elements of the theme into one representation” (Wallerstein, p. 19). After the code has been presented, it needs to be “decoded” through inductive questioning, which goes from descriptive level (problem identification) towards projective questions which are why-questions. Students are always encouraged, at the end of the decoding phase, to discuss alternatives and solutions to the problem. During the presentation of the code, the teacher introduces the students to grammatical points or functions or lexis that emerge in the code. These new points are practiced before the decoding phase.
The decoding phase is followed by the "action phase," which moves the students from the level of information and skills to virtual consequences to the problem and to actions outside of the classroom. It should be observed that the teacher is a partner and facilitator in the problem solving approach: s/he asks questions and provides information to help move the dialogue to higher levels of thinking. However, s/he does not impose his or her world view on the students.

Wallerstein (1983) did not raise the problem of student evaluation, nor the question of program evaluation. For her, "The [problem-posing] curriculum never stagnates; it unfolds constantly as new interests and conflicts emerge from previous dialogues and in the community. The best codes are therefore always unique to different classes" (p. 49). Nevertheless, a too-fast tempo of change might be a problem for centralized EFL settings like Togo. Without denying the possibility for unique codes to different classes, this study suggests that an effort must be made to harmonize the curriculum content. Consequently, an evaluation system that tests the target objectives (critical thinking, self-awareness and social awareness, and communication) can be devised for all. The students' performance on these tests would be a gauge for the effectiveness of the program. As a general principle for a student's evaluation, the testing should be subjective, whereby the product reflects the individual student's originality and creativity. Also necessary is a formative evaluation of the curriculum itself (i.e., of the teachers, of the materials) on a regular basis, so that the curriculum is updated as the need arises.
Sub-question d: What are the implications for teacher development?

It follows from the preceding that the English teacher development program in Togo has to include the study of language among its foundation studies. Teacher education specialists are yet to agree on whether teacher education should focus on the "skill and knowledge base of language teaching" or on the process of language teaching (Freeman, 1989). However, to respond to the teachers' needs, as proposed by Nunan (1989), the English teachers' in-service program in Togo should incorporate a component that addresses teacher awareness of different Englishes and their characteristics. This is due to the fact that the curriculum will expose him or her to every kind of English, from the core as well as from the periphery countries.

Likewise, an in-service program for English teachers should have a culture component. Cultural awareness would be the target, following Freeman's (1989) suggestion that awareness is the key element which plays an essential role in the teacher's attitude and in how s/he uses her or his skills and knowledge in decision making. The main objectives of this component would be to bring the teacher-trainee to an understanding of the relativity of cultures, more understanding of the major traits of character of English-speaking communities, understanding and acceptance of ethnic identity, and curiosity about the "other". As teaching method, Galloway's (1992) four-stage approach to reading cultural texts could be adapted: Stage 1 is the "thinking stage" that sensitizes the student to cross-cultural encounter points in the text. Stage 2 is the "looking stage" which guides the student towards the understanding of key thoughts of the text. Stage 3
is the “learning stage” where students discover and examine contrasts, test their cultural hypotheses, analyze and expand the target culture framework, and gain insight regarding their own culture. Stage 4 is the “integrating stage”, where students transfer and reflect on cultural as well as linguistic information previously gained. This approach has the advantage of resembling the problem-posing approach recommended earlier. At the integrating stage, a reflective process on the culture teaching strategies can be inserted.

More importantly, the recommendations on the content and format of the curriculum require the pre-service teacher development courses to incorporate emancipatory pedagogy. For instance, the emancipatory dimension of the courses should focus on the tenets and principles of this model, include readings from Freire's and Gordon's writings on emancipatory pedagogy, and integrate Wallerstein's (1983) problem-posing approach for learning English. Besides, this study has established that the English language planners in Togo --and the teachers in senior high schools-- have been subjected to the authority of the CLT paradigm by jumping onto its bandwagon. As a consequence, the English teaching in senior high schools has been evolving for years through embedded discrepancies (between the general goals and the objectives, between the objectives and the textbooks, from one textbook to the other). It is clear that what is needed here is for the English teacher to be able to critically reflect on his/her practice. This study suggests that the teachers' needs in this context would be met by a program that would help them re-examine their beliefs, ideologies, and ways of looking at the curriculum and the teaching methods. In short, what is
needed is a program that helps them develop a fresh, dialectical mode of reasoning, to paraphrase Gordon (1985). This is the purpose of emancipatory pedagogy.

In exemplifying this model, Gordon (1985) recommends for teachers, at the pre-service level, readings that describe emancipatory pedagogy, including Warner's work with Maori children in New Zealand (1964), and Freire's work with Brazilian peasants (1973). Emancipatory pedagogy, she continues, should teach teachers critical awareness that "triggers a 'gestalt switch' that enables 'to see' something s/he had not seen before, but which was there all along". To enable the teacher to have that critical awareness, methodology courses should go beyond teaching conceptions that require of the teacher to carry out the system however it is devised (Freeman and Richard's "scientifically-based conceptions of teaching" and "theory- and values-based conceptions of teaching", 1993). This study would recommend, as do Freeman and Richard (1993), an "art/craft conception of teaching" for EFL teacher development programs (that incorporates an emancipatory dimension). This conception views teaching as a set of personal skills which are applied according to the demands of specific situations. For this approach, often referred to as "informed eclecticism", teaching success depends on the teacher and not on the method. Thus, it establishes a connection between individuality, method, and responsibility.
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The findings of this study revealed a need for further research. The pedagogical context described can be equated to an everything-goes situation, for the discrepancies between the objectives and the textbooks did not impede the daily routine to be carried out. As was hypothesized earlier, for the system to continue functioning as does the Togolese English teaching system, one alternative is possible: either the objectives are disregarded by the teachers, or the textbooks are adapted by the teachers at the individual level to match the objectives. In order to solve this pedagogical paradox, the following type of further study may be conducted:

- The question of teachers' use of EFL textbooks in classrooms in Togo needs investigation. The present study revealed that one textbook series, English Africa, was rather structural than communicative, and that the other textbook, The American Way, had a communicative orientation. However the latter was conceived for a college level ESL course in culture. It would be interesting to know how the teachers introduce and explore these difficult texts and how s/he feels about switching from one type of textbook to the other.

- Teacher perceptions of EFL textbooks in Togo may be positive or negative. This study has shown that the textbooks in use have different orientations. It would be interesting to investigate how the teachers perceive
them and the accompanying objectives, and what suggestions, if any, do they have for more efficiency. After all, they are the first users of the textbooks.

- Other users of the textbooks are the students and their evaluations of the textbooks are to be taken into account. It would be beneficial to the system to know whether the students feel the contradictions and discrepancies in English instruction and what do these do to their motivation toward English.

- The complexities of this research topic require both cross-sectional and longitudinal methodologies for the study to be thorough: for instance, a cross-sectional sampling of teachers/students from rural and urban areas would help understand whether geographical space is a factor in how the textbooks and the teaching of English overall are perceived. It would equally be of interest to periodically investigate the planners' evaluation of the teaching materials in a longitudinal type of study, and further study the process of planning instruction in Togo. One interesting question could center around the textbook selection process.

- Finally, the researcher-generated analysis instruments used in the present study remain to be validated. This aim may be reached with a replication of the study at junior high level and at the level of higher education. It should also be replicated in other francophone African countries with an educational system similar to the one in Togo, thus setting the pace for a desirable harmonization at the geopolitical level with regard to the teaching of English in Africa (and other world areas). Geopolitical curricular harmonization would make textbook policies viable (e.g., same English textbooks for Benin, Togo, and Burkina-Faso).
CONCLUDING REMARKS

The ambition of this study was to begin to establish baseline data for understanding francophone EFL contexts like Togo where local research is still scant. As an assessment of procedures in English program development in EFL, the investigation revealed contradictions and discrepancies in the planning and implementation of the English teaching system of Togolese senior high schools, which substantiates the need for an evaluation of the English curriculum. It is hoped that, after these results are disseminated to the education officials and to the teacher training institutions, an evaluation research process will start the exploration of these research avenues suggested above.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study suffers from shortcomings derived from the study conditions, which need to be dealt with for subsequent improvement. First, the study does not concern itself with the whole English teaching program at senior high school, but focuses only on the English teaching objectives and the textbooks for senior high schools. That choice stems from the belief that the teaching goals and objectives are central to any teaching program, and perhaps even more so in a centralized educational system such as Togo. Thus, all components of the instructional programs should primarily match: the prescribed syllabi, the
textbooks and other teaching materials, and the examination system. On the other hand, textbooks are also the backbone of the educational system in Togo, especially in the English instructional program. Since the teaching of English has not been evaluated in a systematic way, it was deemed more prudent to limit the scope of the study to the two central components previously identified, namely the English teaching objectives and the textbooks in use. Second, the teaching of English in senior high schools is the only concern of this research project. That is due to the fact that the author has had his teaching experience mostly with senior high schools. Another reason is that, although higher education, senior high, junior high, and primary schools are administered by the same Togolese Ministry of Education, they operate differently, with different planners, different teacher profiles, and different textbooks. A logical prolongation of this study could be its replication at the junior high and higher education levels where English is also taught as a foreign language. The results of this study cannot be generalized to other situations or settings. To do so would violate the descriptive nature of this study.
APPENDIX A: COVER LETTER
A Monsieur le Directeur de l'Enseignement du Troisième Degré, à Lomé, Togo

Objet: Demande de manuels officiels en usage pour l'enseignement de l'anglais dans les lycées et collèges au Togo

Monsieur le Directeur,

J'ai l'honneur de porter à votre connaissance que mon programme de doctorat en enseignement des langues étrangères (option anglais) se déroule normalement. Ainsi, je débute la deuxième partie du programme qui consiste en la rédaction d'une thèse, après avoir passé avec succès mon examen de qualification en Juin 1997.

Mon projet de thèse veut examiner l'orientation pédagogique des manuels d'anglais actuellement en usage dans nos établissements du Troisième Degré, et en dégager la pertinence, au regard de nos objectifs d'enseignement, du contexte socio-culturel togolais, et des théories des plus récentes de l'enseignement des langues étrangères. A cet effet, je vous suis reconnaissant de bien vouloir me faire envoyer les programmes officiels d'anglais ainsi qu'une copie de chaque manuel d'anglais présentement en usage dans nos lycées et collèges, votre autorité faisant foi.

Dans l'espoir qu'une attention diligente sera accordée à ma requête, je vous prie de croire, Monsieur le Directeur, à l'expression de mes sentiments de gratitude et de ma considération distinguée.

O. Akindjo
CODING INSTRUCTIONS

PART I: BRIEFING ON ANALYSIS INSTRUMENTS

Introduction

The purpose of this analysis is 1) to determine the nature of the English teaching objectives in the Togolese senior high schools, and 2) to describe the pedagogical orientation(s) of the English textbooks currently in use for grades 11, 12, and 13 in Togo. You've been associated to this content analysis study in order to test the analysis instruments, and to ascertain inter-rater reliability.

Two types of text will be analyzed:

First, a corpus of English teaching objectives re-ordered into a taxonomy by the first researcher. Second, randomly selected portions of the textbooks (3 chapters/units from each of the 3 textbooks). In each chapter or unit, three textbook components considered for analysis: Language explanations, language learning activities, and language samples. For each of these components, and for the “objectives”, an analysis instrument has been devised: overall, four analysis instruments, called ‘category schemes’ because they are each made up of a set of categories (or variables) representing aspects of language learning/teaching pedagogy. The category schemes are presented next. Please read them carefully.

(Suggestion: While reading about the category schemes, it may be helpful to identify the different categories and sub-categories on the contingency table of 193.)
the corresponding ‘scoring sheet’)

**Category Scheme for “Objectives”**

Four broad categories defining objectives have been selected from professional literature for the analysis of English teaching objectives in Togo: performance, condition, criterion, and objective type. All four have two levels each. Moreover, the two levels of ‘objective type’ are subdivided into subcategories to facilitate the analysis or rating of the stated objectives. Consider the following language learning objective:

In a classroom situation, learners will exchange personal details. All utterances will be comprehensible to someone unused to dealing with non-native speakers.

This illustrates what performance, condition, and criterion represent

1. **Performance** refers to what the learner is to be able to do.

   Example: Exchange personal details

   The two levels of ‘performance’ considered in this study are ‘oral’ (or) performance and ‘written’ (wr) performance. In this example the performance is ‘oral’.

   2. **Condition** refers to the conditions under which the learner is to perform.

   Example: In a classroom situation

   Its two levels considered here are ‘real-world’ (r-w) or outside of the classroom, and ‘pedagogical’ (ped) or in the classroom. In this example the condition is
'pedagogical'.

3. **Criterion** indicates how well the learner is to perform.

Example: All utterances must be comprehensible to someone unused to dealing with non-native speakers. In this example the criterion is 'comprehensible'

These three categories should together contribute to determining an objective type.

4. **Objective type** has two levels: 'product' (prod) and 'process' (proc). Product objectives focus on 'structures' (str) to be mastered, 'functions and notions' (f/n) to be proficient in, 'topics' (top) to be knowledgeable about, and 'attitudes' (att) to adopt. On the other hand, the focus of process objectives is either 'tasks' (tk) to accomplish or 'activities' (act) to carry out, a task being composed of a series of activities. These different foci constitute the sub-categories of the 'product' and 'process' levels, and may facilitate the classification of the objectives.

To rate an objective on the taxonomy, the four main categories that determine an objective have to be considered at a time, each at the appropriate levels. That is why they have been put together to form the contingency table on which the tallies and scores are to be recorded (cf. scoring sheet for "objectives").
Category Scheme for "Explanations":

Language explanations are new explanations or presentations introduced in the lessons. To analyze them, two categories or variables have been identified: 'Emphasis' of explanation and 'type' of explanation.

1. Emphasis of explanation has two levels: emphasis on 'form' and emphasis on 'use', which are also divided into sub-categories.

   Emphasis on form might be expressed in terms of 'descriptions' (des) of linguistic forms or of functions, in terms of 'rules' (rl) of usage, of 'antonyms' (ant) or 'synonyms' (syn), of 'definitions' (def), of 'examples' (ex), or of any 'combinations' (combo) of the preceding.

   Emphasis on use might rather be an explanation of the 'contexts' (cont) of use, or an 'illustration' (illu) of the use(s) of the item in examples, or a combination of 'both' (both) techniques.

All these sub-categories form the columns of the contingency table on the scoring sheet for "Explanations".

2. Three explanation types have been selected: Explanation of 'vocabulary' (voc), of 'grammar' (gram), or of 'functions' (func). These categories have only one level each, and form the rows of contingency table on the scoring sheet. In addition, these three types of explanation have different units of analysis. The unit of analysis for the categories is the piece of explanation. For 'vocabulary', the unit of analysis is every piece of explanation proposes for a new lexical entry in a lesson. Likewise, for 'grammar', it is every
kind of explanation suggested for the new grammar item, and for 'function' it is
every piece of explanation suggested for a new function introduced in a lesson.

Thus, one explanation type for an entry (e.g., a grammar entry) may have
more than one emphasis (e.g., definition, illustration, and rule).

Category Scheme for “Activities”:

Language learning activities are all exercises and activities prescribed in
the textbook for students to do in order to learn. To analyze this component, four
variables have been identified and conjugated into a contingency table: ‘Setting’,
‘presentation mode’, and ‘control’ form the rows of the table, and ‘activities’ forms
the columns with its categories and sub-categories (cf. scoring sheet for
“Activities”).

1. Setting refers to where the activity is to take place. It comprises two
levels: The activity may take place in the ‘classroom’ (cr) or ‘outside’ the
classroom (out).

2. The presentation mode variable refers to the modality of the activity. It
also has two levels: The exercise may be conducted in the ‘written’ (wr) or in the
‘oral’ (or) mode.

3. The third variable, control, inquires about whether the activities are
somewhat guided or not guided at all. Its two levels are ‘yes’ and ‘no’

4. The fourth variable, Activities, has two levels: ‘Communication
Activities’ (CA) and ‘Language Arts Activities’ (LAA), subdivided into the following
sub-categories to facilitate the rating of the exercises.

**Communication Activities (CA)**

They comprehend five sub-categories.

- ‘Social interaction activities’ (Si): In these activities, learners are to use language or observe language behavior which is both functionally effective and appropriate to the social situation s/he is in (e.g., discussion sessions, conversation sessions, simulations, role plays).

- ‘Functional communication activities’ (Fc): What counts in these activities is for the learner to get meanings across effectively in solving immediate communication problems. **Examples** are information-gap activities and problem-solving activities that involve information sharing or processing.

- ‘Text transforming activities’ (Tt): These are activities that require the learner to construct meaning from text, using his/her background knowledge. They engage the learner into deeper analysis of the text and interpretation of meaning (e.g., free summaries, syntheses, unguided outlining, follow-up essays, unscrambling passages, unguided picture descriptions, open-end questions and responses for deep interpretation).

- ‘Beyond the classroom activities’ (Byd) are activities that take the learners into the surrounding community, or that bring the community into the classroom (e.g., interviewing local people, field trips, discussing local news in class).

- ‘Self-expression activities’ (S-e) encourage personal L2 use and seek to
involve the learner psychologically as well as intellectually. **Examples** are class presentations, reporting, journal keeping, personal reading, letter writing, personal reflection activities.

**Language Arts Activities (LAA)**

Generally speaking, they are controlled (do not allow for student spontaneous creativity) and they focus on form and usage. They include four sub-categories.

- 'Completion activities' (**Cpl**) require the learner to insert linguistic elements into a given syntactic framework. **Examples** are substitution drills, fill-in the gaps exercises.

- In 'Transformation activities' (**Trf**), which are different from 'text transforming activities' (**Tt**), learners either derive one sentence or phrase from another, altering the latter's form and meaning, or derive a structurally different sentence or phrase from another without altering the latter's meaning (e.g., vocabulary expansion exercises, transformation drills, guided picture descriptions, reformulation drills, sentence/paragraph translating).

- 'Comprehension activities referring to form or usage' (**Caf**) address surface level comprehension of the text and refer to facts in the text. Moreover, no deep interpretation is involved, and they make appeal to the comprehending skill rather than the reading ability. **Examples** are text questions, reconstitution questions, identification questions, cloze passages.

- 'Formal accuracy activities' (**Fac**) provide practice in the use of particular structures and vocabulary, and require attention to rules of language and
language behavior (e.g., dictations, spelling games, pronunciation games, memorization games).

The unit of analysis for "Activities" is the exercise in a lesson. Therefore, every exercise in a lesson should be rated and classified in light of all these categories and sub-categories.

Category Scheme for "Language Samples"

The 'Language Samples' component of the textbooks includes all written texts that are explored in a unit or chapter. The language samples will be analyzed so that we should know what they are used for and how they have been explored. The analysis should also yield information on the nature of the samples. For that purpose, three variables have been identified.

1. **Setting** is subdivided into 'Togo/Africa' (ToA) and 'Foreign' (Fgn), the latter designating any settings outside of the African continent.

2. The **topic** variable refers to the main topic discussed in the text. It can be a 'specialized' (sp), i.e., technical topic dealing with a specific domain (e.g., agriculture), or a 'general' (gen) topic dealing with an issue of common interest (e.g., war and its effects).

3. The **sample type** variable has two categories, 'text' (Te) and 'pretext' (Prt). A passage (or a diagram, a chart, a picture) is to be labeled a 'text' if it is used for Communication Activities (CA) mostly. But if it is used mainly for Language Arts Activities (LAA), it should be labeled a 'pretext'.
Thus, the analysis of language samples is dependent on the analysis of language learning activities and, consequently, should come after it.

The 'setting' and 'topic' variables form the rows of the contingency table for "Language Samples", while the 'sample type' variable and its categories form the columns (cf. Scoring sheet for "Language Samples").

(When you feel familiar enough with these categories/sub-categories and the scoring sheets, you are ready to start the rating or analysis. The objectives taxonomy, 3 units from English Africa Seconde, 3 units from English Africa Premiere, and 3 chapters from The American Way are the documents you are to analyze, using the category schemes and the appropriate scoring sheets. You may start with the document of your choice, in any order, provided the documents are carefully identified on the corresponding sheets. Now please proceed on to the 'Scoring Instructions'.)

PART II: SCORING INSTRUCTIONS

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

Please try and apply the relevant category schemes to all units of analysis of all three textbooks components, and to "objectives". If there is a unit of analysis which cannot fit into a category scheme, please note it down for subsequent discussions with second rater, and for adjustments to be made in the instruments if need be. These instruments cannot be discussed between the raters until they have each tested them on the documents to
INSTRUCTIONS FOR RATING "OBJECTIVES"

1. Consider the numbered objectives one after the other (the unit of analysis is the stated objective).
2. Some objectives may not have all the three parts (performance, condition, criterion). Try and rate/classify them all the same, taking into account the existing parts.
3. Start by considering the product/process categories and their sub-categories (the columns):
   a) Read the objective and mentally decide whether it is 'product' or 'process', referring to definitions of the category schemes.
   b) Figure out into which sub-category it fits.
4. After the column is well identified, decide on the appropriate row among the eight.
5. When your mind is made up, put a tally in the appropriate cell.
6. Take the next objective.
7. Mark down the totals of the tallies in the margin column and margin row cells. Put a zero figure in empty cells.
Alternative:

At step 3b, you may mark down with a pencil the sub-categories (using their abbreviations or ‘tags’) in the margin on the taxonomy sheet. This process is known as **tagging**. After you have ‘tagged’ the whole taxonomy, take the objectives one by one and continue with step 4.

----------

**INSTRUCTIONS FOR RATING “EXPLANATIONS”**

1. Consider, one after the other, and where available, 1) each new word introduced and singled out as such by the author(s) in a lesson (in *English Africa* series, a unit has 5 lessons) or in a chapter (in *The American Way*), 2) each new structure, and 3) each new function. For English Africa, you may need to additionally consult the ‘Grammar Summary’ and ‘Word List for Seconde and Premiere classes. In *English Africa*, new lexical items and grammatical structures and functions at the top of lessons 1 to 4 of a unit. In The American Way, only “New Words” are presented, immediately following the lead text of the chapter.

2. Consider the way each type of explanation has been introduced, and decide whether the emphasis is on ‘Form’ or on ‘Use’. Mark down the emphasis with a pencil in the margin right by the item.

3. Next decide into what sub-category of ‘Form’ or ‘Use’ the item should fit, and put a tally in the appropriate cell.

203
4. Follow the same process whether you are rating vocabulary items, or grammar structures, or individual functions.

5. In the case where there are multiple emphases for an item, count and enter every emphasis on the scoring sheet. That should consequently yield more emphases, which is an expression of diversity of explanations.

6. Use one scoring sheet for a chapter or for all the lessons in a unit.

7. For each scoring sheet, put the totals of the tallies in the margin column and margin row cells.

---

INSTRUCTIONS FOR RATING “ACTIVITIES”

1. The ‘activities’ component in the textbooks are exercises following the texts and numbered A, B, C, etc. An activity may comprise many stages (cf. English Africa), but should be represented with only one tally on the scoring contingency table. In the English Africa series, the first lesson of unit, “Reading and Completing”, is to be considered as one activity. Moreover, exercises with an orange bullet mark are considered as “optional exercises”, but should be rated the same way as the other exercises.

2. Take the activities one after the other, and read all the stages of an activity before rating it.

3. In a first step, just consider the column categories, CA/LAA, and their sub-categories. The criterion for classifying activities, at this step, is the purpose of
the activity (the kind of knowledge the learner is being required to demonstrate):

- If the learner is required to use the language s/he knows to describe, explain, respond, interact with text, find out about, etc., in their own way, then the activity should be considered a Communication Activity (CA).

- If the learner is required to produce an acceptable piece of language following a certain pattern, or if the activity is limited to language manipulation, then it should be considered a Language Arts Activity (LAA).

When your mind is made up, write down the tag or abbreviation for the category (CA or LAA) close by the number or title of the activity. Then proceed onto the next activity.

4. When you reach the end of the unit or chapter, then come back to the first activity and decide into which sub-category of CA or LAA it fits, and into which row, taking into account the row categories. When your mind is made up about the full nature of the activity, then put a tally in the appropriate cell.

5. Use one scoring sheet for a chapter, or for all of the lessons in a unit.

6. For each scoring sheet, put the totals of the tallies in the margin column and margin row cells. Put a zero figure in empty cells.
1. Language samples are the lead text of the chapters or units and the texts (e.g., maps, pictures, diagrams, flow-charts) that are explored in the activities.

2. It is suggested to analyze the language samples after the activities have been analyzed and tagged.

3. If the activities have been precedently analyzed, then you have all the activities pencil-marked CA or LAA.

4. In a first step (even without reading the text), take a count of all the CA’s and LAA’s relating to the text. If there are more CA’s than LAA’s, then the text is to be pencil-marked Te. If there are more LAA’s, then it is a pretext (Prt). In case there are equal numbers of CA’s and LAA’s, then the text goes into the “Undecided” category and has to be pencil-marked as such.

5. Now you have to quickly read the text and make a decision about its setting and topic, and then select the appropriate row where to put the tally for the text.

6. Owing to the relatively small number of texts, use one scoring sheet for each of the three books.

7. On each scoring sheet, put the totals of the tallies in the margin column and margin row cells. Put a zero figure in empty cells.
APPENDIX C: SCORING SHEETS
SCORING SHEET FOR "OBJECTIVES"

Rater's name: __________________________ Sheet #: __________
Date: __________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Product</td>
<td>Process</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>str</td>
<td>f/n</td>
<td>top</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Or</td>
<td>r-w</td>
<td>comp</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ped</td>
<td>comp</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wr</td>
<td>r-w</td>
<td>comp</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>nat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>comp</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total**

*Note.* Str = structure; f/n = function or notion; top = topic; att = attitude; tk = task; act = activity; Or = oral; Wr = written; r-w = real-world; ped = pedagogic; comp = comprehensible or functional use; nat = native-like use.
SCORING SHEET FOR "EXPLANATIONS"

Textbook title: ______________________________ Sheet #: ____________
Grade level: ______________________________
Unit/Chapter: ______________________________
Rater's name: ______________________________
Date: __________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Emphasis</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Form</td>
<td>Use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>des rl ant syn def ex combo cont illu both</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gram</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Func</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: des = description; rl = rule; ant = antonym; syn = synonym; def = definition; ex = example; combo = combination of any of the preceding; cont = context; illu = illustration; both = context and illustration; Voc = vocabulary; Gram = grammar; Func = function.
## SCORING SHEET FOR “ACTIVITIES”

Textbook title: ____________________________  Sheet #: ____________
Grade level: ______________________________
Unit/Chapter: _____________________________
Rater’s name: ______________________________
Date: _________________________________

### Communicative Activities (CA)  Lang. Arts Activ. (LAA)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>wr</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cr</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>or</td>
<td></td>
<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out</td>
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<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>or</td>
<td></td>
<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>no</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Si = social-interaction; Fc = functional-communication; Tt = text-transforming; Byd = beyond the class; S-e = self-expression; Cpl = completion; Trf = transformation; Caf = surface comprehension; Fac = formal accuracy; Cr = classroom; Out = outside; or = oral; wr = written.
**SCORING SHEET FOR “LANGUAGE SAMPLES”**

Textbook title: ____________________________  Sheet #: ___________
Grade level: ____________________________
Rater’s name: ___________________________________________
Date: ____________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Text</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pretext</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sp</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ToA</td>
<td>Sp</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fgn</td>
<td>Sp</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** Sp = specific; Gen = general; ToA = Togo/Africa; Fgn = Foreign
## REVIEWED SCORING SHEET FOR “EXPLANATIONS”*

Textbook title: ____________________________  Sheet #: ______

Grade level: ____________________________

Unit/Chapter: ____________________________

Rater’s name: ____________________________

Date: ____________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Emphasis</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Form</td>
<td>Use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>des  rl  ant  syn  def  ex  cont  Illu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Vocab.**

**Gramm.**

**Functi.**

**Total**

*The “Combo” and “both” columns have been suppressed after the piloting of the instrument.*
REVIEWED SCORING SHEET FOR "LANGUAGE SAMPLES"

Textbook title: ___________________________ Sheet #: ______
Grade level: ___________________________ Rater’s name: ___________________________
Date: ___________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Sample Type</th>
<th>Total</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Text</td>
<td>Pretext</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ToA</td>
<td>sp</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fgn</td>
<td>sp</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gen</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The "Undecided" column and the "Non-situated" row have been added after the piloting of the instrument.
OBJECTIVES TAXONOMY*

English Teaching Goals and General Objectives**

1. A language should be studied as a way of accessing the outside world.
2. Through language learning, students should acquire open-mindedness that can allow them to discuss general topics and world problems.
3. The teaching of English should allow students to be in contact with socio-cultural aspects of major English speaking countries.
4. The teaching of functions, aimed at developing linguistic and communication competences, is evidence of preoccupation to give students the means for expressing themselves in diverse situations of everyday life.
5. Students should master written modern English that will allow communication with others.
6. Students should master oral modern English that will allow communication with others.
7. Through oral texts, students are expected to develop critical thinking.
8. Through written texts, students are expected to develop critical thinking.
9. Learners should be made to understand everyday communication English.
10. Learners should be made to speak everyday communication English.
11. Learners should be made to read everyday communication English.
12. Learners should be made to write everyday communication English.
13. The teaching of English in senior high schools should take into account students' immediate needs.
14. The teaching of English in senior high schools should take into account their interests.
15. The teaching of English in senior high schools should take into account their future socio-professional needs.
16. The teaching of English should enable learners to use English in a practical way (e.g., to introduce themselves, to do the shopping, to write an application, to engage in a conversation).

II Objectives for Grade 11 (Seconde)***

1. The student at grade 11 level should be able to understand a simple conversation.
2. The student at grade 11 level should be able to understand easy**** language samples on tape.
3. The student at grade 11 level should be able to perceive standard stress and intonation.
4. The student at grade 11 level should be able to distinguish short vowels from long ones.
5. By the end of grade 11, s/he should be able to get 80% of a conversation, or of a lesson on a familiar topic given by a competent speaker.
6. At grade 11, s/he should be able to engage in a conversation in English,
drawing from her knowledge of vocabulary. S/he should be as close as feasible to RP standards when speaking.
7. At grade 11, s/he should be able to take part in a conversation, displaying mastery of basic grammar rules and of functions of English. S/he should be as close as possible to RP standards.
8. S/he should be able to read and understand intermediary level written texts of average length.
9. The student in grade 11 should be able to write tales and stories, from prompts appropriate to the grade level, and with no glaring grammar or spelling mistakes.
10. The student in grade 11 should be able to write descriptions and narratives, from prompts appropriate to the grade level, and with no glaring spelling or grammar mistakes.
11. The student in grade 11 should be able to write compositions, from prompts appropriate to the grade level, and with no glaring spelling or grammar mistakes.
12. The student in grade 11 should be able to write informal letters, from prompts appropriate to the grade level, and with no glaring grammar or spelling mistakes.

III Objectives for Grade 12 (Premiere)
13. In grade 12, the student is expected to listen to and understand a conversation in standard delivery.
14. In grade 12, the student is expected to listen to and understand short and full-length films in standard delivery.
15. In grade 12, the student is expected to listen to and understand radio programs in standard delivery.
16. In grade 12, the student is expected to listen to and understand talks in standard delivery.
17. In grade 12, the student is expected to listen to and understand songs.
18. In grade 12, the student is expected to listen to and understand plays in standard delivery.
19. S/he should be able to hold a conversation with an authentic speaker with no glaring mistakes.
20. S/he should be able to sum up her views with no glaring mistakes.
21. S/he should be able to respond orally to questions on the content of a conversation with no glaring mistakes.
22. S/he should be able to respond orally to questions on the content of material s/he has just listened to.
23. S/he should be able to respond orally to questions on the content of material s/he has just watched.
24. S/he should be able to elaborate on a given topic in front of his/her classmates in a clear and logical way and with good pronunciation.
25. S/he should be able to debate on a given topic in a clear and logical way and with good pronunciation.
26. S/he should be able to spontaneously expand on her ideas in a clear and logical way and with good pronunciation.
27. S/he should get into the habit of reading tales and stories with the aid of a glossary or an English dictionary.
30. S/he should get into the habit of reading intermediary level prose or poetry.
31. S/he should get into the habit of reading on his/her own novels in a simplified version.
32. S/he should master the basics of English grammar.
33. S/he should master the use of idioms.
34. S/he should be able to write guided compositions, using correct language and in a clear style.
35. S/he should be able to write unguided compositions, using correct language and in a clear style.
36. S/he should be able to paraphrase, using correct language and in a clear style.
37. The student in grade 12 should be able to write text summaries using correct language and in a clear style.
38. S/he should be able to write an argumentative essay in a structured way, using a correct language and in a clear style.
39. S/he should master all note-taking techniques.
40. At grade 12, s/he should be able to use note-taking techniques when listening to a speaker.
41. S/he should be able to use note-taking techniques when reading a book of his choosing.

IV Objectives for Grade 13 (Terminale)
(Preliminary: - At grade 13, the students should be equipped to take the end-of-year exam.
  - S/he should have an opening to the outside world.
  - All the objectives for grade 12 are to be taken into account here, with higher expectations on the students, more correctness and rigor in their productions, and a higher level of proficiency.)*

42. At grade 13, a student should be able to easily understand a conversation/talk at normal delivery.
43. At grade 13, the student should be able to easily understand discussions in class.
44. At grade 13, the student should easily understand radio programs and films in English.
45. The student should be able to perceive the gist of a conversation, with less and less recourse to a glossary.
46. When chatting, the student should be able to express him/herself with no fear of mistakes, with an accent and intonation close enough to that of an authentic speaker.
47. During in-class formal rhetorical exercises, the student should express him/herself without fear of mistakes, with an accent and intonation close enough
to that of a native speaker.

48. S/he should be able to get the gist of a text with less and less recourse to a glossary.

49. S/he should be able to read with some ease magazines and newspapers, with less and less aid from a glossary.

50. S/he should be able to read, with some ease, selected literary works, with less and less aid from a glossary.

51. The student at grade 13 should be able to write reports on discussions and debates, in a concise and expressive way, with no glaring morphological or syntactical mistakes.

52. S/he should be able to write text summaries, paraphrases, and abstracts, in a concise and expressive way, with no glaring morphological or syntactical mistakes.

53. S/he should be able to write compositions on interesting topics, in a concise and expressive way, with no glaring morphological or syntactical mistakes.

*Most of the text inside the table is the author's translation from the French original. An effort has been made to be as close as possible to the original text, even though some restructuring was necessary for easier understanding.

**This section has been inserted for comparison purposes only, as the learning objectives (sections II, III, and IV) are supposed to reflect the goals and general objectives.

***Only the grade level objectives are to be considered for analysis, starting from here. Thus, only to be analyzed are the 53 objectives of sections II, III, and IV.

****In this corpus, the use of subjective qualifiers like "easy," "good," "competent," "normal," "authentic," "standard," and of verbs like "to master" is intended to reflect the original text.

*****This parenthesis is the author's restructuring of the original with the purpose of separating what was seen as goals or general objectives from learning objectives.
APPENDIX E: RAW ANALYSIS RESULTS
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<th>Condition</th>
<th>Criterion</th>
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</tr>
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Table E1: Observed Frequency of Objective Types by Performance Mode, Condition of Performance, and Criterion of Performance
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Table E2: Overall Frequencies of Emphasis of Explanation by Explanation Type
Table E3: Overall Frequencies of Language Learning Activities by Setting (A), Presentation Mode (B), and Control (C)
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Table E4: Overall Frequencies of Language Sample Type by Setting and Topic
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Table E5: Observed Frequencies of Explanation Emphasis by Type of Explanation in English Africa Seconde (Grade 11)
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Table E6: Observed Frequency of Explanation Emphasis by Type of Explanation in *English Africa Premiere* (Grade 12)
Table E7: Observed Frequencies of Explanation Emphasis by Type in The American Way (Grade 13)
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Table E8: Observed Frequencies of Activities by Setting (A), Presentation Mode (B), and Control (C) in *English Africa Premiere* (Grade 12)
Table E9: Observed Frequencies of Activities by Setting (A), Presentation Mode (B), and Control (C) in *English Africa Seconde* (Grade 11)
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Table E10: Observed Frequencies of Activities by Setting (A), Presentation Mode (B), and Control in *The American Way* (Grade 13)
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Table E11: Observed Frequencies of Language Sample Type by Setting and Topic in English Africa Seconde (Grade 11)
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Table E12: Observed Frequencies of Language Sample Type by Setting and Topic in *English Africa Première* (Grade 12)
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Table E13: Observed Frequencies of Language Sample Type by Setting and Topic in *the American Way* (Grade 13)
Table E14: Cumulative Observed Frequencies of Activities by Setting (A), Presentation Mode (B), and Control (C) in the *English Africa* Series

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|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Si | Fc | Tt | Byd | S-e | Cpl | Trf | Caf | Fac |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| yes | 3  | 5  | 41  | -   | 2   | 29  | 73  | 163 | 100 |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| no  | 15 | 6  | 44  | -   | 7   | 2   | -   | -   | -   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| Cr  |   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    | 74   |
| or  | yes | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |   |
|     | no  | -  | 2  | -  | -  | 2  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | 4    |
| Out | yes | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  |   |
|     | no  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -    |
|     | yes | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -    |
|     | no  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -  | -    |

The table shows the cumulative observed frequencies of activities by setting (A), presentation mode (B), and control (C) in the *English Africa* Series.
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Table E15: Cumulative Observed Frequencies of Explanation Emphasis by Type of Explanation in the *English Africa* Series
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Table E16: Cumulative Frequencies of Language Sample Type by Setting and Topic in the *English Africa* Series
REFERENCES


242


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