

ELTT VOLUME 11, OCTOBER 2014

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING TODAY

Journal for Teachers of English and Communication Skills

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING TODAY

Journal for Teachers of English ELTT VOLUME 11,
and Communication Skills OCTOBER 2014

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING TODAY (ELTT)

**A Journal for Teachers of English
and Communication Skills**

Volume 11

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING TODAY (ELTT)

**A Journal for Teachers of English and
Communication Skills**

**Volume 11
October, 2014**

**Copyright 2014: National Association of Teachers and
Researchers of English as a Second Language
(NATRESL)**

All rights reserved

No part of this journal may be reproduced, stored or introduced into any retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means: electronics, photocopy, record, or otherwise, without the prior permission in writing from the copyright owner.

Request for permission should be directed to:

**NATRESL
National Secretariat
Department of Communication Studies
Federal University of Agriculture
Abeokuta, Ogun State, Nigeria**

October, 2014

ISSN: 1119-0426

Printed by
Palletspat Konzept
palletspat@gmail.com

EDITORIAL COLLECTIVE

Peter A. Aborisade

Federal University of Technology
Akure, Nigeria

Bola I. Akeredolu-Ale

Federal University of Agriculture
Abeokuta, Nigeria

Sam. Kolo Tswana

Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University,
Lapai, Niger State, Nigeria

SECTION EDITORS

TITI ADEBAYO

(Reviews)
Fed. University of
Technology, Akure
Nigeria

REMI ADURADOLA

(Tea-NET/Feedback)
Fed. Univ. of Agriculture
Abeokuta, Nigeria

ALPHOUSUS ADEBIYI

(Try-it-out)
Fed. Uni. of Agriculture
Abeokuta, Nigeria

VOLUME MANAGING EDITOR

'DEMOLA JOLAYEMI

Department of History and Languages
Elizade University,
Ilara-Mokin, Ondo State, Nigeria

NATIONAL PRESIDENT

Dr. Helen A. Bodunde

EDITORIAL ADVISORY PANEL

Andy Hopkins
St Bennets ,
U K .

Maggie Jo St John
Oxon Edgbaston ,Birmingham
U K .

Abiola Odejide
University of Ibadan ,
Ibadan ,Nigeria

Helen Bodunde
Federal University of Agriculture ,
Abeokuta ,Nigeria

Wole Osisanwo
Babcock University ,
Ilisan Remo ,Nigeria

Funmi Olubode Sawe
Federal University of Technology ,
Akure ,Nigeria

Bosede Sotiloye
Federal University of
Agriculture Abeokuta ,
Nigeria

Judith Mgbemena
Institute of Nigerian Languages ,
University of Nigeria Aba Campus ,
Nigeria

Bola Adelabu
Federal University of
Agriculture Makurdi ,
Nigeria

Jean Floyd
Westcliffe Plymouth ,U K .

GUIDE TO CONTRIBUTORS

Aims

ELTT is a bi annual journal devoted to the publication of articles ,research reports and reviews on English Language Teaching for those involved in the teaching of English as a second Language .It aims to :

- 1 .Provide a forum of exchange of ideas and experiences for teachers of English .
- 2 .Encourage teachers and researchers ,publishers and writers to work together to develop teaching procedure ,ideas and materials for the advancement of ELTT .
- 3 .Promote and support research in the areas of English for Academic Special Purposes .

Although ELTT welcomes contributions in all areas of English Language and Literature research ,greater emphasis will be given to papers with strong practical classroom experience and application .Such areas may cover Needs Analysis ,Course Design ,Methodology ,Testing ,Materials Development ,Programme Management ,Literary studies and criticism ,Teacher Training and Evaluation .

Manuscripts :

If you wish to make a submission to ELTT please note the following :

- 1 .Articles should not be more than 14 double spaced pages of A 4 paper ,references inclusive .
- 2 .Send 2 copies of the article .The article can be returned to you only if you enclose sufficient postage .
- 3 .Your article should be preceded by an abstract of not more than 200words .On the first page ,detachable from the manuscript ,please type the title of the paper ,your name and mailing address .
- 4 .Book reviews of relevant and recent publications are also welcome .
- 5 .The editors will assume that any article submitted to ELTT has neither been published nor is being considered for publication elsewhere .
- 6 .Publication fees will be stipulated in the letter of acceptance after review .
- 7 .Please direct your articles or questions to :the Editors ,ELTT ,i & Department of Communication & General Studies ,Federal University of Agriculture ,PMB 2240 ,Abeokuta ,Nigeria .Or email Bolanle Akeredolu Ale bolanlekassal@gmail com

SUBSCRIPTION INFORMATION

Rates:

Single Individuals ₦1500 £15 , \$22

Institutions ₦2000 £30 , \$45

Volume individuals ₦3000 £28 , \$42

Institutions ₦3000 £56 , \$84

Payment Payment may be made by the following :

Bank Draft

Cash

TABLE OF CONTENTS

A Multimodal Discourse Analysis of Panorama Wedding Pictures in the <i>Tell</i> Newsmagazine Kayode Samuel Ariyo	1
Multilingualism and its Effects on English Language Teaching and Large Classes Jegade Francis Olabisi & Araba Oluwanisola	15
Verbal Ability, Self-Efficacy and Attitude of Senior Secondary School Students as Correlates of Students' Achievement in English Language Joel Kehinde Babatope	25
Language Teaching in Multilingual Situations: Example of English/ French Bilingual Students Mary Effiong Nyong & Kemi Nojim Yekini	39
Effectiveness of Multimedia Technology for Teaching Spoken English in a Large Class: An Empirical Analysis G. A. Ogunleye, M. O. Ayoola & B. Oje	50
Usin Representation Teaching Strategy to Manage Large Classes in Science Bolanle Omotoke Olaleye & Joshua Oluwagbemiga Olaleye	61
Adopting a Learner - Friendly Approach to English Language Learners' Speech Challenge R. R. Aduradola, B. S, Sotiloye B. A. A., Adebiyi, H. A. Bodunde H. A. & B. I. Akeredolu Ale	74
Teaching Communicative Grammar in an ESL Classroom F. Ojetunde, F. S. Yede & B. S. Osipeju	89
Pedagogy of Group Work as an Effective Tool for Teaching Composition Writing in English Language in Large Classes Johnson Adewole Mafikuyomi, Anthony Vinuyon Williams & Ganiu Oladapo Raji	100
Between Antigone and Tegonni: Tragic Visions and Translations Wunmi Raji	112

Towards a Synthesist Approach to the Teaching and Learning of Summarisation Taiwo Oloruntoba-Oju	126
Teaching Vocational and Technical Education in Large Classes: The Value of Enabling Teaching Techniques and Technologies Dr. Kikelomo O. Adeniyi & Mofeoluwa O. Adeniyi	114
Teaching the four Language Skills in English Through Drama Activities and Techniques in Large ELT Classes S. O. Unoroh & S. A. Ogunnorin	156
The Important of English Language in the Nigerian Educational System Mariam Olanrewaju Ewulo	169
Print VS Screen-Based Reading: Effect on Reading Achievement of Selected Nigerian Undergraduates Titi Fola-Adebayo & Opeyemi Adebayo	178
Role of Technology in Teaching Listening Skill in Secondary Schools in Ikere Felicia Tomi Obadare	190
Using English to Effectively Teach English in Large Nigerian Classes, at Primary and Secondary School Levels Adebukunola A. Atolagbe	201

EDITORIAL

ELTT 11 is mainly the codification of interesting English Language learning and teaching discourse and theses that emanated from the 11th Annual Conference of the National Association of Teachers and Researchers of English as a Second Language (NATRESL) in October, 2014.

With this, we hope *ELTT* continues to serve a wide circle of policy makers, scholars and researchers as a suitable medium of expression of ideas and contribution to knowledge.

Again, as in the last volume, this volume has maintained the eclectic approach in style and spelling. This is to preserve the individual contributor's originality, and to join the emerging philosophy of eclectism in research reports and codification.

The 12th International Conference of the Association has been scheduled for October 6 - 9, 2015 at the Benson Idahosa University, Benin City, Nigeria with the theme: Innovations in English Language Teaching and Learning. We hope to see you there!

Editorial

A MULTIMODAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF PANORAMA WEDDING PICTURES IN THE *TELL* NEWSMAGAZINE

Kayode Samuel Ariyo

Department Of Languages
Rufus Giwa Polytechnic, Owo
mykayodeariyo@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

This study adopts a multimodal discourse analytical approach, to examine the visual components of pictures, analyse how sociocultural practices enable or constrain text production and consumption and describe the functional relationship between the verbal and non-verbal components of the images. Data were collected from twelve copies of the *Tell* newsmagazine, covering July to September, 2011. The result indicates that colours act as meaning signifiers and the verbal anchorages together with the various interpretations given them present the polysemic nature of signs. This study which concludes that producers of newsmagazines use pictures to disseminate information recommends that readers should explore the hidden meanings of visuals in newsmagazines.

Key words: wedding, colours, pictures, visuals, verbal anchorages and semiotic resources

Introduction

In our world today, we are daily exposed to visuals consciously or unconsciously almost everywhere and every time. The stark reality of our modern world is that pictures are now common features of our lives across different climes all over the globe. Indeed, the print media thrive on the resources provided by visuals, especially colourful pictures and infographics to tell their stories in very captivating ways. Newspapers and newsmagazines are important in the society as they present news, opinions, comments, entertainment, cartoons, pictures etc. In this connection, they tend to influence public attitudes, standards, morals and taste to a large extent. Consequently, the reading public across the whole world depends largely on the type of information that is presented by the media to the public. In this case Nigeria is no exception.

This paper focuses on the newsmagazine as a medium of sharing information with readers. In this wise, such magazines explicitly use a lot of colourful pictorial images to construct deep meanings that do last long in the minds of readers. Such images when used make the intended information sink deep. Our choice of the Panorama column of *Tell* newsmagazine is predicated on the attractive pictures published as well as their catchy verbal

anchorages.

Statement of the Research Problem

From observations, a major problem noticed among Nigerian readers is that they often do not correctly interpret colours and other semiotic devices in the pictures as intended by the author in relation to the themes. Another major problem is the inability to rightly decode the hidden meanings of pictures and visual texts. It is also observed that there seems to be lack of understanding of how verbal and visual components relate.

Research Questions

This study attempts to provide answers to the following questions:

- i. What socio-cultural practices enable or constrain text production and comprehension
- ii What visual components are employed in the selected Panorama pictures
- iii What are the semiotic resources employed in the visual components
- iv. What functional relationship exists between the verbal and visual components of the selected data

Literature Review

Smiciklas (2012), stressing the importance of visuals states, 'You've probably heard the phrase "A picture is worth a thousand words," a manifesto that speaks to the value and efficiency of visual communication.' Pictures are published in traditional media such as newspapers and magazines and across digital channels, where social media have helped fuelled an explosion in their popularity.

Parkinson (2013) in agreement with the above submission believes that what we see has a profound effect on what we do, how we feel, and who we are. He further states that that Albert Mehrabian, a psychologist demonstrated that 93% of communication is nonverbal. Parkinson (2013, para 3) further underscores the importance of visuals over words as he quotes John Berger (1972) who submits that, "Seeing comes before words. The child looks and recognizes before it can speak." Parkinson (2013) concludes that studies show that the old saying "seeing is believing" is mostly true.

Photojournalism

Masoner (2013) and Hancock (2013) see photojournalism simply as a way of capturing verbs by recording action photos, showing the world a story of something that really happened. **Photojournalism** is a branch of journalism that deals with the collection, editing, and presentation of news material for publication or broadcast which creates visuals to tell a news story. Ojomo (2008, p. 17) claims that photojournalism is telling a story with

photographs. It is reporting with the aid of pictures.

Tell Newsmagazine

Tell newsmagazine, one of Nigeria's leading newsmagazines, changed the face of investigative journalism in Nigeria when it arrived the newsstands on April 8, 1991. Its founding editors at inception set some cardinal principles for themselves, key amongst which was that they would tell their stories exactly as it was, and ensure balanced reporting by giving opportunity to all those involved to also state their side of any story. More importantly, they pledged to uphold the rights of the citizen and uphold the rule of law by crusading for equity, justice and fairness. Its editors found themselves in the trenches, fighting the military dictatorship of General Ibrahim Babangida and later another despot, General Sani Abacha (Tell, 2013). Since inception, Tell newsmagazine and its staff have won several awards in Nigeria and across the globe. See Sawyerr (2011).

Multimodal Discourse Analytic Framework

According to Snyder (2013), multimodal discourse analysis (MDA) is an emerging area of discourse studies which has been introduced to contribute to a discourse-oriented study of the creation of visual information. In other words, MDA seeks to extend the study of language to the study of language together with other resources, such as images, scientific symbolism, gesture, action, music and sound. Semiotic resource refers to the resources (or modes) (e.g. language, image, music, gesture and architecture) which integrate across sensory modalities (e.g. visual, auditory, tactile, olfactory, gustatory, kinesthetic) in multimodal texts, discourses and events, collectively called multimodal phenomena (O'Halloran, 2011). Kress and van Leeuwen (2001) and Bateman (2008) generally refer to 'mode' as a distinct semiotic system for expressing meaning using specific conventions.

As Iedema (2012, p 32) notes the approaches of Kress and van Leeuwen (1996; 2006) and O'Toole (1994; 2010) serve as the foundations for multimodal studies, relying on Halliday's (1978; 1985) social semiotic approach to language. While Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) explore images and visual design, he submits that O'Toole (2010) applies Halliday's systemic functional model to a semiotic analysis of displayed art, paintings, sculpture and architecture. Social semiotics is not about the analysis of static sign systems or text structures, but of socially situated sign processes (Iedema, 2012; Thibault, 1991; Lemke, 1988). Iedema provides a critical review of the work of Kress and Van Leeuwen (1990, 1996; Van Leeuwen, 1999) where the discourse analytical term 'multimodality' originates. It is to this development that we shall rely on our analysis.

The term multimodality was introduced to showcase the relevance of taking into cognizance semiotics other than language-in-use, e.g. image, music, gesture, and so on. According to Iedema (2012, p. 33):

The increased ubiquity of sound, image, film, through TV, the computer and the internet is undoubtedly behind this new emphasis on and interest in the multi-semiotic complexity of the representations we produce and see around us. Moreover, this development is accompanied and rendered more complex by yet another. Apart from our increased reliance on meaning making other than 'language-in-isolation' (as in the mass-produced book), we are faced with sound and image taking over tasks associated with the role of language since the invention of the printing press, and thus to some extent displacing language.

Iedema explains that the term 'multimodality' highlights that the meaning work that is done at all times uses various semiotics. While speaking, for instance, speakers mobilize language as sounded speech, and they further 'mean' via the means of gestures, posture, facial expression, and other embodied resources such as physical distance, stance, movement or stasis. Considering the various aspects of meaning making, the term multimodality aims to explain, for example, how gesture and talk co-occur.

However, the theoretical framework of multimodal discourse analysis is not an independent nor a self-sufficient theory. O'Halloran (2011, p. 2) opines that there are apparent challenges facing multimodal discourse analysis. Our intervention, in this connection, is to apply Scollon and Scollon (2003, p. 160). They emphasise the use of ethnographic principles to study both visual and verbal texts. Consequently, this work would analyse visual texts/images according to their histories, and surroundings while semiotic resources (including language, colours, pictures, gestures, distance, etc.) play important roles. We hope that by attempting to explore certain Nigerian cultural variations in multimodal meaning making practices, the contributions of this study to the field will increase substantially.

Research Methodology

The data in this study were drawn from wedding pictures published in the Panorama column of *Tell* newsmagazine. In this present work, we concerned ourselves with Panorama pictures treating wedding issues. Our choice of Panorama pictures was premised on the varied subjects they treat and their verbal anchorages. Data were collected from twelve copies of the *Tell* newsmagazine, covering July to September, 2011. Being an ipso facto research type, five pictures in all were selected by simple random sampling technique. The five pictures were considered to adequately serve to be a good representation of the published wedding pictures and would allow for the validity and reliability of our findings. The research instruments for this work were mainly pictures and their accompanying verbal anchorages which were published in the Panorama column in the selected editions of *Tell* newsmagazine of 2011. We adopted the three dimensions of analysis as

presented in Kress and van Leeuwen's multimodal discourse analysis (MDA): genre, style and discourse.

Data Presentation and Analysis

The data presentation and analysis of this research follow the order of its research questions.

RQ. 1: “What socio-cultural practices enable and constrain text production and consumption of the wedding panorama pictures in the *Tell* newsmagazinell ”

From the data collected in this study, the identified socio-cultural realities that enable and constrain text production and consumption of Panorama pictures are issues that manifest at the national or international levels in Nigeria in respect of wedding ceremonies. The following sociocultural practices and backgrounds enable and constrain text production and consumption of Panorama pictures in the *Tell* newsmagazine in line with the selected wedding pictures.

Marriage which is generally regarded as a union between a man and a woman is believed to be a life-long covenant or contract which divorce or death is expected to dissolve. **Marriage** (also called **matrimony** or **wedlock**) is a social union or legal contract between two people that establishes rights and obligations between them, their children, and their in-laws. In many cultures, marriage is formalized via a wedding ceremony and it is recognized by a state, an , a religious authority, a tribal group, a local community or peers.

Wedding traditions and customs vary greatly across cultures, ethnic groups, religions, countries, and social classes. Special wedding garments are often worn, and the ceremony is sometimes followed by a wedding reception. Music, poetry, prayers or readings from religious texts or literature are also commonly incorporated into the ceremony.

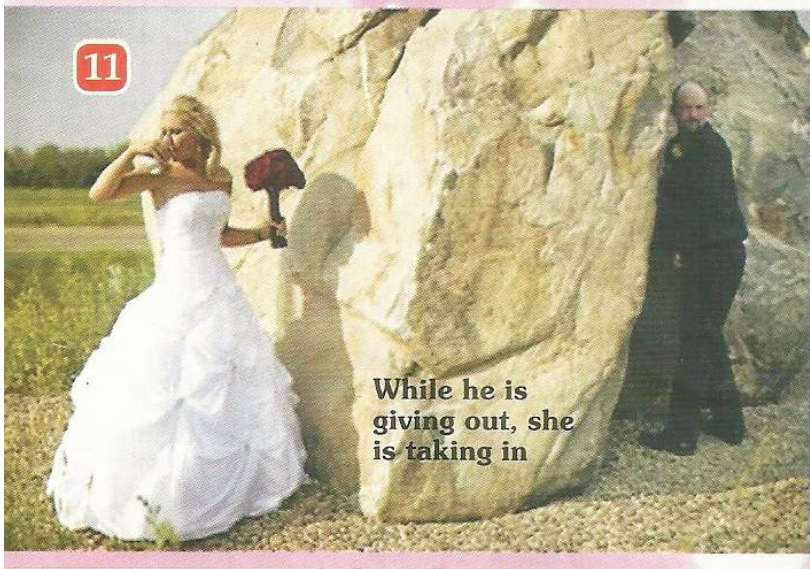
A number of cultures have adopted the traditional Western custom of the white wedding, in which a bride wears a white wedding dress and veil which emphasizes sexual purity. The wedding is often followed by or wedding breakfast, in which the rituals may include speeches from the groom, best man, father of the bride and possibly the bride, the newlyweds first dance as spouses, and the cutting of a wedding cake follows.

RQ 2: “What visual components are employed in the selected Panorama picturesl ”

The following Panorama pictures selected from the data collected reflect wedding ceremonies across different climes and cultures:

Wedding Visual Components (WVC) - Texts 1-5

There are five (5) wedding pictures presented for analysis. For ease of reference they are numbered WVC - Texts 1 to 5.

WVC -Text 1 (*Tell*, August 15, 2011, p. 13)

The image contains two represented participants, a big rock, green vegetation behind the rock, while the ground on which they stand composes of granites. The two personalities are seen as a man and woman. The woman is dressed in a white apparel, a wedding gown, holding a flower in her left hand, while sipping the content of a cup. The man in the image who is dressed in black suit, appears to be the groom and he is urinating.

They appear to be a newly married couple. Obviously, it is in the afternoon because a reflection/shadow is cast on the rock. The lady closes her eyes while drinking, suggesting she is thirsty. The man is apparently uncomfortable, as if someone is watching him. He directs his gaze backwards at an audience not represented in the picture. The rock appears to block their views from each other. The implication here is that it is possible they are not aware of each other's actions at that point in time.

Three colours are predominant in the picture. They are: white, black and green. The white colour in Nigeria stands for peace, holiness, purity and innocence while black symbolises strength, power, sexuality and sophistication. The green vegetation in the background suggests agriculture, fertility and plenty. The rock symbolises refuge, protection or support. Flowers in the picture stand for beauty, joy and sweetness inherent in matrimony.

WVC -Text 2 (Tell, August 15, 2011, p. 13)

This image reveals two persons, a male and a female, who are apparently going to knot the nuptial tie. Ordinarily, in Nigeria, they are expected to ride in a car to the venue of the wedding, but contrary to popular opinion and common sense, they have opted for a truck ride. This may mean that they are either disappointed or their car has broken down. There seems to be no other one available for their use and in order to beat time they eventually opt to ride in a truck.

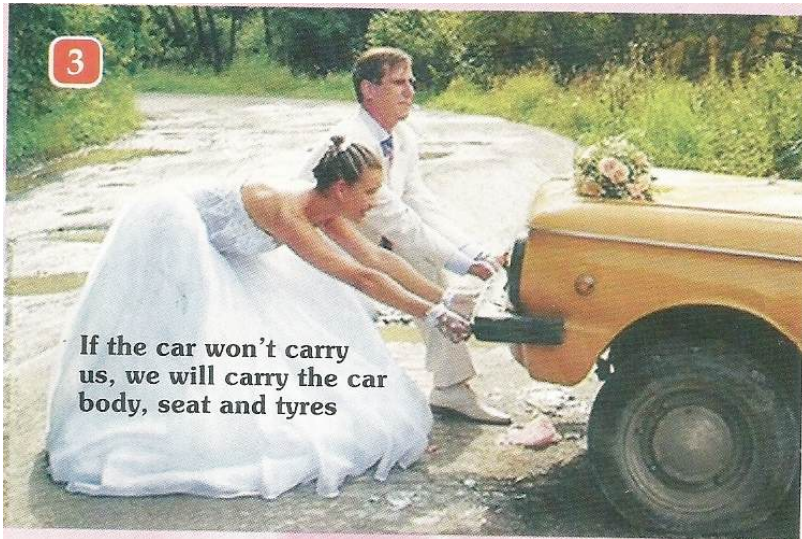
It may also mean they want to appear to be different. In Nigeria and elsewhere in the world, trucks are used to convey bulky goods and for general haulage. Hence, it would be quite unimaginable, if a truck of this dimension is used to transport would-be couple to the wedding venue as it is in this image.

In this picture, it is observed that the first person to board the vehicle is the woman and it is quite likely that the man has helped her to board the truck. The man tries to board the truck while the lady gazes at him affectionately to ensure her potential husband successfully joins her on board. She appears to love the man dearly by her looks and the way she sits. The man appears to be very caring as he has helped the lady to board the vehicle. It agrees with the biblical injunctions in the book of Ephesians 5: 25 which

admonishes husbands to love their wives and the book of Genesis 3:16 which states emphatically that the woman's desire shall be to her husband.

Two colours are predominant in the picture. They are: white and black. Indeed, white in this country stands for peace, holiness, purity and innocence while black symbolises strength, power, sexuality and sophistication.

WVC -Text 3 (Tell, August 15, 2011, p. 12)



There are two major represented participants in this picture. Their dressing and sense of haste suggest that they are about to be married. The lady wears a white flowing wedding gown, just as the man wears a white suit, trousers and shoes. The presence of the flowers on the bonnet of the car further suggests they are in a haste to get to their wedding venue and their vehicle has broken down. They are apparently in a difficult circumstance as they push their wedding cab. They direct their gazes at the vehicle as they push it. This incidence takes place in a lonely road where there are no people to come to their rescue. Therefore, they have resorted to do anything possible to get moving.

WVC - Text 4 (*Tell*, July 27, 2011, p.13)



The nucleus of the picture are a man dressed in navy blue suit and a lady dressed in a wedding gown, apparently her wedding day. They are the major represented participants. The man in this picture is identified as Comrade Adams Oshiomhole, the current Governor of Edo State, Nigeria. He was formerly the president of the Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC), the umbrella trade union for Nigerian workers for many years. After his tenure as president, Comrade Oshiomhole, contested and won the governorship seat of Edo State in 2007. As governor, he is fond of wearing his trade union dress of khaki jacket and trousers. This dress has become his trade mark. However, in this picture, Oshiomhole is dressed in a suit for the very first time since he became governor, perhaps to honour his daughter on her wedding day.

The lady, Oshiomhole's daughter, holds her father's arm proudly, beams with smiles, showing her state of happiness as a bride. She carries her flowers with the other hand. This picture captures the father and daughter arriving the wedding venue before the father gives his daughter away in marriage as christian marriage custom demands. Their happy looks denote happiness.

There are two predominant colours in the picture: blue stands for love, harmony, unity, and trust while white signifies peace, holiness, purity and innocence. Flowers here symbolise beauty, joy and sweetness inherent in matrimony.

WVC -Text 5 (*Tell*, September 19, 2011, p. 13)

There are four personalities in this picture. They are all backing the camera, except one who seems to be looking back. In this picture two men and two ladies walking along the same direction are seen. A closer look reveals one of the women dressed in a wedding gown beside a man who is dressed in a black suit. It seems they have just been wedded. The others wear casual dresses. The four of them seem to be entering a park probably for the wedding reception.

Meanwhile, there is a shameful display of unfaithfulness on the part of the man who is seen holding the buttock of the lady who walks along with them by his right hand side. The other two represented participants (the bride and the other man in a casual dress) are completely unaware of this incidence. This is a betrayal of whatever trust his wife may have reposed in him as this misdeed is committed on their wedding day. The revelation in this picture may force anybody to believe that this man may not be committed to the marriage at all as his action here portends a serious danger to the union, thereby sounding a death knell to the marriage. For the groom to muster courage to hold the buttock of this lady on his wedding day and the fact that the lady is comfortable with the development shows that an illicit affair exists between the two of them and unfortunately the wife is not aware of this.

There are three predominant colours in the picture. White in this environment stands for peace, holiness, purity and innocence while black

symbolises strength, power, sexuality and sophistication. The green vegetation in the background is highly symbolic. It may stand for fertility, plenty and abundance. Flowers here stand for beauty, joy and sweetness inherent in matrimony. The “wayward fingers” and the ladies' buttocks are highly symbolic.

RQ 3: “What are the semiotic resources employed in the visual component?”

The following are the semiotic resources employed in the visual component of the data from this study. The black, green, purple, white and blue colours are features of semiotic resources employed. Also, dresses: wedding gowns, black, white and navy blue suits and ties, gloves, flowers, rock, buildings, woods/parks, vehicles (car, truck) are used as semiotic resources to treat the various themes. Other semiotic resources are: a cup and bottle, seats, green vegetation, “wayward fingers” and buttocks.

These are the various semiotic resources the producers of the newsmagazine used in the process of projecting their intended meanings to the readers. Colours as meaning signifiers and background of pictures are used as features of semiotic resources. The most dominant semiotic resources used in the pictures are colours.

RQ 4: “Is there any functional relationship between the verbal and visual components of the selected data?”

It is quite interesting to note that the verbal anchorages accompanying the pictures completely agree with the visual components. To this end, there is basically a functional relationship between the visual and verbal components of the analysed data. The details are as presented below:

WVC-Text 1: “While he is giving out, she is taking in”

This verbal anchorage reveals the event in the picture rather vividly. This verbal anchorage “While he is giving out, she is taking in” may connote the conjugal experience that is expected to take place in the marriage. In essence, the man gives out during that experience while the woman receives. This anchorage in this sense functions as a metaphor. There is a complete agreement between the verbal anchorage and the picture.

WVC-Text 2: “There's no giving up. Here's a truck to the rescue...”

This verbal anchorage relates the message of this picture. There is sheer determination in the intended couple to get to the wedding destination in spite of the disappointment they have witnessed in respect of transportation as suggested in the anchorage. It further reveals that a solution, no matter how odd is found to their problem. Therefore, the verbal anchorage agrees with the picture.

WVC- Text 3: “If the car won't carry us, we will carry the car, body, seat and tyre.”

This verbal anchorage reveals the event in this picture. It hammers on the strong determination of the intended couple. It appears to be a parody of the Biblical tripatite concepts of body, spirit and soul. The lesson from this anchorage is that if determination emanates from the body, spirit and soul, hardly do we have any task that will not be achieved. This anchorage presents this couple with such determination. There is a functional relationship between the anchorage and the image.

WVC- Text 4: “Even the leader of the proletariat has no choice, at least not on his daughter's wedding day”

The verbal anchorage here gives meaning to the picture. It portrays the character of Oshiomhole as the “leader of the proletariat.” It further reveals that there is a total compliance with the dressing norm of a wedding ceremony which ordinarily is contradictory to his non-conformist nature. The verbal anchorage further reiterates that he has done this to honour his daughter on her wedding day. Therefore, there is a relationship between the picture and its verbal anchorage.

WVC- Text 5: “A wayward groom and his wayward fingers”

This verbal anchorage reveals to the readers that the action of the bride groom is intentional and conscious. It reveals the bride groom as a wayward man, acting in this untoward and obnoxious manner on his wedding day right beside his wife. The repetition of “wayward” in the anchorage is for emphasis. Therefore, the verbal anchorage agrees with the picture.

Summary of the Findings and Conclusions

From the presentation and analysis of data as shown above, the following is a general summary of the findings and conclusions of this study as they correlate with the research questions:

- (i) The sociocultural practices such as wedding ceremonies, marriages and related issues as identified and analysed greatly enable both text production and processing of Panorama pictures.
- (ii) The study concludes that the represented participants and their backgrounds in the pictures foreground many significant messages that are not obviously stated in the visual texts.
- (iii) This study concludes that **colours, dresses, etc in** the pictures are features of semiotic resources adequately used as meaning signifiers and when interpreted together with the verbal anchorages show the polysemic nature of signs.
- (iv) The use of the devices of humour, metaphor, parody as well as allusion helps the author(s) to achieve a functional relationship between the visual component and its verbal anchorage even when both do not seem

to apparently agree at the surface level.

Recommendations

The following are the recommendations of this study:

- i) In view of the fact that the pictures treat quite important issues relating to weddings and marriage, they are presented without detailed write-ups on the theme of the visuals which may hamper the understanding of the intended meanings, the study recommends that more detailed write-ups on each visual should be done.
- ii) Producers of news magazines in Nigeria should fully exploit pictorial images as potential tools in their process of information dissemination to the Nigerian reading public.
- iii) Readers should always explore the hidden meanings of the visuals in news magazines.

References

- Bateman, J. A. (2008). *Multimodality and genre: A foundation for the systematic analysis of multimodal documents*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hancock, M. M. (2013). **What is a photojournalist**, retrieved on 6 September 2013 from: <http://markhancock.blogspot.com/1996/01/what-is-photojournalist.html>.
- Iedema, Rick (2012). *Multimodality, resemiotization: extending the analysis of discourse as multi-semiotic practice*. *Visual Communication* 2(1). retrieved on 6 September 2013 from: <http://www.umass.edu/accelellc/794d/pdf/social%20semiotic%20Iedema%202007.pdf>
- Kress, G. and Leeuwen, T.V. (2001). *Multimodal discourse: The modes and media of contemporary communication*. Arnold.
- Masoner, Liz (2013). **Photojournalism - An introduction to photojournalism**. retrieved on 6 September 2013 from: <http://photography.about.com/od/photographybyoccasion/a/Photojournalism-An-Introduction-To-Photojournalism.htm>.
- Ojomo, O. W. (2008). *Introductory photography and photo journalism*. Lagos: Coronate Books.
- O'Halloran, K. L. (2011). *Multimodal discourse analysis*. In K. Hyland and B. Paltridge (eds) *Companion to discourse*. London and New York: Continuum. retrieved on 6 September 2013 from: http://multimodal-analysis-lab.org/_docs/pubs14-OHalloran%28in%20press%202011%29-Multimodal_Discourse_Analysis.pdf

- Parkinson, Mike (2013). The power of visual communication. retrieved on 6 September 2013 from: <http://www.billiondollargraphics.com/infographics.html>.
- Sawyerr, Stella (2011). *Twenty years of TELLing it as it is*. retrieved February 11, 2012 from: http://www.telling.com/index.php?option=com_k2&view=item&id=135:twenty-years-of-telling-it-as-it-is Tell Magazine.
- Scollon, R & Scollon, S. W. (2003). *Discourse in place. Language in the material world*. London: Routledge.
- Smiciklas, Mark (2012). Infographics 101: Using pictures to communicate and connect with your audiences. retrieved on 6 September 2013 from: <http://www.quepublishing.com/articles/article.aspx?p=1916418>
- Snyder, Jaime (2013). Applying multimodal discourse analysis to study image-enabled communication. retrieved on 6 September 2013 from: https://www.ideals.illinois.edu/bitstream/handle/2142/15027/iConf10_MMD_010610_FINAL.pdf

MULTILINGUALISM AND ITS EFFECTS ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LARGE CLASSES

Jegede Francis Olabisi

English Department, School of languages,
Adeniran Ogusanya College of Education.
bisikemijegede@yahoo.com

and

Araba Oluwanisola

Department of Communication and Language Studies
University of Ibadan.
oluwanisolaaraba@yahoo.com

Abstract

The Nigerian society is inflicted with a double dose of multilingualism with over 400 indigenous languages and English as the official language. While the multilingual nature of Nigeria is to be admired, one cannot help but notice the positive and negative effects of multilingualism on the teaching of English language in Nigerian classrooms. There is no doubt that multilingualism is an important factor in communication, social and cultural integration, identity and development. However, this paper sets to examine the effects of multilingualism on large English language teaching (ELT), the challenges of the English language teachers in the Nigerian society and the efforts of the government in promoting English proficiency in schools and the attitude of the students towards learning English language. This paper observed that despite the numerous positive effects of multilingualism towards the growth of Nigeria and the unification of the diverse Nigerian ethnic groups, multilingualism hampers English language teaching in large ELT classes. The agents of English language exposure are not as effective as they should be and the ineffectiveness of these agents of multilingualism on large ELT classes has led to poor language proficiency among multilingual learners. Hence, this paper offers probable solutions to this problem, suggesting that the curriculum of the Senior Secondary Schools should be revised to improve English language teaching and learning, as well as the implementation of other highlighted techniques to aid in improving English language proficiency in multilingual ELT classes.

Keywords: Multilingualism, Bilingualism, Nigerian society, English language, ELT Classes

Introduction

According to Poudel (2010), the world is a state house of languages and linguistic diversity reflects the existence of the multitude of languages spoken in the world which is variously estimated. This is the case for Nigeria,

as Nigeria is highly cultural with different numerous cultures. Since culture and language are inseparable, it cannot be denied that Nigeria is a multilingual society. It can confidently be stated that no community, as well as members of a community, is limited to just one language. Olagbaju (2009) asserts that Nigeria is a perfect example of a multilingual nation with the resultant effect of the majority of her citizens having access to a minimum of two languages. The multilingual nature of Nigeria led to the establishment of English language as the official language. Despite the presence of multilingualism in Nigeria, Nigeria does not have a national language. This is because the government has tried to avoid conflict that may be generated from the choice of what language should be as the national language. Apart from English being the official language, it is the language of technology, media, literature, international communication, politics and commerce. English language is the major tool that has harmonized different countries and aided intra-national mutual and international understanding. English language essentially binds the world together. The use of English around the globe has over emphasized its importance. In Nigeria, English is also the language of instruction. With this in mind, the linguistic diversity present in a Nigerian classroom must be examined as well as the exertion of the teacher to instruct on a neutral and evenhanded cultural and linguistic terrain.

Language, according to the Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary (2000) is the system of communication in speech and writing that is used by people of a particular county, to enable them interact easily with one another, because they share similar opinions and experiences. However, in the Nigerian classroom, this definition is not totally valid. This is because while language is used as a medium of communication by people from different parts of the country, they do not share similar opinions and experiences. The beauty of multiculturalism is in the differences of opinions and worldviews. These differences are drilled into children from early childhood, and these differences are expressed in opinions and languages. Tiffen (1974) asserts that the fact that English is needed for communication at both national and international levels has important implications for teaching. English language as the neutral and binding language in Nigeria classrooms has not been 100% effective. Although Mallam A.Y. Bello moved the first motion in 1961 on the issue of multilingualism in schools, this motion has not been helpful. It encouraged the Federal Government to introduce the teaching of Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo and other minority languages into schools, so that one of them can be adopted in the long run as the national language. This was a slight blunder that has not helped the educational system in a way. It has been almost 54 years since this motion was moved and Nigeria still does not have a national language. The Nigerian child already has enough exposure to different Nigerian languages outside the classroom. It is almost impossible for a child to be fluent and proficient in English language, while also trying to learn a local language that might even not be his. It is either the student excels

in English language and fails in the learning of the local language, or the child excels in learning the local language and fails in understanding the various conventions of the English language. In most cases, English language learning suffers. This is because the structural patterns of Nigerian languages are easier to master and these patterns are unconsciously transferred to English language, causing grammatical errors.

Multilingualism in Nigerian Classrooms

Malamah-Thomas (1987) explains that learning a language is an individual achievement, an exploitation of the capacities of the mind to make sense of the environment. Olagbaju (2014) asserts that when a nation has access to more than a language in her national day to day experiences, then the reality of a language contact situation cannot be ruled out. Due to multilingualism, language contact is an unavoidable phenomenon in the Nigerian classroom. According to Mercer & Mercer (1985), language is directly related to achievement and adjustment of students in schools. Multilingualism thus becomes a sociolinguistic phenomenon that deals with the symbiotic relationship between language and the society. Some Linguists consider monolingualism an oddity. If monolingualism is a misfit, then multilingualism has been seen as a normal phenomenon that is common in almost every society. Having bilingual/multilingual students in a classroom greatly increases the variety of the English language spoken in classroom discussions. The English language teacher in a large ELT classroom is likely to hear the Yoruba variation of English language, the Igbo variation of English language, the Hausa variation of English language, the Igala variation of English language, the Calabar variation of English language, among others. In teaching English language in a multilingual classroom certain questions are raised. These include:

- (i) Are English language teachers conscious of the multilingual nature of their classrooms?
- (ii) What are the challenges of English language teachers in a multilingual classroom?
- (iii) What are the linguistic effects of multilingualism on English language teaching and learning?
- (iv) What are the steps that can help to promote English language fluency in a multilingual classroom?

Being multilingual as an individual is usually admired and encouraged. Multilingualism enriches the brain and makes inter-cultural communication easy and interesting. Research has shown that bilinguals and multilinguals are smarter than monolinguals because multilingualism improves the brain's managerial function. According to scientists in recent years, multilingualism can have a profound effect on the brain, improving cognitive skills not related to language and even shielding against dementia in old age. Some researchers also believe that the advantages the multilinguals exhibit over

monolinguals are not restricted to linguistic knowledge alone, but extend outside the area of language. A multilingual also has the added advantage of developing a greater vocabulary size over time.

Effective communication depends on one's ability to express oneself in speech clearly, accurately and fluently. In Nigerian classrooms, effective communication in English language is overshadowed by the influence of local languages. Thus, in a large ELT class, communication ends up being unclear and erroneous. Moreover, in Nigeria, parents are advised to teach their children their mother tongues at early age; this is to keep our cultures alive and to avoid the extinction of our languages. Children also acquire the language of their immediate societies if it differs from their mother tongues. While multilingualism enriches and unifies the Nigerian society, it limits the Nigerian student from properly adopting the National or official language. To some individuals, this might not seem like a problem since we are Nigerians and English language is after all not our mother tongue. Nevertheless, as earlier stated, the role of English language in the world cannot be over accentuated. English language is the language of globalization and if we plan on transcending Nigeria from its developing state, to becoming a developed nation, then the importance of English language fluency amongst children must continuously be stressing. Emphasizing the use of English in schools, (NPE, 2004) states that English language plays vital roles in the lives of students. English language aids in personality and intellectual development, formation of positive attitudes to education, effective exploration of the environment and a healthy socialization process. However, the presence of different languages in schools with pidgin and Creole has led to lack of fulfillment of the benefits listed above.

Effects of Multilingualism on Large ELT Classes

Multilingualism has an effect on language contact. As earlier stated, an average Nigerian child is either a bilingual or a multilingual. Bilingualism and multilingualism reflects mastery in two languages or more respectively. Researchers and linguists have not been able to decide what the level of mastery is. In schools, multilingualism is seen both on play grounds and in the classrooms. Multilingualism in the classrooms and its effects on teaching and learning of English language in large ELT classes are issues that cannot be disregarded. On the effects of multilingualism on students in English language classes, Poudel (2010) affirms that students experience communication related problems, interaction related problems, comprehension related problems, structural organization related problems and content delivery related problems.

Olagbaju (2014) carried out an analysis of students' attitude to multilingual instructions. In this analysis, he deduced that 75% of students prefer the use of English language to a Nigerian language in class and all

students feel that making use of a Nigerian language in a formal setting makes one local. This is because an average Nigerian student is eager to be proficient in English language not just to excel in academics, but to socially fit into a society that is vastly being taken over by the influence of globalization and the use of English language. However, Olagbaju, in the same analysis, realized that 83% of students show more enthusiasm to learn when he switches to an indigenous language during lessons and 85% of students have better understanding of a topic when he explains in an indigenous/Nigerian language. Despite the enthusiasm of Nigerian students to learn English, it is alarming that 60% of them find it easier to communicate in local languages, pidgin and broken English. Some go to the extent of implementing code-switching and code-mixing. The linguistic effects of multilingualism are unconsciously but automatically transferred when it is time for class discussions during English language lessons. The teacher ends up spending valuable time to correcting grammatical and phonological errors instead of covering the English language syllabus.

Bhattacharjee (2012) states that in a bilingual's brain, both language systems are active even when he is using only one language, thus creating a situation through which one system interferes with the other. This interference in a multilingual classroom is what affects English language learning among Nigerian students. The linguistic diversity that bilingual/multilingual students bring to a classroom can complicate the way a teacher might choose to approach writing instruction, particularly when the focus of the lesson is on grammar.

In teaching a large multilingual ELT class, the English language teacher constantly battles with the error of translation equivalent. Bamiro(1991) first introduced this term while analyzing the lexico-semantic features of Nigerian English. He explains translation equivalent as the translation of the mother tongue into English in certain context or situation. Translation equivalent is usually evident in student's oral and written English.

As a corp- member, I served as an English language teacher in a Government School in Kogi State. During a speech, a student tried to narrate how he spent his weekend. In his narration, there was a constant repetition of the sentence pattern;

“He come and enter the sitting room to watch the programme.”

“After lesson, I come and go to the house”

This is a translation equivalent of the pattern of speech “*o wawole*” and “*mowa lo siile*” from the Yoruba language. The use of *house* instead of *home* can be attributed to the lack of difference between the concept of *house* and *home* in Yoruba language. The same student in the same narrative, also said “*my brother is feeling hungry*” instead of my “*brother was hungry*”. I began to wonder how he came up with this sentence structure, then I realized that Joseph's mother tongue is Yoruba but he lives in Lokoja. He picked up

not just the sentence structure of his mother tongue from his parents, but the sentence structure of Hausa from his environment. “*My brother is feeling hungry*” is a translation equivalent of “*yanajinuwan*”. The use of *is* instead of *was* also shows the lack of tense variation in Hausa language. The English language teacher, having received adequate training and practice in differentiating the structural patterns of English language from indigenous languages, should patiently walk bilingual/multilingual students through this process no matter how frustrating it may seem.

Apart from the English language teacher having to deal with translation equivalent, there is also the problem of phonological errors and wrong stress placement. This is usually evident in spoken English. Transfer occurs in two ways: when the languages in contact are related, positive transfer occurs. However, when the languages in contact are totally different, then negative transfer occurs and this is linguistically known as interference. Language interference can happen at any level among Nigerian learners of English as a second language. Interference at the phonological level is another serious effect of multilingualism on large ELT classes. According to Bamgbose (1971) the greatest influence on pronunciation of English language by Nigerians is the sound systems of the vernacular languages. Most of the phonetic characteristics in the English language of Nigerians expressions can be traced to the transfer of features from their first language. Therefore, dealing with pronunciation difficulties and differences in a large multilingual ELT class is especially difficult. According to Tsojun and Aji (2014), pronunciation is a vital aspect of language learning as poor pronunciation distorts or mars the communication process.

As second language speakers and learners of English, the influence of Nigerian languages cannot be eradicated. Pronunciation difference from the standard variety of English language is one of the reasons that make the Nigerian variety of English language unique. CNN 2014 poll on Facebook of English language accents reveals Nigerian English accent to be the 10th most exotic accent of the English language, this occurs when English words are being pronounced fluently by Nigerians. However, in English language teaching/learning in multilingual classes the diversity in language and culture causes the English language teacher to deal with several varieties of the Nigerian variety of English. The need for teaching fluency in a Nigerian multilingual classroom is important because it is our national language and it is practically the lingua franca of the world. While it is almost impossible to achieve the level of fluency in pronunciation that the native speaker of English innately enjoys, the aim of an English teacher in a multilingual classroom is to achieve an “educated form” of the Nigerian English language for every language diversified student.

Linguists have dealt extensively with the errors in stress placement while dealing with the features of the Nigerian English. Just as translation equivalent and phonological errors differ among students from different

linguistic backgrounds, errors in stress placement also differ. Students in general find it difficult to place stress on the right syllables. For words with different parts of speech, stress placements on syllables distinguish the parts of speech the words belong to. Yoruba language is highly tonal; this feature is transferred to English language usage by most Yoruba learners of the English language. Yoruba students of English language tend to stress erratically both content and form words. On the other hand, Hausa students of English language tend to leave stress words unstressed.

The variation in stress error is another effect of multilingualism in large ELT classes. While teaching stress, the English language teacher must put this variation in mind and explain extensively the difference between content and form words in order to make sentence stressing easy to perform. In large multilingual ELT classes, teachers have to deal with varying errors in stress placements. While sentence stress can easily be addressed, word stress can be a little tricky for multilingual students to understand. This is because there is no standard stress placement rule that governs all the words in English language. Multilingual students in general have a problem with placing stress on words like Madam, AUNty and BACKground among many others. Some Igbo students also struggle with placing stress on the right syllable of words like JAcet, PEOPle, JEALous, resemble, among others. Since stress placement errors are easily identifiable when a learner speaks rather than writes, the English language teacher in a large multilingual classroom has to be extra attentive in order to identify and address these errors. As a topic in class, stress might not seem broad; however it should not be rushed through. Stress should be expansively treated to cover the errors of English language usage by students in a large language diversified classroom.

Improving English Language Proficiency in Large Multilingual ELT Classes

Despite the richness and cultural bequest embedded in multilingualism, the effects of multilingualism on teaching large ELT classes cannot be ignored. It is undisputable that multilingualism cannot be eradicated in Nigerian schools, but there are steps that can be taken to improve English language proficiency in schools. Firstly, traditional method of teaching English language in schools must be significantly discouraged. Traditional method of teaching describes a situation, where the teacher does all the talking. This is a method that is used by most teachers in the secondary level of education in Nigeria. This method does not give room for teacher/student interaction, causing the teacher to miss the effects of multilingualism amongst the students.

The humanistic techniques of teaching should be adopted instead in teaching English language in multilingual classrooms. These techniques stress the affective factor of the classroom situation. They focus not on the

objective of teaching, but on the process of achieving the objective. The

English language teacher in a large multilingual classroom therefore should not only focus on the objectives of teaching English language to Nigerian students, but should pay a close attention to the processes of achieving the objectives. Suggestopedia technique is one of the humanistic techniques. The idea behind this technique is to make the learner totally relaxed, open and interested to what he/she is learning. Negative feelings and resentments must be avoided before learning can take place. The adoption of this technique will make teaching of the English language not only easier for the teacher in a large multilingual classroom, but will also help the students become passionate about the language. This technique will yield positive results in the promotion of English language proficiency and/or fluency among multilingual students.

English teachers in large multilingual classrooms must have good knowledge and understanding of the students in their complete entity as well as their needs and interests. The students, due to different cultural background, do not share the same challenges in learning and speaking English language. While the difference between the sounds /f/ and /v/ might be a problem to a student with Yoruba language as the mother tongue, while the difference between /f/ and /p/ might be the problem of a student with Hausa as the mother tongue. The teacher has a lot of work to do in correcting every grammatical and phonological error and this cannot be done if the errors cannot be identified when the traditional method of teaching is employed. Let the students participate in doing the work. Let them be allowed to have class discussions which will enable the students to listen to each other speak. To improve their English writing ability, students must be encouraged to write frequently. Let them write short stories, essays and summaries. The more they write and are being corrected, the more their writing improves.

English language is a broad subject with facets of phonology, syntax, morphology, semantics, reading, spelling, writing, comprehension, summary, grammar, lexis and structure. As a subject on the curriculum of the Senior Secondary School, English language should be broken down into different components listed above which should be treated as subjects instead of Igbo, Yoruba and Hausa. This will accomplish a faster progress in English language proficiency in multilingual classes and alleviate the problems of the English language teacher.

The act of learning a language takes place in the public context of the classroom, the student is one of a group, a member of the class, and the activities which are to set the process in training are determined by the teacher. Thus, the qualification of every English language teacher in Nigerian schools must be scrutinized. Just as it is possible for a teacher to be under qualified, it is also possible for a teacher to be wrongly placed, like fitting a square peg in a round hole. Due to the degree of unemployment in

Nigeria, individuals with Masters Degree and PhD are taking up jobs as primary and secondary school teachers. These teachers have had little experience in teaching children in primary and secondary schools and it might be a bit difficult for them to condescend to the level of their students. At the end of each class, the students might be more confused than they were before the class. There is so much information in the mind of these teachers that they divert to different aspects of one topic without putting the level of cognition of the students into consideration. These teachers are better off as lecturers and researchers in higher institutions since they may not be properly trained as teachers in primary and secondary schools. Malamah-Thomas (1987) explains that interaction is a two-way process. It can be harmonious or filled with tension. It can be a positive state, where the interactants feel that something worthwhile is being achieved as a result of the interaction (qualified teachers), or it can be a negative one (wrongly placed teachers). The degree of English language fluency in ELT classrooms differs from student to student in multilingual classroom because they do not share a common linguistic background. The English teacher must be conscious of this problem and develop appropriate skills to handle it. This is because an unskilled English language teacher in a multilingual classroom will impede English language fluency than promote it.

Conclusion

The agents of exposure for English language among Nigerian students are the teachers, mass media, parents, friends, peer group, religious leaders and teachers, and available reading materials. However, these agents are not as effective as they should be. The family and peer group of a child might not be educated enough to be proficient agents of exposure. Children in urban areas and from poor backgrounds are usually not as exposed to the media just like children in the rural areas. Most children in urban areas are not even exposed to newspapers. Again, most Nigerian schools lack enough reading materials and well equipped libraries while the reading culture among Nigerian students have dropped so low that only few children read can extensively or for leisure. The ineffectiveness of these agents and the effects of multilingualism on large ELT classes have led to poor English language proficiency among multilingual learners.

The study observed that despite the tremendous contributions of multilingualism towards the growth of Nigeria, it has in its own way slowed down English language proficiency in large multilingual ELT classes, making the task of the English language teachers challenging. From this study, we can reiterate that transfers and interferences of mother tongue have both positive and negative effects arising from multilingualism respectively, and these will always be present in large ELT classes due to the linguistically - varied backgrounds of the students.

References

- Bamgbose, A. (1971). "The English Language in Nigeria." In Spenser, J. (ed) *The English Language in West Africa*. London: Longman.
- Bamiro, E. (1991). "Nigerian Englishes in Nigerian English Literature." *World Englishes* (10)1.
- Bhattacharjee, Y. (2012). Why Bilinguals are Smarter. Retrieved from http://mobile.nytimes.com/2012/03/18/opinion/sunday/the-benefits-of-bilingualism.html?_r=0
- Hornby, A. S., Jonathan, C. (1974). Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary of current English. London: Oxford University Press.
- Malamah – Thomas, A. (1987). Language Teaching; A scheme for Teacher Education. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Mercer, C. and Mercer, A. (1985). Teaching Students with Learning Problems. Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co: Ohio
- National Policy on Education (NPE), (2004). Lagos: NERCE Press.
- CNN, Facebook Poll (2011, August 18). What is the World's Sexiest Accent? Retrieved from https://m.facebook.com/questions/10150343024785166/?l_qa_ref=qd&rfsrc=https%3A%2F%2Fm.facebook.com%2Fquestions%2F10150343024785166%2F&refid=9&rdr#
- Olagbaju, O (2009) Challenges of Using Nigerians Languages in Modern Education. An unpublished paper presented as part of a course work for TEE 813
- Olagbaju, O. (2014). Multilingual Education in Nigeria: Policy, Practice, Challenges and Solutions. *Journal of Education and Practice* 5(6) <http://www.iiste.org/journals/index.php/JEP/article/view/11209&sa>
- Poudel, P. (2010). "Teaching English in Multilingual Classrooms of Higher Education: The Present Scenario". *Journal of NELTA* 15(1). <http://www.nepjol.info/index.php/NELTA/article/download/4618/3829&sa>
- Tiffen, B. (1974). "The Intelligibility of Nigerian English". Unpublished Doctorate thesis, University of London.
- Tsojun, Y. and Aji, N. (2014). Pronunciation Problems Among Junki English Speakers. *European Journal of Research and Reflection in Arts and Humanities*, 2(1). <http://www.google.nl/search?q=pronunciation+problem+among+junki+speakers+aji+2014&btnG=>
- Udosen, A. (2013). "Language and Communication in a Multilingual Nigeria: Implication for UBE English Curriculum Development". *Multidisciplinary Journal* 1(1). <http://www.multidisciplinaryjournals.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/10/LANGUAGE-AND-COMMUNICATION-IN-A-MULTILINGUAL-NIGERIA-FOR-UBE-ENGLISH.pdf>

VERBAL ABILITY, SELF-EFFICACY AND ATTITUDE OF SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS AS CORRELATES OF STUDENTS' ACHIEVEMENT IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Joel Kehinde Babatope
Department of General Studies,
The Federal Polytechnic, Ado-Ekiti
P. M. B. 5351, Ado-Ekiti
Ekiti State Nigeria
kehindejoel7@gmail.com

Abstract

This study investigated the extent to which verbal ability, self efficacy and attitude of senior secondary school students correlate with the students achievement in English language. The participants were 393 SS 2 students drawn from ten schools in Ado-Ekiti Local Government, Ekiti State, Nigeria. The study adopted a descriptive research design. The instruments for data collection were Verbal Ability Test ($r=0.76$), Self-efficacy in English language Questionnaire, ($r=0.80$) attitude to English language Questionnaire ($r=0.82$), and English Language Achievement Test ($r=0.81$). Data were analysed using descriptive statistics of frequency counts, simple percentages, mean, median and mode. Also, Multiple Regression Analysis was used to show the relative and joint effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable. Findings revealed positive significant relationship between the independent variables (verbal ability, Self-efficacy and attitude) and the dependent variable (students' academic achievement in English language). In the same vein, the relative and joint contribution of the independent variables to the dependent variable was found significant at $p<0.05$.

Key words: Verbal ability, Self-efficacy, Attitude, Achievement, English language.

Background to the Study

The English Language enjoys a prestigious status in Nigeria. It has a high premium placed on it as the nation's official language. It is the language of administration. Most importantly, English is the language of integration. It is used to unify the diverse ethnic groups in Nigeria, thereby enabling cross communication. The multi-lingual and multi-cultural nature of Nigeria polity on the one hand and the absence of a national unifying indigenous language on the other hand led to the use of the English language as a medium of intra-national and inter-national communication. English is also the

language of instruction in Nigerian schools as well as the language of science and technology. The National Policy on Education (FGN 2004 revised) stipulates that English shall be the language of instruction in schools right from the upper primary level to the tertiary level.

The English language, in addition to being the language of instruction, is also a compulsory subject that must be passed at almost every level of education in Nigeria. At primary school level, it is an important subject on which the students will write examination before going into the secondary school. At junior and secondary school level, it is a subject to be passed for the student to advance further. At tertiary level, English language serves as a course of study; it also serves as a compulsory course (Use of English) to be passed by the student before s/he can qualify for graduation.

Statement of the Problem

The teaching and learning of English language in secondary schools seems unsatisfactory as demonstrated by the poor performance of students at public examinations. Evidence available shows that most students do not perform well in English language examination at the senior secondary school certificate examination, as shown in Statistics of Entries and Results for SSCE West African Examination Council (WAEC) English Language May/June 2002-2012. Their inability to perform well in the examinations has been attributed to various reasons, some of which are students' related variables, such as students' verbal ability, self-efficacy and attitude to English language. Studies have shown that these factors strongly influenced learning outcomes especially in subjects such as Literature-in-English, Mathematics and Biology. The extent to which these personal variables correlate with students' achievement in English language has not enjoyed much research patronage. This study, therefore, investigated the extent to which senior secondary school students' verbal ability, self efficacy and attitude correlate with the students' achievement in English language.

Research Questions

The following research questions were raised in this study:

1. What relationship exists among the independent variables (verbal ability, self-efficacy and attitude) on the dependent variable (academic achievement in English language)?
2. What is the joint effect of students' factors (verbal ability, self-efficacy and attitude) on the dependent variable (academic achievement in English language)?
3. What is the relative contribution of students' factors (verbal ability, self-efficacy and attitude) to the dependent variable (academic achievement in English language)?
4. Which of the independent variables correlate with academic achievement in English?

Review of Some Related Literature

Verbal Ability and Academic Achievement

Verbal ability means students' skill and ability in the use and understanding of words and language especially English in public examinations. Researchers and scholars have reported a link between verbal ability and academic achievement in language learning in general and learning of English as a second language in particular.

Using a variety of Intelligent Quotient (I.Q) test and different methods of assessing language learning, Genesee (1976) concluded that verbal ability is a good means of predicting how successful a learner would be at language learning in general and English as a second language (ESL) learning in particular. It could be conceived that general intelligence is associated with success in any academic endeavour. Verbal and quantitative ability, for instance, should influence performance. Measures of these abilities should predict relevant performance criteria with varying degree of accuracy (Mitchell, Rothstein, James and Gillian, 1994).

According to Richard and Rodger (1986), verbal ability is a test of intelligence that can be used to predict learners' performance in language skills. Elements of verbal ability test include word power, sentences arrangement, words arrangement, and substitution of elements and logical selections of appropriate words. Verbal ability may show substantial level of association with students' grades. In a meta-analysis of 165 students regarding gender differences in verbal ability, Hyde and Linn (2006) found a small mean effect size. In a similar study, Bell and Perfitti (1994) observed some correlation between verbal ability, gender and language performance. Also, Olaboopo (1999) noted significant interaction effects of treatment and verbal ability on the variation in students' scores in English composition. On the contrary, Iyagba (1994) found no significant differences in the performance of students with various verbal ability groups in composition achievement but discovered a significant difference in attitude of students belonging to various ability groups.

Lightbrown (1993) submitted that intelligence is more strongly relates to certain kinds of second language abilities than others. In a study with French second language learners, he found that while intelligence was related to the development of reading, grammar and vocabulary, it was unrelated to oral productive skill. Byne (1993) corroborated the findings of Lightbrown (1993). He studied English as a second language and found that academic ability of the learners was a determining factor of performance in Reading, Grammar, Vocabulary, Comprehension and Writing but not of spoken English.

In different studies, Newport (1990), Yule and Macdonald (1990) and Long (1991) found that intelligence was highly related to performance in reading, dictation and writing tasks but not to listening, comprehension and

free oral tasks. These findings suggest that intelligence is more related to those second language skills which are used in the formal study of a language, (that is, reading, language analysis, writing and vocabulary study) but intelligence is much less likely to influence the way in which oral communication skills are developed. These findings were corroborated by Byne (1993).

The above research findings point to the fact that verbal ability is a strong factor when it comes to the learning of a second language in classrooms, particularly, if the instruction is formal. The implication is that when classroom instruction is less formal, intelligence or verbal ability may play a less important role.

Self-Efficacy and Academic Achievement

Self-efficacy is task-specific and differs from context to context. Bandura (1986) posited that various ways are required to assess self-efficacy when tasks vary because assessment of self-efficacy is task-specific. Therefore, self-efficacy needs to be measured specifically rather than generally. Since language learning differs from other types of learning, more attention needs to be paid to how learners develop self-efficacy and what factors affect their self-efficacy in second/foreign language contexts. This could be the reason why students who lack confidence in their academic skills envision a low grade even before they begin an examination or enroll in a course. It is against this background that the researchers sought to establish the perceived influence of students' self-efficacy on their reading comprehension performance. Odeyemi, (2006) submitted that self-efficacy serves as control to the success of an individual; and that student with low self-efficacy may believe that learning is tougher than it really is. High self-efficacy helps to create feelings of severity in approaching difficult tasks and activities. Schunk (2000) opined that higher self-efficiency and interest are related to the use of more active cognitive strategies (e.g. elaboration, paraphrasing) and willingness to develop self-efficacy therefore, according to Pajares (1996) is a person's confidence to perform a specific task successfully and is linked closely to initial task engagement, persistence, and achievement. Bandura (1997) referred to self-efficacy as one's conviction to successfully execute a course of action required to obtain a desired outcome.

In academic settings, Niemivirta (2002), citing Latham and Locke (1991), opined that self-efficacy has bearing on both the level and type of goals people decide to strive for. It therefore follows that, as Schunk (1991) pointed out, students' self-efficacy belief consists of their belief to perform given academic tasks at designated levels. And the perceived academic self-efficacy as defined by Bandura (1983) is a personal judgment of one's capacity to organize and execute courses of action to attain designated types of educational performance. Hence, Bandura (1983) asserted that students' belief in their efficacy to regulate their own learning and to master academic

activities determines their aspirations, level of motivation and academic accomplishment. Pajares and Miller (1994) supported the view that students with strong sense of self-efficacy willingly engage in challenging tasks, invest greater effort and persistence and show superior academic performance than those who lack confidence. This view is evidenced in (Pajares and Miller's 1994) studies which revealed that when a student's self-concept, or belief about ability, is presented on an efficacy scale, efficacy measures, unlike self-concept, tend to predict outcomes.

Bandura (1997) agreed that increased self-efficacy is accompanied by enhanced intrinsic motivation, the ability to sustain high levels of motivation and achievement oriented behavior, persistence in the face of difficulties and better problem solving. Moreover, the author asserted that perceived self-efficacy is a better predictor of intellectual performance than skill alone. Perhaps, this made (Bandura 1997) to reiterate that students with greater efficacy are more likely to select challenging tasks, expend more effort, and persist when encountering difficulties. This presupposes that high efficacy is an important factor in helping students to engage in and persist at difficulty tasks, such as reading for understanding.

Similarly, Schunk (2000) averred that individual with high self-efficacy about their ability to successfully complete given tasks will generally perform well on these tasks while others with lower self-efficacy for specific tasks tend to become idle or give up when faced with these tasks. This indicates that the higher the sense of efficacy, the greater the effort, persistence, and resilience.

Students' Attitude and Academic Achievement in English Language

Researchers have identified various factors influencing learning. Conceivably, the most important of these factors is the question of attitude on the part of the learner. According to Dada (1986) attitudes are positive or negative feelings that an individual holds about objects or ideas. Keil (1991), in his own submission, declared that attitudes are generally regarded as enduring though modifiable by experience and, or, persuasion and are also learnt rather than being innate. He went further to say that achievement of any learner will to a great extent depend on his attitude towards the learning material. This is a general belief that a positive attitude more often than not leads to successful learning (Bell, 1994).

There are researches on the relationship between students' attitude and language learning. Gardner and Lambert (1972) found that two factors, that is, language aptitude and attitudinal characteristics are orthogonal to each other thereby suggesting that achievement in a second language is related to these two independent components. They further stated that attitude could help the language learning process by changing students' orientations towards particular linguistic cultural groups and thereby modify their motivation to learn that language.

Gardner (1979) discovered that attitude is only a motivational support and does not have a direct influence on second language learning. This claim is due to the fact that correlations between attitude and achievement were very poor when the effects of motivation were partially led out in his study. On the contrary, Lawal (2007) reported that motive comes before attitudes. King (1981) found that a positive attitude towards English language accounts for success in learning it among the bi-lingual Canadians. This finding was re-echoed by Larsen-Freeman (1990) when he reported that American College Students' positive attitudes towards German and towards themselves speaking German correlated with proficiency in German.

Baron (1992) also found a positive relationship between attitude and language learning. In her study, she found that Chinese-speaking foreign students in the United States of America who had generally positive attitudes towards the learning of English were more proficient in English as a second language. Her findings were, however, contradicted by Grant (1997) with his conclusion that women who rated Americans high did poorly in English language.

The discrepancy in the findings of the above two studies is, according to Vigil (1997), attributable to the fact that while the Chinese were from high socio-economic class and were in the United States of America by choice, the women were members of a lower socio-economic stratum and might feel a 'colonized minority' and thus resent the Anglophone majority. They might be very eager to learn English to remove themselves from the oppressive conditions brought about by their lack of English. The inference from this is that English can serve as a medium of social mobility.

Most of the studies (if not all) on verbal ability, self-efficacy and students' attitude reviewed above were carried out outside Nigeria. The extent to which these variables correlate with students' academic achievement in English in Nigeria has not enjoyed much research attention. There is therefore need for further research in Nigerian context on how these variables correlate with students' academic achievement in English language.

Methodology

The elements of methodology described here comprise research design, population, sample and sampling technique, research instruments, validity of instrument, and method of data analysis.

Research Design

This study adopted a descriptive research design which is designed to obtain information from the representative sample of the selected senior secondary schools in Ado-Ekiti Local Government, Ekiti State, Nigeria.

Population

The target population for this study consisted of all senior secondary school two (SSS2) students in Ado-Ekiti Local Government, Ekiti State, Nigeria.

Sample and Sampling Technique

Out of the fourteen secondary schools in Ado-Ekiti Local Government, ten schools were randomly selected for the study. From each school, an intact class of SS 2 was randomly selected making a total of ten intact classes. In all, 393 students participated in the study.

Research Instruments

Four instruments were used in this study and they are:

- (i) Questionnaire on self-efficacy in English language (QSEEL)
- (ii) Questionnaire on students' attitude to English language (QSAEL)
- (iii) Verbal ability test (VAT)
- (iv) Achievement test in English Language (ATEL)

Method of Data Analysis

Data collected were analysed using, simple percentages, and mean, median, mode and frequency counts. Multiple correlation analysis was done to determine the relationship existing between independent and dependent variables while Multiple Regression Analysis was done to determine the relative and joint contributions of independent to dependent variables at $p < .05$ level.

Results and Discussion

Four research questions were used. The data were analyzed using frequency counts, percentages, Multiple Regression and the (PPMC) Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient with the results for the findings.

Answering the research questions**Research Question One**

What relationship exists among the independent variables (verbal ability, self-efficacy and student attitude) on the dependent variable (academic achievement in English Language)?

Table 1: Multiple Correlation Matrix of the relationship between students' achievement in English language, verbal ability, self efficacy and attitude.

	Achievement in English language	Verbal ability	Self-efficacy	Students' Attitude
Achievement in English language	1			
Verbal ability	.107*	1		
Self-efficacy	.22**	-.009	1	
Students' Attitude	.45**	.93	.238**	1
Mean	25.309	29.2087	24.2443	26.8931
S.D	4.18627	5.69302	3.21133	4.55173

* Significant at 0.05 level

The above table 1 Shows Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) that there is a significant relationship between achievement in English language and the students' attitude, self-efficacy and verbal ability. Students' Attitude has positive high relationship with students' achievement ($r=0.415$; $P<0.05$), and Self Efficacy has positive relationship with students' achievement ($r=0.224$; $P<0.05$), while Verbal ability has positive low relationship with student achievement ($r=0.107$; $P<0.05$). Since P is less than 0.05 level of significance. There was significant relationship among the independent variables (verbal ability, self-efficacy and students' attitude) on the dependent variable of the achievement in English language among students in the selected secondary school in Ado-Ekiti Local Government.

Research Question Two

What is the joint effect of students' factors (verbal ability, self-efficacy and attitude) on the dependent variable (academic achievement in English language)?

Table 2: Multiple Regression Analysis of verbal ability, self -efficacy and student attitude on the dependent variable of the achievement in English language

R = 0.441 R Square=0.194 Adjusted R ² = 0.188 Std Error of the Est. = 3.7719						
Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean square	F	P	Remark
Regression	1335.075	3	445.025	31.278	0.000	S*
Residual	5534.670	389	14.228			
Total	6869.746	392				

S=Significant at 0.05 level

Table 2 shows there was significant joint effect of students' factors (verbal ability, self-efficacy and student attitude) on the dependent variable of the achievement in English language among students in the selected secondary school. R square is equal to 0.194, while adjusted R square is equal to 0.188. Therefore, verbal ability, self-efficacy and students' attitude) on the dependent variable of the achievement in English language contributed 18.8 percent to variance in the achievement in English language among the students in the selected secondary schools. This implies that there was significant joint effect of students' factors (verbal ability, self-efficacy and student attitude) on the dependent variable of the achievement in English language among students in the selected secondary schools in Ado-Ekiti Local Government.

Research Question Three

What is the relative contribution of students' factors (verbal ability, self-efficacy and attitude) to the dependent variable (academic achievement in English language)?

Table 3 : Multiple Regression Analysis showing relative contributions of the Independent variables to the dependent variable

Variable	Unstandardised Coefficients (B)		Standardized Coefficients			
Model	(B)	Std. Error	Beta	t	P	Sig
(Constant) Achievement	9.717	1.917	-	5.068	0.000	s*
Verbal Ability	5.394	0.034	0.073	1.604	0.109	ns
Self Efficacy	0.177	0.061	0.136	2.895	0.004	s*
Student Attitude	0.362	0.045	0.376	7.987	0.000	s*

Table 3 reveals that there was relative contribution of the two independent variables on the dependent variable expressed as beta weight. The significant values of the students' attitude and self-efficacy on the students' achievement were actually determined reinforcement of these variables. Using the unstandardised regression coefficients to determine the relative contributions of the independent variables to the explanation of the dependent variables, Students' attitude ($\beta=0.376$, $t=7.987$, $P<0.05$), and self-efficacy have a contribution ($\beta=.136$, $t=-2.895$, $P<0.05$), while verbal ability has the list contribution ($\beta=.073$, $t=1.604$, $P>0.05$). There was significant relative contribution of students' attitude and self efficacy on the dependent variable of the achievement in English language among students in the selected secondary school in Ado-Ekiti Local Government.

Research Question Four

Which of the independent variables correlate with academic achievement in English?

From the result on table 3, the magnitude of the contribution of students' attitude is ($\beta=0.376$, $t=7.987$, $P<0.05$), Self Efficacy is ($\beta=0.137$, $t=2.895$, $P<0.05$), were the factors that predicted students' achievement in English among the selected schools, while verbal ability ($\beta=0.073$, $t=0.109$, $P>0.05$), did not predict students' achievement in English. In a nutshell, students' attitude and self efficacy were the correlates of the students' achievement in English.

Discussion of Findings

The study revealed that there was significant relationship among the independent variables (verbal ability, self-efficacy and attitude) on the dependent variable of the achievement in English language. Consequently, it implies that learners with high verbal ability, good determination and positive attitudes towards English language will perform better in class than their counterparts with low verbal ability and negative attitudes towards English language learning which by implication means an improved learning outcome on the part of the students. This finding was in line with those of Olaboopo (1999) Fakeye (2010), Ayanniyi (2009) Schunk (2000), Odeyemi (2006), Bell (1994) who found out in their studies that learners with high verbal ability tend to achieve higher than learners that have lower verbal ability in reading comprehension. Odeyemi (2006) in the same vein submitted that self-efficacy serves as control to the success of an individual and students with low self-efficacy believe that learning is tougher than it really is. However, Bell (1994) is of the opinion that the achievement of any learner depends on his or her attitude towards the learning materials. The similarity might be due to the fact that verbal ability as identified by Iyagba (1994) is one of the expressive language skills that have the capability of influencing students' achievement in English language, learners with positive attitudes towards English language perform better than their counterparts with negative attitudes towards English language. This might be due to the socio-economic background of the individual learners.

The study also found out that there was significant joint effect of students' factors (verbal ability, self-efficacy and students' attitude) on students' achievement in English Language. This is inline with Schunk (2000) who found out in his study that an individual with high self-efficacy will generally perform well on a given task while others with lower self-efficacy for specific tasks tend to become idle or give up when faced with these tasks. This might be due to the fact that an individual learner who is striving towards a goal will always put up his or her best to achieve the desired result positively.

The study revealed that there was significant relative contribution of

students' attitude and self-efficacy on students' achievement in English language. This finding corroborates Marley (2004) who studied students' attitude towards different varieties of English and other languages. It was found out that students' attitude was an integral part of learning. Therefore attitude should be an essential component of second language pedagogy. This view is also supported by Keil (1991) who is of the opinion that attitudes are generally regarded as enduring though modifiable by experience or persuasion attitude should be learnt rather than innate. He submitted that achievement of any learner depends on his attitude towards the learning materials. This implies that a positive attitude correlates with a positive academic achievement.

The study also revealed the magnitude of the contribution of the independent variables (verbal ability, self-efficacy, and attitude) on the dependent variable achievement in English language. It was found out that verbal ability has the lowest predictor of students' achievement. This is inline with the finding of Iyagba (1994) who found out that there is no significant difference in the performance of students with various verbal ability groups in composition achievement. This might be as a result of the fact that if the classroom instruction is less formal intelligence or verbal ability plays a less important role in the teaching-learning process.

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

Summary

This work is a descriptive research guided by four research questions to show the joint effect and relative contributions of independent variables (Verbal ability, self-efficacy and attitudes) on the dependent variable (achievement in English language). The data analysed using descriptive statistic and multiple regressions showed positive significant relationship between the independent variables and dependent variable. In the same vein, the relative and joint contributions of the independent variables to the dependent variable were found to be significant at $P < 0.05$.

Conclusion

The study has shown that two students' variables (self-efficacy and students' attitudes) were the variables that correlate with achievement in English language in Senior Secondary Schools in Ado-Ekiti Local Government. It can therefore be concluded that students' verbal ability is not a factor that correlate with achievement in English language in the selected secondary schools.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made

- That government should provide equipment that will enhance the teaching and learning of oral skills in secondary schools in Ado-Ekiti

Local Government.

- That students should involve in the practice of English expressions that will make them use English orally so as to improve their verbal ability as well as improve their performance in English language.
- Workshops and in-service training programmes should be organised for English language teachers on regular basis to update them on modes of teaching.
- Government, philanthropists and schools should assist students in getting English language textbooks to enhance an effective teaching and learning of the English language.

References

- Ayaniyi, M.C. 2009. Effects of Three Modes of Advance Organizer on Secondary School Students' Achievement in and Attitude to Poetic Literature in Ibadan Metropolis".PhD Thesis, University of Ibadan.
- Bandura, A. 1983. Self Efficacy Determinants of Anticipated Fears and Calamities. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 45, 464-469.
- Bandura, A.1986. *Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. 1997.*Self-Efficacy:The Exercise of Control*. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company.
- Baron, N. 1992. *Growing up with Language*. Second Edition. Massachuset: Addison-Wesley Press.
- Bell, A. and Perfectti, P. O. 1994. Verbal Ability In *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Volume 86 (2).
- Byrne, D. 1993. *Teaching Writing Skills*.4th Edition.New York: Longman.
- Dada, S. A. 1986. Language Contact and Language Conflict: The Case of Yoruba-English Bilinguals cited in Kansas Working Papers in Linguistics, Vol.29 (2007): 85p. 5-113.
- Fakeye, D. O. 2000. Relative of Components and Rhetoric Discourse Strategies on Achievement in and Attitude to Senior Secondary School. Essay Writing Paper Presented at Departmental Staff/Students Seminar, Department of Education, University of Ibadan, Ibadan.
- Gardener, H. 1979. *Multiple Intelligences: The Theory in Practice*. New York. N.Y. Basic.
- Gardener, R. C. and Lambert W. E. 1972.Attitude and Motivation in Second Language Learning. Rowley: Newburg House Publishers.
- Genesse, F. 1976. What do we know about bilingual education for majority language students|| In T.K. Bhatia & W. Ritchie (Eds), *Handbook of*

- Bilingualism and Multiculturalism*, 547-576. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Grant, W. 1997. *Essay Writing in the Perspective off Discourse*. Edinburgh: Longman.
- Hyde, J.S. and Linn, M.C. 2006. Gender Similarities in Mathematics and Science. *Science*, 314 (5799), 599-600.
- Iyagba, B. 1994. Reading-Writing and Discussion Strategies as Determinants of Secondary School Students Achievement and Attitude in English Composition Writing Skill. Ph.D Thesis, University of Ibadan.
- Keil, L.J. 1991. Attitude Development in International Encyclopedia of Education. UK Pegamon Press.
- King, M. 1981. Research in Composition: A Need for a theory. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 8:6-13.
- Larsen-Freedman A. 1990. Psycho-Social Determinants of Pragmatic Competence. *Language Learning*. 10:45-60.
- Latham and Locke, 1991. Goal Setting and Task Performance with Edwin A.; Shaw, Karyll N.; Saari, M.; Gary P. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 90 (1), 125-152.
- Lawal, B.O. and A.I. Ayoade 2007. Private Participation in the Provision of Secondary School in Oyo State, Nigeria (1994-2000). *The Social Science* 2(3): 278-282, 2007 *Medwe Journals*.
- Lightbows, P. 1993. *How Languages are learned*. First Edition. New York: Oxford Press.
- Long, M.H. 1991. Maturational Constraints on Language Development. *Studies in Second Language Learning*. 12:3-19.
- Marley, D. 2004. Language Attitudes in Morocco following Recent Changes in Language Policy. *Language Policy*, 3, 25-46.
- Mitchell, G.R. Rothstein, S. P. James, C. R. and Gillian, A. 1994. Personality and Cognitive Ability Predictor of Performance In *Graduate Business School*. *Journal of Education Psychology* 86. 4: 516-530.
- Newport, E.I. 1990. Maturational Constraints on Language Learning. *Cognitive Science* 14:11-28.
- Niemivirta, M. 2002. Motivation and performance in context: The Influence of Goal Orientations and Instructional Setting on Situational Appraisals and Task Performance. *Psychologia*, 45, 250-270.
- Odeyemi, F.T. 2006. Emotional Intelligence and Self-Efficacy as Predictors of Academic Self-Efficacy of Educationally-Distressed Adolescents in Ibadan. Unpublished M.Ed Project. University of Ibadan.
- Olaboopo, A.O. 1999. Effects of Error Treatment-Model-Based and Skill-Based Instructional Strategies on Students' Attitude, Motivation and Achievement in English Composition in Senior Secondary Schools in Ibadan. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Ibadan.
- Pajares, F. and Miller, M.D. 1994. The role of Self-Efficacy and Self Concept Belief in Mathematical; Problem-Solving. *A Path Analysis Journal of*

- counseling Psychology*, 56.193-203.
- Pajares, F. 1996. Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Academic Settings. *Review of Educational Research*, 66 (4), 543-578.
- Richard, J.C. and Rodgers, T.S. 1986. *Approach and Methods in Language Teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press. 67.
- Schunk, D.H. 1991. Self-Efficacy and Academic Motivation. *Educational Psychologist*. 26. 207-213.
- Schunk, D.H. 2000. Self-Regulation and Academic Learning. In M. Boekaerts, P.R. Pintrich and M. Zeeidner (eds), *Handbook of self-regulation* (631-650). San Diego C. A: Academic Press.
- Vigil, D. 1997. *Personas Mexicanas: Chicago High Schoolers in a Changing Los Angeles*. Fort Worth, Texas: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
- Yule, G. & Macdonald, D. 1990. Resolving Referential Conflicts in L2 Interaction: The Effects of Proficiency and Interactive Role. *Language learning*, 40(4), 539-556.

LANGUAGE TEACHING IN MULTILINGUAL SITUATIONS: EXAMPLE OF ENGLISH/FRENCH BILINGUAL STUDENTS

Mary EffiongNyong

Department of French,
College of Education, IkereEkiti
mary4nyong@gmail.com

and

Kemi NojimYekini

Department of French
Michael Otedola College of Primary Education, Epe
yekkejim@yahoo.com

Abstract

The focus of this article is the English language classroom, at the tertiary level, in a multilingual environment like Nigeria, where English is the language of instruction and where there are some learners who are bilingual in French and English. The paper goes back to the historical lineage of English and French languages demonstrating that the two languages share a common ancestor. With the geographical location of Nigeria, the paper concludes that learners of the English language who are linguistically competent in French, will have an edge over their monolingual classmates in the areas of semantics (translation) and phonology. The paper recommends a re-assessment by all stakeholders, of motivational techniques, to convince English students that knowledge of the French language will improve their performance in many areas of their English course.

Introduction

The importance of English language in Nigeria cannot be overemphasized. It is not just the language of instruction but is also accorded more and more relevance by stakeholders in the Nigerian educational sector. It is, for example, a general course in the universities. In spite of all this recognition, however, Departments of English in our tertiary institutions keep recording poor student grades. Nigeria, like many other African countries, is a multilingual society. Due to her geographical location there are often, in our Nigerian classrooms, some francophone learners who are bilingual in French and English. The focus of this article is, thus, such a classroom at the tertiary level. The paper arrives at the conclusion that such bilingual students will have an edge over their monolingual classmates in the areas of semantics (translation) and phonology. In order to demonstrate this, the paper goes back to the historical lineage of English and French languages demonstrating that the two languages share a common ancestor. The paper also considers the concept of multilingualism, language contact and makes recommendations at the end.

Multilingualism

Language teachers, according to Haugen (1972:1), are by definition interested in multilingualism since it is one of the possible goals of their teaching. They are engaged in deliberately simulating a process that occurs for the most part in childhood and as a spontaneous result of language contact. As Bennet (1974) opines, successful language learning must encourage adventuring in new ways of thinking. Besides, the social and political pressure on persons in cities to give up their dialects, which are regarded as inferior, is considerable (Milroy & Milroy, 1985).

Nigeria, as earlier mentioned, is a multilingual society. Multilingualism, which, in ordinary parlance, refers to a situation where many different languages are spoken in a given environment, is not a new phenomenon. Anyone who can speak two languages can be said to be bilingual but people who speak three or more languages are said to be multilingual (Martin & Nakayama, 2005:138). According to Horsey (2001:15), over two-thirds of the world's population are thought to be bilingual or multilingual. In the same vein, Millar (2007:387), asserts that between 70% and 80% of the earth's population are bilingual or multilingual. He goes further to add that in the Amazon Rain Forest in New Guinea, in much of Africa, in large parts of the Southern Asian sub-continent, multilingualism is still the norm, and the same was true of Australia before the European settlements destroyed the indigenous cultures and languages. One of the ironies of multilingualism in Africa, according to Lindfors (2007), and cited by Osagbemi (2013:44), is that the extraordinary number and varieties of languages in most sub-Saharan nations, make communication across ethnic and international boundaries difficult in anything but a colonial tongue.

Apart from the three majority languages spoken in Nigeria, there are many other minority languages having many native speakers. Nigeria, being surrounded by Francophone countries such as Benin Republic, Niger Republic, Chad, Cameroun, also experiences situations where the French language intermingles with either English or the indigenous languages especially in the border towns as a result of commercial activities. Multilingualism is, thus, the result of another concept called *language contact*.

Language Contact

Whenever speakers of one language interact with speakers of another language, the two languages are said to be in contact (Horsey: 40). Only very rarely, if ever, does a language find itself spoken in isolation, with no contact at all between its speakers and those of other languages. The situation we find ourselves today, where a single language is spoken with some uniformity over hundreds of miles, is a relatively recent development. In Nigeria, for example, English is spoken all over the country because of

colonization. It is this proliferation of languages coupled with the need for inter-communication that gave birth to the phenomenon called *translation*. Thus translation becomes the only means of communication between peoples and cultures of the world. Translation, according to Newmark (1991:27), is transferring the meaning of a stretch or a unit of language, the whole or the part of a text, from one language to another.

Language contact is such a common phenomenon that it would be tempting to illustrate its diversity in relation to lexis, phonology and syntax. Millar (ibid:388), proposes three language contact situations namely *superstratum*, *substratum* and *adstratum*. By *superstratum* he refers to the context where a socially powerful element in a society influences the language of less powerful groupings, as is the case in post-colonial situations where words from the colonizers' language find their way into the language of the colonized, a typical example of this being the case of the influence of Norman French upon English. By *substratum*, Millar refers to a situation where a less dominant language exerts an influence upon a dominant language. This usually happens where a dominant language is losing native speakers as is the case of Irish upon the English of Ireland. *Adstratal* influence is where two or more languages come into contact, but there is no dominant community.

Language contact has become more common with colonization, international trade, long-distance communication and, in contemporary times, Information and Communication Technology (ICT). The results of language contact include the development of pidgins and the introduction of loan-words. This brings us to the affinity between the English and the French languages.

The Relationship between English and French

English and French are two languages that belong to the same language families. According to the Encarta online Dictionary, languages of the world are grouped into families that are believed to have common ancestors. Some of these major families are the Indo-European languages, the Afro-Asiatic languages, the Austronesian languages and the Sino-Tibetan languages. English and French belong to the Indo-European language family.

The Norman conquest of 1066 brought the French language into England and, consequently, an infusion of French words into the English language (Katzner, 1977: 37). As Millar (ibid:388) and Baugh (1976), point out, since the Norman Conquest, English has lost at least 60% of the Old English vocabulary in favour of loans from French and Latin. Katzner adds that for about two centuries after the conquest, French was the language of the English nobility. Language borrowing is the most obvious consequence of language contact. Among the languages of wide diffusion, English and French top the list. In fact, as Alden (1977) asserts, no matter where one goes in the world, one can converse with educated people if one speaks French.

This is not to say that it is only from the French that English borrows words. According to Millar (ibid:22), English speakers borrowed *kayak* from an Eskimo language, *whisky* from Scottish Gaelic, *ukulele* from Hawaiian, *yoghurt* from Turkish, *algebra* from Arabic, *sherry* from Spanish, *ski* from Norwegian, *waltz* from German and *kangaroo* from the Guugu-Yimidhirr language of Australia.

The Crux of the Matter

In Nigeria, it is not uncommon to find a handful of students of Francophone origin in our classrooms and Anglophone students in Cameroonian, Togolese or Beninois classrooms, for example, since we share common boundaries. Inversely, there is no gainsaying that the Nigerian students who gain admission into schools in Francophone countries will have communicative problems in the classroom. The situation will be the same for the Francophone students studying in Nigeria. Course materials used in the Nigerian schools at all levels are written in English except for courses in French and indigenous languages (Yoruba, Hausa and Igbo). Such is also the case in the Francophone countries where the course materials are written in French, their own language of instruction.

The focal point of this article is the classroom where there are students who are bilingual in English and French. It must be pointed out here that most Cameroonian students fall under this category since Cameroun is, officially, bilingual, with English and French as their official languages. As has been earlier pointed out, there are many loan-words in the English language lexicon and vice-versa. Thus, the student who is linguistically competent in both English and French will have an edge over his or her classmates in the following areas of the course content for English language at the tertiary level:

1. Phonology

The study of stress patterns is an integral part of the study of English as well as other languages. As stated by Ploquin (2009:29):

French differs from Latin and other Romance languages in that its stress domain is the phrase rather than the word.

Notable phonological features of French according to Wikipedia, the free encyclopaedia, include its uvular /r/, nasal sounds and three processes affecting word-final sounds, namely, liaison (a certain type of sandhi, wherein word-final consonants are not pronounced unless followed by a word beginning with a vowel), elision, (wherein certain instances of /l/ (schwa) are elided (e.g. when final before an initial vowel), and enchainment (resyllabification), in which word-final and word-initial consonants may be moved across a syllable boundary, so that syllables may cross word boundaries. Most of the French loan-words retain their French pronunciations. Since the phonological systems of every language are different, a loan-word can be very difficult for speakers to pronounce. This

is why Capliez (2011) opines that over the last two decades, several authors have described the teaching of pronunciation as the “Cinderella” area of foreign language teaching. Abercrombie (1967) on his part, admits that spoken language and written language can be defined as two different yet complementary mediums of one and the same language. As Millar (ibid:028) asserts:

English does not have the nasal vowel of French *genre*...French lacks (or used to lack) the velar nasal of English *camping*. ...most English speakers who use the word *genre* do their best to produce something approximating to the French pronunciation and wind up saying something like [ʎ̃ã] with a nasal vowel but often with an English /r/ instead of the French uvular /r/.

The word *genre* is just one of several examples. The following table, as presented by Nyong (2000:241) gives examples of common loan-words borrowed from the French by the English, which also demonstrates that the loan words usually touch upon the fields of literature, art, food, medicine, government, law, and others:

Geography	Government	Food	Art	Literature	Society
Debris	Cordon	casserole	vogue	précis	fiancé
cul-de-sac	Battalion	cuisine	finesse	brochure	Gauche
Glacier	Portmanteau	Aspic	croupier	protégé	débutant
avalanche	Fusillade	meringue	chignon	envelope	Picnic
Moraine	Canteen	Rissole	moustache	Griot	Salon
Plateau	Cache	marmalade	rouge	Ode	Etiquette
Levée	Police	Chablis	connoisseur	chagrin	souvenir
Steppe	Detour	carafe	bouquet	résumé	Serviette
	Saboteur	à la carte	silhouette	bourgeoisie	Gauntlet
	Fanfare	cafeteria	encore		Rapport
	Communiqué	Fricassee	bizarre		chandelier
	Entourage		discotheque		tête-à-tête
	Chauffeur		début		Bureau
	carte-blanc				en-masse
	Manoeuvre				Elite

Abdullahi-Idiagbon (2013, p.5), on his part, identifies the word *discourse* as a French word meaning *speech*, from which the concept *Discourse Analysis* derives its name. An English language student who is bilingual in French will pronounce all the words correctly, putting the stress on the appropriate syllable effortlessly. His or her classmates who are monolingual may get stuck in many instances or may pronounce the words with English accents. According to Millar (ibid:29), French has both /f/ and /v/, both of which can occur in most positions, including word-initiality. Many of the words borrowed into English from Norman French had initial /v/ and English speakers made an effort to pronounce this unfamiliar sound, because dozens of French words came into English with initial /v/ such as *very, vine, vinegar, voice, view, vicar, victory, venue, vault, vassal, value, villain, virgin, vowel*.

The voiced fricative /ʃ/ of the word *beige* has also been borrowed from the French. Much more recently, English has borrowed French words containing this sound. However, as pointed out again by Millar (ibid: 330):

When it occurs finally, there is a good deal of variation, and loans like *entourage, camouflage, garage, barrage, massage* and *rouge*, can be heard both with /ʃ/ and /dʒ/. You may find that you pronounce some of these with the fricative but the others with the affricate, and you are likely to find that your friends differ from you on one or two of these.

That is to say that there will be differences in the accents of the speakers. Some speakers may have distinct or easily recognized types of accents while others do not, but every language-user speaks with an accent. The term accent, when used technically, according to Yule (2007:227), is restricted to the description of aspects of pronunciation which identify where an individual speaker is from, regionally or socially. Thus, the submission by Millar shows that a bilingual English student will differ in pronunciation from his monolingual classmates as he or she will pronounce all the words cited above correctly.

Most Nigerians hardly ascribe value to the learning of foreign languages. According to Ndobbo (2014:50):

... the general tendency has most often been to view relevance in a particular foreign language only when linguistic competence in it is indispensably needed as prerequisite for admission into an international professional or academic programme.

Experience has shown that students, generally, tend to make jest of French language pronunciations in the classroom. Most of the learners see

the subject as fun and give the French teacher many funny names and, as Ojo and Abibu (2013:96), assert, students' attitude towards subjects influences the participation rate of learners. However, Nyong (2000:243) attempted to demonstrate how the knowledge of French can help English learners. She reviewed some English language past questions of the Senior Secondary Certificate Examination. In section 1 of English Language 3 (Test of Orals), June 1995, students were asked to choose from the options, words with the same vowel sounds as those indicated by some underlined letters. The following is what she wrote:

- In question 15, the given word is *hate*. The options are: A. plaque B. eight C. bite D. hat. Some students with no knowledge of French might choose the word *plaque*, thinking that it rhymes with the English word *plague*. Nevertheless, a French student will know the correct pronunciation of *plaque*, a French word, and that it has a different vowel sound from *hate*.
- In section 3, question 32, the word that rhymes with *oblique* was to be picked from the options: A. queue B. packed C. opaque D. seek. Nyong notes that the words *queue* and *opaque* are of French origin and that knowledge of French will help a lot in getting the correct answer to this question.
- In section 5, question 44, the students' knowledge of stress patterns was tested and one of the words given was *fiancée*, which is a loan-word from French, thus knowledge of French will also be invaluable here.

There are some French words that have been naturalized in English, such as Paris [*PAris*] English, and [*pa'HEE*] French. In this sort of situation, the pronunciation given in the SSCE syllabus for the examination year, and which must have been taught to the students in class, is to be followed to ensure uniformity, since the marking guide will be based on the syllabus.

1. *Semantics(Translation)*

Semantics is another area where linguistic competence in French will make the English language student to have an edge over his or her classmates. Translation is added here not because the two concepts are synonyms but because they are both related, in the sense that the two concepts have to do with another concept called *meaning*. Translation, according to Newmark (1991), is transferring the *meaning* of a stretch or a unit of language, the whole or a part of a text, from one language to another. Two other translation theorists, Eugene A. Nida and Charles R. Taber (1974:12) are of the opinion that:

translation consists of reproducing in the receptor language, the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of *meaning*, and secondly in terms of style.

On the other hand, The New Lexicon Webster's dictionary defines Semantics as "the branch of linguistic science which deals with the *meaning* of words and especially with development and change in these meanings". While Saeed (2009) says Semantics is the study of *meaning* communicated through language, Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2007), elaborate further to opine that it is the study of linguistic *meaning* of morphemes, words, phrases and sentences. All the definitions have the word *meaning* as the pivot of the term *semantics*, just as all the definitions of the phenomenon called translation have the same word *meaning* also as its bedrock. Thus, it is evident that there exists a strong affinity between translation, as a concept, and semantics. Finegan (2008: 195) confirms this affinity as he states that "in defining linguistic semantics (which we'll simply call *semantics*), we must invoke the word *meaning*".

It is true that many English language students at the tertiary level here in Nigeria had some encounter with the French language at the primary or secondary school levels, especially those who live in the urban centres. Nevertheless, this brief and shallow contact does make them bilingual. If they happen to encounter some French expressions or words in a passage or textbook, the little previous knowledge may not be enough to help them get the meaning of such words or expressions as they are used in the passage. They may, of course, recognize individual words as well as their meanings but, as Finegan (2008:197) succinctly states:

Adding together the meaning of each word will not produce the full meaning of a sentence because bound morphemes and function words may carry meaning that has implication for the meaning of the entire sentence.

On the contrary, the Nigerian student who speaks French or the Francophone student in the class will be spared this problem as they may know the meanings of these words or expressions. In reviewing the June 1994 English Language 2 (Objective Test), Nyong (p.245) has this to say:

In section 4 of this paper, students are asked to choose synonyms. In question 4 the synonym of *solitary* is asked for. If a student does not know what the word means but remembers *solitaire* in French to mean *to be alone*, he can quickly apply this knowledge knowing that most French

words ending in *-aire* usually change to *-ary* when translated into English. The student will, correspondingly, pick the correct answer.

In the same paper, Nyong again cited question 34 where the students were required to give the synonym of the word *surmounted*. She asserts that a French student who remembers that *surmonter* in French means to *overcome* will pick option A. *overcame*, which was among the answers given. She went further to cite the following examples:

- The June 1994 English Language 1 (Theory), picking out the French loan-word *elite* (paragraphs four and five of the passage for summary).
- The June 1995 English Language 2 (Objective Test), picking question 35 which asked for the word nearest in meaning to *culpable*, a word which exists in the French language and has the same spelling and meaning (though different pronunciation), as in English, that is, *guilty* (option C was *guilt*).

With the demonstration so far, it is no gainsaying that in the English Language classroom, not only at the tertiary level but even at the level of the secondary school, a student who is fortunate to be bilingual in both English and French, will have quite an edge over his or her classmates in many areas, especially in the areas of phonology and semantics.

Recommendations

This article has attempted to re-direct the readers' attention to the relationship that exists between the English and the French languages and how the linguistic competence in one can improve the performance of the other. The paper, therefore, recommends the following:

- The government should stress the teaching and learning of the French language in Nigerian schools.
- The curriculum planners at the tertiary level should make French a compulsory general course.
- The government should ensure that French language be taught in the secondary schools up to the SSCE/WASC/NECO levels in all schools, both private and public.
- The government should motivate French language teachers at all levels through sponsorships to workshops/ seminars/ conferences/courses in French-speaking countries.
- The government should provide language laboratories, at least in the tertiary institutions.
- The government should motivate French language students by

engaging in exchange programmes with French-speaking countries, as this will arouse the interest of students from other subject areas especially English, in the study of the French language.

Conclusion

Having elaborated on the strong affinity between the English and the French languages, this article attempted to demonstrate that an English language student who also understands the French language, will have an edge over his or her classmates in the areas of phonology, semantics and translation. The paper visited, also, the concepts of bilingualism, multilingualism, language contact and its consequences. Some recommendations have also been made. The paper sums that by encouraging the students in the Department of English to create time to devote to the study of the French language in private, either in the French Language Centres or through personal contact with the students who are studying French in their schools.

References

- Abdullahi-Idiagbon, M.S. (2013) "Discourse Analysis: A Critical Appraisal of Concepts and Controversies" In Agidigbo, Abuad Journal of the Humanities, Afe Babalola University, Ado-Ekiti, vol.1(1), pp. 1-9.
- Abercrombie, D. (1967) *Elements of general phonetics*. Edinburgh :Edinburgh University Press.
- Alden, D. W. (1977). *French in 20 lessons*. Great Britain: Collins Clear-Type Press.
- Baugh, A. C. (1976) *A History of the English language*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Bennet, W. A. (1974) *Applied linguistics and language learning*. London: Hutchinson Educational Ltd.
- Capliez, M. (2011) "Experimental Research into the Acquisition of English Rhythm and Prosody by French Learners". [pdfhttp://www.freelang.com/publications/memoires/marc-capliez,universit%C3%A9Lilles,juin,2011](http://www.freelang.com/publications/memoires/marc-capliez,universit%C3%A9Lilles,juin,2011). Date retrieved 2014/7/12.
- Finegan, E. (2008) *Language: Its structure and use*. Boston, USA :ThomsonWadworth.
- Fromkin, V., Rodman, R. & Hyams, N. (2007). *An Introduction to language*. 8th Edition. Boston, USA: Wadsworth Publishing.
- Haugen, E. (1972) "Bilingualism as a Social and Personal Problem" in Filipovic, R. (ed.) *Active Methods and Modern Aids in the Teaching of Foreign Languages*. London: Oxford University Press:
- Horsey, R. (2001) *101 Key ideas linguistics, Teach Yourself Books*: Illinois, USA. NTC/ Contemporary Publishing.

- Katzner, A. (1977) *The Languages of the World*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Martin, J. N. & Nakayama, T. K. (2005) *Experiencing intercultural communication: An Introduction* (2nd Edition). New York: McGraw – Hill.
- Millar, R. M. (2007) *Trask's historical linguistics* (2nd Edition). London: Hodder Arnold..
- Milroy, J. & Milroy, L. (1985) *Authority in language: investigating language prescription and standardisation*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Ndobo, E. (2014) “Does the Spanish Language Have Prospects in Nigeria?” In *Ndunode: Calabar Journal of the Humanities*. Vol. 11, no. 1, Pp. 48-61.
- Newmark, Peter (1991). *About translation*. London :Multilingual Matters..
- Nida, Eugene and Taber, Charles R. (1974). *The Theory and practice of translation*. Leiden: E. J. Brill.
- Nyong, M. E. (2000) “Learn French and pass in English” in *Ikere Journal of Education*, vol. 4 No. 1. pp 239-246.
- Ojo, O.O. (2013) “The Attitudes of Students Towards General Studies Courses at the Afe Babalola University, Ado-Ekiti” In Agidigbo, Abuad *Journal of the Humanities*, Afe Babalola University, Ado-Ekiti, vol.1(1), pp. 1-9.
- Osagbemi, O. (2013) “Orality, Literacy, Modernity and Modern African Poetry” In Agidigbo, Abuad *Journal of the Humanities*, Afe Babalola University, Ado-Ekiti, vol.1(1), pp. 1-9.
- Ploquin, M. (2009) “Phonological Issues in the Production of Prosody by Francophone and Sinophone Learners of English as a Second Language”. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Université du Québec à Montréal.
- Saeed, J. (2009) *Semantics* (3rd Edition). West Sussex, UK :Wiley-Blackwell.
- The New Lexicon Webster's Dictionary.
- Wikipedia, the Free Encyclopedia <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/french-phonology>. Date retrieved 2014/7/9. Cambridge University Press
- Yule, G. (2007) *The Study of language* 2nd Edition. Cambridge:

EFFECTIVENESS OF MULTIMEDIA TECHNOLOGY FOR TEACHING SPOKEN ENGLISH IN A LARGE CLASS: AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

G. A. Ogunleye

ronkeglad1807@gmail.com

M. O. Ayoola

olusanyaayoolamovi@gmail.com

and

B. Oje

KALEOJE@gmail.com

Department English

College of Education,

Ikere-Ekiti

Abstract

Technology has permeated all facets of life, education inclusive. It has redefined the teaching and learning process by offering a better pattern over the traditional way of doing things. With multimedia technology becoming more and more prevalent in the teaching of all disciplines, this empirical study was set out to find out how effective and efficient is the use of multimedia technology in teaching Spoken English in a large class. The study was carried out on two groups of students comprising 150 students each. To determine the effectiveness of using multimedia tools in teaching the course, a pre-test was first given to each group. The first group was then taught without the use of multimedia tools while the second group was taught using multimedia tools. After the teaching, a performance test [post-test] was also conducted to determine the level of the students' proficiency making use of the same questions for the pre-test. The mean scores of each group were found for the pre-test. Simple percentages and difference in means of the scores of each group were obtained for the sake of comparison using t-value at 0.05 level of significance. The study therefore proves that there is a significant difference in the performance of the group taught with multimedia and the group taught without multimedia. It was found out that utilizing multimedia in ELT large classes helps to a large extent in overcoming some of the challenges posed by such classes. We therefore conclude that integrating multimedia into the teaching and learning of English offers quality and effective teaching especially in large classes which characterize most educational institutions.

KEY WORDS: Multimedia, Spoken English, Large class

Introduction

English has undoubtedly become a global language due to its spread and

development around the world. McKay (2002) observes that over eighty-five per cent of international organizations make some official use of English. Though a second language in Nigeria, English has gained an incomparable status with other languages in the society. Its role and status today is incontestably significant being the official medium of communication and the medium of instruction in schools, from the kindergarten to the primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education. In this regard, Jowitt (1991), states that English language performs a wide range of functions in Nigeria. It is a lingual Franca that enjoys official or semi-official status. English language is used for the effectiveness of education and for the sake of academic uniformity from one part of the country to another. Kadri (2002) notes that English language, is usually an official language and as such it enjoys high status within the nation. It is usually the language of education, administration, government, commerce, external communication and general utility. Bamgbose (1971) agrees that English is perhaps the most important heritage left behind by our British colonial masters and according to him; the most noticeable area where English is firmly rooted is in the field of education.

Based on the foregoing, it has become imperative for teachers and learners of English to comprehend the present vital role of the language in developing economies and consider new ways of enhancing quality teaching and learning of the subject. The teaching of English language needs no longer to be limited to the teacher say-it-all situation where students remain passive. Teaching the subject demands a move beyond the old classroom tradition to an accommodation of the emerging technologies. Standard 8 of the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) and IRA standards for the English language Arts (1996) as cited in Roblyer & Doering (2013), emphasises the importance of students using technology in their learning. Students use a variety of technological and informational resources (e.g. libraries, databases, computer networks, video) to gather and synthesize information and communication knowledge. Randall (2006) equally concedes that technology has become a major component, a must have in many homes around the world, with its concomitant influence permeating all facets of human lives, including education. Students today are growing up in a digital world, so educators need new approaches to make learning both real and relevant to them.

In the teaching and learning of English, one of the emerging technologies – multimedia, comes into full play and sets a favourable platform to reform and to explore on English teaching model in the new era. According to Menu (2014) 'It is proved that multimedia technology plays a positive role in promoting activities and initiatives of students and teaching effectively in the classroom. It is fair to assert that the growth of the multimedia has facilitated the growth of the English language to a large extent'.

In Nigeria, the use of technology in the form of films, radio, TV and tape recording in the teaching of English has been there for ages. However, in an effort to meet the demands of this era, utilizing multimedia technology with the various traditional methods of teaching English will to a very large extent eradicate some of challenges posed by large classes' phenomenon in the country's institutions of learning. The flux of large classes in Nigeria today, poses threat to the realization of her educational goals and objectives. The prevailing large classes impede quality teaching and learning. Teachers suffer from the pedagogical shortcomings as well as from the stress that these large classes produce while students do not receive individualized attention.

What is Large Class

There are differing opinions on how 'large' the number of students should be in a so called 'large class' Hayes (1997) says there is no quantitative definition of what constitutes a large class, as people's perception of this varies from context to context. Some institutions use the term large to refers to classes of more than fifty students, while others regard a large class as one with more than one hundred (UNESCO, 2006 cited in Bradley and Eric 2011). A class that is considered large in one country is considered small in another. According to Coleman (1989), in some private language school, a class with 20 students may be perceived large. In Lancaster University project, an average number of the large class is around 50. In China, large class generally refers to that holding 50-100 students or more, which to some foreign teachers may be super large (Wang and Zang 2011).

In Nigeria today, a class of 50 or more is considered as small or normal. Ur (1996) sums it up that, what is relevant to the class as large size is how the teacher perceives the class size in specific situations, regardless of the exact number of the students in it. Therefore a large class is one with more students than the teacher prefers to manage and which available resources cannot support. Based on this stand, large classes usually are considered to pose impassable problems for teachers. It is highly challenging to control or manage large classes in a lecture hall. A large class places both physical and logistical restrictions on the teacher. Moore and Gilnartin (2010) describe teaching large classes in the traditional lecture format as 'the intersection of entertainment and crowd control'. Lo Castro (2001) suggests that when a language class exceeds 15 in number problems arise.

Large class size and lack of material resources are part of the challenges faced by many teachers and learners around the world. This is prevailing especially in developing countries where the recruitment of teachers and educational infrastructures has not kept pace with the rapid growing population of students and consequently, the increase in school enrolments. Therefore, students as many as two, three hundred and sometimes more, 'cluster in a small hall struggling to pay attention to the 'talking and chalking' lecturer who occasionally scribbles on the chalkboard,

while it is mostly assumed that, as the lecturer passes the necessary information through verbal means, learning takes place'. (Sharnadama 2013).

Problems of Teaching in Large Classes.

Teaching large classes poses many pedagogical and psychological problems. Some of them include:

- High noise level
- Lack of intimacy
- Inaccurate marking/grading
- Difficulty in monitoring students
- Inadequate textbooks/instructional materials
- Distractions
- Anxiety/fear by the teacher and students
- Impossibility of meeting students' needs
- Inadequacy of space

English Language Teaching with Multimedia Technology

With the swift development in the PC and multimedia technologies, it has become pertinent to integrate multimedia technology into the teaching and learning process. The integration of multimedia in the teaching and learning of English enables the teacher to create almost real life situation in the classroom. As Meenu (2014) opines, it is fair to assert that the growth of the multimedia has facilitated the growth of the English language to a large extent. Multimedia has enormous potential in the classroom with a number of advantages for experiencing literary texts, as it calls on all the language skills.

The rationale behind the use of multimedia is in two-folds.

- (1) Different media are necessary to serve different instructional objectives.
- (2) It is recognised that students have different learning styles, and alternative ways of studying with a variety of resources should be available to them.

Multimedia

Multimedia literally means 'multiple media' or 'a combination of media'. The term is not new – it refers to the integrated use of multimedia such as slides, videotapes, audiotapes, records, CD-ROM and photos. Advances in computer technology have made it possible to combine text, photo images, speech, music, animated sequences and video in a single interactive computer application. A new definition of multimedia has emerged from this blend of technology. Today, multimedia is defined as an integrated collection of computer based media including text, graphics, sound, animation, photo

images, and video. Vaughan (1933), says multimedia includes a combination of text, audio, still images, animation, video, or interactivity content forms. Stemlar (1997), cited in Parveen and Rajesh (2011), describes multimedia as devices that incorporate text, graphics, animations or real video into English lesson. Similarly, Chunjian (2009), refers to multimedia as encompassing texts, graphics, image video, animation and sound, together and they are dealt with and controlled through computer.

Using Multimedia in Large Classes

Multimedia can be used in different ways by teachers of English language for effective teaching in large classes. As pointed out by the British Council ICT in schools project (2006), cited in Sharndama (2013), language teachers have been using technology for a long time. Gramophones records, slide projectors, film strip projectors are some of the technologies that teachers of English and other language have used in the past. Using multimedia in large classes will facilitate communication and prefer solutions to some of the problems faced in the teaching and learning of English by the teachers and students. As cited in Parveen and Rajesh (2011), Lindfor (1997) opines that, multimedia provides a sensory and real learning experiences and offers greater opportunity for learning. The English teacher can make use of multimedia to ensure quality teaching and learning in a number of ways. Some examples of these are mentioned below:

1. Using multimedia to promote vocabulary learning.

The use of multimedia video in conjunction with the traditional read aloud methods may improve the vocabulary development of English language learners. The teacher can use multimedia video which contains pictures, images or illustrations representing the words. This provides additional information needed to make sense of the words, such additional instructional supports help the learners to understand the meaning of many basic vocabulary words. This further improves the student's comprehension skills. The findings of a study conducted by Rebecca Silverman, lends credence to the effectiveness of multimedia support for vocabulary instruction.

2. Using multimedia to teach spoken English

Teachers can make use of power point slide projectors in teaching spoken English in large classes. The sound symbols as well as the images accompany the texts can be projected in slides for all the students to see. Pronunciation of sounds, syllables, words, formal speech, conversations and even debates can be documented on CD-ROMs. These can be watched separately or simultaneously by the students from any location in the large class. Such an experience will improve their training and expression in English. Glenberg, Goldberg, and Zhu (2011) support this, that many

children especially those learning English as a second or third language can learn to sound out words, but without visual prompts, they may not connect these words to images from their own experience.

3 Using Multimedia to teach Reading and Writing

Reading and writing are two of the language skills taught to improve students' proficiency in English. In tertiary institutions where large classes are predominant, teachers can make use of power point projector and videodiscs to teach different writing tasks that students may be engaged in. The teacher can prepare the lessons he wants to deliver in slides for projection to the large class. He can display diagrams, illustrations and instructions to the students and use quality time for teaching and discussion. The teacher may prepare and presents the outline, introduction, body and conclusion of an essay topic, the steps to follow in summary writing, comprehension etc. in slides. During discussion such steps can be explained to the class.

4. Using multimedia to teach Literature

Power point projector in conjunction with sound and text can be used to teach poetry in large classes. CD-ROMs and videodiscs can also be used for documentations of plays and poetry. For a classroom presentation of a play, an overhead transparency could be used to introduce the play or poetry, with motion-picture sequence. This may be followed with a series of slides illustrating the theme, setting, characterization, etc.

There are different multimedia tools available in the market. Pronunciation, accent, vocabulary building, note-taking or note-making skills, reading comprehension, writing skills etc. are taught using multimedia tools. Flash animation can be used to teach grammar and video to improve the students' communicative skills.

Advantages of using multimedia in teaching English in large classes

- Increases learning effectiveness
- More appealing over traditional, lecturer based learning methods
- Frees the teacher from routines tasks
- Promotes interaction between teacher and students
- Helps teachers to teach suitably
- Promotes students' study capacity
- Tailors information to the individual
- Gains and hold attention

Purpose of the study

In most of our universities and colleges of educations, it is observed that there is no functional Language Laboratory in the Department of English for teaching spoken English / Phonetics effectively. This study is, therefore,

designed to examine the effectiveness of the use of multimedia tools for teaching spoken English as a good alternative to the use of gadgets in the language laboratory especially when teaching a large class.

Research Questions

This empirical study is expected to answer the following questions.

- i. How effective is the use of multimedia tools in teaching spoken English to a large class in Higher Institution
- ii. How convenient is the use of multimedia tools to the teacher of spoken English
- iii. What is the students' response to the use of multimedia tools

To attempt the above research questions, it is expected that there will be significant difference between the students who were taught with multimedia tools and those who were taught without multimedia tools.

Methodology

The subject for this study comprised 300 students of University of Nigeria, Nsukka in affiliation with College of Education, Ikere-Ekiti. The students were 200 level students of English Department and they were randomly assigned into two groups of 150 each.

All the 200 level students of the Department of English offer the course- Spoken English coded ENGL 221. In the absence of functional language laboratory, the course was previously taught to the students without any instrument or tape recorder. All we did was to manually teach the students by identifying the sounds on the chalkboard and drawing the human skull to show where and how these sounds are produced.

At the point we wanted to introduce the use of multimedia tools as alternative to the use of language laboratory at the beginning of the semester; the class was divided into two groups and the first group was taught for three weeks using video clips via projector and tape recorders to show the students how the sounds are produced and to listen to how each word is pronounced by the native speakers while the other group was taught using the old method. To determine the effectiveness of using multimedia tools in teaching the course, a pre-test was first given to each group and the pre-test result shows that there was no significant difference in the performances of the two groups (see table 1 below). The first group was then taught without the use of multimedia tools while the second group was taught using multimedia tools.

In the course of teaching the students, it was observed that the students responded well with great enthusiasms and the researchers equally found it easy to carry the students along by showing them examples in the video clips. The use of these tools does not require any special skills as an average educated person can easily operate a VCD player, tape recorder and projector. Thus, these multimedia tools are very easy, cheap and convenient for the teachers to operate.

After the teaching, a performance test [post-test] was also conducted to determine the level of the students' proficiency making use of the same questions for the pre-test. For the purpose of data analysis, the mean scores of each group were found for the pre-test. Simple percentages and Difference in means of the scores of each group were obtained for the sake of comparison using t-value at 0.05 level of significance.

Result Analysis and Discussion

Table I below shows the mean score in both the pre-test and post-test and their differences the groups.

Table I

Groups	No. of subjects	Pre-test Mean score	Post-test Mean score	Difference
A	150	11.37	25.28	13.91
B	150	11.96	58.46	47.50

Group A = Students Assigned and taught without the use of multimedia

Group B = Students Assigned and taught with the use of multimedia

The analysis of the pre-test data in the above table showed that the mean score for group A was 11.37 while that of Group B was 11.96. Statistically, the table showed that there was no significant difference in the pre-test. The implication is that the subjects are at the same level knowledge, hence the groups were found to be suitable for the experiment.

Table II below shows the post-test percentages of both Groups to the range of scores.

Table II

Scores	Group A		Group B	
	N	%	N	%
1-19	54	36	7	4.7
20-39	79	52.7	11	7.3
40-59	13	8.7	63	42
60-79	4	2.7	46	30.7
80-99	0	0	23	15.3
Total	150	100	150	100

The analysis of the post-test data in the table above showed a statistically significant improvement in the percentage of the students taught with multimedia tools compared with the students who were not taught using multimedia. Statistically, there was significant difference in the number of students who obtained passed mark (40-99). The comparison shows that 11.3% in group A passed the test while 87.7% passed in group B. The summary of findings in the Table III below shows the t-test results of the post-test of both groups at 0.5 level of significance.

Table III

Groups	Mean score	Difference of means	S.D.	t-test
A	25.28	33.18	17.16	8.028
B	58.46		24.7	

$$P = .05$$

$$t_{\text{-tab}} = 1.960$$

From the above, looking at the difference in means of the Group A and Group B, the t-test was 8.028, we require a $t = 1.960$ for significance at .05 percent level. Since the t-value obtained in this study 8.028 is greater than $t = 1.960$, we conclude that there is statistically significant difference in the performance test scores of the students taught with the use of multimedia tools and the students taught making use of no tool.

The implication is that the use of multimedia tools in the teaching of Spoken English is:

- i. highly effective to a large class in Higher Institution
- ii. convenient to the teacher of Spoken English and
- iii. that the students' response to the use of multimedia tools is positive.

From the foregoing, it is found out that the use of multimedia technology in teaching aspects of English language is very advantageous in a large class as it helps to overcome many of the challenges of large class in our institutions of higher learning, such as difficulty in carrying students along as a result of high noise level and low response of students. Multimediatechnology is very cheap, common and easy to operate. Hence, it can serve as a better alternative for teaching spoken English in Institutions where there are no functional Language laboratories.

Conclusion

Multimedia Technology offers teachers opportunities for creating meaningful and interesting teaching and learning environments. The ultimate goal of multimedia language learning is to encourage students' motivation and interest. Without this technology, the process of English learning especially in large classes will be teacher-centred, energy sapping and time-consuming. The study has shown the effective use of multimedia in teaching spoken English as an example of various ways and aspects of English where multimedia can be useful in facilitating the teaching process in large classes. It has also spelt out the advantages of this technology. English language teachers therefore, should use this technology appropriately and frequently for optimum benefit.

References

- Bamgbose, A. (1971) "The English Language in J. Spencer", (ed). *The English Language in West Africa*. London; Longman.
- Bradley, C. & Green, E. (2011) *Teaching Effectively in Large Classes*. University of Regina; Centre for Teaching and Learning
- Chunjian, Z. (2009) *Application of Multimedia in English Teaching and Learning*. Journal of Technology for ELT. Retrieved from the internet on.
- Coleman, H. (1989) Language Learning in Large Classes Research Project: Leads and Lancaster Universities.
- Blenberg, A., Goldberg, A. & Zhu, X. (2011) *Improving Early Reading comprehension Using Embodied CA*. *Instructional Science: An International Journal of the Learning Sciences*, 39 (1), 27-39
- Hayes, U. (1997) *Helping Teachers to cope in large classes*. *ELT Journal*, S 1, 31-38
- Ikwuka, O.I. (2013) *Improving the Teaching and Learning of English Language through the Use of Information and communication Technology*. Unpublished. Proceedings of the 34th NAEMT International Conference at Wuse, Abuja.
- Jowitt, D. (1991) *Nigerian English Usage; An Introduction*. Lagos: Longman
- Kadri, A. (2003) *Attitudes of Secondary School Teachers of English towards the received pronunciation (RP) Accent in Ilorin Metropolis*. An Unpublished M.ED. seminal proposal, Unilorin.
- Lo Castro, V. (2001) *Teaching English to Large Classes*. *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol 35, No. 3 pp 493-496
- Mckay, S. (2002) *Teaching English as an International Language: Rethinking goals and approaches*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Meenu, P. (2014) *The Use of the Multimedia in the Teaching and Learning of*

- English Language*. Retrieved from the internet on 23rd September, 2014. <https://www.academia.edu>
- Moore, N. & Gilmartin, M. (2010) *Teaching for better learning: A blended learning pilot project with first year geography undergraduates*, Journal of Geography in Higher Education, Vol. 34: 3, 327-344
- Parveen, J. & Rajesh, V. (2011) *Multimedia in English Language Teaching: An Empirical Analysis*. Journal of Technology for ELT. Vol. 1 No.4.
- Randall, D. (2006) *The Impact of Technology on Language Teaching*. USA: English Language Institute, University of Utah. Retrieved from the Internet TESL Journal XII (II) Nov. 2006 <http://www.iteslj.org/>
- Roblyer, M. & Doering, A. (2013) *Integrating Educational Technology into Teaching*. USA: Pearson.
- Sharndama, E (2013) *Application of ICTs in teaching and learning English (ELT) in large classes*. Retrieved from the internet on 20th September 2014. www.theatrejournal.org/index.php/site/article/view/148
- Silverman, R. (2014) *Using Multimedia to Promote Vocabulary Learning: Supporting English Language Learners in inclusive*. Retrieved from the internet on 20th September, 2014. www.readingrockets.org
- Ur, P. (1996) *A course in language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge Press
- Vaughan, T. (1993) *Multimedia: making it work*. Berkeley: Retrieved from <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/multimedia> on August 1, 2013.

USING REPRESENTATION TEACHING STRATEGY TO MANAGE LARGE CLASSES IN SCIENCE

Bolanle Omotoke Olaleye

School of Science,
Chemistry Department,
Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education,
Otto/Ijanikin, Lagos.
olatoke.bolanle@gmail.com,

and

Joshua Oluwagbemiga Olaleye

Faculty of Engineering,
Mechanical Department,
Lagos State University, Ojo, Lagos
olaleyejo@yahoo.com

Abstract

Effective communication in a science classroom involves the use of language in multiple forms that includes: speech, writing, signs and gestures. Communication goes beyond mere facts or rote learning but encompasses playing roles that convey emotion, mood, health, seriousness and importance by using gesture and posture, facial expressions, drawings and vocalizations. Every subject has its own language and vocabulary hence, it would be better learned when students are provided with opportunities to actively engage in constructing knowledge using multiple representational modes. Learning is best facilitated in a representation-rich environment where students share understandings, collaborate on investigations, and clarify knowledge through constructing representations of what they have learnt. This paper focuses on the use of representation such as games, role-plays, concept maps, 3D modes, flow charts and diagrams in a large classroom during lessons.

Introduction

A recent research suggests that the key to effective instruction and student learning, regardless of class size, is to engage students in active learning (Olaleye, 2013). The students benefit from effective teaching and learning strategies inside and outside the classroom. Helping them to learn is our challenges as teachers, while identifying effective teaching strategies therefore, is our task as we assess the effectiveness of our current teaching style and consider innovative ways to improve our teaching to match our students' learning styles. Putting the students into the role of a teacher makes the students to look deeper into the assigned problem. The students will be forced to clarify their thinking and understanding, since they must explain to their peers the phenomena that they are demonstrating.

A diversity of modes of representation can make science classrooms more stimulating for the students, encouraging them to think, assisting them to connect prior information with new information and enabling them to present their views and ideas (Harrison & Treagust 1999; Olaleye, 2013; Prain & Waldrip, 2006; Warden, 2006). In these classrooms, students are constructing ideas based on their imagination of the world around them and applying these ideas to the learning process, which helps them in making science relevant to their daily lives. Among these modes are 3D modes (e.g., models and experiments), graphic and visual modes (e.g.; posters, diagrams, images, tables, charts, power-point presentations, and computer simulations), verbal modes (e.g.; oral representation, guest speaker), written modes (e.g., worksheets and texts), embodied modes (e.g., role-play and gesture), and numerical modes (e.g.; mathematics) (Carolan, et al., 2008; Harrison & De Jong, 2005; Prain & Waldrip, 2006).

A handbook for teaching assistants pp. 9 – 18 highlighted the following teaching strategies for effecting learning in the classroom:

Bringing “Real-Life” Scenarios into the Classroom

This helps the students to better relate theory to the “real-world”. The students are usually given written material regarding a case and asked to read it and answer a series of questions pertaining to various aspects of the case. The students can be required to work either individually or in groups. Asking students to share ideas with a partner or in small groups first, generates more ideas and makes the students feel more confident about sharing their ideas.

THE FLOWCHART TECHNIQUE

Organizing the Flow of Thought

The technique of flowcharting, as applied to a classroom scenario, is a tool for precisely and concisely representing the flow of information among various stages in the development of a theoretical concept. The students can prepare flowcharts alone or in groups to show processes and help solve open-ended problems.

BRAINSTORMING

Encouraging Creativity

The brainstorming technique is widely used in industry and academia to encourage participants to generate ideas in an unhindered manner. In an academic context, brainstorming encourages THE students to participate actively in idea-generation exercises and experience benefits of a multi-dimensional approach to analyzing problems or solutions. This approach allows for a freer flow of ideas and in a more relaxed environment.

Group: This is a structured approach except that the class is broken into small groups and each group presents its ideas after an allotted amount of time. This

also promotes synergy and communication among the students. Brainstorming provides a forum for the students to express creative ideas.

QUESTION-AND-ANSWER METHOD

Encouraging Student Participation

The technique encourages students to move beyond memorization to higher levels of learning that require clarification, expansion, generalization, and inference; and the goal is to draw the students into active participation in the teaching and learning processes. With the question-and-answer methodology, the students can learn in real-time, as they are being taught which helps them to understand and integrate the material better.

Role of Social Language in Science Learning

Constructivist research of the late Rosalind Driver and scholars at Leeds University maintain that: *“Learning science involves being initiated into the culture of science. If learners are to be given access to the knowledge systems of science, the process of knowledge construction must go beyond personal empirical enquiry. Learners need to be given access not only to physical experiences but also to the concepts and models of conventional science”* (Driver, et al., 1994, p. 6).

Sociocultural researchers such as Mortimer and Scott (2003) and Traianou (2007) would argue that this enculturation into the world of science occurs through dialogic processes using the social language of science in the context of activities. Learning as a dialogic process creates an open and fundamentally authentic learning environment and enables the students to learn from each other (Bakhtin, 1981; Flecha, 2000). Meaning making, according to Mortimer and Scott (2003), is a dialogic process that entails bringing together different views and working on ideas. Learning how to discuss about science through the use of language in the form of signs, gestures, and facial expressions (Lemke, 2004) is a crucial aspect that brings about social interaction of classroom discourse.

Learning the social language of science is necessary for students to effectively engage in the dialogue of the science classroom. Students' development of new understanding of abstract science concepts will depend on their understanding of the particular languages involved and diverse representations of the concept. Students need to learn the conventions that will enable them to construct and interpret representations and link everyday meaning-making to the world around them.

Role of Representation in Large Classes

Learning science concepts requires an understanding of the social language involved. An important aspect of developing the social language of

chemistry is to acquire the knowledge involved. The American philosopher C.S. Pierce (1931 - 58) wrote on semiotics, which is concerned with the systematic study of signs (symbols) and their meaning. The most familiar example of such a system of signs is the human language. According to Peirce, the humans make meanings through their creation and interpretation of signs. Anything can be a sign as long as someone interprets it as signifying 'something'. Peirce developed a triadic model comprising three basic semiotic elements, the sign, object and interpretant. A representation becomes a sign when it signifies something about the object (or referent) to someone. A theorist, Saussure (1983) says - a sign must have both a signifier (the form which the sign takes) and signified (the concept it represents) (p. 101) which means, a sign is a recognizable combination of a signifier with a particular signified. The use of multiple representations in a specific combination can support a more complete understanding of a phenomenon (Kozma, Russell, Jones, Marx, & Davis, 1996). Molecular-level, or nanoscopic, diagrams, models and role-plays have often been proposed as a way to support students' understanding of science concepts.

The expansion in enrolment in higher institutions in Africa within the midst of limited resources translated in the 1980s and 1990s into more numbers in classes. The phenomenon of large classes is fast becoming one to be contended with in most higher institutions in the region. The outlook for the future! Many more large classes. But of course, large classes are found in institutions all over the world. Since we cannot wish large classes away, we have to devise techniques for delivering good quality education in such settings. This representation strategy is to assist those teachers who have responsibility for teaching large classes to do so with a smile!

We often think that learning occurs in proportion to class size: the smaller the class, the more students learn. However, while research shows that small classes provide more opportunities for feedback and discussion than large classes, as well as greater student satisfaction, it does not suggest that class size is necessarily a correlate of student learning (Buzan & Abbott, 2005; Ingvarson, Meiers and Beavis (2005; O'Sullivan, 2006). What counts is not the size of the class, but the quality of the teaching. Research suggests that the key to effective instruction and student learning, regardless of class size, is engaging the students in active learning (Olaleye, 2013; Adrian, 2010; Normore & Illon, 2006).

What is a Large Class

There is no agreed definition of a large class in the literature, nor should there be. One person's large class is what some others consider as 'regular', 'small' or 'normal'. During a UNESCO Regional workshop on teaching and learning in Higher education at Moi university, Eldoret, Kenya, this excerpt of view expressed by one of the participant when a question on large class was put forward that

A large class is one with more students than available facilities can support"

Challenges of Large Classes

Studies on the effects of class size have been conducted since the 1920's. Now to the down side of large classes. Teaching large classes has been found to adversely affect morale, motivation and self-esteem of teachers. Kennedy & Kennedy (1996) shared similar view as they believed it was difficult to overcome all that happen in a class when the number of students exceeds a certain limit. Lazear (2003) assumed that if a student misbehaved and began disturbing the class, the teachers have to attend to the disturbance and controlled the noise. Such an action from one student or more, in a large class, will block the learning of that moment and demolish the capability of others to learn..Although many teachers can manage a class of almost any size successfully, this can often be at the expense of the teacher's own well being and the range of learning experiences offered to the students. Many teachers of large classes feel they spend too much time in organizing and managing the class activities and not enough time on meeting the needs of individual children. Large classes and overcrowded classrooms have negative effects on students' behavior and learning. Some other problems with large classes are:

- Students become faces instead of people.
- It is harder to give advice and guidance to individual students.
- Organizational problems are compounded, making it difficult to schedule tutorials, laboratory sessions, and fieldwork.
- There can be technical problems working with large classes e.g. difficulties in projecting slides that are clearly visible to all the students.
- Monitoring of attendance can be difficult, thus encouraging the students to cut classes.
- Coping with large numbers of assignments and examination scripts is a source of difficulty.
- The quality of feedback to students can be much reduced in large classes.

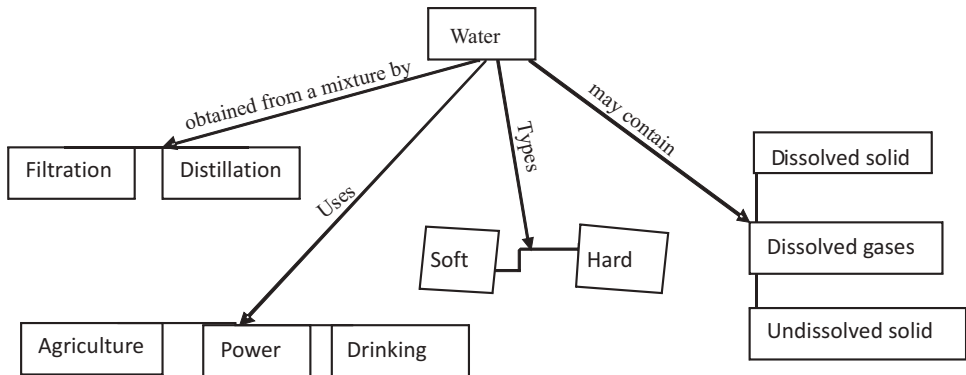
Utilization of Teaching Techniques in Large Classes

No doubt these obstacles are numerous. Since we cannot wish large classes away, we have to devise techniques for coping, and ensure that our students benefit from participation in a large class. Let us now examine how we go about this as explained in Olaleye (2013) teaching techniques module on the use of a multiple representation teaching strategy.

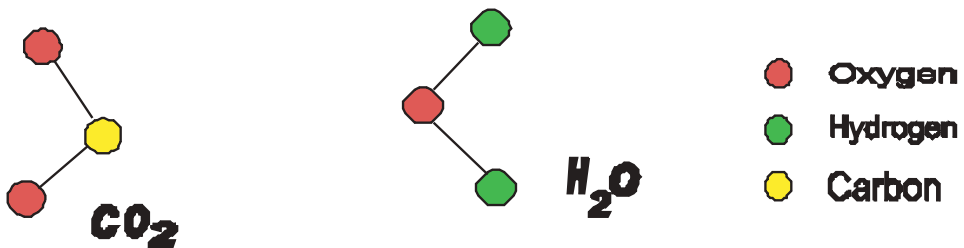
Concept maps consist of concept labels that identify specific ideas

(concepts) and the links between them, which explain how concepts are related to make meaning, this engage students' higher order thinking in identifying key features of a concept and specifying their interrelationships (Novak, 1991, 1996; Richard, 2008); Example

Concept map on water and solution



3D models to help students visualise molecular shapes; the models can be rotated and viewed from different perspectives (Harrison & De Jong, 2005); Example, a 3D model of Carbon dioxide and water molecules represented below



Role-plays as an embodied form of representation which allow students to work on and demonstrate their understanding of processes or events (George, 2004; Murcia, 2009); Example

Six students acting a role play of a colliding molecule (e.g., water molecule – H_2O). The students' pair into three groups, two pairs representing two hydrogen molecules and one pair representing oxygen molecule. What happens at the colliding molecules?

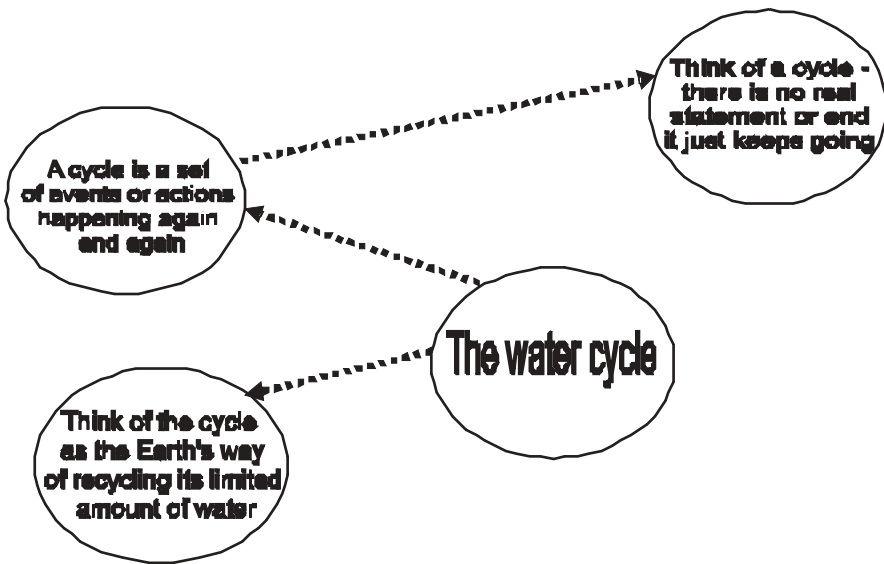
Rehearse the role play:

When flying H_2 and O_2 gas molecules collide, their negatively charged electron clouds repel each other and actually become distorted. If the collision energy is sufficient, electrons are rearranged, a water molecule forms, and energy escape (the reaction is exothermic)

$\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ But if the kinetic energy of the collision is too low, the molecules simply bounce away.

$\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{H} + 2\text{O}$

Flow charts to represent the steps in a process; flow charts usually have arrows to show a direction of flow

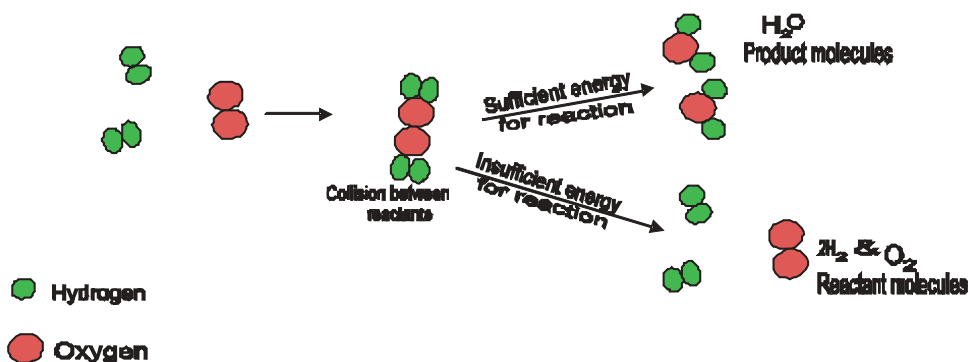


Flow chart representation

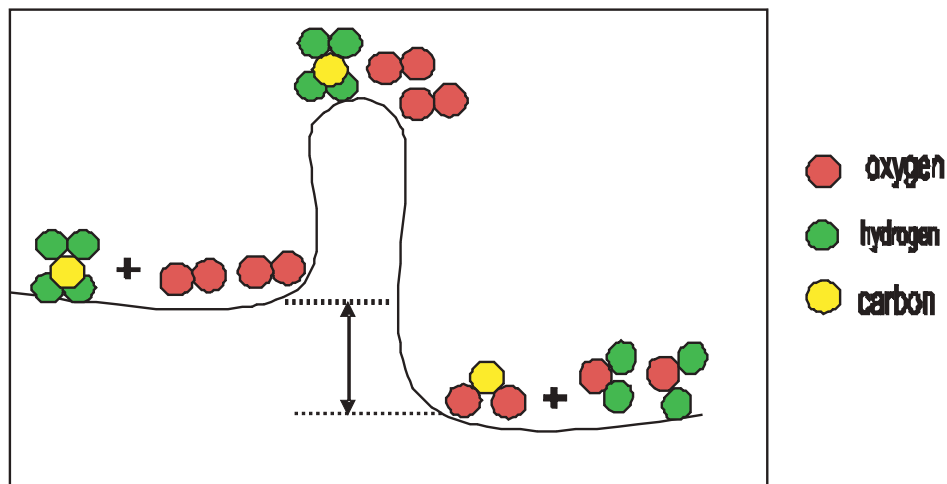
(Water, plants, animals, sunshine, evaporation, transpiration, rain, water vapour, clouds, cooling, condensation, precipitation, soaks into ground (run off), ground water, lakes, rivers, oceans)

Challenge: Develop a list of flow chart using each word on a piece of cardboard provided.

Particulate representations of a sub-microscopic world that represent matter as constituent atoms and molecules; **For example, reaction between hydrogen gas and oxygen gas to produce liquid water**



Graphical representations to show energy changes during a reaction. For example, Construct energy diagrams showing the relative potential energies of the reactants and the product and the transition state using particulate representation between methane molecule (CH₄) and oxygen molecule (O₂) to produce carbon dioxide (CO₂) and water (H₂O).



Represented in the figure below reflect utilization of teaching techniques in a large class size as explained above

UTILIZATION OF REPRESENTATION TEACHING STRATEGY IN A LARGE CLASS SIZE
Olaleye (2013) Multiple Representation Teaching Model



Students conducting
role play activity



Students constructing
particulate
representation



Students constructing
a 3D physical model of
a compound



Students Developing
concept maps



Students conducting
water filter challenge



Students constructing
water cycle using flow
chart

Adequate facility in terms of class spaces has always been a great challenge. It is common to find students crowding themselves, and hanging on the classroom windows which reduces effectiveness in both teaching and learning. Apart from those listed above, we can use:

1. Camcorder and multiple audio visual devises: in this technique, the teacher divides the students into sizeable groups and each group will occupy different classrooms based on the number of students in the groups. Each of the classrooms will have an audio-visual device installed in any of the classrooms and camcorder (i.e, a camera integrated with decoder) is focused to the teacher and the students while teaching is ongoing. The Camcorder uses its camera function to record the class session and simultaneously sends the session to the audio visual devices in all the other groups of students in the respective halls. If enough classrooms are not available to accommodate the groups, the recorded sessions can be played by the teacher at another time and date. By this, for the other groups of students the teacher does not need to repeat the class session. The benefits of this technique include the following:
 - a) It reduces teachers' fatigues and worn-out
 - b) It captivates and arouses students' interest in learning

- c) There is consistency of methods, examples, and questions and answers. The students listen and watch same teacher doing justice to the topic.

Disadvantages of this method:

- a) The cost of deployment is high.
 - b) Equipment requires electricity which is not always available or expensive to provide.
2. Internet hot spots groups: Undoubtedly, internet has become an indispensable tool for teaching and learning. Internet hot spots are an internet router that manages sizeable number of internet connection. In this technique, students can be divided into smaller groups with each group having internet hot spots. The benefits of this technique include the following:
- a) The students will have access to online resources and volume of the subject matter
 - b) Effective communication between the students and their teachers through the use of e-mails, what'sapp, etc.
 - c) The cost of the hot spots is not expensive and does not require equipment space unlike their commercial counterpart.

Disadvantages of this method:

- a) The deployment requires computer and internet literacy of all students involved.
- b) The equipment can be easily stolen because of its portability.

Research reports assert that engaging students in the learning processes: promotes higher order thinking; encourages collaborate learning with peers in the classroom; increases the level of academic challenge; increases students' enthusiasm to participate in the activities; and, that students show curiosity and interest in the subject matter which eventually leads to deep understanding of the material to learn and students have a meaningful personal connection to the topic (Fletcher, 2005; Hake, 1997; Kuh, Cruce, & Shoup, 2008; Skinner & Belmont, 1993).

Summary

The use of representations allows active participation of students during the lesson and makes abstract concepts real through various modes of representation. Effective teaching and learning of science requires carefully planned lessons that actively engage students' higher order thinking through

challenging representational activities. The teachers, therefore, need to be resourceful, creative and develop skills of improvisation using available materials to support instruction. Providing sufficient of active learning experiences in the classroom rather than copying notes on chalkboard in large classes can come close to being as educationally worthwhile as small classes. This also encourages students-teacher rapports; reduce teacher's stress; students' getting bore during the lesson process and rote memorization; and, eventually increase students' rate of assimilation of the concept.

References

- Adrian, L. M. (2010). Active learning in large classes: Can small interventions produce greater results than are statistically predictable? Active learning in large classes. *The Journal of General Education*, 59(4), 223-237.
- Bakhtin, M. N. (1981). *The dialogic imagination: Four essay*. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Buzan, T., & Abbott, S. (2005). *Mind maps for kids: Max your memory and concentration*. London: Thorsons.
- Carolan, J., Prain, V., & Waldrup, B. (2008). Using representations for teaching and learning in science. *Teaching Science*, 54(1), 18 - 23.
- Driver, R., Asoko, H., Leach, J., Mortimer, E., & Scott, P. (1994). Constructing scientific knowledge in the classroom. *Educational Researcher*, 23(7), 5 - 12.
- Flecha, R. (2000). Sharing words: *Theory and practice of dialogic learning (Critical perspective series)*. Harvard Educational Review, (pp.128), Lanham, MD: Harvard Education Press.
- Harrison, A. G., & De Jong, O. (2005). Exploring the use of multiple analogical models when teaching and learning chemical equilibrium. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 42(10), 1135 - 1159.
- Harrison, A. G., & Treagust, D. F. (1999). Learning about atoms, molecules and chemical bonds: A case study of multiple -model use in Grade 11 chemistry. *Science Education*, 84(3), 352 -381.
- Ingvarson, L., Meiers, M., & Beavis, A. (2005). Factors affecting the impact of professional development programs on teachers' knowledge, practice, student outcome and efficacy. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 13(10), 1 - 26.
- Kennedy, C., & Kennedy, J. (1996). Teacher Attitudes and Change Implementation. *System*, 24(3), 351-360.Elsevier Science Ltd.

- Lazear, E. P. (2003). Educational production. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 116(3), 777-803.
- Lemke, K. (2004). The literacies of science. In E. W. Saul. (Ed.), *Crossing boarders in literacy and science instructions perspectives on theory and practice*. Arlington, VA: International Reading Association/National Science Teachers Association.
- Mortimer, E., & Scott, P. (2003). *Making meaning in secondary science classroom*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Murcia, K. (2009). Re -thinking the development of scientific literacy through a rope metaphor. *Research in Science Education*, 39, 215 - 229.
- Normore, A., & Ilon, L. (2006). Cost-effective school inputs: Is class size reduction the best educational expenditure for Florida? *Educational Policy*, 20, 429-454.
- Novak, J. D. (1991). Clarify with concept maps: A tool for students and teachers alike. *The Science Teacher*, 58, 45 - 49.
- Novak, J. D. (1996). Concept mapping: A tool for improving science teaching and learning In
- D. F. Treagust, R. Duit & B. J. Fraser (Eds.), *Improving teaching and learning in science and mathematics*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Olaleye, B. O., (2013). "Enhancing teachers' knowledge for using multiple representations in teaching chemistry in Nigerian senior secondary schools" Released at Germany, posted on February 13, 2013; Publisher: LAP, LAMBERT Academic Publishing; <http://www.amazon.com>
- O'Sullivan, M. C. (2006). Teaching large classes: The international evidence and a discussion of some good practices in Ugandan primary schools. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 26, 24-37.
- Peirce, C. S. (1931 - 58). *Collected Papers of Charles Sanders Peirce*, 8 Volumes (Eds. Charles Hartshorne, Paul Weiss & Arthur W Burks, Vols 1 - 6), (Ed., Arthur W. Burks, vol 7-8). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Prain, V., & Waldrip, B. (2006). An exploratory study of teachers' and students' use of multi- modal representations of concepts in primary science. *International Journal of Science Education*, 28 (15), 1843-1866.
- Richard, K. O. (2008). Pedagogical strategies in the teaching of secondary school science. *Akoka Journal of Pure & Applied Science Education*, 8(1), 109 - 117.
- Saussure, F. (1983). *Course in general linguistics*. London: Duckworth.
- Traianou, A. (2007). *Understanding teacher expertise in primary science*: Rotterdam: Sense Publishers. Teaching Assistant Fellows (1995).

Strategies for Effective Teaching a Handbook for Teaching Assistants, University of Wisconsin-Mandison, College of Engineering

Warden, C. (2006). *Talking and Thinking floor books: Using "Big Book Planers" to consult children* Perth: Mindstretchers.

ADOPTING A LEARNER-FRIENDLY APPROACH TO ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS' SPEECH CHALLENGE

R. R. Aduradola, B. S, Sotiloye B. A. A., Adebisi, H. A. Bodunde H. A.
and B. I. Akeredolu Ale

Department of Communication and General Studies
Federal University of Agriculture
Abeokuta
remyem1@gmail.com

Abstract

It has been established that the four skills of communication are usually developed in graduation from listening to speaking, reading and then writing. It has also been observed in many English language classrooms that the speaking skill is grossly neglected in spite of its significance and relevance to the other communication skills. While speech drills remain one of the traditional methods of teaching speech work, such means have become quite repetitive and of little significance. Speech drills, however, need not be boring exercises neither should learners or users be over-stressed to achieve native-like pronunciation. Therefore, to promote a learner or user-friendly environment in and out-of-the classroom, there is the need to adopt the use of communicative and more user-friendly activities to develop the speaking ability of learners. Such multi-context and varied approaches would expose problematic sounds and segmental features of many Nigerian learners and users of the English language. It will further create opportunity for reduction of pronunciation errors, while at the same time solve the growing challenge of achieving a native speaker model. This paper provides an examination of the varied classroom experiences of learners in tertiary institutions who are largely from the **Igbo and Yoruba** linguistic communities. This is based on the adoption of **Phillippa de Launay's Model** exercises to create awareness of learners' problematic areas and needs for improvement with recommendation of practical suggestions for remediation.

Keywords: Communication, Speech Challenge, Remediation, and Functional Experience

Introduction

The art of speaking as an organized sound had been said to begin with the development of listening skill tied to effective use of the ear from childhood. Healthy babies learn by hearing and responding to sounds made around them and they spontaneously imitate the gestures. However, with adolescents and adults, the difficulty in pronouncing English language words becomes a

herculean task largely due to the influence of mother-tongues or indigenous languages, whose features they have grown with. While accepting the idea of difficulty with the development of the sounds of English language as a foreign language, J. O'Connor proposed the establishment of new ways of using speech organs [and building] new speech habits. This assertion provides a strong platform for a discussion on the adoption of a learner-friendly approach to resolve the growing speech challenges of English language users and the twenty-first century learners (O'Connor, 1999).

Different *Englishes* had appeared from diverse geographical or regional contexts. Such differences lend credence to the idea of establishing regional model rather than enforcing the British Standard Model for communication purposes especially in locations where English is used as a second/foreign or official language.

English has become a global, academic and required professional language for the ever increasing international communities around the world (Kamla, 2013; KG Support 2013). Research shows that over 1.5 billion people speak English language as either native, second and/ or foreign language, in developed and developing countries of the world, including Nigeria (SIL Ethnologue, 2013). It is the official language in Nigeria. The Federal Ministry of Education in Nigeria formulated a language policy that the teaching and learning of English language should be one of the core subjects starting from primary through secondary schools and the official medium used in teaching other subjects from the senior primary through secondary to tertiary institutions (FGN, 2004).

Interestingly, despite this general acceptability of English language by most developed and developing countries as official communication tool, KG Support (2013) asserts that English language is the most difficult European language to read and learn primarily due to its unique characteristics of subject-verb-object structure, alphabetic nature; uses of articles, unphonetic nature and some other minor peculiarities. However, in combating these daunting challenges and for non-native Nigerian English speakers to learn, master and acquire a strong or good command of the language, the government has since 1988 introduced Oral English as a compulsory part of the English language curriculum in Nigerian secondary schools. According to Akeredolu-Ale (2005:51) “the school syllabi are reviewed from time to time to provide adequate guides to ensure that necessary teaching activities in spoken English take place.”

Despite these efforts by the Nigerian government, it is still obvious that Nigerians, especially students across all levels of the educational system face many challenges limiting their oral proficiency in terms of appropriate pronunciation of English sounds (phonemes), mispronunciation of words, poor intonation, and misplacement of the qualities and length of vowels as well as misrepresentation of phonetic sounds. In order to achieve higher levels of intelligibility and communicative effectiveness among the speakers

of English language, there is the suggestion to learn the appropriate pronunciation skills in a friendly way.

In view of this background, this paper aims at identifying common pronunciation errors among Igbo and Yoruba learners, its causative factors, and proposing remedies by adopting a learner-friendly approach in rectifying the challenges.

Review of Early Researches on Teaching and Learning of Oral English in Nigerian Schools

Case Studies:

O Connor (1999:3) observed the peculiar challenges of foreign learners of English language. Basing his observations on the concept of having sounds arranged in 'boxes', he explained why it is difficult for an adult second language learner of English to select sounds from a fixed sets of sounds in a box arrangement. If a sound is not available in his first language (L1), he chooses the nearest to the sound with which he has problem. According to him, a foreign or second language learner of English realizes the sound / **θ** / as /**f**, **t**, **s**/ as in/**fin**/ /**tin**/ or /**sin**/. Thus, he suggested the building of new boxes for reading correct sounds of English and breaking down the negative habit imposed by mother-tongue interference through an exposure to new means of learning, using speech organs and forming new speech habits.

Akeredolu-Ale (2002) drew attention to the fact that many Nigerian children and adults have formed the habit of dropping the /**h**/ sound when it is to be sounded and include it when it is absolutely not necessary. This situation was observed to occur in specific language environments just like the French learners understudied by Phillippa de Launay (1993).

In another study, Akeredolu-Ale (2005) identified three basic problems leading to pronunciation errors by some Nigerian learners. The first was the low level or 'near-total neglect' of teaching spoken English in Nigerian schools, the second was traced to the challenge of the spoken model to teach or to be learned and the third was the idea that teachers who had earlier acquired defective speech through teaching contact transfer same to their learners, thus passing an heritage of speech defect to generations after them. In addition, some Nigerian learners and users of the English language have challenges with the following sounds: / **Λ**, **Λ**, **z**, **v**, **θ**, **ð**, **h** / sounds. These sounds, according to Akeredolu-Ale (2005), posed a threat to their listening and speaking skills, which eventually affect their acceptable and intelligible usages.

Sotiloye (2007) assessed the challenges facing the teaching of Oral English and identified the following factors:

- (i) Inadequate time allotted to the teaching of the course.

- (ii) Total neglect of the teaching and acquisition of speaking skills in secondary schools.
- (iii) Institutional constraints manifested in poor facilities, lack of adequate space, and large-class syndrome.
- (iv) Mother-tongue interference caused by substitution of consonant and vowel sounds with those in the learners' MT.
- (v) Inconsistency in the phonemes and orthographic symbols of the English language.
- (vi) A feeling of oppression, burden and bother at the introduction of the Use-of-English course
- (vii) Students' non-challant attitude towards the subject.

The field work undertaken by Bodunde (2008) investigated the impact of school location and Oral English proficiency of selected secondary schools in Ekiti State. This study further supported the idea of growing speech challenges of learners and users of the English language. These challenges are manifested in the pronunciation of **dental fricatives**/ θ , δ /; **labio-dental fricatives** / f , v /; **consonant clusters**; and some **monothongs** / i , Λ , Λ , Λ , u :/ . Because of the absence of these sounds in Ekiti dialect, the closest sounds to them are used instead. These clearly show the effect of first language interference. Again, the use of a combination of the English language and mother-tongue/language of immediate community in the rural areas as opposed to the use of English language only in urban settings were given as factors which affect proficiency in the pronunciation of English sounds and words.

Moreover, Deepa (2012) reported Willis (1996) to have discussed eight purposes of language teaching which described as purposes geared towards effective communication and second language acquisition. According to the former, these two goals reflect the general perception among language teachers and educators that task-based teaching is directed at improving learners' abilities to use the target language instead of developing new skills.

Objectives

This paper is set to achieve the following objectives:

- i) Identify peculiar speech challenges of learners from selected linguistic communities,
- ii) Provide remediation of identifiable pronunciation errors, and
- iii) Promote communicative and learner/ user-friendly speech activities in and out-of-classroom.

Methodology

Observation and auditory perception were used as tools to obtain data and other necessary information from learners over the years. The researchers are Communication Skills and English language teachers at the Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta (FUNAAB). They had engaged in direct conversations and dialogues with learners during classroom interactions while teaching and assessing their pronunciation through oral presentations and speech drills during inter and intra-college debates. In addition, interactive sessions with learners outside the classroom also served as source of information for this study.

Results, Findings and Discussions

It was found that learners had problems with the production of some English phonetic sounds. These affected their levels of intelligibility, pronunciation, and communicative effectiveness as identified and discussed below.

i). Peculiar Speech Challenges of Learners Due to MT Interference

Arising from the researchers' classroom experiences, it was discovered that the differences in the consonant phonemes of English and those of Nigerian languages under consideration constitute a major hindrance to oral proficiency as revealed in Table 1:

Table 1: 'Mispronunciation' of English Phonemes by

International Phonetic Alphabets(IPA)	Wrongly Pronounced as:	Examples where sounds are realized	Igbo Rendition	Yoruba Rendition
...	/ t /	thin / θin /	/ tin / / bæf/ or /bet/ / tri / / mit / / fet /	/ tin / / bæf/ or /bæt/ / tri / / mit / / fet /
/ð /	/ t, d /	these / ði:z /	/ diz / / kll t / / rit / / dat/ / leida /	/ dis / / klot / / rit / / dat/ / leida /or / læda/
...	/l, s /	chew /l u /		/lu:/ or / su: / / wll /or / wll s /
/g/	/ l /	gear /gil /	/l ia /	/l ia /
/z/	/ s /	ruse / ruz / bays / beiz / praise / preiz /		/ rus / / bes / / pres /
/l/	/ r /	lead /lid/ labour /leibl / low /ll u /	/ lid / ~ / rid / / leibl / ~ / reibl / / loo / ~ / roo /	
/v/	/ f /	veil / veil /		/ fel /
/s/	/z/	bus / bl z /		/ bl s /

Source: Interactions between authors and students

In the errors above, it was observed that learners' mother-tongue interfered with the pronunciation of the consonant sounds. For example, the phonemes / **ʌ, v, z, θ, ð** / do not occur in the Yoruba language, therefore, many Yoruba L1 learners of English tend to substitute them with / **ʌ, f, s, t, d** / respectively. The Igbo learners, on the other hand, have issues with / **θ, ð** /, substituting them in like manner with / **t, d** /. Moreover, / **l, r** / in Igbo are allophonic, hence the Igbo learner of English uses these consonants interchangeably thereby hindering mutual intelligibility. This problem of interference corroborates the findings of Williams (1990), Jowitt (1991), Uche (1998), Anthony (2001) and, Usman and Mustafa (2014). Some of the reasons for such interference can be adduced from the differences in the phonemic consonant systems of the three languages as revealed in Tables 2 - 4 below:

Table 2: English Consonant Chart

	Bilabial	Labio-Dental	Inter-(Dental)	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop/Plosives	p b			t d			k g	
Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
Affricate					tʃ dʒ			
Lateral				l				
Liquid				r				
Nasal	m			n			ŋ	
Approximant	w					j		

Table 2 indicates the 24-consonant system operated by the English language.

Table 3: Igbo Consonant Chart

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Labio-Velar	Glottal
Stop/Plosives	p b		t d			k g	kp gb	
Fricative		f v	s z	ʃ				h
Affricate				ʃ ʒ				
Lateral			l					
Liquid			r					
Nasal	m		n			ŋ		
Approximant	w				j			

Table 3 shows that Igbo has 23 consonants. Note the absence of the inter-dental sounds.

Table 4: Yoruba Consonant Chart

	Bilabial	Labio-Dental	Alveolar	Palato-Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Labio-Velar	Glottal
Stop/Plosives	b		t d			k g	kp gb	
Fricative		f	s	ɕ				h
Affricate				ɕ				
Lateral			l					
Liquid			r					
Nasal	m		n			ŋ		
Approximant	w				j			

Table 4 shows the 19 consonants of the Yoruba language.

ii) English Teachers' Incompetence and Non-mastery of English Sounds

Some English teachers in Nigerian schools are not proficient in pronouncing certain English sounds themselves. Many of these teachers are particularly notable to speak using the accents recommended, that is, Standard British English or Received Pronunciation. Consequence to this, some end up avoiding the teaching of English phonetics. In situations where they decide to teach this, the allotted period is not always enough to give proper attention to all aspects of pronunciation. This corroborates earlier works of Okoli (2000) and Gilbert (2008).

iii) Other Causes

Other challenges militating against learners' proficiency include poor background, poor teaching and learning methodologies, lack of constant practice, lack of appropriate orientation, inadequate facility, shortage of and limited accessibility to relevant speech books. Some of these challenges are common at the primary and secondary school levels.

Specific Problematic Sounds to Nigerian Learners and the Remedies

We discuss below, some of the sounds which learners find difficult to pronounce. Learner-friendly remedies for these deficiencies are then provided.

6.1 The /h/ Sound

Some Nigerian learners of the English language with pronunciation deficiencies drop the /h/ sound where it should be pronounced, but insert it where none exists. The impression one gets is that of slapdash manifestation of errors as though the learner is experiencing a nervous reaction to the effort of learning a new language (de Launay, 1993), and sometimes a result of

showing off, an egoistic show of language proficiency, that is, trying to give the impression that the speaker has a good command of the language (Akeredolu-Ale, 2002).

It was observed in this study that the challenge facing second language learners of English, especially, Yoruba and Igbo language groups had to do with the /h/sound. This problem emanates from the fact that the sound has limited occurrence in both languages particularly, at the word-initial position (Akeredolu-Ale, 2005). Thus, many speakers omit /h/sound in words where it ought to occur. They, therefore, pronounce:

/ʌl/ instead of /hʌl/ 'hall'
/ænd/ instead of /hænd/ 'hand'
/im/ instead of /həm/ 'him'
/eit/ instead of /heit/ 'hate'
/a:ʌ/ instead of /ha:ʌ/ 'harsh'

There is a need to stress the importance of sounding the phoneme /h/ as described by O'Connor (1999). Though/h/ sound 'does not make much noise' it must not be left out when it should be realized because many words are distinguished by its presence or absence.

Conversely, some learners insert a non-existing /h/sound as indicated in the following examples:

/hʌʊvʌ/ instead of /ʌʊvʌ/ 'over'
/hʌfʌʌ/ instead of /ʌfʌʌ/ 'affair'
/hit/ instead of /it/ 'eat'
/hʌnd/ instead of /ʌnd/ 'end'
/hamʌnd/ instead of /amʌnd/ 'almond'
/haut/ instead of /aut/ 'out'
/hʌʊpʌn/ instead of /ʌʊpʌn/ 'open'

Remedy

The mispronunciation of the / h / sound may mar understanding. It is observed in some cases that the 'correct' and 'incorrect' forms are minimal pairs whose meanings are distinguished by the absence or addition of the / h /

Exercise 1

Pronounce the pairs of words in Table 5 repeatedly:

Table 5: The Glottal Fricative / h /

Words with / h /	Words pronounced without / h /
hedge / h e dʒ /	edge / e dʒ /
horse / h oʊ s /	us / u s /
harm / h aɪ m /	arm / aɪ m /
hill / h ɪ l /	ill / ɪ l /
heat / h iː t /	eat / iː t /
hear / h iə /	ear / iə /
hand / hænd /	and /ænd /
harsh / hɑːʃ /	ash / aːʃ /
hair / h eə /	air / eə /
here / h iə (r) /	ere / iə (r) /
hold / h oʊ ld /	old / oʊ ld /
howl / haʊ l /	owl / aʊ l /
hole / h oʊ l /	Oh! / oʊ /
heart / hɑːt /	art / aːt /
hit / h ɪ t /	it / ɪ t /

This exercise is to draw learners' attention to the near-homophonous but distinct pronunciation of the words.

Exercise 2

The /h/ sound sometimes occurs in mid-sentence where it is surrounded by voiced sound but it must still maintain its voicelessness. Consider the following examples:

I put the purse in my hand /aɪpʊtðəpɜːsməmaɪhænd/

He has heard Henshaw speak several times /hiːhɑːz hɑːd hɛnʃəʊ/

Handle the production of the headphones

/hændlðʌprʌdʌkʌnfðʌhʌdfʌʌnz/

The hen has laid behind the hut /ðʌhʌnhæzleɪdbʰʌndðʌhʌt/

Students should learn to pronounce quite slowly at first and be sure that the words which ought to have /h/ sound is actually realized or sounded so.

Exercise 3

The next drill is the 'laughter exercise' propounded by de Launay (1993:135) as a healthy exercise to remedy the challenge of learners' apprehension at pronouncing the /h/ sound by *laughing the English sound away*. It goes thus:

Start with ordinary laugh:	ha- ha- ha- ha- ha
Go on to Santa's laugh:	ho- ho- ho- ho- ho
Try a giggly-girl laugh:	tee- hee- tee- hee- tee
A sinister laugh:	hee- hee- hee- hee- hee
And a crude laugh:	har- har- har- har- har

/θ/ and /ð/ sounds

Some Nigerian languages do not manifest the sounds above. Therefore, learners and speakers from the Yoruba and Igbo language communities tend to pronounce the phonemes as /t/ and /d/ respectively. Whereas /θ, ð/ are (inter)-dental fricatives, /t, d/ with which they are substituted are alveolar consonants.

Remedy

The learner must be taught that in producing /θ/ and /ð/, **the tip of the tongue must be placed in between the upper and the lower teeth** and not against the **alveolar ridge** as in the production of /t, d/. Exercise 4 points a way out of the problem.

Exercise 4

Pronounce these pairs of words and make sure you use **a tongue-in-between teeth** action in pronouncing /θ/ and /ð/ as indicated Table 6 below:

Table 6: Inter-(Dental) Fricatives

/ θ /	/ ð /
think / θi ŋ k /	these / ði:z /
thrill / θrɪl /	they / ðei /
thought / θɒ:t /	those / ðɒuz /
teeth / ti:θ /	bathe / beið /
wreath / wri:θ /	wreathe / wri:ð /
bath / bæθ /	thou / ðau /
thrive / θraiv /	the / ð /
thumb / θɪmb /	thus / ðɪs /
three / θri /	there / ðeə /
thirst / θɪst /	then / ðɛn /

The/v/sound

Some learners (mostly Yoruba) also have problems with the voiced labio-dental fricative because it is not attested in their language. /v/ is produced with the movement of the lower lip to the upper teeth, accompanied by the vibration of the vocal cords. The nearest to this in the Yoruba language is the voiceless counterpart /f/ which is then substituted for /v/.

Remedy

This deficiency can be remedied through the quick repetition of the following minimal pairs.

Table 7: Labio-Dental Fricatives

/ f /	/ v /
fail / feɪl /	veil / veɪl /
fest / feɪst /	vest / veɪst /
fast / fɑ:st /	vast / vɑ:st /
refer / rɪfeɪ:(r) /	revere / rɪveɪ:(r) /

fain /fɛɪn /	vain /veɪn/
fault /fɔːlt/	vault /vɔːlt/
file /faɪl/	vile /vaɪl /
fine /faɪn/	vine /vaɪn/
foil /fɔɪl/	voil / vɔɪl/

The /ʌ/ sound

This is the **voiceless palato-alveolar affricate** with which the **voiceless palato-alveolar fricative /ʃ/** is substituted. The reason that can be adduced for this is that the learner's L1 lacks /ʃ/ and the closest to it is /tʃ/ sound.

Remedy

The deficiency can be corrected by encouraging the learner to make conscious effort in the production of /ʃ/ which has a sudden stop (as in the production of /t/) and a gentle fricative release (as in the production of /s/). The following exercise of quick repetition of the minimal pairs in Table 8 will help:

Table 8: Voiceless Palato-Alveolar Sounds

/ʃ/	/ʃ/
chew /tʃuː /	shoe /tʃuː /
witch /wɪtʃ /	wish /wɪʃ/
catch /kætʃ /	cash /kæʃ/
chop /tʃɒp/	shop /ʃɒp/
watch / wɒtʃ /	wash /wɒʃ/
match /mætʃ /	mash /maːʃ/
chair /tʃeə(r) /	share /ʃeə(r) /
cheer /tʃiə(r) /	sheer /ʃiə(r)/
cheat /tʃiːt/	sheet /ʃiːt/

The /z/ sound

The **voiced alveolar fricative** is usually mispronounced as /s/ which is the **voiceless** counterpart. The non-attestation of / z / in the Yoruba language is responsible for its substitution with the closest sound in the learner's L1.

Remedy

A repetition of the exercise in Table 9 below will suffice.

Table 9 Alveolar Fricatives

/ z /		/ s /	
zoo	/zu:/	sue	/su:/
zeal	/zi:l/	seal	/si:l/
zinc	/zɪl k/	sink	/sɪl k/
zip	/zɪp/	sip	/sɪp/
zounds	/zaundz/	Sounds	/saundz/

Conclusion

The reviews of previous studies coupled with the classroom observations of the researchers show that second language learners of English language face some challenges that need to be addressed. Adopting learner-friendly approach should enhance the interest of the students and facilitate the teaching of oral aspect thereby elicit optimal performance in speech work. The approach calls for dedication on the part of teachers of English to prepare to take learners through the suggested examples/drills to encourage them to practise and use the language more often.

Recommendations

Based on the discussion in this paper, the following recommendations are made:

- i. Teaching of oral aspect at the primary levels should be mandatory. Learners are usually formed by the time they are out of the primary school. The adoption of a learner-friendly approach will motivate them to learn the basic sounds that may pose challenges to them.
- ii. Speech work teaching and the establishment of Language Laboratory are necessary in secondary and tertiary

institutions. These will reveal and establish the correct pronunciation of the difficult sounds.

- iii. Contrastive analysis of the English language and the learner's L1 is mandatory in order to emphasize the teaching and learning of the differences in speech sounds.
- iv. Collaborative learning among learners need be encouraged.
- v. Learners themselves must endeavour to practice constantly on their own in order to internalize the differences between their mother-tongues and the English language especially with sounds which pose peculiar challenges to them.

REFERENCES

- Akeredolu-Ale, B.I. (2002) "Overcoming the English 'H' Problem: the Learner-Friendly Way". *Proceeding of the Annual ELTT Conference*. Vol.1:175-178.
- (2005) "Remedying some Basic Pronunciation Errors through Perception and Production Drills: A Teacher's Report." *ELTT* Vol. 4 No 1. pp.51-59.
- Anthony, E.C. (2001)*Simplified Approach to Oral English*. Ibadan: Amora Publication
- BBC English (1992) *BBC English Dictionary*. Lagos: BBC English & HarperCollins Publishers Ltd.
- Bodunde, H. A. (2008) "School Location and Students' Proficiency in Oral English." *ASSET Series C*. Vol.3(1): 80-85.
- Deepa, S. (2012) "Using Extempore as a Task to Improve Oral Communication Skills." *English for Specific Purposes World*. Issue 36, Vol. 12: 1-19. ISSN 1682-3257.
- deLaunay, P. (1993) "The English 'h' problem." In Tricia Hedge, *ELT Journal*. pp.132-135.
- SIL Ethnologue (2013) "List of Languages by Total Number of speakers" http://www.ethnologue.org/ethno_docs/distribution.asp
- FGN (2004) *National Policy on Education*. Lagos: Ministry of Information.
- Gilbert, J.B. (2008) *Teaching Pronunciation Using the Prosody Pyramid*. New York: Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from www.cambridge.org on 23rd August, 2014.
- Jowitt, D. (1991): *Nigerian English Usage*. Lagos: Longman Nigeria.
- Kamla, S. S. A. (2013) "Western Teachers' Cultural and Linguistic Challenges in Teaching English Language in the Classroom" *Literacy Information and Computer Education Journal (LICEJ)*, Volume 4, Issue 3, September.

- KG Support (2013) www.kgsupport.com
- Ndung'u, M. I. (2013) "The Teaching and Learning of English Pronunciation Patterns and Listening Skills in Kenya" *International Journal of Education and Research*, Vol. 1 No. 8, pp. 1-12.
- O'Connor, J. D. (1999) *Better English Pronunciation*. New Edition, London: Cambridge University Press.
- Okoli, F.C. (2000) *Communication in English* Onitsha Thonik Prints Production Ltd.
- Sotiloye, B. S. (2007) "The Challenges of Teaching Oral English in a Nigerian Non- Conventional University: a Teacher's Experience" *ASSET Series C*. Vol. 2(1):88-95.
- Unoh, S.O. (1986) *Use of English in Communication*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books Limited.
- Usman, J. and L. J. Mustafa (2014) "Challenges of Teaching Oral English in Nigerian High Schools" *Issues in Language Studies* 3(1):15-23.
- Williams, D. (1990) *English Language Teaching* Ibadan Spec

TEACHING COMMUNICATIVE GRAMMAR IN AN ESL CLASSROOM

F. Ojetunde, F. S. Yede and B. S. Osipeju

Department of English,
School of Languages

Michael Otedola Colege of Primary Education, Noforija, Epe, Lagos State
yedefrancis@yahoo.com

Abstract

This paper explores and brings to the general notice, the inevitable role of grammar to the understanding of language usage in achieving communication in any social environment. It examines communicative grammar with its basic ability in dealing with the acquisition of English for immediate use in meaningful communicative situations rather than species of grammar taught purely for strict learning or memorization of the rules and of the structures of the target language alone. To achieve this expository motive, the paper espouses using the means of Contrastive Linguistic Analysis (CLA), various situational communication skills that can be employed by teachers in teaching grammar to achieve meanings and intentions in both situational and contextual language use in ESL situations.

English Language Teaching Learning Situation in Contemporary Nigerian Society

The primacy of the English language among all the subjects on the school curriculum in Nigeria is incontrovertible. Such is the relative significance attached to the subject in our school system that a student's performance in it is inextricably connected to his/her overall success level in communicative competence. This is why Mohammed (1995: 131), while commenting on the importance of the language as a core subject, remarks:

The most central among these school subjects is the English language because of its pivotal role as the most versatile means of communication and as the principal medium for knowledge in other subjects.

Hence, performance in the language plays a major role in determining a student's eligibility for promotion to the next class in a school or college, or admission to a higher institution of learning. The high esteem accorded the language in the Nigerian school system is predicated on the communicative functions of English as a veritable vehicle for communication, especially in a multilingual society such as ours.

Adegbite (2005: 111) opines that the mastery of English holds hopes

for the individual Nigerian learners in his/her own social advancement and the socio-politic-economic growth of the nation. He stresses further that to function effectively as a fully integrated member of the society, the Nigerian learner of English language requires an appreciable degree of competence that is almost comparable to the native speaker's. It is, however, lamentable that despite the high premium placed on the language in our school system, the level of competence expected at all levels of Education has not been attained.

Scholars such as Adegbite (2005: 111), Aliyu (2002: 347), Babatunde (2002: 139), Kolawole (2004: 263), Mohammed (1995: 139), confirm this assertion by tracing the sources of most of the problems of incompetence to the school, especially the secondary school where the foundations of English learning for communicative purposes are supposed to be laid before learners transit to tertiary institutions. This deduction is confirmed by the perennial dismal performance of many Nigerian students at both internal and external examinations such as Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSCE), General Certificate in Education (GCE), Joint Admission Matriculation Board (JAMB), among others, which would qualify them for admission into universities or any other higher institutions of learning.

Scholars such as Akindele and Adegbite (199: 113-119), Afolayan (1995) in Adegbite (2005: 112), Babatunde (20002: 131), Ubahakwe and Obi (1979: 1), Kolawole (2004: 263) and Onukaogu (2002: 301) subscribe to the view that most of the problems of English learning arise from the implementation of the National Policy on Education in Nigeria educational system.

In addition to these inherent problems, other variables are known to greatly affect students' achievement in English language and academic ability. These variables include the home background of the students, verbal ability, influence of the mother tongue on the English language, code switching, code mixing etc. We also need to note that students' attitude to learning has a lot of implication on their communicative competence and academic performance across the curriculum. Adegbite (2005) thus opines that there is a clear indication that the language is yet to provide an effective means of communication for its Nigerian learners and users.

Taking into consideration, the vital role played by the language in the lives of the people, it is very important to learn it with an appreciable degree of proficiency. Moreover, it has been observed that if the problems associated with the teaching and learning of English are not adequately addressed; there would be serious negative implications on socio-political and economic growth of the nation.

As teachers of English, it is observed that the English needs of students especially at the primary and secondary school levels require much more than teaching abstract concepts of grammar but rather communicative

grammar to improve the overall performance of students in their academics and communicative repertoire.

According to Okunnuga (1979: 274), grammar taught in an ESL classroom should not be regarded as a formal system but a medium for expressing our perceptions of event, processes and abstractions. These have been referred to by Halliday (1985: 39, 101-102), Bloor and Bloor (2004: 10) and Daramola (2005: 68) as ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings of language. The ideational metafunction deals with the construction of experience through language. This is the kind of meaning we express through grammatical systems which make the selection of an appropriate form of a sentence dependent on the nature of the ideational meaning intended to be expressed and the situational context in which the language is used. The interpersonal metafunction concerns the participants in discourses thereby presenting language as doing something by, and to, the people. The textual component complements the ideational and interpersonal metafunctions by creating what is commonly referred to as relevance (i.e. relevance to the environment); that is, the context of situation and to the preceding and the succeeding texts.

It is important to note that students of English need to understand the grammatical categories of word classes and their slots in structure, grammatical processes and the knowledge of intra-sentential function of grammar so that they can control the cohesive devices of text and employ the grammatical processes to indicate the value of utterances in discourse. It should however be noted that knowing a language included not only how to construct correct sentences but how to use sentences to make appropriate utterances in various situational contexts.

As far as communicative grammar is concerned, teachers' language teaching strategies must incorporate communicative competence. In order to achieve this, students must be exposed to a large quantity and variety of contextualised language materials because teaching the rules of grammar alone is teaching in a social vacuum.

Communicative Language Teaching through Contrastive Analysis (CLT)

According to Hammer (2005), communicative approach to language teaching was the name given to a set of beliefs that accompanied with it a re-examination of what language to teach as well as a shift in emphasis in how to teach. This set of beliefs holds that learning a language is a process, and to do this effectively, it is only through using the language for communication purpose.

The method is learner-centred. The needs of learners are given priorities as well as their active participation in the learning process. The method also calls for the use of methodologies and material that are task-based, cognitive, stimulating and challenging. The methods include,

information-gap exercises, role-play, pair and group work. (Maduekwe (2007). On what to teach, the approach basically focused on language function rather than rules, grammaticality, correctness and vocabulary. Its major concern is to teach learners how to use this language forms appropriately in different situations. On the how to teach, communicative technique is based on the idea that language learning will take care of itself and that adequate exposure to the language in question and opportunity to use it are important for students to develop. In using the method in the classroom, Maduekwe (2007) argues that four skills should be considered:

1. The learner should attain as high a degree as possible of linguistic competence. This means that a student should develop skill in manipulating the linguistic systems, to the point where he can use it spontaneously and flexibly in order to express his intended message
2. The learner should distinguish between the forms he has mastered as part of his linguistic competence, and the communicative functions which they perform. In other words, items mastered as part of a linguistic system must also be understood as part of a communicative system.
3. The learner should develop skills and strategies for using language to communicate meanings as effectively as possible in concrete situations. He must learn to use feedback to judge his success and if necessary, remedy failure by using different languages.
4. Finally, the learner should become aware of the social meaning of language forms.

Major features of the method include:

- a. Its emphasis on language function than form, according to Widdowson (1978), is 'an aspect of performance where the language users demonstrate their knowledge of linguistic rules'. Function, however, is an aspect of performance where language users demonstrate their ability to use their knowledge of linguistic rules for effective communication.
- b. The method focuses on the reason for using the language. Put in another way, it asks the question 'what does the learner want to achieve through the language?'
- c. The major concern of the method is meeting the needs and aspirations of the learner i.e. it is learner-centred. It is learning through interactions and this has a pattern: the teacher initiates, the learner responds and the teacher evaluates.
- d. Emphasis is also placed on functional fluency and appropriacy, while

- less attention is given to grammatical accuracy.
- e. Learners' needs are placed on sequencing and grading of elements. Considerations are also given to sociolinguistic background of the learners.
 - f. Finally, among other features, the method calls for an integrative assessment procedure that forces learners to display actual communication ability in life-like tasks.

In the literature of bilingual education, particularly language in contact, there has been the Universal assumption that comparative study of foreign and native languages provides educational guide in foreign language learning. Studies in the area of languages in contact and its effects on bilingual education have revealed that many linguistic distortions heard among bilinguals correspond to describable differences in the languages involved. It is also assumed by Lado (1957) that individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture. This transfer is done both productively and respectively, when speaking the language and when attempting to understand the language and the culture as practised by the native speakers.

Comparative study is a system whereby the features of two languages are compared and contrasted in order to bring out areas of similarities and differences in phonology, morphology, lexis, syntax and semantics. Comparative analysis is one of the oldest approaches to linguistic studies. This approach dates back to the early 19th Century when the comparison of the so called Indo-European languages (English, French, Germany, Portuguese) and those of the Africans were made an integral part of the studies in Europe. Linguists then were preoccupied essentially with the comparison of language features for the purpose of establishing language families.

Essence of Comparative Studies

Language educators at both the secondary and tertiary Institutions and, indeed, at the primary school level are often confronted with pedagogical problems in the teaching of English. Many of the language teachers see these problems as having no solution. Their knowledge of theoretical linguistics is never brought to bear on language teaching and learning. The teacher has to teach English to students from diverse socio-linguistic backgrounds. Therefore, to succeed as a language teacher, he needs to carry out comparative/ contrastive studies of English and the native languages of his students. The teacher who has made a comparative study of the morphological systems of the second language (English) and the native language will know better what the real learning problems of his students are

and how to solve them. The issue of interlanguage and hence inter-lingual errors or even errors arising from interference can be tackled by contrastive analysis.

The language teacher is also faced with the need to prepare teaching materials that meet the particular needs of his students. Linguistic comparison is basic and inescapable if the teacher wishes to make progress and not to just reshuffle the same old materials. Where the language teacher is given prescribed textbooks to use and he finds the book inadequate in both the linguistic and cultural contexts, his systematic comparative study will help in preparing supplementary exercises on very important aspects of the textbook. A lot of achievements have been made in the area of language testing, especially in tests of English as a second language, as a result of linguistic comparison of English and students' native language. Although there are linguistic Universals, there are nonetheless features that are unique to languages. This uniqueness has to be borne in mind while constructing language tests. There are also dialectal differences which need to be recognised too. The application of linguistic comparison to language testing is promising.

Comparative linguistic study is capable of removing cross-cultural and cross-linguistic misinterpretation. If we ignore cultural and linguistic differences, we will misjudge our cultural neighbours as we constantly do today, for a form of language behaviour that no one has certain meaning may have another meaning to others. And if we do not know of the difference in meaning, we ascribe to our neighbours the intentions that the same behaviour will imply for us, and would pass on them the same judgement as our conferences.

Teaching Grammar

The concept of grammar has come to represent the structure of a language and also, aspect of usage and social acceptability. It is noteworthy to point out that grammar determines the quality of the knowledge passed by speaker as inferred from the nature of such speaker's utterance and language usage. In this vein, Tomori (1977) sees grammar "as the body of prescriptions about usages that are considered acceptable in a particular language".

Thus, there is a great need to teach grammar in the school setting. In fact, there are some forms of grammar teaching going on in schools. Evidence of traditional and structural approaches can be observed through concrete research. These approaches are also constantly being promoted through school syllabuses and textbooks. (Ubahakwe and Obi, 1979). The reverse case though is the major complaint about how grammar teaching is "formally" and "mechanically" done. This result is the students knowing a lot about English but unable to use it functionally.

Quirk (1964) opines that much of the grammar taught in primary

schools is indeed unhelpful because it is language in non-linguistic terms. “A noun is the name of a person, animal, place or thing; but the name of a thing like ship, always seemed in some irritatingly indefinable way to be grammatically different from the name of a person or place like “Bible” and “England”. Almost any sentence, such as “The ship was called Venus”, draws attention to the fact that the two nouns were not precisely analogous, that there was something wrong with our definition. Moreover, “Red is the name of a colour which is a thing and “mollify” is the name of an action, but teacher would but agree that these were nouns. Grammar needs not be dry and unread. It can be alive, relevant, entertaining. As we do with many subjects, it depends only on how it is put across.

Furthermore, morphemes sometimes have several phonetic forms depending on the context in which they occur. In English language for example, the past tense morpheme (written as 'ed') is pronounced in three different ways, depending on the nature of the sound that precedes it. If the sound is /t/ or /d/, the ending is pronounced /id/ as in “spotted”, if the preceding sound is a voiceless consonant, the ending is pronounced /t/ as in “walked”, and if the preceding sound is a voiced consonant or a vowel, the ending is pronounced /d/ as in “rolled”. From these analyses, learning English grammar is cumbersome for students especially when the teacher emphasizes more on the rules.

Some problems arise from the classroom environments. These occur when the teacher gives too much translation of the vernacular equivalent of what we are trying to teach in English. By doing this, the teacher thinks he is helping the learners to a quick understanding of the subject while in actual fact he is putting a banner in the way of the learners.

David Crystal (2001) identifies another problem associated with teaching and learning of English grammar. He opines that nouns that have been borrowed from foreign language pose a particular problem. Some nouns have adopted the regular plural ending. For example, They sang another “chorus” (not choris). Some have kept the original plural form in 'more crises to deal with' (not crises) and some permit both: what lovely cactuses/cacti.

Basically, another school of thought puts this blame of “improper grammar use on the lack of finesse from the teachers. Majority of teachers lack the proper methodologies involved in meaningful grammar teaching. In a real term, grammar hardly receives any instructional attention, in some classroom, because teachers don't know how to teach it (Dadzie, 1989) Close (1965) has advocated that grammar must be taught to lead students to speak and write English grammatically. Mohammed (1995) also calls for functional teaching of grammar so as to avoid confusion and greater anxiety on the part of the learner.

Step by step teaching of grammar must be done. This should proceed from the simple to complex level. This will create way for structural grasping and functional use. Williams (1990: 96) puts up four major steps to be

followed in teaching grammar. These include:

1. Initial presentation of structural pattern.
2. Explanation of the rule governing a particular usage.
3. Structural drill/pattern practice.
4. Repetition/repeated practice.

This means that grammar teaching must go beyond mechanical, meaningless memorization of rules by students. Grammar must be taught, meaningfully, within the context of communicative activities. According to Savignon (1983: 60) classroom activities should be such that will prepare learners for the “kinds” of discourse they will encounter outside the classroom.

Application of Contrastive Linguistic to Language Teaching

Contrastive analysis is a psycholinguistic exercise which all language teachers should endeavour to know. It is a comparative study of the present developmental stage of the two languages. In order to effectively teach any language to a non-native speaker, the teacher himself must be a bilingual. He therefore needs to do the following:

- ⤴ Analysis of sound systems: Segmental and suprasegmental phonemes, stress, intonation, phonetic features and their variants.
- ⤴ Comparison of units: he should take up each phoneme of the two languages and check:
 - ⤴ Phonetically similar phonemes
 - ⤴ Phonemes and their allophones
 - ⤴ Morphemes and their allomorphs
- ⤴ Whether the phonemes/morphemes and their variants are similar in both languages.
- ⤴ Draw the vowel trapezium of the two languages using the IPA symbols.
- ⤴ Compare syllable structure
- ⤴ Construct minimal pairs
- ⤴ Provide many illustrations and examples in the area of form and meaning, word order, inflection, function words, parts of speech, tenses, cognate words, etc.
- ⤴ Be a good model that displays no cultural biases or is ethnocentric.
- ⤴ Sympathise with students, i.e. he should put himself in his students' situation and help them accordingly. Jeering at mispronunciation has a disastrous consequence on learning. Errors should be corrected immediately but with tact and decorum either by the teacher or by the students.

Also, remedial drill, situational drill and dialogue drill are effective means of promoting and enhancing communicative performance which is the target of second language teaching. This will promote national and

international intelligibility in the use of English among the learners. These will also enhance proper effective performances in the use of L2 for inter personal and socio-cultural purposes.

Teachers should dwell more on the activities that will enhance proper use of language to achieve intended purpose. Attention should be shifted from the traditional means of teaching structural rule and laying down the general rules governing “wrong” and “correct” usage. Classroom activities that involve dialogue and oral practice should be encouraged against the normal practice of teaching L2 through chalkboard and textbooks. Situational language use should be encouraged through systematic selection of topics involving day-to-day activities and having discussion on them.

Finally, language teaching is targeted at achieving communication. Nevertheless, communication is task oriented. To achieve functional competence in a target language, there must be performance of some task. Thus, classroom activities must be directed towards specific task as exemplified by (Yule, 1996):

- Story telling task: Distinguishing characters, events and location in the story being narrated.
- Instructional task: This involves giving instruction by the speaker and the hearer acting on the instruction through clarity and apt detail in the instruction.
- Assembly task: This is the use of instruction to make the hearer carry out or put some components together. This is known as information transfer. It is aimed at making some people acquire skills through practice according to specific instructions.

References

- Adegbite, A. (2005): “Curriculum Development and English Studies in Nigerian Secondary Schools” In Ayorinde, D., Alade, A. and Olusegun, O. (Eds) *Issues in Language, Communication and Education*. Ibadan: Counstellations Books Publisher. Pp 110-134.
- Afolayan, A. (1995): 'Ineffectiveness in the Presentation of English in Nigeria: Sources and Remedies' in Bamgbose, A, Banjo, A. and Thomas, A. (eds.) *New Englishes: A West African Perspective*. Ibadan: Musoro
- Akindele, F. and Adegbite, A. (1999): *The Sociology and Politics of English in Nigeria*. Ile-Ife OAU Press Limited.
- Aliyu, J.S (2002): “Enhancing the Teaching and Learning of English Language in Nigerian Secondary Schools” in Adebayo, L. Isiugo-Abanihe I. and Nnam Ohia (Eds) *Perspective on Applied Linguistics in Languages and Literature*. Ibadan: Stirling-Horden Publishers (Nig) Ltd. Pp.345-361

- Babatunde, S.T. (2002): "The State of English Language in Nigeria" in Adebayo, L. Isiugo- Abanihe I. and Ohia, I. (Eds) *Perspective on Applied Linguistics in Languages and Literature*. Ibadan: Stirling-Horden Publishers (Nig) Ltd. Pp.129-141
- Bloor, T. and Bloor, M. (2004): *Functional Analysis of English* London: Routledge
- Close, R.A. ((1965). 'Correctness Rule and Explanation' in H.B. Allen(Ed). *Teaching English as a Second Language*. (pp. 257 – 265)
- Crystal, D. (1997): *English as a global language*. Cambridge University Press.
- Dadzie, A.B.K. (1989): 'Functional Approaches to English Language Teaching' in *Secondary English Language Teachers Lagos: NERDC*
- Daramola, A. (2005): "Towards Understanding of Systemic Functional Theory (SFT) for Teachers of English" in *Nigerian Secondary Schools*. In *Journal of the Nigeria English Studies Association*. Vol. II No. 1, pp.65-75
- Garba, C.Y. (1979): *Applications of Language Theory: Selected Papers*, Kobo, Mimeograph.
- Hall, M. (2981): *Teaching Reading as a Language Experience*. Cohimbus Bell and Howell Company.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1985): *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. Great Britain Edward Arnold Publisher Ltd.
- Harmer, J. (2005): *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Peasons Pp 12 - 96
- Hymes, Dell (1964): *Language. Culture and Society*. Harper and Row.
- Kolawole, C.O. (2004) "Teaching in the English Language in Nigerian Secondary Schools: The Teacher's Dilemma" in Owolabi K. and Dasylya A. (Ed) *Forms and Functions of English and Indigenous Languages in Nigeria: A Festschrift in Honour of Ayo Banjo*. Ibadan Group Publishers, pp. 258-271.
- Lado, R. (1957): *Linguistics Across Cultures*. Ann Arbor, M.L: University of Michigan Press.
- Lyons, John (2009): *Language and Linguistics, An Introduction*; Cambridge, UK.
- Maduekwe, A.N. (2007): *Principles and Practice of Teaching English as a second Language*. Lagos: Vitaman
- Mohammed, A. (1995) "Communicative Competence Acquisition in Infelicitous Learning Environment: The Problem with SSS English in Nigeria" in Bamgbose, A. Banjo, A. and Thomas A. (Eds) *New Englishes*. Ibadan: Monsuru, pp. 130-152
- Ohukpe, B.O. (1979). 'Can Knowledge of Grammar make us better writer||' In Ubahakwe (Ed). *The Teaching of English Studies* (pp. 46 – 57). Ibadan: Ibadan University Press
- Okunnuga, C.B.A. (1979) "English for Science and Technology (EST)" in Ubahakwe, E. (Ed): *The Teaching of English Studies: Reading for*

- Colleges and Universities. Pp. 274, 275, 288
- Quick, R. (1964): *System of Prosodic and Paralinguistic Features in English*. London: Longman
- Tomori, S. H. O. (1977): *The Morphology and Syntax of Present-day English: An Introduction*. London: Heinemann
- Savignon, S.J. (1983). *Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice; texts and Contexts in Second language Learning and Reading*, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Ubahakwe, E. and Obi, E.O. (1979): 'A Survey of Language Teaching Methods in Use' in Nigerian Primary Schools. In Ubahakwe, E. (Ed) (1979) *The Teaching of English Studies*. Ibadan: Ibadan University Press.
- Williams, D. (1990): *English Language Teaching: An Integrated Approach*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books Limited. P. 16.
- Yule, G. (1996): *The Study of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

PEDAGOGY OF GROUP WORK AS AN EFFECTIVE TOOL FOR TEACHING COMPOSITION WRITING IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN LARGE CLASSES

Johnson Adewole Mafikuyomi

johnmafik@yahoo.com

Department of General Studies,
Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education,
Otto Ijanikin, Lagos.

Anthony Vinuyon Williams & Ganiu Oladapo Raji

vinuyon@gmail.com daporaji@yahoo.com

AOCOED International School,
Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education,
Otto Ijanikin, Lagos

Abstract

Several attempts have been made by stakeholders to overcome the problem of mass failure in the core subjects, especially English Language and Mathematics. Most of these efforts have been directed at putting in place facilities and personnel by the government and private investors in education. While the teachers on their own part have continually sought means of effectively loading the students with information required to perform better in their examinations, the pressure of handling large classes remains a challenge. This paper thus investigated and proposed the Social Pedagogy of Group work propounded by Blatchford et al (2003) and United Kingdom SPRing Project as a means of improving students' performance, not by loading them with information but by motivating them to actively seek and use information, thus yielding for them, true knowledge which can be sustained for a longer period. Key features of the Social Pedagogy of group work in classroom settings were identified and these can inform the effective application of the strategy in classroom settings. The preliminary trial of the strategy resulted in a significant reduction in the frequency of occurrence of errors in the students' composition.

Introduction

A major problem confronting the educational sector in Nigeria is poor performance in the senior School Certificate Examination (SSCE), especially in the core subjects, with Mathematics and English Language as major concerns. Results released by the West African Examinations' Council (WAEC) and the National Examinations' Council (NECO) in recent time showed that less than forty percent of all candidates pass the English Language paper. An array of factors has been pointed as being responsible for this situation. They range from poor funding by government to outright lack of interest in education by many Nigerian children. Although some of the beliefs about the factors and their impact on the performances of the

candidates have not been based on empirical findings, the negative impact of over-bloated classrooms is of no doubt a major contributing factor. Most of the Nigerian public schools are over-populated, making effective teaching to be far-fetched. This problem coupled with the nature of the teaching and assessment of composition at the secondary school level, require that the teacher spends a significant time on each student's write-up, leaves stakeholders with the need for a quick intervention in overcoming this forced deficiency. *This paper thus presents a socially-oriented theory of learning expressed by Blatchford et al (2003) as 'social pedagogy in relation to group work' as a possible intervention which holds the potential of yielding more than two grades leap for all students involved, if strategically-used in teaching of composition in the classroom.* Our aim is to get a method that will give an opportunity for a lot of students' activities, promote active learning and interaction as well as avail the teacher of an opportunity to teach basic ideas to spur students into further and individual studies. Other teaching methods offer some or parts of these features as highlighted below, but not as in Group Work method proposed in this paper.

Teaching Methods

Some methods used in teaching in schools include lecture, play-way, role-play, discussion, demonstration, problem solving, project – assignment, excursion/field trip inquiry values – clarification methods (Nzeribe, 2001; Sawa, 2001) and School-Based Teacher Development (SBTD) (Nwaboku, 2011):

1. **Lecture method:** This method of teaching is sometimes referred to as talk and chalk method of teaching. It is a traditional and prevalent method of teaching at all levels of Nigeria's educational system. The teacher assumes the role of the sole repository of knowledge which he passes on to the learner, whose duty is to make the expected response after the lesson. Although teachers with a good grasp of the course content find this method very pleasing, it is however, discouraged in teaching children, because it could be boring and does not allow for individual differences. Hence, slow learners might not keep pace with lesson delivery. More importantly, the students assume the position of passive learners. If this method is put in perspective here, it becomes obvious that little learning will take place and even less recall will be possible after a little while. This method is thus grossly inadequate for the teaching of composition which requires active learning activities.
2. **Play-Way Method:** It is natural for children to play and they love to play. The philosophy of Maria Montessori and Froebel emphasized the place of play-way method as a teaching methodology in

childhood education. Children engage in various kinds of play. When at play, children have high and sustained attention span, imagination and creativity. Play prepares children for successful adult living; to the adult, play may be for pleasure and recreation while to the child, play is work and he/she plays with all his being. Suffice it to state at this point that there is a strong positive relation between play and learning in children. To facilitate play-way method, the teacher:

- Should respect play initiated by children.
- Observe children at play and introduce games that facilitate learning.
- Understand individual differences in learners and expose children to games and play that will help achieve and strengthen their individuality.
- Structure the environment by bringing in materials and objects that children of a given age range like to play with.

The social interaction involved in this kind of educational play, its strength at sustaining students' interest as well as its potential for a stronger memory connection are all included in the group work method but a higher level of structuring is involved and the 'play' or interaction is centered around a specific task which develops the targeted skill in students.

3. **Role Play:** This is dramatic play that is unrehearsed, spontaneous and unstructured (Nzeribe, 2001). In teaching-learning situation, role play is used to help learners interpret certain situations. Topics that are taught with role-play are such that relate problematic issues to real life. Players are simply instructed to interpret such situations with their perceptions and feelings expressed. This method helps learners learn decision-making, develop and express initiatives. Learners are also helped to understand how others feel about certain issues or conditions. These naturally occurs among members of each group as they tackle their tasks. Students come up with ingenious strategies, including what could be likened to role-playing in expressing their opinions in the group.
4. **Discussion method:** This type of discussion is slightly different from the concept discussed under class communication. Using this method in teaching learning involves learners pooling together their ideas, analyzing, interpreting and weighing such ideas on given issues before arriving on a conclusion. In this method teaching, the class is seen as the market place where shopping for experiences and

contributions take place. This method helps children develop self-confidence themselves and tolerance for other people's ideas. To facilitate the use of this method, it is important to

- Clearly explain concept, idea, issue and the scope of what is to be discussed.
- Allow learners time and opportunity to prepare for the discussion.
- Divide the class into groups.
- Each group should elect/appoint a leader and recorder to guide discussion and note salient points.
- Learners should be encouraged to listen attentively to one another.
- The overall class discussion should be guided by the teacher to avoid non-related goals of discussion, reiterate salient and relevant points raised.

Obviously, this bears a lot of similarity to the group work. It however lacks the advantages of the focus and planning required in group work.

5. **Demonstration:** This is a methods of teaching that places demand on the learner to see, pay attention, and follow laid-down procedures or steps. It is useful for learners to have objectives, materials or opportunity to imitate the teacher's demonstration in the lesson or soon after the lesson delivery. Demonstration method makes for immediate feedback to learner. To facilitate the use of demonstration it is useful to:

- Encourage learners to keenly observe teacher's demonstration.
- The pace of demonstration should deliberately be slowed down to allow learners see what is being demonstrated.
- Instruct the class to demonstrate/imitate skills being taught either in groups or as individuals after teacher's demonstration.

This is a feature of group work as participating students or learners do all these in their effort to put their ideas through.

The Pedagogy of Group Work

It is important not to socialize learners into inhibiting views of their own learning and intelligence. It is important for learners to adopt an 'incremental' not an 'entity' theory of their own intelligence, and it is important for learners to acquire robust and enduring 'habits of mind' that assume effort and application are important in learning (Resnick, 2000)

Group work according to Blatchford *et al* (2003) refers to working together as a group or team where the teacher may be involved at various stages, shifting the balance of ownership and control of the work toward the pupils themselves. Group work should involve students as co-learners not just one student helping another (Zajaz & Hartup, 1997). Three core features have been identified, which have significant bearing on this approach Resnick (2000) identified two of these. The first she called knowledge-based constructivism – a deliberate oxymoron that was meant to capture the well understood interpretive, inferential basis of learning, as well as the responsibility of an educational system to provide learners with high quality material from which they can construct. The second draws on social developmental and motivational theory and is called by Resnick, 'effort-based learning', which is aimed at getting “learners to adopt an 'incremental' not an 'entity' theory of their own intelligence”. The third feature which is equally essential as a core feature of the pedagogy is added by Blatchford, *et al* (2003). This is a consideration of the contexts within which learning takes place. “In the school environment, this means a systematic appreciation of social contexts within classrooms” (Blatchford, *et al* (2003). The classroom, according to Pellegrini and Blatchford (2000) “is a particular context with particular features different to others, and its effect on learning, motivation and development needs to be accounted for”. Features of the classroom context include the number of members in a classroom group, the nature of the interaction between members in the group, and the type of learning task that is being undertaken. The teacher often creates these 'groupings' the way that they are set up, and how they are used for particular learning purposes. These will be main factors affecting the educational experiences of students in the class.

In this paper, we explore the principle of social pedagogy in relation to group work and its application to the teaching of a challenging aspect of secondary school English i.e. composition writing and assessment. The essence is that, since the reality of high student-teacher ratio and its impact on the effectiveness of teaching in general and the teaching of composition in particular cannot be denied as well as the importance of composition to education as a whole; an approach that could improve pupils' performance in composition, without necessarily resolving all issues which resulted in the present state of our schools is required. We believe that an effective use and application of group work in teaching composition holds potentials for a significant improvement in the effective teaching and learning of composition writing. In other words, this is an effort to extend the concept of pedagogy to allow for other social relations, with specific interest in the aspect involving co-learners or peers. The importance of this extension is supported by studies which show that pupils spend greater amounts of time with their peers, than with their teachers (Galton *et al*, 1980; Tizard,

Blatchford, Burke, Farquhar & Plewis, 1988), yet teachers typically plan for their interactions with pupils, but not interactions between pupils (Kutnick *et al*, 2002). These point to the importance of group work as a teaching and learning strategy.

Research Efforts on the Pedagogy of Group Work

Several large scale efforts have been invested in developing group work into a veritable means of improving pedagogy. The UK Economic and Social Research Council funded the SPRinG (Social Pedagogic Research into Grouping) Project which was set up to develop an approach to group work that could be used in primary and secondary schools. It was set up “to address the wide gap between the potential to group work to influence learning, motivation and attitudes to learning and relationships, on one hand, and the limited use of group work in schools, on the other hand. It was also driven by the concerns of teachers and pupils that they were not able to get as much out of group work as they would like” (Blatchford *et al*, 2003). Three sites were designated to develop the approaches and materials for this project – the University of Brighton (KSI, 5 – 7 years), the Institute of Education, London (KS2, 7 – 11 years) and the University of Cambridge (KS3, 11 – 14 years).

The SPRinG project was designed to develop group work to yield three outcomes. First, is the conceptual development, thinking, reasoning and problem solving. This is in consonance with the view that group work is probably best suited to learning processes which involve giving up or transcending current levels of understanding to reach a new perspective, rather than learning processes which involve the acquisition of new skills or strategies, or individualism associated with practice-based tasks (Damon, 1994). The second is students' motivation and attitudes to work. Group work should change the common orientation of students to make them believe that success at school work can come through their own efforts and application, rather than from instruction. It can be designed to encourage effort-based learning (Resnick, 2000). This is consistent with a wealth of research and theory concerning motivation in educational contexts (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). The third is interaction and dialogue. Group work is expected to affect pupil on-task behavior, quality of dialogue in groups (e.g. more learners giving and receiving help, more joint construction of ideas), more sustained interactions in groups, and more positive relations between pupils. We cannot teach pupils to behave in socially-responsible ways – this is not something that can be learned by instruction, like learning to read or subtract numbers. Behaving in a constructive way in relation to others is best demonstrated by pupils being given opportunities to debate and recognize alternative points of view, and by being held responsible for their own behavior (Blatchford *et al*, 2003).

Limitations and Advantages of Group Work Method

In an effort to apply group work in classroom teaching, a number of concerns have been raised. These include: the loss of control, increased disruption and off task behavior (Cohen & Intilli, 1981; Lewis & Cowie, 1993), students are unable to learn from one another, group-work is overly time consuming, it means that brighter pupils just end up helping the less able pupils, and that assessing students when working in interactive groups is problematic (Plummer & Dudley, 1993). These concerns however, are reflective of the adequacy of the planning that went into the group work (Blatchford *et al*, 2003).

An effective group work requires adequate planning. Such planning must include constructing meaningful settings in which group work can take place. Pupils must be assisted to function as a group within the classroom with emphasis on the process, whereby the outcome could be achieved rather than the task outcome (Galton & Williamson, 1992). This suggests a need for improved pupil training in group work skills under normal classroom conditions (Blatchford *et al*, 2003).

Group work should be cooperative. Groups should be structured with a heterogeneous mixture of ability, gender and out of group interaction. Learning tasks should be varied; pupils may, during their everyday classroom activities, be asked to undertake group work for a variety of tasks and in a variety of groupings. For group work to be effective, students and teachers must be adaptable to normal classroom conditions, which will involve a classroom populated by many other children. This is vital for the teaching of English language because the mixture of ability often changes with the aspect of the language task being considered. Consideration should then be given to factors which affect group performance and effectiveness.

Four key dimensions have been identified by Blatchford *et al* (2003) in the SPRinG (Social Pedagogic Research into Grouping) project as vital to addressing the wide-gap between the potentials of group work to influence learning, motivation and attitudes to learning and relationships, on the one hand, and the limited use of group work in schools, on the other hand. These are:

1. The classroom context: This covers preparing the classroom and the groups. It includes considerations for class seating arrangements, group size, the number of groups in the class, group stability and group composition.
2. Interactions between learners: Preparing and developing students skills for effective group interactions among learners.
3. The teacher's role: Preparing adults for working with groups, as findings have shown that teachers' competence at handling groups could deter effective group work.

4. Tasks: Preparing the lessons and group work activities.

Putting these dimensions into consideration in setting up groups will help make them more effective. Resnick (2000), drawing on the expressed ideas by Carol Dweck pinpoints that learners adopt an 'incremental' not an 'entity' theory of their own intelligence, and they acquire robust and enduring 'habits of mind' that assume that efforts and application are important in learning.

Our attempt at employing the Social Pedagogy of Group Work/ Materials and Methods.

Our preliminary work on the use of group work involved activities that could be summarized as follows:

- (a) Students write composition in a mock examination situation.
- (b) They assess their own scripts in their composition group, with the aim of locating errors.
- (c) The teacher goes over the same scripts to do same and to pass comments which are aimed at pointing out the solution to the problems identified.
- (d) Scripts are returned to the group with each student's Challenge Table, which is designed for grouping and enumeration of students' errors in each of the assessed composition scripts.
- (e) Students discuss comments in their groups and fill out the challenge tables.
- (f) Challenge tables are returned to the teacher for evaluation of student's progress at overcoming the errors found in their attempts.

These tasks were performed in class by Senior Secondary three (SS 3) students who were being prepared to write the Senior School Certificate Examination (SSCE) Ordinary Level in May/June 2011. An atmosphere for a mock SSCE was created in class and the students were issued with standard questions which they attempted in the standard duration for composition at SSCE.

This constituted the first stage of the two-stage-tasks. The second stage was carried out in a group. The groups tagged 'Composition Group', had been formed and trained to assess composition scripts. Each group of six students was assigned to locate and ring or underline all errors in their own scripts, taking one at a time with the whole group reading simultaneously, pointing out errors, debating them and classifying them.

Errors located in the manner above were classified, enumerated and recorded on the error table. The script and the table inserted in it were then submitted for comments. The comments, which were suggested directed at each particular student were aimed at helping the student overcome the error. All improvements observed were commended and suggestions were given to help the student overcome each of the errors found.

The aim of this assessment is multi-faceted. It is aimed at:

1. Making students practice and try to apply their feedback from the previous task.
2. Providing a means of assessing students' application of previous feedback.
3. Making students learn from their group as they detect errors together.
4. Providing an avenue for teaching or giving a piece of information they are keenly interested in and which they would put to use immediately.
5. The error table reveals at a glance, the progress each student is making in terms of avoidance of errors in composition.

This assessment method is suitable for these learners because they had been taken through the full syllabus for SSCE and had written the external version of the examination they were preparing for. They thus require mainly, practice and discovery of their weaknesses as well as information that could improve their efforts individually. This assessment did not only provide these opportunities, it also gives the students an opportunity to play the examiner among them, demystifying the assessment of the examination and sharpening their skill at avoiding errors.

Result and Discussion

- Teaching strategies: The all-encompassing and the infinite nature of languages, particularly English language, which is practically gaining recognition as the language of the world and as such has to perform endless functions, makes classroom teaching, especially the Teacher-centered teaching, grossly inadequate for learners. This speaks specifically for learning in a second language situation like we have in Nigeria. There is the need for a teaching method that will motivate students to take their quest for knowledge outside the classroom. Group work ensures this if properly-designed and handled.
- Language is speech: Group work ensures interactions that makes speaking and writing of the language inevitable. This in itself is a sort of practice. Findings by the National Training Laboratories (USA) which puts the recall rate of Discussion Groups at 50% and teach others/immediate use of learning at 90% is also a very good reason for choosing this method in teaching as both discussion and teaching others constitute elements of the Social Pedagogy of Group Work.
- Population: A major constraint to effective teaching in Nigeria is the

student-teacher ratio. This constraint robs the teacher of the opportunity for one-on-one interaction with learners. Grouping however practically reduces the class population by a division of the group size. The teacher who handles a class of 40 will thus have 10 groups to attend to if he creates group of 4. This gives him as well as the students, an opportunity for closer interaction. Students often have ideas that the teacher never gets to benefit from. In a group arrangement however, such ideas are put to use and teachers could learn from them or have the opportunity to modify them for effective use of the student as well as the class.

- **Assessment:** Assessment of pedagogy of group work is aimed at identifying areas of challenges for learners. It is part of a process of learning rather than a grading system. Scoring is done only where necessary and assessment more often, than not, identifies areas where more attention is required. A composition assessment sheet could be designed and used in the class. Assessment in this case therefore is formative and not summative.
- **Inclusiveness:** The group method is inclusive as it involves all the students in the learning process. They contribute to discussions in the group, they argue their opinions, get to view issues from the perspective of others and ultimately make the learning process their own.

Effects on Students' Performance

The impact of this method on learning grades, although had not been adequately determined empirically in our study presently as the study is still ongoing. It is however not going to be less than an average of two grades leap. The reason for this conclusion is that the Challenge Table gives a graphic picture of the reduction in errors. In scoring Mechanical Accuracy, where errors are counted and each results into a half mark deduction, the number of marks already being saved by the student is quite obvious. Most of the grades in SSCE have a margin of five marks between them and most of the students are already saving more than five marks in comparison with their initial rate of occurrence of errors.

Conclusion

While it is obvious that it is important that teachers get better trained at the application of the classroom interactive group work, we have no doubt that the method is effective and we have found in it, a very effective means of teaching a social subject like English language in schools. Teachers in secondary schools may find this method very useful in overcoming the

problem of mass failure of students in WAEC and NECO examinations. However, this method will also aid social learning and may permeate the social networking among students and make it gainful by shifting discussion, even on networking site such as Facebook and other ICT-based interactions. This method also holds the potential of bridging the gap between high fliers and slow learners among secondary school students.

Recommendations

Putting the foregoing into perspective, we recommend the following that:

1. All teachers, should be trained to use the pedagogy of group work effectively in class.
2. Group work should be developed and localized in secondary schools in Nigerian classroom setting.
3. Teachers should encourage their students to develop the habit of the use of group work outside the classroom setting.
4. Curriculum planners should also be aware of the efficacy of this approach to teaching and learning of composition and make provision for its application by teachers.

References

- Axelrod, (1979). Comparison of Two Common Classroom Seating Arrangements. *Academic Therapy*, 15:29-26.
- Bennet, N. and Blundell, D. (1983). Quantity and Quality of Work in Rows and Classroom Groups. *Educational Psychology*, 3: 93-105.
- Bennet, N. and Dunne, E. (1992). *Managing Groups*. Hemel Hempstead: Simon and Schuster Education.
- Blatchford, P; Baines, E.; Kutnick, P. and Martin, C. (2001a). "Classroom Contexts: Connections Between Class Size and within Class Grouping". *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 71(2): 283-302.
- Blatchford, P; Kutnick, P.; Clark, H.; Macintyre, H. & Baines, E. (2001b). "The Nature and Use of Instructional Materials Within Class Groupings in Secondary Schools". End of Award Report to ESRC (Ref: R000238172).
- Bossert, S.T.; Barnett, B.G and Filby, N.N. (1985). "Grouping and Instructional Organisation" in P.L. Peterson; L.C. Wilkinson and M. Hallinan (Eds.). *The Social Context of Instruction: Group Organisation and Group Process*. New York: Academic Press.
- Creemers, B. (1994). *The Effective Classroom*. London: Cassell.
- Damon, W. (1994). Peer Education: The Untapped Potential. *Journal of*

Applied Developmental Psychology, 5: 331-343.

Doyle, W. (1986). "Classroom Organization and Management" in M.C. Wittrock (ed). Handbook of Research on Teaching. New York: Macmillan, Third ed.

Gage, N.L. (1978). The Scientific Basis of the Art of Teaching. New York: Teachers' College Press.

BETWEEN *ANTIGONE* AND *TEGONNI*: TRAGIC VISIONS AND TRANSLATIONS

Wumi Raji

Department of Dramatic Arts
ObafemiAwolowo University
Ile Ife, Osun State
Nigeria

Introduction

In “Africanizing Antigone: Postcolonial Discourse and Strategies of Indigenizing a Western Classic”, which I published in the Winter, 2005 edition of *Research in African Literatures*, I contended that adaptations of Sophocles' *Antigone* have always centralized the question of political repression and agitations for freedom. This point is obvious enough, and I went on to cite Christian Meier who states in his book, *The Political Art of Greek Tragedy* that tragedy and politics appeared to be closely bonded in the Athenian state of fifth century BC. With regards to my specific concern in the essay, I had argued that Femi Osofisan's *Tegonni*, much like these other adaptations of the Greek tragedy, focuses on the issues of authoritarianism and tyranny in political leadership, and a people's struggle to free themselves from such aberrations. The play is studied in comparison with Athol Fugard, John Kani and Winston Ntshona's *The Island*, another African adaptation of the same Greek play which was first staged in 1973 in the context of anti-apartheid struggles in South Africa. Specifically in that essay, *Tegonni* was located within the context of the Nigerian crisis of 1993 and 1994, which was a case of military usurpation of political power and, to be more precise, the unjustified annulment of a presidential election.

I still believe in the validity of the position I expressed in this earlier paper. There is no questioning the fact that the original Antigone example as dramatized in Sophocle's play of the same title continues to provide inspiration for artists and writers searching for a metaphor appropriate for denouncing totalitarian tendencies in political leadership in different parts of the world, and that it serves Osofisan well in *Tegonni*. I have however observed that this clearly legitimate obsession has over the years continued to block, if inadvertently, more subtle interpretations to which different variants of *Antigone* could be subjected, and it is for this reason that I have decided to return to Osofisan's own adaptation in this paper. This time around, I am taking it together with the Sophocles' original. Both plays are tragedies, even if of different kinds, and a love story is critical to the unravelling of the conflicts in each of them. In this paper therefore, my concern is to undertake a comparative exploration of the formal and visionary continuities and transformations between these two related

tragedies, where one has been inspired by the other. Focusing specifically on the private theme of inter-racial love, as opposed to that of political dictatorship which I have dealt with in the earlier essay, the paper will commence with a brief investigation of the social and philosophical assumptions informing the creation of each of the plays as tragedies, taking note of the continuities and differences between them, before proceeding to apply the principles in a close discussion of the two dramatic works. Osofisan's *Tegonni* will of course attract relatively greater attention, as a composite, more recent, translation of both the pre-existing myth of Antigone, and Sophocles transformation of the story in his play of the same title.

Translation of Antigone and Tegonni

In an essay titled "Ideology and Tragic Epistemology: The Emergent Paradigm in Contemporary African Drama," Biodun Jeyifo distils three major paradigms out of the innumerable attempts at speculating on the nature and forms of tragedy in Western theory and criticism. The first he expectedly describes as Aristotelian. This, as he says, presents tragedy as an "organic" form of art which dramatizes an eternal truth about life and existence and which, being timeless, remains unaffected by the vicissitudes of history. Aristotelian theory, as Jeyifo says, presents two core concepts as central to any tragic work, the first being a tragic hero who, consequent upon an act hubris, must violate the cosmic and moral order of his society and thus invite calamity upon himself. The second, which Jeyifo also rightly articulates, is the tragic issue, representing the factor which provokes the protagonist's act of hubris. The hero falls consequently – but Jeyifo fails to mention this – engendering catharsis in the audience, causing a feeling of powerlessness and resignation.

The Hegelian postulation on tragedy represents both a departure and continuity of the Aristotelian conception. It is a departure because it recognizes the 'hand' of history in the tragic confrontation; and continuity, because it insists on the inevitability of such an occurrence even without the specific human agents involved. Tragedy is simply "the satisfaction of Spirit," to quote Hegel's specific words, an experience which, if I can now turn to Jeyifo, "racial or national communities must go through in its self-actualisation in history." Heroes and those who oppose them are not just themselves but, on the contrary, "reflect the contradictions which must be 'annulled', must be negated for spirit to realize itself in an age or epoch." (*The Truthful Lie*, 24)

The postulation by Marx and Engels is completely historical, and consciously dialectical. It differs from the Hegelian theory because it disagrees with the view that tragedy occurs as a consequence of a process of historical self-actualization. In Marx-Engels, the tragic confrontation is located between personalities and groups who embody irreconcilable

visions and aspirations of different social groups. In other words, and as Jeyifo argues, tragic action takes place between individuals and groups of people who are fully conscious of the dialectical operations of history, and understand the scientific explanation underlying the collision. The actors in the drama, individually and as a group, mean more than as presented. Rather, they represent social classes and forces. At this point, I think I need to quote Biodun Jeyifo at some length:

The third point is Marx-Engels: when tragedy confronts history it is on solid ground and loses its abstract, 'artistic' purity: protagonist and antagonist forces are not agents who carry an ineluctable 'tragic flaw' which destroys them. Rather, they are individuals who carry the concrete goals and aspirations of social groups, forces or classes. (26)

Before moving on, I would like to add, importantly, that while insisting that any tragedy, of whatever form, "can be placed at approximate points along this continuum," Jeyifo takes care to point it out that the paradigm no longer observes any form of historical chronology. What it has retained however is its "theoretical dimension."

It will clearly be right to suggest that it is anachronistic, employing the Aristotelian principles in analyzing *Antigone* since the play itself happens to be one of those from which Aristotle extrapolated his points in the first place. But why this is the case, it also ought to be conceded that the ideas put forward in the theory are penetrating, detailed and precise; and, as such, have been of tremendous assistance to scholars over the ages in their investigations of the works of classical Greek dramatists. This being the case, I personally do not see the need spending time defending the anachronism.

Until that moment when Creon promulgates the decree barring the burial of Polyneices, there is nothing in Antigone's antecedents indicating that she could be capable of the kind of confrontation she stages against Creon in the play. There is no doubt, to be sure, that she is extremely sensitive to the series of misfortunes that have befallen her immediate family at different points in time, and that she carries this about like a bold scar on the face. Indeed, going by the evidence presented in the play, Antigone has virtually led her life wallowing in utter sorrow. Beside this however, she seems to be ready to comply with the codes of existence of her society and abide by the rules set down to guide the life of all females, which is to lead an entire life under the full control of a male. She is already betrothed to Haemon and is, from all indications, ready for marriage. Following her wedding, the next thing would have been for her to subject herself to a quiet life of wifehood. Then occurs the incidence of the decree barring Polyneices's burial and something gives, finally, in the young woman.

In going ahead to violate the public proclamation however, it is clear that

Antigone's motivation is more personal than political. As opposed to that of commitment to the moral order, the young heroine feels compelled, rather, by a sense of duty to her conscience as well as her brother's memory. When told by Creon that her punishment for her act of transgression would be death, her reaction is to submit readily. And no sooner than she finds herself thrown into the tavern than she commits suicide. It is consistent with the nature of Greek tragedy that the needless deaths of two young lovers, which in itself ought to be subject of much lamentations and sorrows never really constitutes the focus of attention, except in relation to the fall of Creon, the tragic hero.

Objectively, Creon's downfall could be said to have been compelled by his large ego and an absurdly vindictive inclination. And, in this case, and as has already been pointed out in my earlier essay, his situation is not helped by the fact that the person who has crossed him belongs to a sex which normally should be excluded from political decisions. But the object of Greek tragedy is never the immediately objective or the obviously sensible. Its concern always is the eternal interpretation of the human condition. Creon falls, as all men in any clime or time must do, having committed an act of hubris. He sets himself up in confrontation with the supernatural, violating, specifically the law of Hades, the Greek god of the netherworld. The final words of the choral odes drive home the point:

Our happiness depends on wisdom all the way.
The gods must have their due.
Great words by men of pride
bring greater blows upon them.
So wisdom comes on the old. (Emphasis added, 226)

The materials appropriated by Femi Osofisan in *Tegonni* are drawn from concrete historical experience and the play, I need to point it out straightaway, belongs therefore in the third part of the theoretical continuum. To restate the point briefly, and as Jeyifo puts it, the tragic conflict is located between people who embody the visions and aspirations of forces and groups that are much larger than their individual selves. The play is located in the colonial period and dramatizes the confrontation between agents of imperial domination and a local African community.

First produced in Emory University, Atlanta, USA in 1994, *Tegonni* came up at a critical moment in Nigeria's history, a period when a military dictatorship had just annulled a free and fair election, descending heavily on forces trying to resist the development, killing many, and clamping others in detention. For this reason, clearly, Osofisan declares that his concern in the play is not so much with colonial history as it is with the question of the struggles for political freedom in Nigeria specifically, and Africa, generally. In an interview he granted Biodun Jeyifo (again!) shortly after the play's

premier production in 1994, the playwright asserts that his recourse to the past in the play is nothing but a “ruse,” a device which he had, as at then, had to employ in order to “better focus the present.” In doing so, as he states further, his purpose was to shield himself from “the menace of present terrors, from the unruly, armed bullies currently at loose in the corridors of power.” (*Black Dionysos*, 32). He goes on:

If you listened well, you must have heard in the wailings of Tegonni, an echo of familiar lamentations once on the headlines of newspapers now unhappily proscribed, and also, I imagine, in the numerous jails where our pro-democracy fighters are being wasted. Through her stubborn, resolute and eloquent articulation of the will to freedom, you would not have failed to hear the chords of similar resistance in our country and elsewhere against these “leaders” who are currently holding our people hostage. (32)

It is impossible, to be sure, to sideline the issue of the “will to freedom” in *Tegonni*. But while this is so, it is at the same time difficult to accept the argument that the exploration of colonial history which the play undertakes at length represents only a mere camouflage for the political theme. Indeed, the major confrontation in the play is constructed along racial lines, and is a consequence of the dimensions of human relations which the colonial encounter threw up. “The colonial world is a world divided into compartments”, says Frantz Fanon in *The Wretched of the Earth*. The colonial state, as Walter Rodney puts it now in his own *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa*, “had a monopoly of political power,... (having crushed) all opposition by superior force.” (178) Given this reality then, the codes regulating relationships were always strict and precise, enforced as they were by brutal force. The colonial occupiers constructed a hierarchy of races with the invaders occupying the top rungs of the racial ladder, and the “native”, having been subjugated by use of force, were treated with absolute contempt, considered, as they were, as savages and primitives. In returning to the situation in *Tegonni*, the important question which Osofisan seems to have posed to himself as he delineates the conflict in the play, is whether it is in actuality possible to keep the line of racial demarcation intact in a situation where the two antagonist groups live exactly in the same environment. His response to the question seems to be in the negative.

In his African translation of the Greek classic, Osofisan sets out by inviting Antigone down through the long route of history to meet her Nigerian incarnate and actually participate in the new play. “My name is Antigone” she answers in response to a question from Antigone's friends and sisters regarding her identity. When however she adds that she “heard

you were acting my story,” Yemisi quickly counters her: “Your story! Sorry, you're mistaken. This is the story of Tegonni, our sister.” (16) Yemisi goes on to add that it is her wedding and that they are the ones leading her to her husband's place. Antigone does not dispute this. Instead, she simply asks if she and her entourage could join. With this, she becomes part of the new play and is later to be seen performing the role of the director, allocating roles to players. Through one of the characters then, Femi Osofisan cleverly underlines the originality of his own play, but without denying his indebtedness to the earlier version authored by Sophocles.

Tegonni takes off from the story of Antigone but it differs in several fundamental ways from the original classical script. In the interview with Biodun Jeyifo which I have earlier cited from, Osofisan spends time to explain how he arrives at a name for his own heroine, a name that at once establishes the similarity between the two female protagonists and, as well, the difference in their attitudes and careers.

Directly, Osofisan claims to have explored the complex possibilities which the tonal character of Yoruba, his mother tongue, made available to him. After he has considered and rejected a number of options including “agan”, the Yoruba word for a barren woman, and “agonni”, a derivative of the first word but which actually denotes contempt, the playwright says he arrives at the word “aaganna” which is normally used to describe a slightly abnormal woman. For a while, as he says, it seems to be quite appropriate to him for capturing the new heroine's “vivacious, iconoclastic personality, and for a while, I considered calling her “Anti Aaganna.” But then, says Osofisan, and I quote him:

I was still not satisfied with that, till “Tenniegona”, and “Tegonni” came up. At this point I consulted my wife, and she opted for the latter. So I finally settled for “Tegonni”... “egon” immediately evokes the statement, “egon o ni koyin ma dun” which would roughly translate as “spite cannot make honey taste otherwise than sweet”. Or the other, “tegan ni ko je ki won o yin wa a,” that is: it is because of spite that they won't appreciate us.” From there the link is obvious with hubris – the pride or arrogance before the fall, or, the pride that leads to the fall.

From the above, it is clear that Osofisan deliberately constructs her heroine as a self conscious and proud woman, one who does not hesitate to transgress boundaries. In the Antigone original, the tragic conflict develops as a consequence of the decree which Creon promulgates over the body of Polyneices. Antigone's decision to violate the order represents her first and only act of hubris and, as I have earlier indicated, is consequent upon her sense of commitment to her brother's memory. In her own case, and by the

time the play opens, Tegonni has established a reputation for willful acts of transgression of constituted order and traditions. She is unusually gifted in talents, and fiercely independent in disposition. Her being a princess also means she would have access to certain privileges and advantages to the exclusion of her mates. The playwright presents her as a protégé of Yemoja, the Yoruba goddess of the sea, and it is this factor that explains the presence of the latter character in the play. Here is Baba Isokun, a respected elder within the community and the court historian trying to explain the issue to Governor Carter Ross, a man most unlikely to respect such interpretation.

Right from childhood, she's always been like that, a problem child. She's a gift from our Mother, Yemoja, and such children are never bound by the normal rules the rest of us live by. It's the goddess inside them, they can't be controlled.
(62)

Tegonni's first act of hubris becomes manifest when the time came for her to decide on a career. She had chosen to be a bronze caster, a profession hitherto regarded as an exclusive preserve of men. The entire community is taken aback by this act of daring, a fact which makes them to consequently brand her as a witch. They would in fact have gone ahead to burn her fingers but for the intervention, again, of Isokun, the only person in a position to understand her unusual behavior. To protect her, the old man takes her to Allan Jones, the white district officer. As it turns out, the young colonial officer is simply too willing to grant her the request. In other words, Tegonni's first contact with the man who would later become her fiance has been necessitated by her desperate need for protection from her own people. Having helped in setting her up in her chosen profession though, the two begin to discover each other. Here is how Allan Jones explains the encounter to Carter Ross at a particular moment of desperation:

She came to me for refugee. At the beginning that's all it was. A terrified woman, trying to affirm her independence against an unreasonable tradition. They were going to have her fingers burnt out, as they treat witches. So she ran to me and when I listened to her, I decided to offer her our protection. I helped her to build her workshop, and got some tools for her from Lagos. And then I began to see the products of her work. General, you've got to see them! I'm not exaggerating, when I say it's a work of genius! If she was white, she would be a major discovery.(99)

But Carter Ross wouldn't show more interest in this account any more than he has done in the one earlier proffered to him by Isokun. As a typical colonial officer, he has only a literal interpretation of his mandate. His mission in the colony is to protect the Union Jack and defend the interests of the Empire. The natives are nothing other than savages and brutes and cannibals, and are therefore to be treated with utter contempt and scorn.

Rules are rigid and precise and options are simple. You are right once your skin happens to be white, and on the other side of the law once it is not. To try to cross the line of demarcation is to be guilty of treason and be ready to bear the consequences. In fairness, Carter Ross actually does respond to Isokun's explanation, of the unusual spirit which he believes drives Tegonni. This, however is to say, simply, that "the Empire cannot be run like that, on the caprices of possessed children." Laws are made to be obeyed and rules, as he states further "cannot be twisted to the tics of eccentrics." (62) Carter Ross is Creon all over again. Like his alter ego created some two thousand five hundred years before, he insists on absolute obedience. Like him, he is totally autocratic in attitude, a disposition which makes him brook no opinion that happens to run contrary to his own.

Well, there is one important respect in which the two differ from one another. Creon, in his desperate determination to punish Polyneices even in death sets himself against a divine stipulation, a clear act of hubris. In his own case, Carter Ross wouldn't dare violate any law set down by the Empire. And while it is true that he also issues an order banning the internment of the body of Oyekunle, he does so only because it runs counter to the belief of the people over whom he rules like a conqueror. The effect of a total absence of the spirit of hubris in Carter Ross is to make it impossible for him to assume the status of a tragic hero. This clearly is deliberate on the part of Femi Osofisan, his creator.

As a fellow colonial officer, Allan Jones represents the direct opposite of Carter Ross. For him, the opportunity to serve as a district officer in Oke Osun is no more than that of a learning experience, a process of discovering the humanity of the natives. This much is evident in his response, quoted above, to the Governor, the latter having sought to know how it came to be that he finds himself going into marriage with a black woman. Allan Jones' first duty toward Tegonni, as already stated, was to assist in rescuing her from her own people and helping to set her up in her chosen career. Following this, his next decision is to observe her at work. Astounded, he has no hesitation declaring what he has seen as products of a genius!

In the colonial context, the kind of relationship that Osofisan creates between Tegonni and Allan Jones would be taken as abominable. To be sure, several colonial officers did have relationships with native women during the period but these directly were in contravention of the codes regulating social relations between the two racial groups at the time. In "The African Antigone on the Stages of the New World", the same interview the playwright had with Biodun Jeyifo and which I have been referring to, Femi Osofisan cites the example of the circular issued by Lord Crewe, the Colonial Secretary to the Northern and Southern protectorates of Nigeria at about the turn of nineteenth century which expressly banned inter-racial relationships. To follow this was the one issued by Lord Lugard, where the Governor General himself openly described sexual liaisons

between colonial officers and native women as bestial. But such formal proclamations never served in actuality to check such racial intercourse. They never could, especially since we were dealing with situations where, and as Osofisan rightly notes, most of the officers were bachelors, or married men who refused to bring down their spouses. In many cases, the officers were just in search of fun, looking for something exotic or simply yearning for release. A number of officers lost control in a few instances though, with the relationship subsequently becoming intimate. As an example, Osofisan cites in the interview, “the case reported by Ian Brook in *The One Eyed Man Is King* of the 'scandalous' affair between a white A.D.O. and a Benin woman, till the officer had to be sent home.” (*Black Dionysos*, 39).

It ought to be conceded, on the other hand, that the reactions of the native community to those among their own women who got involved with white officers was not in any way better. Mostly, they were treated as women who were both cheap and weak and who consequently allowed strangers about whom they knew little or nothing to exploit them sexually. Additionally, and in several instances, they were considered as traitors who would not hesitate to betray their own people agents of imperial domination. When such happened to be the case, what the community did was to quietly ostracise the women involved.

Osofisan has clear difficulty accepting that the interpretations held true in all such situations. His position in fact is to the effect that there were moments when the relationships had far more depth. In some, as he would state, the women involved in such liaisons saw them as strategies of “hitching themselves onto the saddle of power, of enhancing their own social status, and by implication that of their families.” (39) He would go further to suggest that, in fact, while there might not have been too many examples of when the relationship blossomed into actual marriages, a significant number of them had serious emotional contents. An important focus of Tegonni therefore, and the playwright finally states, “was this ambiguous arena where the women, far from spontaneously being traitors to their communities, used their relationships in fact as weapons to demystify the colonial propaganda of omnipotence.” (39)

The purpose of the foregoing is to establish the historical context of *Tegonni*, thus leading me to my major focus in this paper – which is to establish the archetypal nature of the love relationship between the joint protagonists in the play. The love between Tegonni and Allan Jones blossoms against the background of intense hostilities towards such relationships by the people on both sides of the racial divide. On the side of the natives, even Isokun who had supported the young woman when she took the decision to become a sculptor finds her decision to marry a white man completely unacceptable. In response to the plea by Tegonni's friends that he makes himself available to offer her blessings when on her way to her

husband's house, Isokun asks rhetorically how it is that she could not find someone to marry from "among her own people." Reminded by Yemisi and Faderera how men started avoiding Tegonni following that strange choice of a profession by her, Isokun again responds by submitting that it has "never been heard of, that a woman of our land, and a princess at that, would go and marry one of these ghosts from across the seas..." (*Tegonni*, 12-13).

But as opposed to what typically obtained in actual historical context, Tegonni's relationship with the district officer is shorn totally of any form of opportunism. This much is borne out in the heroine's highly critical attitude toward the ideology that powered the project of colonialism, and the absolute contempt in which she holds Carter Ross, the man who embodies the worst form of the assumptions behind imperial domination. Standing before the Governor in Tableau 13 of the play, Tegonni is as defiant as any person could ever be. In response to his rhetorical question to the effect that she really wishes to die, she replies: "You conquered us. So you make the rules. We know our lives are in your hands, and we've resigned ourselves." (59) During a second encounter, and with the advantage of the gun she has in her hands, Tegonni shouts down the Governor when he suggests her people would be wiped out if she dare shoot him. "Why do you think it will matter to me," she says by way of providing reason for being impatient with the man, "if you wipe out our town! What you've done already to our men, and to our pride, is that not sufficient damage! When our souls are in bondage, what does it matter again what happens to our carcass!" (86) And when, desperate to save himself, Carter Ross restates what everybody knows: "I'm the Governor, a British Officer... symbol of the Empire—", Tegonni's response is calm, sarcastic, and I quote her in full:

And I, am just a little African primitive, from a lost village in the jungle. I represent no power and no empire. Just a small girl, tired of being trampled upon by invaders like you, whom we once welcomed as friends, but tricked us into signing off our freedom. Just because you have guns... (86-87).

But precisely as he is critical of the project of the Empire, so does she demonstrate a keen awareness of the contradictions inherent in her relationship with a man whose presence in their community was exactly for the purpose of furthering the project. "Yes, I knew he was not one of us," she declares in Tableau 26 where she is brought to the public square to apologise to the Governor, "that he was of the race of our masters, those who continue to trample over us." (103) In spite of this knowledge however, and as she confesses, she found herself melting like jelly when the man approached her with a marriage proposal. Her reason! Allan Jones, "unlike his countrymen, was

always so humane and so gentle!” In other words, it is the positive qualities which Tegonni finds in Allan Jones which has won him her love. His humanity has trumped such other considerations as his racial background. It is exactly the same thing that happens on the other side. For Allan Jones, Tegonni's talents and humanity are far more important to him than the fact that she belongs to a race he is supposed to hold in contempt. This much is revealed in what he says about Tegonni while discussing with Governor Carter Ross in Tableau 25, a speech I have earlier quoted. Having seen the products of her work, Allan Jones feels convinced that he is standing before a genius and he cannot but allow himself to be overwhelmed by the soft feelings which eventually grew up within him. Carter Ross just cannot believe his ears when Allan Jones declares to him that he will “never love another woman again in my life.” (99) Clearly then, Tegonni and Allan Jones are forerunners of inter-racial love. Both are individuals of strong convictions, and neither of them would agree to renounce the marriage even on the point of death!

As is well known, the quarrel between Polyneices and Eteocles over the throne of Oedipus, their father serves as the critical background to the crisis that eventually unfolds in *Antigone*. Osofisan's version of the rivalry between the two brothers is based on an actual historical incident which occurred in Okuku, a small Yoruba town in 1916. This incident occurred at a period when colonial authorities had just succeeded in establishing firm administrative control over the town, and the crisis that almost overtook the town was a consequence of the lack of insensitivity demonstrated by the foreign invaders to the order of succession put in place by the indigenes to the traditional stool in the town.

As Karin Barber reports in *I Could Speak until Tomorrow: Oriki, Women and the Past in a Yoruba Town*, her book which examines the history and tradition of this relatively small town, colonial administrators were both meddlesome and authoritarian in their approach to the traditional system. With their sole aim being that of introducing an indirect system of administration, many of the actions taken by colonial agents were often hasty and ended up literally disrupting the balance of power inherent in the traditional system. Karin Barber writes:

The various colonial administrators had very definite ideas about the 'traditional order', and their selections and distortions, though often conflicting, had the same end in view, to bolster up what they saw as a fixed hierarchical system in which power flowed in one direction, from the top down. (222)

As Barber further reports, one of the very first persons to exploit the ignorance of the colonial masters was a man known as Oyekunle. Following the death of Oba Oyewusi that year, it became the turn of another lineage – that of Oyeleye – to produce the next traditional ruler. After a thorough process of selection, the kingmakers eventually settled for Oyeleye, a man who actually carries the name of the lineage literally on the head, and thereafter headed for Ibadan, the provincial headquarter, to report their choice to the District Officer. But, as Barber reports, Ajiboye, at the time a small boy, and actually a son to Oyekunle, one of those who lost out in the selection process, took a short cut and arrived at the D.O's office ahead of the kingmakers. He was to tell the white administrator that the Okuku chiefs were on their way to present the wrong candidate they had selected in place of Oyekunle, his father who, legitimately, should take over the throne following the death of the former king. As Barber says, the “D.O. accepted this on the spot because he knew Oyekunle (having put him in charge of the Okuku railway station in 1904) and afterwards would brook no opposition to the candidate whose appointment he had endorsed.” (223) This act of subversion of people's will generated intense crisis within the town and Oyekunle started his reign with all his chiefs bitterly opposed to him.

In adapting the story in *Tegonni*, and beside making the two brothers wage a war against each other over the selection, Osofisan shifts the actual date of the historical incident back by some decades, consequently fixing the action of the drama at a time before the onset of the twentieth century. He retains the central aspect of the story which is that of imposition by a British officer of an unpopular candidate on the people but gives the name Oyekunle to the brother who has a legitimate claim to the throne and Adeloro to the usurper. Sticking now to the details of the Greek myth and the *Antigone* original, he makes the two brothers wage war against each other with the colonial officers mobilizing forces in support of their candidate. In the end, and precisely as it happens in the Greek version, the two brothers bring each other down in battle.

Now in *Tegonni*, and in opposition to *Antigone*, Osofisan only employs the issue of an order promulgated by the colonial Governor to complicate an already existing crisis. As the discussion earlier on would have shown, the real problem in the play is generated by the wedding ceremony that is being consecrated between the joint protagonists. Carter Ross, determined to scuttle the marriage, finds an instrument with which he could cause chaos within the community in Oyekunle's dead body, and it is for this reason that he orders that, rather than burying it, the corpse be placed in front of the palace, precisely on the road which members of the bridal train are sure to take as they lead the new bride to her husband's home. Carter Ross knows quite well that leaving a dead body unburied represents an abomination among the “native” people, and that a great likelihood exists for at least one

person to flout the order banning its internment. Once such a person is arrested and put on death row, the marriage will naturally be put on hold. As it turns out, it is Tegonni herself who carries out the act of violation, a development which suits Carter Ross even better since it now means that he can issue an order for her to be publicly executed on charges of treason. "Christ, I understand it now!", cries Allan Jones when eventually the truth dawns on him: "You planned it! You sent that corpse here deliberately to stop my wedding!" (91)

The elders of the community however make a mistake in trying to negotiate on Tegonni's behalf, and make her agree to apologise publicly for her act of defiance. Even Isokun, the man who has consistently shown understanding for Tegonni's consistent acts of iconoclasm fails to realize at this point that no archetype ever agrees to capitulate. At the end of Tableau 26 where the action of the play climaxes, the stage instruction reports that following sudden bursts of gunfire, Tegonni, who hitherto has been hoisted aloft by other women, "tumbles from her ride." (105) She falls as a hero, and in a way clearly different from that of Antigone.

But, as earlier stated, Osofisan's tragic vision differs markedly from that of Sophocles. In *Antigone*, the tragedy that befalls Creon serves the purpose of instilling a lesson in the audience: the gods are inviolable; and any act of hubris on the part of any mortal, however highly placed, can only lead to a disaster. In *Tegonni*, Osofisan moves away from a metaphysical interpretation of events, and shares the same page with Marx and Engels. Here, and if I may return to Biodun Jeyifo, "protagonist and antagonist forces are not agents who carry an ineluctable 'tragic flaw' which destroys them. Rather, they are individuals who carry the concrete goals and aspirations of social groups, forces and classes." (*Truthful Lie*, 26) For the moment, Tegonni and Allan Jones might have failed in their aspirations to get married but several people will come afterwards who will trod the same path that they have cut. This is the significance of the Epilogue where, and as Osofisan instructs, Antigone comes down from the boat of Yemoja, undertakes a "symbolic dance,... wakes Tegonni and leads her, together with her retinue, to the boat." (106)

Conclusion

I close here by re-affirming my political reading of Tegonni in "Africanizing Antigone." The same Carter Ross who wants to maintain racial purity as seen in my current take on the play also represents the dictator who annuls the people's choice thus precipitating a crisis. His decree which bans the internment of Oyekunle's body intensifies the crisis. The attempt to execute Tegonni in public for defying his order by undertaking a symbolic burial of Oyekunle's body makes the crisis degenerate into violence. As the hero of the struggle, Tegonni falls in the end. Carter Ross however deceives himself if he thinks he can win the

battle. This, precisely, is the relevance of “Ozymandias”, the poem by Percy Bysshe Shelley, jointly recited by Antigone and Teyonni at a strategic moment in the play.

References

- Barber, Karin. (1991) *I Could Speak until Tomorrow: Oriki, Women, and the Past in a Yoruba Town*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press
- Fanon, Frantz (1967) *The Wretched of the Earth*. London: Penguin Books.
- Jeyifo, Biodun. (1985) *The Truthful Lie: Essays in a Sociology of African Drama*. London: New Beacon
- Jeyifo, Biodun & Femi Osofisan. (2013) “The African Antigone on the Stages of the New World”, in *Black Dionysos: Conversations with Femi Osofisan*, ed. Olakunbi Olosope. Ibadan: Kraft Books, Pp29-50
- Olosope, Olakunbi. (2013) *Black Dionysos: Conversations with Femi Osofisan*. Ibadan: Kraft Books
- Osofisan, Femi. (2007) *Teyonni: An African Antigone*. Ibadan: Concept Publications Limited.
- Raji, Wumi. (2005) “Africanizing Antigone: Postcolonial Discourse and Strategies of Indigenizing a Western Classic” *Research in African Literatures*, 36.4
- Rodney, Walter. (2005) *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa*. Abuja, Lagos: Panaf
- Sophocles. (1968) *Antigone in Greek Tragedies: Volume I* eds. David Grene & Richmond Lattimore. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. Pp. 177-228

TOWARDS A SYNTHESIST APPROACH TO THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF SUMMARISATION

Taiwo Oloruntoba-Oju
Department of English
University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria
ttaiwoju@yahoo.com

Abstract

The difficulty of teaching and learning summarising at the tertiary level derives from three main sources: the complexity of the required skill, the volume of study materials involved, and the demand of originality. A fourth source, especially for the students of English as a second language, derives from the nature of the language itself, or, more correctly, the nature of the acquisition of and corresponding competence in the language. The paper reviews instructional and non-instructional approaches to the teaching and learning of summarizing and suggests a synthesist approach to the tackling of summarization strategies.

Keywords: summarization, instructional and non-instructional strategies, textreduction, minimally required summarisation units (MRSU), topic question approach

Introduction

It is generally agreed that the skills of outlining and summarising are indispensable to academic tasks of all disciplines in higher institutions of learning. The sheer number of study volumes that students have to mill through within short periods requires that they are able to quickly reject irrelevant information in texts, while rapidly noting the important ideas. Students who are able to cultivate this ability can prepare short but adequately representative summaries in outline or paraphrase forms from big study volumes. These outlines could then be kept for quick revisions when the need arises, especially during examination periods when it would neither be possible nor prudent to return to the big study volumes from which the summaries were prepared. However, summarisation task outcomes in study situations often reveal that most learners find it difficult to acquire the skills necessary for an appreciable level of success in summary writing (see Babalola 1980; Zamel, 1985, Johns, 1988, Oloruntoba-Oju, 1991, among others).

The complexity of the summarisation skill is revealed through such summarisation task outcomes. Student 'summaries' frequently complete in length with the original texts being summarized. Furthermore,

summarisation involves both reading and writing skills, which means that a good understanding of a text is essential for a successful summarisation of the text. However, many students appear not to even “get past” the comprehension stage of the summary exercises that they are confronted with in the first place (Oloruntoba-Oju, 1991, p. 75), thus reducing the probability of their producing good summaries. This complex intersection between comprehension and summarisation also has significant implications for summarisation pedagogy. For example, although summarisation is generally regarded as a sub-skill of writing, it is also approached pedagogically as a tool, and as part of the process, of effective reading. Conversely, reading processes such as skimming, scanning, intensive reading, identifying main ideas and subordinate ideas, deciding which points are significant within the appropriate contexts, etc., are frequently rendered as summarization skills (cf. for example, Arnadeut and Barret, 1984 and Johns, 1988). This is a point that we shall return to later in our elaboration of a synthesist approach to summarisation.

The complex intersection between language and skills acquisition is also reflected summarisation task outcomes. Mastery of the relevant language increases the student's ability to comprehend texts meant to be summarized, and to perform effective summarization and other language tasks. Again, second language settings provide ample illustrations of this complexity. This is why, for example, summarization difficulty is considerably heightened in second language settings, leading predictably to relatively worse summarisation and other language-task outcomes in such settings.

It may be surmised at this point that the predicament of the learner derives from these pedagogic constraints and the teacher's own predicament about how to deal with them. The fact that there is hardly any specific, well-articulated, fully established or widely accepted pedagogical principle or method for dealing with the various problems of summary writing speaks volumes about the source of the teacher's predicament. Here again the second language situation presents a considerable disadvantage. In the following sections we review approaches to summarisation with due attention to the manner in which summary writing pedagogy has attempted to address the problems highlighted in the foregoing.

Approaches to Summarisation

Approaches to summarisation include instructional and non-instructional pedagogic models or strategies. Every pedagogic pronouncement amounts to some kind of “instruction.” However, the term “instruction” is employed here in the sense of detailed directions as to *how* to approach specific summarisation tasks or *how* to achieve specific target skills. These directions typically build on an established theory of or approach to summarisation. For

example, in 1978, Kintsch and van Dijk proposed a theory of comprehension on the premise that learners delete trivial information to enhance long term memorisation of important items in a text. The authors then established six deletion, substitution/superordination and selection/construction rules from the theory. These were in turn built upon by other applied linguists, for example, Cunningham (1982), McNeil and Donant (1982), Brown and Day (1983), among others, to derive specific pedagogic instructions for achieving target summarisation capabilities.

On the other hand, non-instructional strategies basically involve exhortation or “advice” about summarisation without providing specific instructions, tools or “technical enablers” (Oloruntoba-Oju. 1991, p. 76), or “explicit modeling” and other “hallmarks of instruction” such as teacher guidance, “group application, feedback and ... independent use” (Bean and Steenwyk, 1984, p.297, 305).

Non-Instructional Model: Exhortation

The exhortation approach is the most common approach to teaching summarisation, perhaps because it requires only a little effort and no training. The approach typically provides a generalized list of summarisation “dos” and “don’ts.” The method here is to list commonsensical requirements of or advice relating to summary writing, without necessarily offering the learner any technical enablers. A list of summary writing exhortations is often something like the following:

- (1) The crucial ability required in summarising is that of identifying the main ideas from a spoken or written text and knowing how these ideas interrelate.
- (2) Summary writing requires the expression of ideas in clear and coherent language and in your own words.
- (3) Brevity is essential in summarising.
- (4) Etc.

(Adapted from Adegbija, 1987, p. 22)

This sort of approach has also been christened a “trial-and-error practice approach” (Bean and Steenwyk, 1984, pp.299, 305, 306). Without the benefit of direct or specific instructions and guidance, the approach obviously does not answer the crucial questions involved in summary writing: *how* does one identify the ideas or points that are most important in particular texts, *how* does one reduce these important items to a good summary (text reduction) in one's own words (text rewording/text recreating), and *how* does one integrate the latter into an independent and longer narrative such as literature review (text integration)|

Instructional Models

As noted earlier, instructional strategies in the teaching of summarisation entail specific modeling, specific instructions and guidance as to how to achieve target skills. Three early instructional models in summarisation pedagogy are the *rule governed* models provided by McNeil & Donant (1982) and Brown and Day (1982) and the *intuitive* GIST model provided by Cunningham (1982). These built on the theoretical model or macrorules provided by Kintsch and van Dijk (1978), referred to above. These instructional models are usually contrasted with the exhortative or *trial and error practice* model referred to above (see especially Bean & Steenwyk, 1984) for an elaboration of these models).

Rule Governed Models

McNeil and Donant's rule governed model advanced specific and further guidance rules towards achieving Kintsch and van Dijk's deletion, substitution/superordination and selection/construction model. For example, among other rules they instructed students to "put a line through all statements that are not important to the story." These rules were, according to Bean & Steenwyk (1984, p. 298), "introduced in isolation, then integrated and applied to practice passages." Similarly, Brown and Day (1983) advanced five rules, which draw closely on the six established by Kintsch and van Dijk's rules, to instruct students on the elimination of unimportant items and focus on topic sentences.

Gist Model

Cunningham (1982), again as elaborated by Bean & Steenwyk (1984), adopted an "intuitive" framework under the name "Generating Interactions between Schemata and Text (GIST). In practice, the approach adopts a similar frame of providing instructions and tools to students to enable them to delete unimportant points and to devise topic statements to fit a specific word limit. In this case, Cunningham provides a 15-blank space exercise into which students are to fit substitutes for the longer texts being summarized. The 15 blank spaces serve to mentally constrain the students to adhere to strictly to important items in order not to exceed the word limit.

Many subsequent approaches to summarisation are variants of these models. It is virtually impossible to elaborate all the approaches advanced or adopted by Communication Skills, and especially summarisation, scholars over time. However, in the following section we highlight a few representative approaches. They include:

- Paragraph-Structure Approach
- Topic Sentence Approach
- Thought-Flow or Thought Pattern Approach

- Product-Focused Approach
- Analytical Approach
- Synthesist Approach

Paragraph-Structure Approach

With the paragraph-structure approach, learners are encouraged to see the paragraph as a homogenous unit expressing and developing a single thought or idea. Parry (1979, p. 9) notes that the paragraph is “a coherent unit in piece of writing, usually consisting of a series of sentences” and that “it has a unifying topic— acentral idea – which is often clearly stated in the paragraph [and which] enlarges on that topic.” Following from this, according to the paragraph structure approach, the learner's task is to identify the central idea in each paragraph in a passage. The accumulation of the various central ideas would then, presumably, constitute a good summary of the text. The pedagogic procedure here is to lead learners through the identification process, e.g.:

“The first paragraph describes the fact of the crisis. The second paragraph describes the —— of the crisis. The third paragraph describes the —— of the crisis,” etc. (Parry, 1979, p. 34)

However, the paragraph-structure approach seems to preclude or at least discourage the potentially more rewarding holistic orsynthesist appraisal of texts. The apparent assumption that paragraphs would always be short, simple, precise and homogenous is also obviously faulty. While an understanding of the central ideas in paragraphs may lead to a comprehension of the text it may not necessarily lead to a good summary. For instance, in a text having several paragraphs, the inclusion of central statements from each of them would make the 'summary' unwieldy and therefore pointless.

Topic-Sentence Approach

The topic-sentence approach is similar to the paragraph structure approach. The topic sentence is simply one that states what the paragraph or text is about, hence, the topic, the main point or main issue of the paragraph or text. The sentence bearing this information typically occurs in the paragraph initial or paragraph final position, though not always. It is often a declarative statement that summarizes the assumption or main contention of the passage or paragraph. When a sentence is explicitly topical and is positionally conspicuous or indexical, it becomes a useful guide to the remaining part of the paragraph or passage.

The topic sentence method has over time been considered highly effective in summarisation. For example, of the six cardinal steps or macrorulestowards achieving optimal comprehension and summary skills proposed by Kintsch and van Dijk (1978), two are direct appropriations of the topic sentence (see note 7 above). The McNeil and Donant (1982) rule governed approach and Cunningham's (1982) GIST approach also employ the topic sentence as a cardinal model for extracting important items from a text. The topic sentence method therefore comes sometimes with some pedagogic assurance. In addition, the topic sentence approach enhances speed reading through skimming, since a rapid look at the first (topic) sentences in the paragraphs of a passage could give one the gist of an entire passage or chapter within a very short time.

The link of the topic sentence approach with the paragraph-structure approach is that the topic sentence usually states that central idea which the paragraph structure approach enjoins learners to look for. A search for the central idea is therefore a search for the topic sentence that conveys it. By the same token, however, the two approaches are open to similar criticism (see Paragraph-structure Approach, above). It will also be recalled that the topic sentence is not always overtly expressed in texts. A direct search for it may therefore be sometimes slow, cumbersome and distracting. Such a search also again discourages the holistic/synthesist appraisal which, as mentioned earlier, a good summary should employ.

Thought-Flow or Thought-Pattern Approach

The thought-flow or thought-pattern approach encourages learners to identify the topic/intention trend in a given passage. The pivotal question here is: what is the author doing or trying to do? For example, an author may set out to *classify, exemplify, enumerate, compare and contrast*, give a *historical account*, state *cause and effect*, *argue* (for or against a position), etc. Every discourse is supposed to express thought-flow or thought-patterns that align with such topical/intentional trends. These are sometimes signaled by overt thought-flow cues or signal words relating to particular trends (e.g. firstly ..., secondly..., moreover..., on the one hand..., however ..., etc.). An identification of the topical/intentional trend therefore, according to the thought-flow approach, holds the key to a good understanding and a good summary of texts (Oloruntoba-Oju, 1991, pp. 78-79). Bazerman (1995) also observed that “notes on the key ideas [...] reveals the logic of ideas in the whole piece and the connections among them. ... The notes then become an outline of the flow of the author's thought” (p. 55).

Like the other approaches earlier mentioned, the thought-flow approach has its uses. Problems however arise for learners when faced with thought-patterns that are complex or are not palpably evident. Also, although

following the thought-flow guide might lead to an understanding of passages, it might not necessarily lead to a good summary. As already noted, many learners have proved unable to recognise what is important and what is not in even the simplest passages.

Product-Focused Approach

The product-focused approach proposed by Juan and Palmer (1998) is interesting because of its bottom-up approach of attempting to derive or validate summarisation principles from the summarisation practice of students. It is also useful because it includes a rhetorical aspect in its summarisation model. As had been noted earlier by Oloruntoba-Oju (1991) a “context-building procedure [in summarisation] must take into account not only the situational but also the rhetorical context of the passage or text” (p. 87). In all, Juan and Palmer's study examined four heuristics: the *quality of the summary* (based on the degree of representativeness, especially the number of main ideas included and the relative brevity); the *summarizing strategies used* (based on an earlier taxonomy by Palmer, 1997, which included “copy verbatim,” “generalization” and “combination of two main ideas”); the *role of extra-textual information*, and the *rhetorical structure followed by the students* (especially the relative adherence of their summaries to the original structure of the source text). The objective of the study was to discover from the practice of students themselves which summarizing strategies appeared to produce the best results. In the course of the experiment, some guidance was also offered to the students in the form of an exhortation and rule list based on Palmer (1996).

The study discovered that the students who had been exposed to and who followed summarisation instructions performed creditably well; they included an optimal amount of main ideas from the source text, avoided copying verbatim, avoided the inclusion of extra-textual material, while also closely following the rhetorical structure of the source text.

“Analytical” Approach

An “Analytical Approach” was proposed by Babalola (1980). It is one of the very few attempts to develop technical (as against exhortative) pedagogical strategies to specifically tackle the problem of summarizing within the Nigerian ESL context. For example, as can be seen below, it connects the main ideas to the frequently occurring nouns in the text. The approach recommends that learners be guided through the following steps:

- (i) Recognition of the main noun (the most frequently occurring noun) which represents the topic of discussion in the text.
- (ii) Identifying the actions associated with that main noun.

- (iii) Recognising the organizational structure(s) of the passages being read.
- (iv) Expressing the ideas identified (i.e. the noun, the verbs and the predicates) in one's own words,
- (v) Polishing the passage to make it read smoothly and correctly. (p. 150)

Although Babalola noted that “substantial improvement” was recorded for students trained to use the analytical approach, it was not made clear whether other variables (such as the relative complexity of the test materials used for the research) may have been involved in for the recorded success. For example, it is certainly arguable that only very simple passages would contain one main noun as signalling the main idea of the passage. The pre-test materials used for the students in the research above is probably one such passage. The students recognised the word “University” (or its plural) as the most frequently occurring noun. They therefore “correctly” concluded that the passage was about “University” or “Universities.” However, notice first of all that the word itself has a simple, ostensive referent. In any case, if the passage *was* indeed about 'University' or 'Universities' it would have been correct to have titled it “The University,” “A University” or “Universities.” Unfortunately, we do not know the original or eventual title of the passage’

However, parallel examples show that isolating frequently occurring nouns in passages (in line with Step 1 of the “analytical approach” above) would not only be cumbersome but would also not give the true picture of the thrust or main idea of even some relatively simple passages.

One possible example is the following passage which has been used a number of times to test the summary and comprehension competence of Use of English students in the University of Ilorin where this writer teaches. The first sentence of the passage goes thus:

“Getting an idea through an intricate corporate labyrinth is best likened to a relay race.”

The sentence is palpably topical and the rate of nominal prominence of related words/ideas in the entire (650 word) passage is as follows:

“idea”/“ideas”	— 19 times
“originator”/“ideator”	— 11 times
“managements”	— 7 times
“managers”	— 4 times

The word, “idea,” is therefore the most frequently occurring item in the passage. The passage is, however, not about “idea” or “ideas”! In fact, those students who suggested the word “idea” as a 'suitable title' for the passage

obtained no mark on the question concerned. Not only is the passage not about 'ideas,' it is also not about "ideators," "management", "managers" or even "labyrinth" per se. It is about: the problems involved in. "getting an idea through an intricate corporate labyrinth." It is about the processing and transforming of ideas in an organisational network.

The point is here is that a good summary requires a holistic grasp of the source content and its transformation into a reduced but representative target content, rather than piecemeal appraisals. The frequent occurrence of particular items in a passage may be suggestive, but they would not always be a true indication of the thrust, the main trend or direction of the passage.

Language structure holds far too many rhetorical possibilities for a focus on certain recurrent items to be the essential key to the main point. For example, repetitions could serve both discourse functions and rhetorical/stylistic functions; shifts in narrative or discursive voice (i.e. from "passive" to "active" or vice versa), and other structural, lexical or rhetorical choices may increase or decrease the number of particular items without necessarily correspondingly increasing or decreasing their topical significance. To use another illustration, the use of elliptical language is particularly notorious for "hiding" discourse items (nominal, verbal, etc.); hence, the learner trained to count number of nouns, etc., may miss or misconstrue quite a number of significant situations. In short, the analytical approach highlighted above can hardly hold the key to efficient summarising.

We have dwelt so long on the analytical approach above because, as noted earlier, it is one of the few attempts within the Nigerian context at specially tackling the problem of summarizing beyond routine exhortations. Credit must certainly go to its proponent for drawing attention to the need for and possibility of employing technical formulas beyond the conventional exhortative approaches. The fact that this was coming much earlier than some of the noteworthy western theories also makes it remarkable and commendable still. It is also important to note, however, that the other approaches reviewed in the foregoing are very useful, each in its own way, and that no serious teaching and learning of summarising methods can actually afford to ignore them. That said, we will now look at a few other pedagogical steps, which, in our view, could lead to a holistic and even more masterful teaching and learning of text summarisation.

Towards a Synthesist Approach

Inculcating the Summarisation Instinct

Perhaps the first major requirement in summarisation pedagogy is to inculcate the summarising instinct, that is, the instinctive awareness of the

meaning of summarisation as distinct from cognate activities such as comprehension and paraphrase, and an awareness of what is important and what is not in particular discourses. This instinct can be cultivated/inculcated during the learning/teaching process through a number of sensitization exercises, and preferably from the early stages of the learning process. Learners are to be sensitized to the various principles governing summarization. They also must be exposed to and participate in exercises that illustrate those principles and processes.

Principles and Processes of Summarisation

In our view, principles and processes in summarization include:

- (a) the comprehension/summarization divide
- (b) meaning-hearing/redundancy patterns
- (c) context-building processes
- (d) structure/content reduction processes
- (e) situational and rhetorical contexts
- (e) text-rewording/text recreating processes
- (f) text-integration processes

One important advantage of the deliberate sensitization process is that learners can self-instruct in the relevant processes after being aware of the various possibilities. We shall now briefly highlight the principles relating to the above listed processes.

(a) Comprehension/Summarisation

As noted earlier, several learners even at the tertiary level of education still write summaries that express an understanding of the passage involved but are almost as long as the passage. Understanding the distinction between comprehension and summarisation helps such learners to hone their summarization skills. Comprehension simply means a full, total or complete understanding of a passage or text at the various levels necessary for a true or appropriate interpretation of the text. Summarisation, on the other hand, means creating a brief and succinct representation of the same material. In the words of Stotesbury (1990, p.3) cited in Juan and Palmer (1998), "summarization entails the reduction of a text to its essential constituents which means that students have to be able to grasp the overall structure of a text and be able to distinguish the major issues from the minor ones."

Although comprehension and summarization are therefore different, they are interrelated because, as noted earlier, a good summary requires a good understanding of the piece being summarized and, correspondingly, one's understanding is invariably expressed in *the* form of a summary.

However, it is theoretically necessary and pedagogically beneficial for learners to be aware of the differences.

The distinction between comprehending and summarising should also be emphasized because the 'summaries' of learners often include interpretive comments, which should not be the case. While such comments may well be apt within the context of the text, and may therefore exhibit a good understanding of the text, they also show a lack of understanding of the summarization principle. The summary should represent the facts of the original rather than the opinion of the summarizer. As noted by Oloruntoba-Oju (1991, p. 83) “interpretive comments may render summaries inaccurate and it is important for learners to be aware of this.” Arnaudet and Barret (1984, p.145) also counsel “[avoiding] making comments or adding information to the text.”

This principle suggests that any summarization procedure must include two basic features of accuracy and brevity and related processes. In my view therefore, and in line with the synthesist/integrative approach being proposed in this paper, the **ACCCS** principle of news reporting provides an invaluable take-off point in the teaching of summarization. The acronym stands for Accuracy, Clarity, Coherence, Conciseness and Simplicity (See Akinfeleye, 1987). These elements are briefly elaborated as follows:

- | | |
|--------------------|---|
| <i>Accuracy</i> | This implies reportage of the facts and only the facts of the original text, without room for personal opinions, slants or exaggerations. Notice that even a “slight” alteration or modification of the factual state of affairs in the original text (e.g. “He may do it” related as “He can do it” or “It rained” translated to “It rained heavily”), etc would amount to inaccuracy within the context of a summary. |
| <i>Clarity</i> | This implies a lucid rather than opaque rendition of the facts. The reader/hearer should not be in any doubt as to what the facts in the original text are. |
| <i>Coherence</i> | This implies an explicit expression of the relationships between facts and ideas in the text. Every sentence or statement should not only be clear but should also be relatable to the previous or succeeding sentence. |
| <i>Conciseness</i> | This represents the demand of brevity and compactness. There should be no loose edges. Similar points should be synthesized. |
| <i>Simplicity</i> | This is a demand that expressions should be kept simple and not turgid. |

This list is no doubt exhortative but it serves only as a background and it is usually supported by apt illustrations. It will be noted that items like

“accuracy” and “conciseness” further help to distinguish the comprehension skill from the summarization skill. For instance, interpretive comments may be made in an answer to comprehension questions but would amount to inaccuracy in a summary exercise. Similarly, unless otherwise specified, comprehension answers may include illustrations that are better excised from summary responses. In other words, the demand for conciseness (i.e. brevity and compactness) is by far greater in the summary exercise than in the comprehension exercise.

(b) *Meaning-Bearing/Redundancy Patterns: MRGUS, MRCUS and MRSUS*

In any given sentence or group of sentences, there may be words or phraseological units that could be conveniently expunged without damaging or detracting from the meaning of the sequence. Such items may be grammatical completives, for example, and may not bear any additional meaning within the context of the sentence. They may also be content words which, however, do not give additional information because their meanings are already embedded or implied in other units of the sequence, thus making the additional words redundant. Consider the following sentence pairs:

1. (a) What I said was that you should go (8 words)
 (b) I said you should go (5 words)
2. (a) In those days things were so much better than they are these days. (12 words)
 (b) Those days were much better (5 words)

The 'b' sentences contain only those items minimally required to convey the information contained in the 'a' sentences. A close look at the pairs will show that the deleted items are indeed dispensable. Notice also that the 'b' sentences contain minimally required grammatical units – i.e. items minimally required to make the expressions grammatically correct or complete. The minimally required grammatical units (MRGU) and the minimally required contextual units (MRCU) (see next section) together make up the “essential constituents” or the minimally required summary units (MRSU) that a good summary must contain. It is usually an interesting and rewarding challenge when learners are asked to reduce sentences and passages to such MRSU units. Such exercises help to inculcate a sense of summarizing as well as an instinct of grammatical correctness in learners.

It will be noticed further that in the examples above, the items expunged from the 'a' sentences do not give additional information in the sentences. However, we may also have items that do add information but whose information is not relevant (or particularly relevant) to the context of the passage concerned and could therefore be expunged.

We will now consider those context building procedures through which items relevant to particular contexts can be determined.

(c) *Context-Building Procedure*

As noted, the minimally required summary units (MRSU) are constituted by both minimally required grammatical units (MRGU) and minimally required contextual units (MRCU). A good summary must therefore take note of the context in which a passage is set and use this as guide to what is important or not important in the passage. If we look again at the first pair of sentences in the section above, we will find that it is possible to further reduce the context and structure of 1(a) as follows:

- 1 (a) What I said was that you should go.
- (b) I said you should go.
- (c) You should go.
- (d) Go.

However, in written form, (c) and (d) do not convey the facts of the original context of 1(a). The missing contextual information in (c) and (d) is that the statement had been made earlier on and is only being repeated either for clarification or for emphasis. In other words, (c) and (d) do not contain this contextual information. They have therefore gone below the minimally required contextual units, which mean that they have gone below the minimally required summary units as well.

(d) *Text-Reduction Process: Situational Substance*

The usefulness of the context-building procedure can be further illustrated with the following passage which contains items that are not necessary within the context of the passage. Text-reduction implies the elimination of unimportant items. A specific pedagogical instruction would be to strike out items that are unnecessary.

You will *find* him easily enough. He is always hanging around the magnificent Tinubu Square. Since last week when he arrived by the fast express train from Kaduna he has been hanging around there. He wears a crooked limp as he walks and he smokes a thick black cigar and, also, he is always putting on a nice and beautiful and fashionable blue shirt with a white spotless collar. Finally, he has a very wide gap in the lower row of his teeth. This is embarrassingly visible anytime he opens his mouth. In fact, last week, when he smiled at his lazy but beautiful girlfriend, she exclaimed, with her mouth-ajar, saying: "Darling, but this is too wide" (117 words)

We can build basic situational context in which this passage occurs to the effect that:

The Speaker, 'A', tells the listener, 'B', that he would find a third person, 'C' easily. 'A' proceeds to give a description of 'C' and of the place where 'C' would be found.

Notice that any item in the passage (including words and entire sentences) which does not advance these facts and the relevant context (i.e. which does not have anything to do with finding (C) easily), should not be in the summary of the passage. The passage above can therefore be reduced to basic situational facts, features or *substance* without destroying the existing sentence/paragraph structure as in the examples below.

You will find him easily enough. He is always hanging around the magnificent Tinubu Square. Since last week when he arrived on the fast express train from Kaduna, he has been hanging around there. He wears a crooked limp as he walks, and he smokes a thick black cigar and, also, he is always putting on a nice and beautiful an fashionable blue shirt with a white spotlesscollar. Finally, he has a very wide gap in the lower row of his teeth. This is embarrassingly visible anytime he opens his mouth. In fact, last week, when he smiled at his lazy but beautiful girlfriend, she exclaimed, with her mouth-ajar, saying: “Darling, but this is too wide.” (48 words)

(You will find him easily. He is always hanging around Tinubu Square. He wears a limps, and smokes a thick black cigar and, he is always putting on wears a blue shirt with a white spotlesscollar. He has a very wide gap in the lower row of his teeth. – 36 words)

The items left intact in the two model summaries above are really essential and therefore constitute the MRSU. (Notice that the second summary uses more latitude in merging sentences and replacing some words. As we will see later, this a first step in text-rewording.

Situational and Rhetorical Contexts

The context-building procedure must however take into account not only the situational but also the rhetorical context of the passage or text. For example, apart from the matter expressed in the text, there is also the manner in which it is encoded. Certain questions must therefore be asked: “Is the language poetic||” “Is it comic or is it deliberately verbose in some places||” It is important for the person summarizer to determine whether he needs to represent these rhetorical features in the summary, or whether he needs to represent only the cold situational facts or *situation substance* contained in the passage.

What this also means is therefore is that the aim or requirement of a summary exercise is an important factor. The relevant question is: “Does .the summary want to represent the author of the passage being summarized fully, or is it just the topic or an aspect of it that is to be represented||” This question is important because many summaries by learners are burdened by-the attempt to reflect every statement made by the author rather than those

directly relevant to the topic of the text and purpose of the summarizer.

The various steps and procedures noted above are essential for summarization. Learners who are aware of the processes and engage themselves in related exercises will definitely acquire the skills of summarization. It will then be possible for them to make holistic appraisals of what is important in passages they are confronted with. One device that may also assist in this holistic appraisal is the *topic question* device which will now be briefly discussed.

The Topic Question Method

What is referred to here as the topic question approach is easily operated. Every topic or title is a promise that evokes certain expectations on the part of the reader. The topic question usually derives from the topic or title of the passage or text to be summarized. It is framed with regard to the author's intention which can often be intuitively perceived from the title. It may also be framed with regard to the intention or requirement of the summary.

Direct Topic Correlates (DTCs): Once the topic question is well framed it is easy to go through the passage or text to be summarized and isolate direct topical correlates (DTC's) from it. Because these correlates cohere with the topics they would cling like iron filings to magnetic rod as the reader reads along. As an example a topic question can instantly be derived from the title of a book or chapter as follows:

Cultivating Effective Study Habits - "How can one cultivate effective study habits?"

The chapter has the following sub-sections:

- 1 Introduction
2. Why Study
3. What does studying involve
- 4, Cultivating Good Study Habits
5. Summary and Conclusion.

From the topic-question lead, and assuming that the intention of the summary is to isolate direct topical correspondences, it is immediately evident that the items most pertinent to the topic will be found in the fourth subsection. Thus, even if other sub-subsections form part of the reading, the summary of the chapter should concentrate on the fourth subsection.

Notice that even in passages where we do not have such explicit correlation, items that are particularly relevant to the topic will respond to the

topic-question method as one reads along. This is why, in examination situations for example, it is usually an effective reading comprehension strategy to read the questions before reading the passage itself.

A possible question regarding this topic-question approach is this “What if the passage does not have a title?” In matter of fact, most reading-comprehension passages in examination situations have no titles – candidates are often expected to supply titles of their choice. However, in such situations a topical lead is often evident. This could be in form of a topic sentence or a statement of authorial intention, and it usually comes at the beginning of the passage. The topic question can therefore be easily framed from such topical leads. It will be noticed that this proposition is akin to the rules 5 and 6 of the Kintsch and van Dijk (1978) (See note 7 above).

Also, as noted above, such passages are always accompanied by set questions indicating what is required of the candidates, that is, the points that they are supposed to elicit from the passage. For instance, the examination passage referred to earlier in this paper is accompanied by the following assignment:

Read the passage below and in not more than words of continuous prose, summarise the reasons why the author believes that the process of “getting an idea through an intricate corporate labyrinth is complex.”

Notice that the question gives a topical lead. In eliciting answers to this question from the passage, the candidates need only follow the topical lead. The context-building devices discussed earlier would ensure that only items directly relevant to the context of the passage are elicited. The structure-reduction/content-reduction devices also discussed will ensure that excess words are not employed in conveying the relevant points.

Summary and Conclusion

The foregoing suggests a synthesist and holistic approach to the teaching and learning of summarising. The contention has been that many learners simply do not know how to determine what is important and what is not in the summary texts or passages confronting them. We have suggested in the foregoing that learners must acquire the summarising instinct. They must first of all be aware of the principles, patterns and processes governing summarization. These have been illustrated in the foregoing. Learners would then be aware of what constitutes minimally required contextual units (MRCU) and minimally required grammatical units (MRGU) both of which combine to constitute minimally required summary units (MRSU). The foregoing has also proposed a topic-question device as operational complement to the holistic/synthetic appraisal of summary passages

confronting learners. Through constant awareness and engagement with related exercises, examples of which are given in the foregoing, learners will quickly become masters of the art of summarisation.

We must conclude here that the holistic/synthetic approach is suggested here only as an additional strategy for tackling the problem of summarisation. Other strategies reviewed in this paper also contain useful guides that teachers and learners of summarization must pay attention to.

References

- Adegbija, E.E. (1987). "Cultivating effective study skills." In Adegbija, E. (Ed.) *Effective study skills and use of English*. Ilorin: General Studies Department, University of Ilorin.
- Adegbija, EE. (1987). "Note-taking and Summary skills" in Adegbija, E.E. (Ed.) In Adegbija, E. E. (ed.) *Effective study skills and use of English*. Ilorin: General Studies Department, University of Ilorin.
- Akinfeleye, Ralph A. (1987). *Essentials of modern African journalism* (2nd Ed.). Lagos: Miral Printing Press.
- Arnaudet, M.L. and Barrett, M. (1985). *Approaches to academic reading and writing*. Eaglewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Babalola, B.A. (1980). "An analytical approach to the teaching of english summary writing." *Journal of language and literature*, 1(2), 143-161.
- Bazerman, C. (1995). *The informed writer: Using sources in the disciplines*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Bean, T. W. and Steenwyk, F. L. (1984). "The effect of three forms of summarisation instructions on sixth graders' summary writing and comprehension." *Journal of reading behaviour*, XVI (4), 297-306.
- BBC (2010) "Skillswise" program (emphasis added). "Skillswise" bbc.co.uk/skillswise.
- Brown, A. L. & Day, J.D. (1983). "Macrorules for summarising texts: the development of expertise." *Journal of verbal learning and verbal behaviour*, 22: 1-14.
- Cunningham, J.W. (1982). Generating interactions between schemata and text. In Niles, J. A. & Harris, L. A. (Eds.) *new enquiries in reading research and instruction*. Rochester, NY: National Reading Conference, 42-47.
- Gajria, M. & Salvia, J. (1992). "The effects of summarization instruction on text-comprehension of students with learning disabilities." *Exceptional children*, 58(6), 508-516.

- Johns, A. M. (1988). "Reading for summarising: an approach to text orientation and processing." *Reading in a foreign language*, 4(2): 79-90.
- Juan, E. U. & Palmer, J. C. (1998). *The internet TESL journal*, Vol. IV, No 1, January 1998. Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Juan-Text-Summary.html>.
- Kintsch, W. & van Dijk, T. A. (1978). "Toward a model of text comprehension and production." *Psychological review*, 85, 363-394.
- McNeil, J. & Donant, L. (1982). Summarization strategy for improving reading comprehension. In Niles, J.A. & Harris, L.A. (Eds.) *New enquiries in reading research and instruction*. Rochester, NY: National Reading Conference, 215-219.
- Oloruntoba-Oju. Taiwo (1991). "Outlining and summarising: Towards a synthesist approach to the teaching and learning of importance." in Adegbija, E.E. (ed.). *Effective communication skills in teaching and learning: Basic principles*. Ilorin: General Studies Department, University of Ilorin, 75-91.
- Palmer, J.C. (1996). *The use of summarization strategies in the development of the linguistic competence of business English students*. Collecci-Microfitxes. Castell-n: Universitat Jaume I.
- Parry, H. (1979). *Use of English course*. London & Basinstoke: Macmillan.
- Stanton, Nicky (2009). *Mastering communication*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Stotesbury, H. (1990). *Finnish history students as 'liminal' summarisers on the threshold of academia* (Reports from the language centre for Finnish universities, No 38). Jyvaskyla, Finland: University of Jyvaskyla.
- Zamel, V. (1983) "The composition processes of advanced Eltstudents: Six case studies. *Tesol Quarterly*, 11(2) 165-187.

TEACHING VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN LARGE CLASSES: THE VALUE OF ENABLING TEACHING TECHNIQUES AND TECHNOLOGIES

Dr. Kikelomo O. Adeniyi

Department of English,
Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education,
Otto/Ijanikin, Lagos.
victoriakadeniyi@yahoo.com

&

Mofeoluwa O. Adeniyi

The Finance and Supplies Department,
Office of the Council Treasurer,
Oto-Awori Local Council Development Area,
Oto-Awori, Lagos.
mofeoluwaadeniyi@gmail.com

Abstract

The problem of teaching large classes with students with abilities concurrently has been a major obstacle for vocational and technical teaching and learning. Up until recent times, this challenge has seemed very serious and insurmountable. However with the development of facilitating techniques, this challenge is fast becoming a thing of the past. Institutions of learning that have adopted these technologies have recorded positive results in the teaching of Vocational and Technical Education in large classes. The purpose of this paper is to show the different techniques and methods that can be used to stimulate learner's interest and achieve effective learning outcomes in teaching large vocational and technical education classes. The paper provided several alternative teaching formats such as: active learning, collaborative learning and interactive learning which encourage students' interaction and interest through the use of technology. The paper also discusses how the web can be used as an instructional tool in large classes to motivate students to find resources, conduct web-quests, complete time certain email assignments, and engage in active in-class discussions.

Key Words: Vocational and Technical Education, English – Language of Instruction, Large Classes, Techniques and Technology.

Introduction

According to the 2008 National Population Census estimate, the population of Nigeria is about 138,283,240 (Encarta, 2014) persons with the larger part of the population consisting of the youth and children. Predictably, Nigerian

institutions of learning are having serious challenges in satisfying the educational needs of this ever-increasing pupil/student population occasioning the adoption of the large-class technique without the provision of the needed facilities with a resultant set of poorly trained students.

Today's economy demands a better educated workforce than ever before, and jobs in this new economy require more complex knowledge and skills than the jobs of the past as a result of stiff competition. Vocational and Technical Education Colleges and Faculties are among the major training grounds for such a workforce.

Vocational and Technical Education

Instruction is intended to equip persons for industrial or commercial occupations. It may be obtained either formally in trade schools, technical secondary schools, or in on-the-job training programmes or, more informally, by picking up the necessary skills on the job.

Technical education is the academic and vocational preparation of students for jobs involving applied science and modern technology. It emphasizes the understanding and practical application of basic principles of science and mathematics, rather than the attainment of proficiency in manual skills that is properly the concern of vocational education. In summary, vocational and technical education have as objective, the preparation of graduates for occupations that are classified above the skilled crafts (Encyclopædia Britannica, 2009)

An Overview of Vocational and Technical Education in Nigeria

Vocational and technical education has been part of the National Policy on Education (NPE) since 1981 but very little progress has been made in its implementation. Studies have indicated that public awareness of the importance of vocational and technical education is essential to its development. Part of what is needed to enhance that process is public pressure to encourage more Nigerians to study vocational and technical education.

Vocational and technical education is said to have suffered enormous setback in Nigeria due to the low status accorded to it in general. Part of the problem seems to emanate from the various interpretations of vocational and technical education by policy makers as well as by the implementers of policies on vocational and technical education. New policies are needed to clarify the importance, role of vocational and technical education, and to address the requirements in various sectors of the society.

The National Board for Technical Education (NTBE), established in 1985, gives recognition to three broad classifications of technical institutions and their different missions in meeting the needs of the society. The three groups of institutions are vocational schools, technical colleges and

polytechnics/colleges of technology/colleges of education (technical).

The policy measures intended to expand and improve vocational and technical education have not been effective, although, the Nigerian government has taken various steps to improve vocational and technical education namely by the creation of a separate Ministry of Science and Technology which has been involved in a campaign to mobilize the public and create awareness on the importance of vocational and technical education, the government has also been involved in the process of providing equipment for technical colleges and polytechnics. In addition, science, technical, and vocational education at primary level is part of the new Universal Basic Education Scheme to 'catch them young'

Advantages of Quality Vocational and Technical Education

- a. It costs considerably less to educate and train students than at the university level.
- b. It offers a wide array of professional and technical courses and programmes and an impressive range of qualifications such as certificates, diplomas and degrees.
- c. Open and flexible admissions make them highly accessible to students and members of the community of all ages.
- d. Many of the emerging graduates of the sector are suited to be readily employed than their university trained counterparts because they have practical experience.
- e. Well performing students can transfer to universities with credits being awarded for courses already completed.
- f. Vocational and technical education has the potential of providing the necessary skills and knowledge for large numbers in the informal economy which includes: Small and Medium-scale Enterprises (SME) sector, the unskilled and under skilled; high school dropouts, university dropouts and the unemployed.

Challenges hindering the implementation of Quality Vocational and Technical Education

1. Large class sizes;
2. The failure to attract students to the Vocational and Technical Education sector rooted deeply in cultural attitudes that have been embedded historically in the education system;
3. Considerable emphasis and faith are being placed on 'learnerships' as a flagship solution to skills training for the economy. The real problem is the separation of job training from education;
4. Inadequate supply of instructional materials;
5. Inadequate training facilities;
6. Weak linkages with local industries for hands-on-experience for both instructors and trainees has led to ineffective and inefficient training of

students while emphasis is being placed on passing final examinations.

Measures implemented by the Nigerian government to remedy the situation include the organization of workshops and conferences by the Federal Ministry of Education to create public awareness of the need to improve the quality of vocational and technical education, the establishment of the National Business and Technical Education Board (NABTEB), and the introduction of the National Youth Employment and Vocational Skills Development Programme. These steps, though, encouraging are yet to be effective as a result of the problems affecting Vocational and Technical Education in Nigeria.

What is a Large Class

There is no agreed definition of a large class in the literature, nor should there be. Class size is perceived differently dependent upon the person teaching the course. A large class is one that feels large. A general consensus in the definition across literatures is that the class is significantly larger than it should be and the resources can no longer cope with the number of students if you desire individual attention for the students.

In smaller classes, students have greater opportunities for interaction with the subject matter, the teacher and with one another. If there is one issue that keeps teachers in vocational and technical education institutions nervous when confronted with large classes, it is how to run practical sessions with the same fervour as they do for small classes.

Large classes have problems. Students typically begin courses in which there are large numbers of students with widely varying skills and knowledge, but the size of the classes militates against personal attention to specific student needs (Friedlander and Kerns, 2014). Lectures are generally described from the instructor's point of view, and the student's need for interaction with the instructor is not addressed. Furthermore, a significant percentage would prefer reading available texts rather than attending classes that offer little or no interaction.

Large classes are as effective as small classes when the goals involve learning factual information and comprehending information. When traditional achievement tests are used to measure learning, large classes compare well with smaller classes. (Dion, 2014)

Vocational and Technical Education

In the early millennia of human existence, a craft was acquired in a lengthy and laborious manner by serving with a master who gradually trained the initiate in the arcane mysteries of the skill. Such instruction, set in a matrix of oral tradition and practical experience, was frequently more closely related to religious ritual than to the application of rational scientific principles. Thus the artisan in ceramics or sword making protected the skill while

ensuring that it would be perpetuated.

Vocational and technical training was institutionalized in Western civilization in the form of apprenticeship, which has survived into the 20th century as a framework for instruction in technical skills. Increasingly, however, instruction in new techniques has required access both to general theoretical knowledge and to realms of practical experience that, on account of their novelty, were not available through traditional apprenticeship. Thus, the requirement for a significant proportion of academic instruction has become an important feature of most aspects of modern technology.

This has accelerated the convergence between science and technology in the 19th and 20th centuries and has created a complex system of educational awards representing the level of accomplishment from simple instruction in schools to advanced research in universities. All the advanced industrial countries have recognized the crucial role of a theoretical technological education in achieving commercial and industrial competence, hence their landmark development.

Technologically enhanced education has developed rapidly since the 1920s by drawing on new technologies of communication, most recently the computer. History has shown that pictures, specimens, demonstrations, and other audio-visual means are effective teaching tools. This and many research over the intervening years indicate that, when skilfully used, enabling technological aid and techniques can lead to significant gains in recall, thinking, interest, and imagination for students of vocational and technical education.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of writing this paper includes:

1. Identifying the fact that teaching large vocational and technical classes could be improved through the adoption of modern emerging technologies.
2. Vocational and technical learner's training can be enhanced through exposure to assisting technologies
3. Learners' flair for their chosen career path of vocational and technical education can be increased through their exposure to improved techniques.

Methods of Ensuring Effective Teaching and Learning of Vocational and Technical Education in Large Classes

I. Quality Teaching

Quality teaching has become an issue of importance as the landscape of vocational and technical has been facing continuous changes. The student body has considerably expanded and diversified, both socially and geographically. New students call for new teaching methods. Modern

technologies have entered the classroom, thus modifying the nature of the interactions between students and professors. Governments, students and their families, employers, funds providers increasingly demand value for their money and desire more efficiency through teaching (McKeachie, et al., 1993). In practice, teamwork and goal-setting are perhaps the most recurrent methods used to attain teaching excellence in quality teaching initiatives.

II: Innovative, interactive teaching and learning technologies

Innovative, interactive teaching and learning technologies can benefit large classes as the students have access to course materials via the Internet (searchable FAQ databases, interactive quizzes and fast track communication tools) (Sehoya, 2014).

III: Curriculum Integration and Team Effort

Group work is often conducted in ways which students see as unfair: dividing groups so that members of the same ethnic group are not allowed to work together; giving grades for the group product with no acknowledgement of individual effort; having no method of monitoring members who do not contribute to the group effort; requiring groups to work together outside of class which can impose special hardships on commuters or students with childcare considerations. Successful teaching involves more than improving lecture methods, employing new technologies and involving students in the learning process. Effective teaching includes an understanding of students and their perceptions of fair practices in the classroom (Rodabaugh, 1995)

The teachers assessed by the Rodabaugh research describe the change in the approach to curriculum integration in this way:

“We began to re-evaluate how we conceived of projects. All projects became multifaceted design problems with multiple outcomes. Instead of being artificially forced into the current academic content, we made the media we used fit a relevant academic problem to be solved. The shift was subtle but profound.”

As a result, in the words of the teachers,

“students now solved real problems using technology and design. And, they use their design to communicate specific knowledge to the world at large. Our students' critical thinking improved. Their design improved. Our community grew stronger as the tasks we put them to begin to demand increased teamwork and time on task.”

IV: E-Learning and Computer Multimedia

Advancements, standards, specifications and subsequent adoptions have led

to major growth in the extensibility, interoperability and scalability of e-learning technologies. E-learning is fast becoming a major form of learning. Computer multimedia offers ideal opportunities for creating and presenting visually enriched learning environments. The latest technologies associated with virtual reality will also play an important role in the not too distant future (Sehoya, 2014).

V: Collaborative Group Work through Technology

Educators have attempted an increased incorporation of collaborative group work, problem-solving and decision-making through technology as an integral component of vocational and technical pedagogy. There is no doubt that technology-based tools can enhance student's cognitive performance and achievements if used appropriately, in accordance with knowledge learning and as part of a coherent educational approach.

Computer-based systems have great potential for delivering teaching and learning material. The rapid development of Information and Communication Technology (ICT), particularly the Internet, is one of the most fascinating phenomena characterizing the Information Age. ICT powers our access to information, enables new forms of communication, and serves many on-line services in the spheres of commerce, culture, entertainment and education (Johnson et. al., 1991).

VI: Redesigned course packages.

Lectures are costly - and not just in institutional dollars. We know that many students do not learn from lectures, especially when it comes to retaining skills and knowledge. The passive, one-size-fits-all pedagogy of the lecture is often cited as incompatible with the varied learning needs of individual students. Redesigns that create more active learning environments can lead to real gains in learning (Heterick and Twigg, 1999).

The teaching/learning process is in a state of change and focus is no longer one of teaching/learning input but teaching/learning output. The mode and level of instruction is being revamped in light of faculty workloads, increased enrolments, and content delivery as a result of the redesigned course packages.

VII: The adoption of techniques and technologies.

According to Bourner and Flowers (1997), 'On the implementation of newer techniques enhancing the learning process - Our students now spend a higher portion of their time being taught with large numbers of other students. The number attending lectures have become larger and seminar groups will become larger. Modular courses have become more common. Lecturers also account for a larger proportion of student class contact time. Work with tutors in small groups also accounts for a smaller percentage of class contact time'

The high need for individual tuition (the academic tutorial) has

become a thing of the past. There is no likelihood that any individual students will ever need to speak on a one-to-one basis with a member of the teaching staff as the mode of teaching has vastly improved given the adoption of techniques and technologies (Weimer, 1987).

VIII: Large Lectures: Opportunities and Challenges for Creating an Active Learning Environment

Lectures, as a rule, have little educational value. People learn by doing, not watching and listening. It is difficult to persuade most students in a large lecture class to open their mouths in front of 120 classmates - it feels too risky for them. One technique is the in-class exercise. Instead of just posing questions to the class as a whole, occasionally assign a task and give the students anywhere from 30 seconds to five minutes to come up with a response. According to Hague (1991) the key role of the university lies in interaction; the most important element is interaction with tutors, tutorials, and social activity.

The average student's attention span is between ten and twenty minutes, after that, students have difficulty concentrating on the speaker. For each lecture, change the pace every 15 minutes or so to relieve the monotony and recapture students' interest. For example: ask students to solve a problem at their seats or in groups of two or three, give a demonstration, use an audio-visual aid, or tell a story or anecdote (Davis, 2014). After 15 minutes students begin to tune out and, although some may continue to take notes, they are no longer processing the information they receive (Dolan, 2014).

Some active learning formats that work well in a large lecture are cooperative group work (Johnson et al, 1991), class-wide discussions and interactive lectures. The interactive lecture revolves around orderly brainstorming in which students generate ideas in response to a question or prompt (Berkeley, 2014)

IX: Active learning techniques

Even though some active learning techniques used in small classes may not be suitable for large classes, there are a multitude of active learning exercises that are appropriate. Lectures may be enhanced by one-on-one interaction between students (McKinnon, 2014).

Educationists have discovered some successful large class teaching methods such as creating working teams in class. Teams of six students are mixed randomly to play off each other's strengths. The students discuss lecture materials in class and learn to be responsible for each other because individual quiz scores reflect the average performance of team members (Dolan, 1996).

In class-wide discussions, they present or defend their own views, and critique the views of other students. In interactive lectures, the instructor not only presents material, but also elicits questions and comments from

students, stopping periodically to pose questions for student consideration. This instructional format allows teachers to probe the students' conceptual understanding and allows the students to work on tasks that require them to explore their reasoning, not just to give their answers. For these instructive formats to be effective, students and teachers must have the opportunity to formulate their thoughts, questions, and answers in order to ensure a greater depth of discourse. Although cooperative group work gives both students and teachers time to process their thoughts, during class-wide discussions and interactive lectures, instructors should take special care to allow ample time for students to process and reflect on questions and comments (Dufresne, 1996).

Research has shown that large class sizes are not necessarily detrimental to education. It is the quality of the instructor that has the greater effect (Godfrey, 2014). Some very effective practices to improve the instruction of freshmen and sophomores in traditional lecture and discussion courses are as follows: Frequent short assignments and quizzes; constant questions to students; small study groups etc.

X: Adaptive Techniques and Collaborative Methods

The National Institute for Science Education's web FAQ site (2014) presents a number of answers to challenges that often exist for teachers of large classes which include:

Teaching in a large lecture hall with seats bolted down is problematic because it places restrictions and makes it generally more difficult to include collaborative learning in the course. The group and communication skills students learnt by working in teams with a common purpose are abilities they can take with them and use throughout their career.

When incorporated into a course with care, collaborative and adaptive learning methods can be a vehicle for students to learn the material. It can provide a platform for vigorous discussions and debates and a means to develop a framework of knowledge.

Using collaborative and adaptive learning in courses will reduce the amount of material covered, additionally, students dislike group projects/work for various reasons. This attitude is best changed by collaborative team efforts that enhance the sum of efforts.

XI: Using the Web to Stimulate Large Lectures

The web has facilitated an exciting way to engage students in active learning. Contrary to the traditional lecture and factual memorization, the World Wide Web as an instructional tool allows student-centred learning where exploration and discussion may inspire students to find information and satisfy their curiosity. Web-based learning can meet individual needs,

motivate students to find resources, and publish with a creative mind. It also promotes cooperation and collaboration amongst faculty and students (Hanson and Jubeck, 1999).

Conclusions

The major purpose of this paper is to show how interactive learning can be integrated into the large classroom without losing the focus of the lecture material. The innovative use of technology can provide a seamless interface in the large classroom with web quest assignments which the students find stimulating and challenging. The methods such as active learning, collaborative learning, cooperative learning, problem-based learning, mentioned in the paper make large classes more engaging and interesting for both student and teacher. The interactive process allows students to reflect on their learning experiences, facilitating a higher order of learning. The interactive process promotes good communication abilities and effective interpersonal skills, while introducing and/or enhancing their technology skills, time management skills, and research skills.

The interactive large lecture format requires more time on the part of the instructor since each lecture is broken into various activities, exercises, quizzes, and feedback sessions. However, the rewards far outweigh the work of creating a roadmap of teaching/learning sessions. The students attend class, they are more accountable to their course of study, their peers, and their assignments. The personal contact with their team members and the sense of commitment they display are worth the planning efforts of designing such an interactive course.

References

- Ahiakwo M. J. (1996) "An Investigation into Public Perception and Knowledge of Science and Technology in Nigeria," by, Journal of Science Education and Technology, 5:2, pp. 155 - 159.
- Berkeley Compendium: Implement Good Practices in Teaching Large Lecture Courses. Suggestions for Teaching with Excellence. Issue 212:<http://teaching.berkeley.edu/compendium/suggestions/file212.html>. Retrieved on June 12, 2014.
- Bourner, T. and Steve F. (1997)Teaching Learning Methods in Higher Education: A Glimpse of the Future. A Journal of the Higher Education Foundation Vol. 9, 77-102.
- Davis, B. Tools for Teaching. Preparing to Teach the Large Lecture Course: <http://teaching.berkeley.edu/bgd/largelecture.html>. Retrieved on June 12, 2014
- Dolan, A. (1996) Instructors Share Ideas: Large Class Teaching Tips. Teaching Tips: <http://www.cte.iastate.edu/tips/large.html>. Retrieved on June 12, 2014

- Dufresne, R. J., et.al (1996) Classtalk: A Classroom Communication System for Active Learning. *Journal of Computing in Higher Education*.
- Dion, Linda. But I Teach a Large Class.¶ Newsletter of the Centre for Teaching Effectiveness. Spring 1996:
<http://www.udel.edu/pbl/cte/spr96-bisc2.html>. Retrieved on June 12, 2014
- D. H. Wulff, et al (1987) "Students' perceptions of large classes," in M. Weimer (ed.), *Teaching large classes well. New directions for teaching and learning*, vol. 32, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass,
- Encyclopædia Britannica Technology (2012). *Encyclopædia Britannica Ultimate Reference Suite*. Chicago.
- Friedlander, Larry and Kerns, Charles. Transforming the Large Lecture Course. <http://sll.stanford.edu/pubs/friedkerns.html>. Retrieved on June 12, 2014
- Godfrey, Keith (2014). Tips for Lecturing Large Classes of First year Students. *Teaching and Learning*:
<http://cea.curtin.edu.au/tlf/tlf1998/godfrey.html>. Retrieved on June 12, 2014
- Hanson, R. H. and Jubeck, Todd. Assessing the Effectiveness of Web Page Support in a Large Lecture Course.
http://www.ctu.du.vn/~vdquynh/dedu/deosn9_9.htm. Retrieved on June 12, 2014
- Hayes, U. (1997). Helping teachers to cope with large classes. *ELT Journal*, S 1, 31-38. Postlethwaite, Pergamon Press, 1995, pp. 729 - 737
- Heterick, Bob and Twigg, Carol. Lectures Are Not Cheap. Tomorrow's Professor. Message # 160:
<http://learninglab.stanford.edu/projects/tomprof/newtomprof/postings/160.html>. Retrieved on June 12, 2014
- Johnson, D.W., and Johnson R.T. *Cooperation and Competition: Theory and Research*. Edina, Minn.: Interaction Books, 1989.
- Johnson, D.W., et al (1991). *Cooperative Learning: Increase College Faculty Instructional Productivity*.¶ ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report. No.4. Washington, D.C. School of Education and Human Development, George Washington University
- Itedjere P.O. (ed.) *Current Issues in Nigerian Educational System*, Osasu Publishers, Benin City, Nigeria.
- McKeachie, W.J., et al. (1993) *Teaching and Learning in the College Classroom: A Review of the Research Literature*: National Centre for Research to Improve Postsecondary Teaching and Learning, University of Michigan.
- McKinnon, Tom. I Would Like To But...I Teach a Large Class.¶ TFSC Newsletter.
<http://www.uark.edu/misc/tfscinfo/news498.html>. Retrieved on June 12, 2014

- Microsoft Encarta Nigeria (2009) Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, WA.
- Neville T. Nigeria (2002) International Encyclopaedia of National Systems of Education
- Rodabaugh, Rita and Svinicki, M (ed.). In the Name of the Students. Teaching Excellence: Toward the Best in the Academy. Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education. 6, (3). 1994-1995.
- Sybil, James. (1979) "Three Basic Functions of the English Language in Nigeria", E. Ubahakwe, (ed.) Varieties and Functions of English in Nigeria. Ibadan: AUP.
- The National Institute for Science Education. FAQ site www.wcer.wisc.edu/NISE/cl1/cl/question/TQ2-13.htm. Retrieved on June 12, 2014.
- Sehoya Harris, et al (2014) Computers, Innovation, interactive teaching and learning technologies. www.CETL-psu.edu/celt.htm Retrieved on June 12, 2014.

TEACHING THE FOUR LANGUAGE SKILLS IN ENGLISH THROUGH DRAMA ACTIVITIES AND TECHNIQUES IN LARGE ELT CLASSES

S. O. Unoroh & S. A. Ogunnorin

Department of English, School of Languages,
Michael Otedola College of Primary Education,
Noforija, Epe.

unorosolomon@gmail.com

Abstract

This paper aims at discussing the benefits of teaching the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing in English in large ELT classes through drama activities and techniques. Drama is often described as a literature that talks and walks before the eyes, that is, it is seen. With this feature of drama in the mind of the English Language teacher, drama becomes a powerful language teaching tool that involves all of the students interactively within the class period. Drama activities and techniques such as role-play, simulation, miming and improvisation, provide the means for connecting students' emotions and cognition as it enables them to risk with language, and experience the connection between thought and action. Drama provides a meaningful context for the students to genuinely use language for communication in a real life situation. Through drama, a class will address, practise and integrate reading, writing, speaking and listening.

Key Words: Drama, ELT, Role-play, Simulation, Miming, Improvisation, Cone of Learning.

Introduction

It is no news that majority of our public primary and secondary schools are over-populated; a factor which may not be unconnected with the utmost free tuition fees policy adopted by some of the state governments in Nigeria. However, this upsurge in the number of pupils/students in schools have adverse effects on the teaching and learning processes, especially, that of the English language. This paper, therefore, aims at discussing the use of drama activities and techniques in the teaching and learning of the four language skills, namely: Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing, in English in large ELT classes.

The four language skills are the bedrocks on which the learning of a language is built. A learner that possesses the understanding of these skills will have an overall proficiency in the language. This paper believes that drama, as both an activity and technique in the classroom, can be used to promote the teaching and learning of these language skills, especially, at the

secondary level of education, where students are expected to use English for social functions.

Drama Defined

Drama is one of the genres of literature. It is essentially a performing art and it depends on action for its effectiveness. The use of the word “drama” may be confusing because it can mean one of two things: a branch of literature, and a text. However, when drama is introduced into the process of teaching and learning in a language classroom, it serves as a method or activity for enhancing the students' proficiency in the language learning and usage. Holden (1981) defines drama as any activity which asks the participant to portray himself in an imaginary situation; or to portray another person in an imaginary situation. Drama is, thus, concerned with the world of 'let's pretend'. It provides an opportunity for a person to express himself through verbal expressions and gestures using his imagination and memory (Sam, 1990). In this paper, drama refers more to informal drama (creative dramatics) as it is used in the language classroom and not on stage. The participants in the drama activities are, thus, learners and not actors.

Drama is often described as a literature that talks and walks before the eyes (that is, it is seen). With this feature of drama in the mind of the teacher, it is a powerful language teaching tool that involves all of the students, interactively, all of the class period. Drama activities such as role-play, simulation, miming, improvisation, and dramatization, provide the means of connecting students' emotions and cognition as it enables them to risk with language and experience the connection between thought and action. Drama provides the students with meaningful context to genuinely use language to communicate in real life situation which is in line with Edgar Dale's (1969) Cone of Learning. This states that learners retain more information by what they do as opposed to what is heard, read or observed. Through drama, a class will address, practise and integrate reading, writing, speaking and listening.

The General Values of Drama in Education

Redington (1983) stated that the basic idea of the development of creative drama was the realization that the need to play is an important developmental process in a child, which made educationists to give more attention to the use of drama in education. Scholars and researchers such as: Fleming (2006), Maley and Duff (2001), Phillips, (2003), Aldavero, (2008) are of the opinion that drama is a social activity and thus embodies much of the theory that has emphasized the social and communal, as opposed to the purely individual, aspects of learning. The use of drama techniques and activities in the classroom provides exciting opportunities for the students to use the language in concrete "situations". With drama we can play, move, act and learn at the same time (Philips, 2003).

Also, the use of drama activities has clear advantages for language

learning regarding motivation, the use of language in context, teaching and learning across curricular content. When they are used in a large ELT classroom, it has the advantage of engaging all the students in one or more language skills during the activities.

Dramatic activities according to Maley and Duff (1979) "Are activities which give the student the opportunity to use his own personality in creating the material in which part of the language-class is to be based". Drama activities can provide the students with an opportunity to use a language to express various emotions, to solve problems, to make decisions, and to socialize. Drama activities are also useful in the development of the oral communication skills, and reading and writing as well.

Sam (1990) summarizes the values of drama in education as follow:

1. Drama releases imagination and energy and this could be considered as an educational objective. It encourages the students to exercise their sensitivity and imagination, and thus makes learning more realistic and meaningful.
2. As educational tool, the use of drama fosters the social, intellectual and linguistic development of the child. Thus, it centers on language development, personal awareness, group co-operation, sensory awareness, and imaginative growth.
3. Drama increases motivation and provides the incentive to work hard. The student sees the need to communicate and concentrates on how to go about a task since drama provides him with a meaningful context.
4. Drama fosters a sense of responsibility and co-operation among the students. Drama activities normally take the form of group-work and the students cannot afford to stay passive for too long. There is a need to belong to the group and to complete the task. The students develop a sense of self-worth of themselves as they work together.
5. Drama has a therapeutic effect. It can help solve emotional and behavioral problems. It is a way for a troublesome kid to expend his energy, and encourage the shy and uncooperative students to participate.
6. Drama develops moral and social qualities in a student. In role-play for example, a student is given a chance to understand and relate to the feelings of others. This develops a sense of empathy in the student as he learns to look beyond himself.
7. It motivates the teachers to meet the needs of the students. The drama activities provide opportunities to understand the thoughts and feelings of the students as they express themselves in the drama activities. From the constant feedback provided by the activities, the teacher can plan better strategies

for more effective learning and teaching.

The Benefits of Drama in the Teaching and Learning of English Language

Drama can be used in the teaching of English language for a variety of purposes:

1. Language is used in meaningful situations. Drama contextualizes the language in the real or imagined situations in and out of the classroom. Language in the class that uses drama activities is explored, tried out and practised in meaningful situations.
2. Drama activities can be used as means of reinforcement of language learnt. It helps to extend, retain and reinforce vocabulary and sentence structure through role-play and communication games.
3. Drama improves oral communication. As a form of communication methodology, drama provides the opportunity for the student to use language meaningfully and appropriately. Drama can help restore the totality of the situation by reversing the learning process, beginning with meaning and moving towards language-form. This makes language learning more meaningful and attempts to prepare the student for real-life situations.

The Four Language Skills

Listening Skills

Listening is the process of receiving, processing and assigning meaning to aural stimuli (Madueke, 2007). All aspects of listening involve a transformation of input into intake, a change from the whirling buzz of noise into a meaningful subset that is internalized by the learner. Therefore, it is a receptive skill. The distinction between input and intake is important because not everything to which a student is exposed becomes an intake. It is only the part that is significant and to which the student pays attention.

The listening skill forms a part of the inter-related set of skills required by the learner for effective communication in all the level education (Madueke, 2000). It is a primary source of language and a personal activity that involves the perception of sounds as well as the ability to understand and evaluate what is heard. It is a crucial skill because a student's academic attainment depends, to a large extent, on how he listens to get information being relayed orally. The listening skill is also a basic study skill required by the students to make the most of their learning opportunities like lectures, discussions and seminars.

In other words, the listening skill is not only important in the study of English language but will enhance the study of other subjects across the curriculum. It becomes imperative that, the principles of good listening should be taught in schools, beginning from the pre-primary, through the primary, to secondary and tertiary levels of education.

It has been observed that the listening skill, in spite of its relevance, is often badly taught if not completely neglected in most secondary schools in Nigeria. Language teachers rarely devote time teaching this skill as they do other skills. This is because most teachers find it difficult to teach the listening skill as a result of over-populated classrooms. In addition, the noise level in the classroom can hardly help the students to develop effective listening. While the other three skills receive direct instructional attention, the teachers often expect the students to develop their listening skill without help. However, we have to teach our students how to listen. Listening is a complex skill that deserves the attention of both the learners and teachers alike.

Speaking Skills

At the senior secondary level, the goal of spoken English is to ensure that students become competent speakers of English, which will further enhance learning in tertiary and vocational institutions. Spoken English is also expected to serve as a medium for national and international intelligibility. While communicative language teaching is concerned with all the skills and their use in a naturally integrated manner, the recent emphasis on communication has focused particular attention on the ways of promoting the speaking skills.

The students with a good mastery of spoken English are competent and fluent in their communication skills and are able to maintain good social relationships (Yede and Ogunnorin, 2009). The degree of learner's achievement in reading and written communication is based on his ability to express his ideas clearly, succinctly, and to understand and react to what he hears or sees. Spoken skill is learned. It can be improved through constant practise and careful guidance. The spoken language is also the mirror that reflects a learner's experiences, his thoughts, culture, ideas and emotions.

Speaking activities aim, therefore, to develop the confidence, desire and ability to use the target language, not only accurately, but also appropriately and effectively for the purposes of communication. It is a productive skill, which in the L^1 situation, might occur naturally as one is exposed to the language, but in the L^2 situation, requires some amount of drilling and imitation. It can be improved through constant practise and careful guidance. The development of communicative ability also has implications for the choice and organization of activities, which provide the learners with appropriate learning experiences to foster their confidence and speaking skills.

Reading Skills

Reading is a complex skill, which requires a lifetime effort to perfect. It is a skill that cannot be mastered once and for all, yet it is a basic tool for learning. Reading is an activity in which the eyes, the mind and the brain interact in the

process of perceiving, analyzing, reasoning, interpreting, and integrating a problem (Yede and Ogunnorin, 2009). Various scholars have defined the term reading in various ways. Akere (1993) points out that in any good reading process, the eye decodes the written words while the mind absorbs the various ideas stated or implied in the passage read.

Generally, reading is a language process. And like other related language skills-listening, speaking and writing, forms a part of a complex information process system. As a language process, it involves the cognitive processing and association or neurological functions. This means that it involves all the mental processes that the brain uses in its activity to perceive, to interpret, to understand, to decode, to decipher, to remember and, sometimes, to forget (Yede and Ogunnorin, 2009).

Reading also involves meaningful reactions to the printed and aesthetic expressions represented in figures and symbols. It is an emotional, mental and intellectual makeup of an individual. It operates at two levels: on the first level is the grouping, recognition and interpretation of the group of words; and on the second level, it is the decoding of these words to extract the author's thoughts and ideas/concepts, which the words connote (Madueke, 2007). The higher the extent of extraction of ideas, the higher the effectiveness of reading and the better the utility derived from the achievement of the reading objective.

Writing Skills

Writing is quite a technical skill that involves complex and varied processes, some of which may be going on at the same time. It has been described as the most difficult of all the four language and communication skills and the last of the skills to be acquired because learning to write is not just a natural extension of learning to speak a language. To write well requires a whole range of abilities-listening, speaking, reading, vocabulary, grammar, etc. The basic purpose of the writing skill is to communicate something about a topic to a particular audience of readers.

Writing is said to be a personal act, an expression of self (Madueke, 2007). It draws on intuition as well as on reasoning, on sensation and emotion, facts and memory. Writing is a process that is done for a purpose, which results in a product. It is a process of thought and emotion that requires certain skills and abilities to gain the product and accomplish the purpose.

Using Drama or Dramatic activities in Teaching the Four Language Skills in Large ELT Classroom

Mime

Dougill (1987) defines mime as “a non-verbal representation of an idea or story through gesture, bodily movement and expression”. Mime emphasizes the paralinguistic features of communication. It builds up the confidence of learners by encouraging them to get and do things in front of one another.

Mime helps develop students' power of imagination and observation and can also be quite simply "a source of great enjoyment" with students' tending "to be very enthusiastic about this aspect of drama" (Hayes, 1984). To the language teacher, one could generally say that mime is acting out an idea or story through gestures, bodily movements and expressions, without using words. Savignon (1983) says that mime helps learners become comfortable with the idea of performing in front of peers without concern for language.

Mime is one of the useful activities for language practice; it is also one of the most potent and relatively undemanding. Its strength is that although no language is used during the mime. The mime, itself, can act as a catalyst to generate and elicit language before, during and after the activity. Mime is a great way of reinforcing memory by means of visual association; and recall of language items is assisted whenever an associated image is presented (Rose, 1985). Mime can help to fix language in the minds of the students.

Working in pairs or small groups, students are given topics to work on which are to form the basis of a three-minute mime (a burglary that goes wrong, an accident at a bus stop, an argument at the cinema, for example). Five minutes are allowed for preparing and rehearsing. The students perform their mime in turn, and after each performance the teacher asks the class to interpret what it has being.

Role play

Blatner (2002) sees role-play as a method for exploring the issues involved in complex social situations. McCaslin (1990) aligns with this viewpoint by contending that the focus is on the value that the assumption of the role has for the participant rather than for the development of an art. In role-play the participants are assigned roles, which they act out in a given scenario. According to Kodotchigova (2001), role-play prepares L2 learners for L2 communication in a different social and cultural context. The purpose of role-play is educative rather than therapeutic, and the situations examined are common to all. Family scenes, school situations and playground incidents provide opportunities for interaction and group discussion.

Role-play enables the participants to deepen prior experience and to translate it into characters for the plot. In this way according to Wrentschur and Altman (2002), the participants are able to adopt roles hitherto alien to them, and to try what it feels like to be on the other side for once. The main benefit of role-play, from the point of view of language teaching, is that it enables a flow of language to be produced that might be otherwise difficult or impossible to create. Role-play can also help recreate the language the students use in different situations, the sort of language the students are likely to need outside the classroom. By simulating reality, role-play allows the students to prepare and practise for possible future situations.

Ideas for role-play can be obtained from the situations that the

teachers and learners experience in their own lives, from books, television programmes and movies or from their daily interactions with other people at school/university or in the work place. After choosing a context for a role-play, the next step to follow is to provide ideas on how this situation may develop. It is important to take into consideration the learners' level of language proficiency when using and implementing role-play activities in the classroom.

Simulation

Jones (1982) defines simulation as “a reality of functions in a simulated and structured environment”. The learners have roles, functions, duties, and responsibilities within a structured situation involving problem solving. Simulations are generally held to be structured set of circumstances that mirror real life and in which participants act as instructed.

A simulation activity is one where the learners discuss a problem within a defined setting. In simulation activities, the students are either playing themselves or someone else. Simulation activities are also interaction activities with various categories of dialogues. One category would be social formula and dialogues such as greeting, parting, introductions, compliments, and complaints. Simulation exercises can teach students how to function in a social situation with the appropriate social niceties: for example, students can practise how to reject a request for a date or party. Another category of simulated interaction activity is community oriented tasks, where the students learn how to cope with shopping, buying a ticket at a bus stop, etc. This sort of simulation helps the students' communicative participation in the community and, at the very least, helps them in the task of collecting important information.

A clear line cannot be drawn between role-play and simulation; these two drama activities overlap. Role-play is frequently used within simulation in role-simulation; the participant remains the same individual while reacting to a task that has been simulated on the basis of his own personal or professional experience. In language teaching the differences between role play and simulation are not that important. As Livingstone (1983) pointed out “the main concern for the language teacher is the opportunities role-play and simulation provide”.

Improvisation

Landy (1982) defines improvisation as unscripted, unrehearsed, spontaneous set of actions in response to minimal directions from a teacher, usually including statements of whom one is, where one is and what one is doing there. The focus is thus on identifying with characters, enacting roles and entering roles and entering into their inner experience of imagination and fantasy. According to McCaslin (1990) the focus of improvisation is on helping learners to discover their own resources from which their most

imaginative ideas and strongest feelings flow; participants gain freedom as self-discipline, and the ability to work with others develops. Hodgson and Richards (1974) define the term as “spontaneous response to the unfolding of unexpected situations”.

Improvisation is an excellent technique to use in the classroom as it motivates the learners to be active participants in authentic situations thereby reducing their self-consciousness. Before beginning the improvisation session, the teacher or the facilitator has to involve the establishment of a context which serves to inform the participants where they are and what they are expected to portray in their inter-relationships with the other characters. Since this is an unscripted, unrehearsed drama exercise, the participants are at liberty to make their own spontaneous contribution as the play unfolds. This entails that they have the freedom to add their own words and develop their characters in the ways which they will like to. Thus, one of the advantages of improvisation is the level of freedom that the participants are able to exercise during the execution of the creative session.

Improvisation exercises can involve an entire class of learners or smaller groups. Once the context has been provided, the learners will participate spontaneously in the exercise. A whole class improvisation exercise can involve the participants at a market where some are the buyers and others the sellers. The teacher's role is to provide the context, and the participants act out their roles spontaneously without any planning.

The Procedures

For space constraint, this paper will not discuss fully the use of dramatic activities in the teaching of language skills at all levels. Emphasis will be placed on the upper primary classes and the junior secondary classes. Young children love to pretend, that is, act out things. This makes it quite easy to act an event, or even a short scene which will be perfectly understood by the children. Mime and role-play become relevant here. This is because miming is the re-creation of action such that the spirit behind the action and the sensation that it reflects are made visible; whereas, role-play is the make-believe play of young children whose emphasis is not on plot or sequence but on impulsive identification with the person, animal or thing.

Using these two dramatic activities in teaching listening and speaking in a large ELT upper primary classes, for example, the teacher may follow the following procedure:

- a. Teacher directs pupils to sit in a circle (to allow for free view).
- b. One pupil is chosen and told (privately) by the teacher to mime a specific real situation (for instance, digging up some imaginary earth and pretends to put it into real bucket).
- c. Pupil mime the activity as told before all the pupils.
- d. Members of the audience guess the situation with a question like this:
Question: What has Ade done?

Answer: He has put some sand in the bucket.

Also, the teacher might ask two pupils to pretend to see a snake as they are walking along, and then have the following conversation:

Bola: Look out! There's a snake.

Ade: It's a very big one.

Bola: It's as big as the one we saw last week, isn't it?

Ade: No, it's much bigger.

The pupils are expected to listen to the dialogue and repeat it in groups. This is because at this level of learning, listening and speaking skills are very much inter-dependent and related. The job of the teacher is to pay attention to pronunciations, intonations and necessary accents and rhythm as the children repeat these dialogues. He/she also corrects them where necessary.

At the junior secondary level, the procedure is different from the above. Before the teacher can successfully guide the students to dramatize, he/she must identify with them. The procedure to be used may include creating the mood, developing the idea, planning the action, dramatizing the story, and evaluating the experience (Ilorietal, 2000).

Creating the Mood

There are many ways of creating the right mood, such as drawing the students' attention to an issue of interest and relevance to their career; a puzzling question, drawing themes from a discussion may all serve to ignite the students' curiosity.

Developing the Idea

Once the students' mood has been created, they are ready to develop the idea, discuss the theme or story. The teacher's personal interest in the idea is crucial towards the success of the lesson.

Planning the Action

Before the students are plunged into dramatizing, they should first plan the characters in the play. They should try out their ideas in groups individually, and then agree on the number of scenes, of characters and the tones of the conversation. At this point, cooperative learning is encouraged; because it promotes learning and fosters respect and friendships among diverse groups of students. Students learn to express themselves with greater confidence when working in small teams. In addition to 'picking up' vocabulary, students benefit from observing how their peers learn and solve problems. Furthermore, all the language skills are taken care of at this stage because the students listen, speak, read, and write (rehearse) in order to fine tune their presentation.

Dramatization

This is the most exciting moment for the students. Once the dramatization has begun there should be less interruption by the teacher. This will make every actor responsible for playing his/ her role as best as he/ she could.

Evaluating the Experience

This should begin with commendation, stating specific areas that were performed well. Also, essay topics could be formed from the themes of the presentation to serve as assignment(s) for the students after the presentation.

Summary

Drama is an appealing teaching strategy, which promotes cooperation, collaboration, self-control, goal-oriented learning as well as emotional intelligence skills. Drama bridges the gap between course-book dialogues and natural usage, and can also help to bridge a similar gap between the classroom and real-life situations by providing insights into how to handle tricky situations.

Drama strengthens the bond between thought and expression in language, provides practise of supra-segmental and para-language, and offers good listening practice. If drama is considered as a teaching method in the sense of being part of the eclectic approach to language teaching, then it can become a main aid in the acquisition of the four language skills which lead to communicative competence. Drama activities facilitate the type of language behaviour that should lead to fluency, and if it is accepted that the learners want to learn a language in order to make themselves understood in the target language, then drama does indeed further this end.

One of the greatest advantages to be gained from the use of drama is that the students become more confident in their use of English by experiencing the language in operation. Drama in the English language classroom is ultimately indispensable because it gives learners the chance to use their own personalities. It draws upon students' natural abilities to imitate and express themselves, and if well-handled should arouse interest and imagination. Drama encourages adaptability, fluency, and communicative competence. It puts language into context, and by giving the learner experience of success in real-life situations, it should arm them with confidence for tackling the world outside the classroom.

Recommendations

Based on the aforementioned benefits of drama and dramatic activities on the teaching and learning of English language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) more attention should be paid to the use of dramatic activities as an instruction method in large ELT classes in our secondary schools.

Also in using Drama in the classroom, the teacher becomes a facilitator rather than an authority or the source of knowledge. The students are given the privilege to interact spontaneously with the language among

themselves.

References

- Akere, F. (1993). *English across disciplines*. Abeokuta: Pumark.
- Aldavero, V. A. (2008). Drama in the development of oral spontaneous communication. Encuentro 17. Retrieved on 7/2/2013 from www.encuentrojournal.org/textos/Alonso.pdf
- Blatner, A. (2002). Role-playing in education. Retrieved on 7/2/2013 from www.blatner.com/adam/pdntbk/rlplayedu.htm.
- Dale, E. (1969). *Audio-visual methods in teaching*. Third edition. New York: The Dryden Press; Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Dougill, J. (1987). *Drama activities for language learner*. London: Macmillan Publishers Ltd.
- Fleming, M. (2006). Drama and language teaching: The relevance of Wittgenstein's concept of language games. Humanizing language teaching Magazine, issue 4 Retrieved on 7/2/2013 from <http://www.hltmag.co.uk/jul06/mart01.htm>.
- Hayes, S. K. (1984). *Drama as a second language: A practical handbook for language teachers*. London: National Extension College.
- Hodgson, J. and Richards, E. (1974). *Improvisation*. London: Eyre Methuen.
- Holden, S. (1981). *Drama in language teaching*. London: Longman
- Ilori, T.A. et al (2000). *Nigerian certificate in education course book on English language cycle 3*. Kaduna: National Teachers' Institute.
- Jones, K. (1980). *Simulations: A handbook for teachers*. London: Kegan Paul Ltd.
- Jones, K. (1982). *Simulations in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kodotchigova, M. A. (2001). Role-play in teaching culture: Six quick steps for classroom implementation. Retrieved on 7/2/2013 from <http://iteslj.org/techniques/kodotchigova-Roleplay.html>
- Landy, R. S. (1982). *Handbook of educational drama and theatre*. London: Greenwood Press.
- Livingstone, C. (1983). *Role-play in language learning*. London: Longman.
- Madueke, A.N. (2000). Developing listening comprehension skills at senior secondary school level: Some suggestions. *Issues in Education Journal*. 1(1)
- Madueke, A.N. (2007). *Principles and practice of teaching English as a second language*. Lagos: Vitaman Educational Books.
- Maley, A. and Duff, A. (1979). *Drama techniques in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Maley, A. and Duff, A. (2001). *Drama techniques in language learning: A resource book for communication activities for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McCaslin, N. (1990). *Creative drama in the classroom*. 5th ed. Studio City:

- Player Press Inc.
- Philips, S. C. (2003). *Drama with children*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Redington, C. (1984). *Can theatre teach*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Rose, C. (1985). *Accelerated learning*. Topaz: Great Missenden.
- Sam, W.Y. (1990). Drama in teaching English as a second language: A communicative approach. Retrieved on 7/2/2013 from <http://www.melta.org.my/ET/1990/main8.html>.
- Savignone, S. J. (1983). *Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice*. Reading: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Wentschur, M. and Altman, P. (2002). Enhancing cultural awareness through cultural production theatre. Retrieved on 7/2/2013 from <http://www.akutemia.org/eca/articles/opressed.html>.
- Yede, F.S. and Ogunnorin, S.A. (2009). Integrative Teaching of Language Skills for the Development of Communicative Competence and Performance in School Children. *Mocped Journal of Arts and Social Sciences*. 2 (1) pp. 26-36.

THE IMPORTANCE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN THE NIGERIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Maria Olanrewaju Ewulo
Department of General Studies,
Ogun State Institute of Technology, Igbesa,
Ogun State.
ewulomaria1960@gmail.com

Abstract

It is significant that the English Language is an invaluable colonial legacy which has been used to express Nigerian culture. The English Language is so indispensable to Nigeria that it still serves as a unifying language in the country. This paper examines the advent of English Language into Nigeria and its role in the Nigerian Educational System. The concepts of language and education are discussed; the Nigerian Language Policy (NLP) and the place of the English Language in Nigeria are examined. In conclusion, possible steps to enhance the standard of English as a medium of consolidating Nigerian Education are proffered. In response to the call for a unified Nigerian language, if there is going to be a change from the existing system, the change must be strategic taking into consideration the socio-political, economic, educational factors, along with linguistic pluralism and international connectivity. On the whole, the English Language is found to be invaluable in Nigerian Educational system and must be given proper attention in policy making and curriculum development.

Introduction

The advent of the English Language into Nigeria happened during the pre-colonial era in the 15th century, precisely 1472 in Calabar, Warri and Brass predating the trans-Atlantic slave trade (Osuafor 2002:1) The main function of English Language was influenced by missionary activities, trade and commerce. The missionaries used the language to win new converts into Christianity; the British used it to establish trading contacts in the West-African coast which later metamorphosed to colonial empires.

The Portuguese were the first Europeans to come to Africa in their quest for human and material resources as well as sourced market for their finished products. The need to communicate with the African traders gave rise to what we call “pidgin” today. Pidgin is a mixture of the indigenous languages and the Portuguese dialect of English language.

In Nigeria, the little opposition to the English language came from the North. This resistance was more for religious rather than linguistic reasons. The Northerners who were predominantly Moslems equated English to Christianity because it was the language of the Christian missionaries. Therefore, they held the language with suspicion and rather

adopted Arabic as a language and a way of life (Osuafor: (2002). Eventually, the British penetrated the North through the establishment of schools and colleges. The establishment of Katsina College in 1922 has been described as having far reaching social, cultural and political implications for the North. With the eventual penetration of the North by the British, the hold of the English language in Nigeria became total.

Upon the amalgamation of Northern and Southern Nigeria in 1914 by Lord Lugard who was the appointed Governor-General, there was need for a language of communication to hold the two territories together. This was because the amalgamation brought together diverse people with diverse tongues and cultures that were merged into one nation called Nigeria. The English Language came in as a unitary language to hold together the diverse people of Nigeria with their diverse languages. The position of the English language as a unifying force in Nigeria was succinctly put by Afolayan (in Osuafor 2002:120):

It is unrealistic for anybody in Nigeria today to think that National Unity can be forged in the country without recourse to the utilization of the English Language...(it) has been the language of the creation of the political entity itself and also the language of its politico-economic unification and administration...Furthermore, the fact that it is now functioning as the language of Nigerian nationalism cannot be denied

Today, English language is made a core course in the educational system and it has become the dominant language through which access to other subjects is made.

Despite the recent call by some Nigerians for a Nigerian language policy it is observed that Nigeria is yet to have a well-articulated and explicit national language policy that can be found in one document, though it is common knowledge that Nigeria does have a national policy for languages in education. This policy, sometimes explicitly and sometimes obliquely has stated in sections, the Philosophy of Nigerian Education at different levels (pre-primary Education, primary Education, Secondary Education, Higher Education, Professional Education, Technical Education, Adult and Non formal Education); views of the Government on 'National Language' and recommendations of the Political Bureau (1987) on the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (1989) and also the Cultural Policy for Nigeria (1988). The crux of the matter is that special issues in Nigerian Politics in respect of a Nigerian National Language are still to be resolved. Let us examine the concept of language.

Language

Language is one of the greatest attributes that characterizes humans and is a

major feature that makes human communication distinct from animals. Jiboku(2005) sees language as a tool which man uses to relate with other members in his society; he expresses his feelings and controls other variables through language. Science and technological developments are two of the ways through which man influences his society. Language helps him to manipulate and cause development.

Adeniran (1997) sees language as the means of identification, categorization, perception, thinking, creative activity, technology, memory, transmitting knowledge across space and time and grasping the abstract and the supernatural. Jacoby (1966) in Adeniran, says that 'Language is a system of using arbitrary signs, symbols and sounds to communicate ideas, desires and feelings by human beings.' A school of thought holds that language is not a mere tool devised for the representation of a pre-existent reality. It is, rather a constitutive part of reality, deeply implicated in the way the world is constructed.

The Systemic-Functional Linguistics(SFL) associated with M.A.K. Halliday, views language as a social phenomenon. Some other schools of thought see language as a social practice which is effective in the formation and reproduction of ideas. Language is conventional because the meanings of words are determined by agreement by its users within given contexts of communication. It is a vehicle for transmission of social conventions within the framework of cultural and linguistic environment. Language as a social function is what Systemic-Functional grammar is all about.

Education

Right from the classical age of Aristotle and till today, education is seen as a means of enlightenment by which culture is transmitted from one generation to another formally or informally. The definition of education according to Mill as cited in Adesina and Ogunsaju (1984:30-31), states:

Education is the culture which each generation purposely gives to those who are to be its successor, in order to qualify them for at least keeping up, and if possible for raising the level of improvement which has been attained.

This goes to show that education goes beyond the ability to read and write but also includes the type of education in our traditional society before the advent of western education. Another school of thought sees education as a phenomenon which helps to improve the attainment of every society, which makes education an agent of change and development. The importance of language comes into focus. Behind this cultural transmission and change agent which education provides is Language as the propelling force. Language is the vehicle of transmission of knowledge culturally, socially, politically, economically, scientifically and technologically.

The Nigerian Language Policy

Language policy is an official pronouncement on a set of programmed activities for selecting, organizing and developing the language resources of a country for the utilization and development of a people (Osuafor 2002:163). It is the expression of policy statement in language planning. Language planning is described variously as language engineering, language standardization and language development. Language planning is necessitated by language problems such as:

- a. The linguistic diversity of most West African countries e.g. Nigeria
- b. The need to adapt to the communication needs of a changing society
- c. The need to harmonize the various languages through linguistic assimilation
- d. The desire to contain the necessity for linguistic pluralism
- e. The need to restore an indigenous language through vernacularization
- f. The need to adopt non-indigenous language for official, commercial and educational purpose through internationalism.

The National Language Policy (NLP) of 1977/1981 stipulations are as follows:

a. Philosophy of Nigeria Education

On the importance of Language in the educational process, the Government considers it to be in the interest of national unity that a child should be encouraged to learn one of the three languages other than his own mother tongue. In this connection, the Government considers the three major languages in Nigeria to be Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba.

b. Pre-primary Education

To achieve the above objectives, government will ensure that the medium of instruction will be principally the mother tongue (MT) or the language of the immediate community; and to this end will develop language centres and produce textbooks in Nigerian Languages.

c. Primary Education

Government will see to it that the medium of instruction in the primary school is initially the mother tongue or the language of the immediate community and at a later stage, English.

d. The Junior Secondary School

The junior secondary school will be both pre-vocational and academic. The curriculum should be structured such that in selecting two Nigerian languages, students should study language of their own area in addition

to any of the three Nigerian Languages: Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba subject to availability of teachers (NPE).

e. Senior Secondary

English and one Nigerian language should be offered at this stage.

In Nigeria today, there is an estimated number of 400-450 indigenous languages including other foreign languages such as English, French and Arabic. The English language acts as the official language, French is taught and used as a foreign language while Latin and Arabic are special languages for religious worship. The goal of language planning is to harmonize the various languages and ethnic groups despite the political implications especially fear of domination. Language planning and policy are used to adapt to changing societal needs. For instance, the agitation for nationalism can lead to the choice of an indigenous language (other than a foreign language) for official transaction and communication.

It is discovered that in Nigeria, linguistic pluralism and internationalism are more practicable than linguistic assimilation and vernacularization. All the Nigerian languages are political, there is no one politically neutral language that the diverse ethnic groups that make up the country will be comfortable with as the dominant language of the society. This is why we have linguistic pluralism. Three major languages; Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba are designated as “major Languages”. Emenyonu (1992) noted that Nigeria has chosen nine of its indigenous languages for educational purposes namely: Hausa, Igbo, Yoruba, Edo, Efik, Fulfude, Ijaw, Kanuri and Tiv.

In the same way, the Nigeria language policy has tended towards internationalism where the English language (a non indigenous language of wider communication) has been adopted as the language of officialdom, education and commerce. The issues raised against this positioning of the English language in Nigeria are many; a language imported into Nigeria from Europe. It is a second language in Nigeria and therefore, not the language in which Nigerians express their innermost thoughts and world view; Nigerians can never achieve the same proficiency in English as the native speakers. Again English is an instrument of imperialism, English should be replaced by an African language that is truly indicative of the African identity”

The above expresses a truly nationalistic feeling, notwithstanding, the Nigerian linguistic reality does not favour the restoration of an indigenous language and its adoption as an official language, that is vernacularization, as in Israel (Hebrew) Indonesia (Bahasa) or Papua New Guinea (Malanesia) etc. Some of the countries that practice linguistic pluralism and internationalism are Canada, Belgium, Ghana, Singapore and South Africa.

The Role of Language in Education

It took Nigeria as a political entity over two decades before it could have its educational policy after independence in 1960. The four regions to which Nigeria was divided after independence each had an educational commission, these were the Onabamiro Commission, Willinck Commission, Ashby Commission on higher education, etc., the coming together of these commissions form the basis of the National Policy on Education (NPE) of 1981 which today has undergone series of revisions in line with changing philosophy of Nigerian educational system. We now have the revised edition of the NPE, 2004, which is based on the Obasanjo's Universal Basic Education. We now talk about 9-3-4 instead of 6-3-3-4 duration of education in Nigeria. This is in line with the Millennium Development Goal which envisioned all developing countries to provide education for its citizens before 2015. This programme is known as "Education For All" (E.F.A) before 2015.

The Place of English Language in Nigeria

In the National Policy on Education, English language has been given pre-eminent position over all the other forms of language because of its international function and relevance to technological and scientific development. Even up to the University level, English is a must to be passed before a candidate can move on to the next educational level. As a result, English has become so invaluable to Nigeria as language of national unity and cohesion, all because of our linguistic pluralism and diversity. Mutual suspicion of political dominance among the multi-ethnic groups that make-up Nigeria has not allowed us to promote any of our indigenous languages to serve as our lingua-franca.

The position of English language in Nigeria today is dominant above all other language. It has a prestigious status among the citizenry before independence, it has also succeeded in conferring some reasonable amount of prestige on whosoever adopts it. Proficiency in English provides influence, prestige and honour to the user. Crystal (1997) says that English language these days, has attained the status of a global language, the users of the language should learn to use it effectively and correctly for numerous purposes. Bamgbose (1995:9) states five dimensions of the influence of English language in the educational, political, cultural, sociolinguistic and linguistic setting in Nigeria. This obvious dominance of English in all spheres of operation in Nigeria testifies to its usefulness and indispensability in the multilingual situation of the nation.

In view of the status and numerous functions of English language in Nigeria as already discussed, it is obvious that the language is a vital factor to be considered in the process of consolidating Nigerian educational system. Historically, the Nigeria formal educational system originated from the language. One of the best ways to consolidate the educational system is to

perfect its medium of transmission by giving the learner a good grounding of the mechanics of the language, provision of learning materials, and an enabling environment. Continuity of our educational system should be ensured through transmission from one generation to another.

The teaching methodology of transmitting the ethnic, concepts and values of an educational system should be formalized and systemic, using the medium of English, quantitative and effective teaching is required with English as the major medium of instruction. Provision of appropriate teaching aids using English language for instruction helps in meaningful and effective teaching. Teaching aids make learning more meaningful, more practical and result oriented.

The use of textbooks is *sin-qua-non* in any educational system. It is the commonest means of transmitting information to students at different levels. Some people find textbooks as the cheapest medium of preserving values, knowledge and culture in our educational system. It is significant that most of the textbooks used in our educational system at all levels are written in English language. Hence, English is essential in consolidating Nigerian Educational System.

Again, in the area of computerization, English is one of the major languages used for computer programming and operation. English language facilitates cross-fertilization of ideas, knowledge and values through interactions with other people both within the nation and at the international level. Researches, reviews and innovations are carried out using the medium of English language.

For the nation's technological development, English language is one of the instruments used either for transfer of technology or adaptation of technology. The role of English language in the nation's socio-economic development cannot be over-emphasized.

Conclusion

From the fore-going observations, there is need to consolidate our educational system in the present economy so that the nation can cope with the rapid technological growth. The English language is a major factor to be reckoned with in the process of consolidating Nigerian educational system because of the crucial role it plays in the social, economic, political and educational sectors of the nation.

Recommendation

If there is going to be any change from using English language as our lingua-franca to using one of the indigenous languages, it has to be gradual and definite, taking all other factors into consideration such as linguistic pluralism, and international connectivity . English and the indigenous languages should operate side by side pending when the indigenous languages will be developed enough to perform both national and

international communications functions. Government should stop paying lip service to Nigerian Language Policy but tackle the issue of language policy more realistically because of its strategic position in education and national development. For instance, the following suggestions could be examined for a possible adoption:

- Introduction of Language Laboratories in secondary schools to facilitate teaching-learning of English
- Training more English language teachers, if need be, employing extra hands from English-speaking African countries like Ghana and South Africa. Trusting teaching English to any Arts or Social Science graduate eloquent in English as being currently practiced in our schools should cease. It takes more than fluency in spoken English to teach English.
- Reading culture should be restored in our schools. African writers should be encouraged to write more books on Literature-in-English
- Theatre plays and literary activities like writing, poem-reading, inter-school debates e.t.c. should also be re-introduced

All these combined, standard of English would improve and an annual failure in SSCE English would cease. Mass failure is essentially a product of inadequate grounding in English from the primary schools. Improvement in English will not only consolidate education but also promote transmission of culture from generations of students to the other.

The Policy of making a student to take a language other than his/her mother tongue has not even taken off. To achieve this, teachers in Yoruba, Ibo and Hausa languages should be produced en-mass to teach in various states of the nation. This done, the country should have been on her high way to achieving her much dreamed-of indigenous language of national and international transactions. The choice or creation of an indigenous language of unity for Nigeria, very much like the Afrikaans and Swahili is a subject for further research.

On the whole, English language is a tool through which Nigeria can attain her much desired functional education and should be given a prominent role in the nation's educational planning and curriculum development.

References

- Adesina, S. and Ogunsaju, S. (eds) (1984) *Secondary Education in Nigeria*. Ile-Ife :Unife Press
- Adeniran, A. (1997) *Language and Communication: The Crux of Reliability*: public lecture paper delivered at School of Language FCE(sp) Oyo.

- AdeniyiH, Ayodele, A. (1999) *Language and Communication*. Lagos, Harade and Associate
- Alabi, S.A. (2004) "Examiner – Teachers and Candidate – Students' Perceptions of Causes of Poor Performances in English Language Summary Test in Senior Secondary School Certificate Examinations" in *The Pacesetter, Journal of the Oyo State College of Education*. Oyo vol.11 No.12
- Bamgbose, A. (1995) "*English in the Nigerian Environment*" in Bamgbose, A. ed. *New Englishes: A West Africa Perspective* Ibadan: Musori.
- Crystal, D. (1978) *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Emenyonu, E. (1995) '*Ideas and Challenges in Nigerian Education*'. Enugu: NewGeneration.
- FafunwaFoundation. Tripod.com National Policy on Education in Nigeria 17/3/2014
- Jiboku, O. (2005) *The Use of English and Communication Skills for Polytechnic Students*, Ilaro, Femlight Productions.
- Lucky Aikabeli, Sola Adetutu, (2006) *Basic English – A use of English Text*. Abeokuta. Jedidiah Publishers.
- Oxford Dictionary of Current English*; London: Oxford University Press.
- Osuafor, C. (2002) *The English Language in Nigeria*. Owerri; Great Versatile Publishers.

PRINT VS SCREEN-BASED READING: EFFECT ON READING ACHIEVEMENT OF SELECTED NIGERIAN UNDERGRADUATES

Titi Fola-Adebayo
General Studies Unit,
Federal University of Technology, Akure
vinefort@yahoo.com

and

Opeyemi Adebayo
Department of Communication and Language Arts,
University of Ibadan, Ibadan.

Abstract

This paper investigated the effect of two reading modes: paper versus screen on the reading comprehension of thirty (30) foundation students purposively selected from the Department of Communication and Language Arts, University of Ibadan, Nigeria. Fifteen of them read on screen in a virtual environment while the remaining fifteen read from print. Their selection was based on their first semester academic performance. In order to ensure academic equivalence, students in each of the grade point categories were equally distributed into the two groups-screen and print. A *quasi-experimental method, which took the form of pre-test and post-test* involving reading comprehension tasks and survey method in the form of questionnaire were employed to obtain data. Data analysis took the form of inferential and descriptive statistics. The results indicate that the mode of reading did not have a significant influence on comprehension and on the comprehension of expository and narrative texts and most of the respondents preferred reading on-print to reading on-screen implying that reading on-print was the most preferred mode.

Keywords: reading comprehension, screen-reading, print reading

Introduction

The twenty-first century has witnessed transitions of reading from print to screen and several studies have been conducted on print versus screen-based reading (Dillion, 1992; Noyes & Garland, 2008; Mangen, Walgermo & Bronnick, 2013; Subrahmanyam, Michikyan, Clemmons, Carrillo, Uhls & Greenfield, 2013). Electronic screens such as those found in computers, tablet computers, laptops, smart phones and e-reader are popularly used to read text and the book is challenged by the growing number of these electronic devices. The transition of reading from print to screen-based mode has implications for the theory of reading and literacy and this has resulted in

the paradigm of reading for young adults becoming more screen-based than print-based (Mangen, Walgermo & Bronnick, 2013).

The use of electronic screens has become pervasive. For instance, data from Pew Internet and American Project reveal that by May 2013, 56% of American adults owned a smartphone and 34% owned a tablet computer (Brenner, 2013, Zickuhr, 2013). Madden and Lenhart (2013) report that a 2012 survey of U.S. 12-to 17-year olds revealed that one in four of these young adults indicated that they are '*cell-mostly*' Internet users who use their phone to go online most of the time. E-books, tablets (Hu, 2011; cited in Subrahmanyam et al, 2013) and online materials such as the one in use in the Federal University of Technology, Akure, Nigeria (<http://www.futa.edu.ng/futaelearningdirect.com>) are employed by students to access instructional and educational materials. Also *Opon Imo* (Tablet of Knowledge) an e-learning initiative of the Osun State Government in Nigeria was distributed to senior secondary students in the state to help them prepare for the school leaving examinations and aid the adoption of ICT skills even though studies still need to be conducted to evaluate the learning materials and investigate students' engagement with the device and its effect on their academic performance.

Furthermore on the use of electronic screens in situations involving e-learning, Mbete (2014) reports that learning management systems (LMSs) which provide opportunity for students to access learning materials online, interact with their teachers and each other synchronously and asynchronously is widely adopted by higher institutions globally and by higher institutions in sub-Saharan Africa even though the use in sub-Saharan Africa is not as high as e-learning educators desire. In spite of what Mbete (2014) perceives as low uptake of technology with regards to the use of LMS he quotes Adkins (2013) who predicts that the adoption of LMS will grow at the rate of 15% per annum between 2011 and 2016 in sub-Saharan Africa.

Studies on the impact and effect of different aspects of digital textuality on reading comprehension abound. Starting with early studies, many researchers investigated factors of computer presentation of text which facilitated reading comprehension such as access to background information, technical features of layout and organization (Reinking, 1988; Reinking & Schreiner, 1985). Other studies include examination of the constructs in reading comprehension using paper versus computer (Rice, 1994), reading on a computer video display terminal (VDT) versus reading on paper while measuring study and reading times, factual recall and comprehension (Noyes & Garland, 2003), effect of computerized presentation of text on children's reading of informational material (Kerr & Symons, 2006), effect of presentation medium on comprehension performance in ergonomics, human factors and design (Noyes & Garland, 2008), effects of technological interface on reading comprehension (Mangen, Walgermo & Bronnick, 2013), impact of screen reading and

multitasking conditions on reading and writing among college students (Subrahmanyam, Michikyan, Clemmons, Carrillo, Uhls & Greenfield, 2013) and differences in reading as a function of text genre and presentation environment (Makhoul & Copti-Mshael, 2015). Many of these studies focused much attention on digital texts that have hypertext features and their effect on performance in reading comprehension and study skills.

To the best of our knowledge, studies that consider the differences in the continuous reading of linear, narrative and expository texts in print and on-screen are few; besides, since the use of electronic screens has become ubiquitous, studying how students in higher education comprehend texts in digital form versus print and in different genres is important and will further enrich theory and inform pedagogic practice especially as reading in screen formats has now become the platform in which most national, entrance and professional examinations are conducted in Nigeria.

Context

The context of the study is the University of Ibadan, Nigeria's premier university, which was established in 1948. The Department of Communication and Language Arts (CLA), a department in the Faculty of Arts, came into existence on 1st July, 1975. The department emanated from the Reading Centre, which was initially established during the 1964/65 with the following objectives: to advise foundation students in the university on effective methods of study and to improve their speed of English reading and comprehension; to train Nigerian personnel as Reading specialists; and to act as a resource and guidance centre for institutions concerned with improving the teaching of English reading in schools.

About ten years after its existence as a teaching support unit, the department emerged as a degree awarding department with a mandate to provide training in communication skills needed in various settings: interpersonal, group, organizational, cross-cultural, mass communication and instructional. It provides students opportunity for a strong academic foundation, while offering them opportunity for the development of communication and entrepreneurial skills. Through the outlined objectives, the department offers courses that provide instruction to students of various disciplines and faculty who desire to improve their use of English or their language skills in order to learn and communicate more effectively in English as a second language. Today, the department awards bachelors and postgraduate degrees in strictly academic and professional courses in Communication and Language Arts and Masters in Communication Arts respectively.

Theoretical Framework

This study draws on socio-cultural theory. Proponents of this theory (Vygotsky, 1978; John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996; Subrahmanyam et al, 2013)

affirm that cognitive development is mediated by semiotic mechanisms or psychological tools derived from the culture and they include things like language, counting systems, algebra and writing. In explaining how learning takes place Vygotsky (1978) avers that learning stimulates several internal developmental processes that operate only when a child interacts with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers. To further explain how this happens he developed the idea of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which he claims is “...the distance between the actual developmental level as determined through independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978: 86). Brown, Ash, Rutherford, Nakagawa, Gordon and Campione (1993) suggest that the ZPD can include people as well as artifacts such as books, videos, wall displays, scientific equipment and a computer environment.

Socio-cultural theorists posit that cultural tools such as paint brushes, computers and symbol systems play a dominant role in the construction of knowledge during development (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996); furthermore, electronic tools such as radio, television and other forms of mass media as well as aspects of the new media such as computers, the Internet and the social media constitute aspects of cultural artifacts. Greenfield (1993) explains that cognitive socialization results from the process by which cultural tools impact processing skills and that media are major tools of cognitive socialization.

The basic assumption underlying Piaget's theory of cognitive development (1970) is delineated by Glasersfeld (1992: 33) as follows:

- Knowledge concerns a student's 'conceptual operations'
- Each individual must construct knowledge
- Teaching is a social activity, but learning is a 'private activity'

Piaget's idea of cognitive development de-emphasizes the role of culture in the development of the mind while the Vygotskian perspective underscores the role of social context which is central to learning and without which “the development of the mind is impossible” (Cole & Wertsch, 2001:4 cited in Hall, 2007: 96). The current study which is undergirded by the socio-cultural approach investigated the effect of print-based and screen-based reading of academic texts on reading comprehension. Other concerns of the study include investigation of students' preferred mode while reading academic texts and the effect of reading mode on the comprehension of narrative and expository text. To achieve these objectives, we constructed the following research questions.

Research Questions

1. What is the influence of reading academic text on-screen or on-print

- on the reading comprehension of the selected undergraduates||
2. Which of the reading modes: screen or print is the most preferred among the undergraduates||
 3. How does reading mode affect the comprehension of narrative and expository text||

Methodology

Study Design

Both quasi-experimental and survey methods were used for this research. Purposive sampling was employed in which case certain criteria were used to select the participants: their homogeneity, grade point average, year of study and previous non-exposure to the texts used for the study. Also, students were drawn from the same department because they offer similar courses which may not be the case if students from other departments were involved in the study. Data generated from the questionnaire were used to investigate the general opinion of participants on the preferred mode of reading academic texts and quantitative scales were employed to investigate the effects of on-screen versus on-print reading on reading comprehension and the effect of the reading mode on the comprehension of expository and narrative texts.

Study Population/ Sample Size

The population for this study was first year undergraduates of the University of Ibadan, thirty (16 female, 14 male. Age range =16-25) of whom were purposively selected as sample from the Department Communication and Language Arts. Fifteen of them read on screen in desktop computers while the remaining fifteen read the same text in print. Students in both groups were selected based on their first semester academic performance; and, in order to ensure academic equivalence in both groups, students in each of the grade point categories were equally distributed into the two groups i.e. screen and print. The grade point categories used are: 1st class: 6.0-7.0; 2nd class (upper): 4.6-5.9; 2nd class (lower): 2.6-4.5; 3rd class: 2.5-1.5; Pass: 1.4-1.0.

Research Instruments

The research instruments used for this study are reading comprehension passages and questionnaire. The passages used are: an expository text 'Human Touching as Communication' (Appendix I) which was adapted from the book *Communicating: The multiple modes of human interconnection* by Finnegan (2002); a narrative passage from the chapter 'Sojourner' (Appendix II) adapted from a novel, *Thread of Gold Beads*, by Campbell-Fatoki (2013) and another expository text 'Language and Meaning' (Appendix III) adapted from *Human Communication* by Pearson, Nelson, Titsworth, & Harter (2011). Each of the passages was about 1,500 words long. The reading comprehension tasks were drawn from the selected comprehension passages

and presented to the participants in two modes- print and screen. Between twenty to twenty-five questions were set on each passage and the questions include: true/false questions, multiple choice questions, short answer questions, questions on textual knowledge, summary, knowledge of signaling words and decoding word meaning as used in the passage. The questions were designed to assess surface and deep-level comprehension of the texts.

To ensure task equivalence when reading the text in the different modes, the presentation of the materials in paper and screen was standardized in which case the text was presented in Microsoft word document format for screen reading and a print-out of the document was presented to the print group. The passages were presented in a column with 1.15 line spacing to aid readability and the standard 12-point Times New Roman font was used for the passages. The texts were printed on A-4 paper for the students reading on paper and the screen resolution was at 1024×768 pixels for the screen group.

Method of Data Collection

This study was carried out with two groups of students- those who read the stimulus materials on screen and those that read them on paper. Information was obtained on the recommended texts for a two-unit course, CLA 104- Introduction to Human Communication System, offered by first year students of the Department of Communication and Language Arts in the University of Ibadan. Particular chapters of the books were chosen based on the fact that none of the texts had been treated in class. The class list and first semester result of the participants were obtained and used to group them into the two categories of screen and print reading, and in order to ensure balance; each group had the same number of students from each grade point.

The comprehension text and questions were administered to the students in the two categories and supervised by one of the researchers with the help of research assistants. The on-print reading was carried out in the Library of the Department of Communication and Language Arts, University of Ibadan while the on-screen reading took place at the MacArthur Building Cyber-café beside Faculty of Education, along Benue Road, University of Ibadan at a time agreed upon by the participants. After they had read and answered the comprehension questions, the papers were collected for grading and analysis. Each of the groups spent one hour on the tasks.

Data were collected through quantitative and qualitative procedures which involved performance in the reading comprehension tasks and administration of copies of the questionnaire. Students' responses to the comprehension tasks were graded and thirty copies of the questionnaire were administered and only twenty-nine copies were used for the analysis as a copy was not properly filled. Data analysis took the form of inferential and descriptive statistics.

Results and Discussion

This study set out to investigate the influence of reading academic texts on-screen and on-paper on the reading comprehension of selected undergraduates of the University of Ibadan. The study also sought to determine which of the mode was the most preferred and establish the effect of reading mode on the comprehension of expository and narrative texts.

Table 1: Frequency and Percentage of ownership of electronic devices

Variable		Frequency	Percentage
Screen	YES	24	82.8%
	NO	5	17.2 %
Total		29	100%

Research Question 1:

What is the influence of reading academic text on-screen or on-print on the reading comprehension of the selected undergraduates?

The result in Table 2 reveals that the mode of reading, that is both on-screen and on-print, does not have significant influence on comprehension [$t(57) = -.025$, $p > .05$]. From the average performances of both groups, it will be observed that their comprehension is at the same level.

Table 2 : Influence of Reading Modes on Comprehension using t -test for Independent Samples

Modes of Reading	T	Df	P	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
On-screen	-.025	57	> .05	76.13	10.292	30
On-print				76.21	12.394	29

According to the finding presented in Table 2, there is no significant difference in comprehension between reading on-screen and reading on-print which implies that reading modes have no influence on reading comprehension. Noyes and Garland (2003) report a similar result from their study in which they found no difference in the number of correct scores recorded for participants who used video display terminal (VDT) and those that used paper-based materials. However, this result is contrary to the findings of other researchers notably Mangen et al (2013) who report that students who read texts in print scored significantly better on the reading comprehension test than their counterparts who read texts in a digital environment. The lack of consistency in the results reported may be due to several factors: issues of text navigation which is peculiar to screen reading,

scrolling introduces spatial instability which may affect a reader's mental representation of text (Baccino, 2004; cited in Mangen et al 2013); differences in the two media may place a limitation on one's access to the text as a whole; differences in visual ergonomics- issues related to different lighting conditions in the two platforms. Also the issue of task type and cognitive difficulty may account for inconsistencies in the results reported. The indicated limitations notwithstanding, investigating reading in the two modes will enrich reading literature.

Research Question 2:

Which of the reading modes: screen or print is the most preferred among the undergraduates?

For research question 2, the result in Table 3 shows that out of the 29 students surveyed, 4 (13.8%) preferred on-screen mode compared to 23 (79.3 %) who preferred on-print mode. Two (6.9%) did not indicate their preference, they probably did that inadvertently.

Table 3: Frequency and Percentage of Preferences for Reading Modes

Reading Mode Preference	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
On-Screen	4	13.8	14.8	14.8
On-Print	23	79.3	85.2	100.0
Missing	2	6.9		
Total	29	100.0		

The result from Table 3 reveals that majority 23 (79.3%) of the respondents prefer reading academic text on-paper to reading on-screen which implies that among the students on-print reading is the most preferred of the two reading modes. This finding is in line with the findings of various studies like the study conducted by (Leyva, 2003) which claimed that majority of the students in the study preferred print, and 63% reported that they could not bear reading a document on a computer screen for more than one hour. Concerning course textbooks, a marked student preference for paper over e-books was reported in the study conducted by Woody, Daniel & Baker (2010); furthermore, their results indicated that even e-book users preferred print texts for purposes of learning. Undergraduate dislike of e-books was also revealed in the study conducted by Shepperd, Grace and Koch (2008). When the students in the study were presented the option of buying an e-book or a more expensive textbook they chose the textbook even though they were presented easy access to the e-book. Kropman, Schoch, and Yeoh (2004) also claim that the use of electronic texts remains low in comparison with printed texts. Students' preference for textbooks may be explained by the fact that textbooks have special features like: fixity of text which supports reader's construction of the spatial representation of the text

(Mangen et al, 2013), visual and tactile nature and easy meta-cognitive recall of items over digital texts. In addition, textbooks allow readers the liberty to underline, make annotation, highlight and jot- all features that digital texts may not permit. Finally, physical problems such as eye fatigue and screen resolution that come with the use of digital texts are absent in print reading.

Research Question 3:

How does reading mode affect the comprehension of narrative and expository texts

Table 4 presents the result for Research Question 3. This result shows that the comprehension of the participants in both narrative [$t(28) = -.743, p > .05$] and expository [$t(27) = 1.039, p > .05$] texts is not significantly different on the average with regard to mode of reading, which implies that reading modes did not have significant influence on comprehension in these two texts.

Table 4: Influence of Reading Modes on Comprehension of Narrative and Expository Texts using t-test for Independent Samples

Comprehension	Modes of Reading	T	Df	P	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
Narrative	On-screen	-.743	28	> .05	73.40	15.468	15
	On-print				77.00	10.637	15
Expository	On-screen	1.039	27	> .05	78.866	7.596	15
	On-print				75.357	10.456	14

These findings may have been influenced by the relatively small samples sizes which might not have given enough room for finding subtle changes within the participants. There are indeed differences, but statistical significance of the differences could not be ascertained at the level of the sample size.

Conclusion

The findings of this study reveal that the mode of reading did not have a significant influence on comprehension. Similarly, reading modes did not have any significant influence on the comprehension of expository and narrative texts and, in spite of the ubiquity of computers and popularity of e-reading the participants indicated preference for textbooks over e-books for study purposes. Their preference for reading on-print implies that was the most preferred mode. Also students' opinion about the use of digital devices in reading was significantly positive as most of them have screen devices they read from. This is an indication that most students of the University of Ibadan read academic texts on-screen at one time or the other as some of their academic materials are in digital format. Despite this, the study revealed that students still prefer reading academic text on print even if it means printing their study materials so they could read them in their favoured mode.

Recommendations

The following recommendations emanate from the study:

1. Students should learn to adapt to both reading conditions as not all their study materials would come as printed texts or as e-materials which implies that they would always come across both forms in their academic endeavours. So, there is in general no reason to choose one mode over the other.
2. Lecturers and educationists should endeavour to make their course materials available in both print and screen format so as to help students reduce eye fatigue and switch reading modes.
3. Policy makers, test developers and designers of educational material in the University of Ibadan should encourage lecturers to make good use of the electronic teaching aids provided by the institution so as to encourage students to catch up with the electronic trend.
4. Finally academic texts should be designed and written in such a way that students will find them less complex and easily comprehensible no matter the medium in which it is presented. This will aid learning as well as increase students' comprehension and engagement with academic texts.

References

- Adkins, S. S (2013). Ambient Insight Regional Report The Africa Market for Self-paced eLearning Products and Services: 2011-2016 Forecast and Analysis, 2011-2016.
<http://www.ambientinsight.com/Resources/Documents/AmbientInsight-2011-2016-Africa-Selfpaced-eLearning-Market-Abstract.pdf>
- Brenner, J. (2013). Pew internet: Mobile. *Pew Internet and American Life Project*. <http://pewinternet.org/Commentary/2012/February/Pew-Internet-Mobile.aspx>
- Brown, A. L; Ash, D; Rutherford, M; Nakagawa, K; Gordon, A & Campione, J. C. (1993). Distributed expertise in the classroom. In, G. Salomon (Ed.). *Distributed Cognition*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Campbell-Fatoki, N. (2013). *Thread of Gold Beads*. Lagos: Parresia Publishers Ltd.
- Dillon, A. (1992) "Reading from paper versus screens: a critical review of the empirical literature" *Ergonomics*, Vol. 35, No 10 pp. 1297-1326.
- Finnegan, R. (2002). *Communicating: The multiple modes of human interaction*. London: Routledge Publishers.
- Glasersfeld, E. V. (1992). A constructivist's view of learning and teaching. In F. G. R. Duit and H. Niedderer (Eds.). *Research in physics learning: Theoretical issues and empirical studies*. Kiel: IPN at the University of Kiel.

- Greenfield, P. M. (1993). Representational competence in shared symbol systems: Electronic media from radio to video games. In R. R. Cocking, & K. A. Renninger (Eds.). *The development and meaning of psychological distance*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Hall, A. (2007). Vygotsky goes online: Learning design from a socio-cultural perspective. *Learning and Sociocultural Theory: Exploring Modern Vygotskian Perspectives International Workshop*. 1.1: 94-107.
- <http://www.futa.edu.ng/futaelearningdirect.com>
- John-Steiner, V. & Mahn, H. (1996). Sociocultural approaches to learning and development: A Vygotskian framework. *Educational Psychologist*, 31, 191-206. doi:10.1080/00461520.1996.9653266
- Kerr, M. A. & Symons, S. E. (2006). Computerized presentation of text: Effects on children's reading of informational material. *Reading and Writing*. 19.1: 1-19.
- Kropman, M.; Schoch, H. P.; and Yeoh, H. Y (2004) "An experience in e-learning: Using an electronic textbook" In Atkinson, R.; McBeath, C.; Jonas, D. and Phillips R. (eds) *Beyond the comfort zone: Proceedings of the 21st ASCILITE conference*. Perth: Western Australia pp. 512-515
- Leyva, E. M. R. (2003). The impact of the internet on the reading and information practices of a university student community: the case of UNAM. *New review of libraries and Lifelong Learning*. 4. 1.
- Madden, M. & Lenhart, A. (2013). *Teens and technology 2013*. Retrieved from <http://www.pewinternet.org/Reports/2013/Teens-and-Tech.aspx>.
- Makhoul, B. & Copti-Mshael, T. (2015). Reading comprehension as a function of text genre and presentation environment: comprehension of narrative and informational texts in a computer-assisted environment vs print. *Psychology*. 6. 8.
- Mangen, A; Walgermo, B. R. & Bronnick, K (2013). Reading linear texts on paper versus computer screen: Effects on reading comprehension. *International Journal of Educational Research*. 58: 61-68.
- Mbete, J. S. (2014). A model for assessing learning management systems success in higher education in sub-Saharan countries. *The Electronic Journal of Information Systems in Developing Countries*, 61. 7:1-17.
- Noyes, J. M. & Garland, K. J. (2008). Computer vs paper-based tasks: Are they equivalent? *Journal of Ergonomics*. 51. 9: 1352-1375.
- Noyes, J. M. & Garland, K. J. (2003). VDT versus paper-based text: reply to Mayes, Sims and Konnce. *International Journal of Industrial Ergonomics*. 31. 4:411-423.
- Piaget, J. (1970). *Structuralism*. New York: Basic Books.

- Pearson, J. C; Nelson, P. E; Titsworth, S. & Harter, L. (2011). *Human Communication*. (4th Ed.). New York: McGraw Hill Higher Education.
- Pew Research Center. (2012). *In changing news landscape, even television is vulnerable*. Retrieved from <http://www.people-press.org/2012/09/27/in-changing-news-landscape-even-television-is-vulnerable/>
- Reinking, D. (1988). Computer-mediated text and comprehension differences: The role of reading time, reader preference, and estimation of learning. *Reading Research Quarterly* 23.4: 484-498.
- Reinking, D. & Schreiner, R. (1985). The Effects of computer-mediated text on measures of reading comprehension and reading behavior. *Reading Research Quarterly*. 20: 536-552.
- Rice, G. E. 1994. Examining constructs in reading comprehension using two presentation modes: paper vs computer. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 11, 153-178.
- Shepperd, J.A; Grace, J. L & Koch, E. J (2008). Evaluating the electronic textbook: is it time to dispense with the paper text? *Teaching of Psychology*, 35: 2-5.
- Subrahmanyam, K; Michikyan, M; Clemmons, C; Carrillo, R; Uhls, Y. T; & Greenfield, P. M. (2013). Learning from paper, learning from screen: impact of screen reading and multitasking conditions on reading and writing among college students. *International Journal of Cyber Behavior, Psychology and Learning*. 3.4: 1-27.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Woody, W. D; Daniel, D. B & Baker, C. A. (2010). E-books or textbooks: students prefer textbooks. *Computers & Education*. 55: 945-948.
- Zickuhr, K. (2013). *Tablet ownership 2013*. Retrieved from http://pewinternet.org/-media//Files/Reports/2013/PIP_Tablet_ownership2013.pdf

ROLES OF TECHNOLOGY IN TEACHING LISTENING SKILL IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN IKERE.

Felicia Tomi Obadare

Department of GSE, School of Education,
College of Education, Ikere Ekiti

Abstract

This study investigated the roles of technology in the teaching of the listening skill in some selected secondary schools in Ikere-Ekiti Local Government Area of Ekiti State. Technology is an essential tool for learning the listening skill of the English language. The study is a survey research design that comprised all the English Language teachers in Ikere. Forty teachers were randomly selected in ten selected schools using simple random sampling technique. Questionnaire was designed for data collection. Percentage of descriptive statistic and t-test of inferential statistic were used for data analysis at 0.05 level of significance. The result shows that the roles of technology are very significant in the teaching of listening skill in English Language and students who have access to technology have better listening skills than those who do not. Listening skill enhances better use of English Language because a good listener will invariably be a good speaker and a good speaker will be a proficient user of the English Language that at the end of the day he will contribute his quota to the development of the country.

Introduction

Listening is one of the four Language skills i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing. It is a receptive skill. A child listens before he can produce or recapitulate the sound or sound it hears. Listening is a skill which must be cultivated because it is possible to hear without listening. Ogunmola (2005) asserts that a child starts his life speechless but after listening to the sonorous songs of his mother and other siblings in the neighborhood, he responds by talking. Listening is qualitatively different from hearing. Hearing seems effortless, automatic and non selective while listening is intentional, effortful, focused and selective. Listening is the ability to hear, comprehend and evaluate what a particular sound means. It is attaching meaning to the sounds and patterns that strike the ear. It involves the ability to hear, comprehend and evaluate what a particular sound means. What is then required to acquire good listening skill can be summed up to be a good reading ability, the pleasure to understand what is read, the pain to listen and the concentration to differentiate the sounds of the language.

Modern language teachers, who teach without incorporating technology to support their teaching and involve their students in the teaching /learning process are living behind time. Patel (2014) asserts that technology has continued to play a major role in supporting and enhancing

language learning.

Status of English Language in Nigeria

English language in Nigeria has continued to enjoy the pride of place in the nation's educational system. Olanrewaju (2011) asserts that English language in Nigeria has assumed the status of a second Language considering its unique role. Moreover, Jegede (1990) submits that the backbone of the country's educational system is English. He further points out that students' ability to undertake higher education in any discipline depends on their proficiency in English.

Technology

Technology has permeated almost every aspect of the human existence and English language is not an exception. Akeredolu-Ale (2012) opines that electronic technology has become a feature in many homes around the word and its influence has permeated into all facets of our lives including educational settings.

Obadare (2007) asserts that ICT goes beyond the use of micro-computers. It is the wholesome integration of modern telecommunication and particularly the internet into the Nigerian educational system. We are indeed in the information age and the whole word has become globalize and any meaningful and functional education must begin with ICT programmes.

Toffler (cited in Daramola, 2013) submits that the illiterate of the 21st century will not be those who cannot read and write but those who cannot learn unlearn and relearn. Susikaran (2014) opines that chalk and talk teaching method is not enough to teach English efficiently. We can utilize modern education technology to fulfill the target of English teaching. On the importance of technology, Susikaran (2014) further opines that it is to cultivate the students' comprehensive capabilities to use English, especially the listening comprehension and oral expression ability.

We can cultivate their listening, speaking, reading and writing abilities which are the final teaching aim - that is developing the students' English intercommunicative ability. ICT devices have been known as potentially powerful, enabling tools to complement the teaching of the language teachers.

ICT, Listening Skill and Second Language Users

Ibrahim (1996) opines that the objective of English language teaching should include the development of both linguistic and communicative competence; thus, an ICT device is excellent in the teaching of pronunciation in a large ESL classes, students listen to native speakers and are exposed to the correct use of the language. The second language users have learnt the rudiments of L1, before learning the L2. There is, therefore, a negative transfer of L1 to L2. Awobuluyi (2008) gives a detailed explanation

that many English teachers are L2 speakers, who were themselves taught by other L2 speaker who, in their turn learnt the language imperfectly from other L2 speakers of English.

If students must learn English language adequately, then, they must be provided with good models to listen to using the ICT devices. Obadare (2007) asserts that English language remains a second Language of Nigerians so we shall always have our mt or L2 to interfere with the smooth learning of English and that considering the many intralingua problems inherent in the English language, it is only through ICT that teachers and learners can now enjoy their Language lesson and overcome those problems. This is the reason Signes (2011) asserts that with ICT devices, we have more materials within our reach than we believe.

Statement of problem

The primary form of any language is in its oracy skills. one can be a good speaker if one has been exposed to goods models to listen to and this is possible through the use of technology. On the contrary, the use of technology, to teach listening skill, in many secondary schools in Ikere, is still a mirage. Amaechi & Orizu (2006) assert that the availability of ICT facilities in secondary schools is still a mirage. In the same vein, Abanobi (2008) opines that certain factors like power supply, good communication network, poverty etc militate against the use of ICT in schools. There is therefore the need to do a research study on the role of technology in the teaching of the listening skill in secondary schools in Ikere. This is important in order to make the teaching of the listening skill, using technology, interesting, meaningful and result oriented.

Research questions

This study attempted to find out the roles of technology in the teaching of listening skill in some selected Secondary Schools in Ikere-Ekiti Local Government Area and to find answers to the following research questions.

1. What are the roles of technology in the teaching of Listening Skills among secondary school studentsl
2. Is technology available in secondary schools for the teaching of the listening skilll
3. Do English Language teachers in secondary schools make use of technology to teach listening skilll

Research Hypotheses

1. There is no significant effect in the use of technology on the teaching of listening skill in secondary school.
2. Significant differences does not exist between students who have access to technology and those who do not.

The significance of the study

The results of the study will inform teachers on the roles of technology in the teaching of listening skill in English language.

Delimitation

The study was delimited to 40 English language teachers in selected Secondary Schools in Ikere.

Research Method

The research designed adopted by the researcher for the study was survey design. The researcher adopted the percentages (descriptive statistic for the research questions) and t-test (inferential statistic for the hypotheses).

Population Sample

The population of the study consisted of all English Language teachers in all the secondary schools in the study area. However, the population was considered too large so four teachers each were selected from ten randomly selected Junior and Senior Secondary Schools using simple random sampling technique. Ikere Ekiti is one of the 16 Local Government areas in Ekiti State. From each junior secondary school, two teachers were randomly selected while two were also selected in the senior secondary making a total sample of 40 teachers in all.

Research Instrument

A-20 item questionnaire designed and validated by the researcher was the instrument used to collect the relevant data on a two point Likert scale of Agree and Disagree. The instrument was personally administered and it elicited information from major areas.

A section of the questionnaire also demanded for demographic data like gender, qualification and working experience. The draft version of the instrument was given to two colleagues in the field of educational evaluation to scrutinize and comment on its face and content validity. The corrected versions of the instrument based on the comments of the experts were administered to 40 English Language teachers in Junior and Senior Secondary school with similar characteristics to those of the target sample. The reliability of the instrument was determined by using split-half method and a reliability coefficient of 0.87 was obtained and was considered good enough for this study.

Data Analysis

An item by item analysis of the questionnaire responses was carried out. The number of respondents who picked the same type of responses were counted then the result of each group was computed using percentages for the research questions and t-test for the hypotheses. The results of the findings are presented below:

Question 1: What are the roles of technology in the teaching of the listening skill among secondary school students?

Table 1: Roles of Technology in the Teaching of Listening Skill.

S/N	ITEMS	Agree	(%)	Disagree	(%)	Decision
1	The use of technology enables my students to develop positive interest towards English language.	35	87.5	5	12.5	Agreed
2	The use of technology enables me to arrest my students' attention during the teaching of the listening skill in the class.	30	75	10	15	Agreed
3	Technology is an essential tool for learning listening skill in English language.	38	95	2	5	Agreed
4	Technology enables my students to learn more and fast.	29	72.5	11	27.5	Agreed
5	My students acquire different aspects of knowledge when taught listening skill with the use of technology	30	75	10	15	Agreed
6	The use of technology enables me to cover all the topics that enhance listening skill in English Language	36	90	4	10	Agreed
7	The use of technology improves the rate of students' learning	25	62.5	15	37.5	Agreed
8	Technology makes the students to listen again and again over previously learnt topics thereby enhancing mastery.	34	85	6	15	Agreed
9	The use of technology enables the teacher to teach large group at the same time and in different places	37	92.5	3	7.5	Agreed
10	Technology makes teaching of listening skill interesting and enjoyable for students	34	68	16	32	Agreed
Average		32.8		8.2		

It was agreed by the respondents as revealed in table 1 that technology is an essential tool for learning listening skill in English language. The use of technology enables the students to develop positive interest towards English Language, arrest the students' attention during the teaching of listening skill in the class, enables students to learn more and fast, enables students to acquire different aspects of knowledge when taught listening skill, enables teachers to cover all the topics that enhance listening skill in English language, improves the rate of students' learning, makes students to listen again and again over previously learnt topics thereby

enhancing mastery. It also enables teacher to teach a large group at the same time and in different places and makes teaching of listening skill interesting and enjoyable for students. These roles enhance effective teaching of listening skill in English Language.

Question 2: How available and adequate is technology in secondary schools for the teaching of listening skills

Table 2: Availability and adequacy of Technology in Secondary School.

S/N	ITEMS	Available	Not Available	Adequate	Not Adequate
1	Television	8 (20%)	32 (80%)	1 (2.5%)	39 (97.5%)
2	Computer (Laptop or Desktop)	29 (72.5%)	11 (27.5%)	12 (30%)	28 (70%)
3	Radio	15 (37.5%)	25 (62.5%)	10 (25%)	30 (75%)
4	CD Players	9 (22.5%)	31 (77.5%)	2 (5%)	38 (95%)
5	Internet	5 (12.5%)	35 (87.5%)	1 (2.5%)	39 (97.5%)
6	Recorded Cassette	10 (25%)	30 (75%)	2 (5%)	38 (95%)
Average		12.67	27.33	4.67	35.33

The result of the analysis in table 2 shows that technology such as television, computer, radio, CD player, internet facilities, and cassette are available in few secondary schools but in the majority of the secondary schools, ICT devices are not available.

Question 3: Do English language teachers in secondary make use of technology to teach listening skills

Table 3: The Use of Technology in Teaching Listening Skill

S/N	ITEMS	Yes	(%)	No	(%)	Decision
1	Do you have language laboratory in your school	13	32.5	27	67.5	No
2	Do your students have access to computer in the school	30	75	10	15	Yes
3	Do you use CD player to teach pronunciation of English words	15	37.5	25	62.5	No
4	Do you use cassette player to teach English language	12	30	28	70	No
5	Do you use television to teach English language	10	15	30	75	No
6	Do your students have access to internet	36	90	4	10	Yes
7	Do you use radio to teach spelling	2	5	28	95	No
8	Do you use cassette player to teach minimal pairs	6	15	34	85	No
9	Do you use cassette player to teach comprehension passage	3	7.5	37	92.5	No
10	Do you use computer to teach your students in the school	18	45	22	55	No
Average		14.5		24.5		

The result of the analysis in table 3 shows that most secondary schools do not have laboratory where students can be taught the listening skills. This unavailability of laboratory makes it difficult for the teachers to make use of technology for the teaching of the listening skill. It is revealed in the table that the students have access to the computer and internet services but the use of these technologies have not been effectively used by the teachers in the secondary schools to teach the listening skill.

Test Of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant effect in the use of technology on the teaching of the listening skill in secondary schools.

Table 4: t-test Statistic for Effect of Technology on Listening Skill

Variables	N	X	SD	Df	t-cal	t-tab
Technology	40	2.50	0.87	39	3.28	1.96
Listening skill	40	1.28	0.67	39		

P<0.05 (Result significant)

The result of the analysis in table 4 shows that the t-test (3.28) calculated was greater than t-table (1.96) at 0.05 level of significance. This makes hypothesis 1 to be rejected. Hence, there is a significant effect in the use of technology on the teaching of the listening skill in the secondary school. The mean value 2.50 of effect of technology was greater than the mean value of 1.28 of listening skill. This confirmed the fact that there is a significant difference in the use of technology on the teaching of the listening skill.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between students who have access to technology and those who do not.

Table 5: t-test statistics for students with and without access to technology

Variables	N	X	SD	Df	t-cal	t-tab
Access to Technology	40	3.56	1.37	39	2.97	1.96
No access to Technology	40	1.80	0.99	39		

P<0.05 (Result not significant)

The result of the analysis in table 5 shows that the t-test calculated (2.97) was greater than t-table (1.96) at 0.05 level of significance. This makes hypothesis 2 also to be rejected. Hence, there is significant difference between students who have access to technology and those who do not. The mean value (3.56) of the students who have access to technology was also found to be greater than the mean value (1.80) of students who do not have access. This confirmed the fact that the students who have access to technology have better listening skills than those who do not.

Discussion

The findings in Table 1 showed that technology is an essential tool for learning listening skill in English language. The roles of technology cannot be overemphasized as it enables students to develop interest towards the English language, arrest students' attention during the teaching of listening skill in the class, enables students to learn more and fast, enables students to acquire different aspects of knowledge when taught listening skill, enables teachers to cover all topics that enhance listening skill in the English Language, improves the rate of the students' learning, makes students to listen again and again over previously learnt topics, thereby enhancing mastery. Technology also enables teacher to teach a large group at the same time and in different places, and makes teaching of listening skill interesting and enjoyable for students. These significant roles are in line with the findings of Obadare (2007), that technology makes the classroom a more interactive learning environment, Audio tape recorder player can be used to teach listening and that teachers can now manage their classroom and create a more stimulating learning environment.

In the same vein, Udoaka (2006) submits that many students love the computers, feel comfortable with them and are very receptive to any learning activity that involves the computers. Increased motivation leads to increased language use which leads to improved proficiency.

Furthermore, the result of the analysis in table 2 revealed that technology such as television, computer, radio, CD player, internet facilities, and cassette are available in few secondary schools but in the majority of the secondary schools, they are not available. The few available technologies for teaching listening skills are also not adequate. Similarly, there is also little or no technical support in schools where a few computer systems exist. Computer technology still appears intimidating to language teachers who are usually, at best, novice technology users. It is clear that the new technologies are yet to be available in regular school classrooms in Nigeria. Even when the factors of availability and accessibility are eliminated, epileptic and erratic power supply in Nigeria have constantly been a major impediment to the use of ICT devices.

Table 3 further shows that English language teachers in secondary school do not use most technology devices to teach listening skill. This is because the technologies are not available and the few available ones are not adequate. This finding corroborated with the findings of Osalusi (2008) that the use of audio cassettes can be very useful to the classroom teachers. This can facilitate the teaching of aspects of grammar and pronunciation in the English language. Computer aided learning packages have many advantages to the classroom teacher, as they enable the students to work at their own pace, repeating sections the teacher has taught, which perhaps they may not understand, e.g. teaching of spelling and dictation in English.

It was also revealed in the study that there was a significant effect in the use of technology on the teaching of listening skill in the secondary schools and the students, who have access to technology, have better listening skill than those who do not. This further confirmed the significant roles of technology in the teaching of the listening skill in the secondary schools.

Conclusion

No generation has bigger ICT devices because no previous generation has had access to so many different ICT devices before now. It is, indeed, an era of information explosion. As Signes (2011) asserts that when students come to school, they have already learned a great deal from the TV, Radio, Video, Internet, etc: a fact we should not ignore but take advantage of.

In the same vein, in as much as we want our students to communicate meaningfully, then we must encourage them to use these ICT devices and be good listeners because there is the primacy of oracy over literacy. Listening precedes speaking and a good listener will automatically metamorphose to good speakers. When students listen to good models, they develop a whole range of individual, practical, social, cultural and intellectual skills which they will need in the future.

Recommendations

- The teachers should take the TV, computer games, internet services etc. seriously. They are excellent in motivating the students to be good listeners
- The teachers and students should be encouraged to be ICT literate.
- The teachers must encourage the students to always listen to good speakers of the English language
- ICT materials should be made available for teachers and learners to use.
- English language teachers, must as a matter of urgency, keep abreast with this current and new technology if they must be relevant in the 21st Century.
- Students should make it point of duty to listen to good speakers of the English Language in the radio, on the television etc.
- The future of any nation depends on the success of its education system. Government should therefore, as a matter of urgency, organize refresher courses for the language teachers on ICT.
- The government should provide language laboratories in schools because listening skill can be better enhanced in the Language Laboratories for both small and large classes.

References

- Akeredolu-Ale A. B. (2012). D Gr8 Dijita Teknoloji & Englis Languaj Lenin. *Being A Lead Paper Presented at the 9th Conference of National Association of Teachers and Researchers in English as a second language (NATRESL) in College of Education Ikere-Ekiti. Between 25th – 28th September*
- Abanobi, C. K. (2008) *Utilization of information and communication in technology (ICT)In teaching and learning: prospects and limitations.in JOWICE (11) 2; 89-91*
- Amaechi, C. I. & Orizu, N. (2008) *Availability and usage of ICT facilities by science teachers in Anambra State in JOWICE (11) 2; 27-29*
- Awobuluyi, O. (2008). *Language education in Nigeria: Theory, Policy and Practice* <http://tripod.com>
- Bright, J.A. & McGregor, G.P. (1978). *Teaching English as a second language*. New York: Longman Publishing Ltd.
- Bush, M & Roberts T Eds (1997. *Technology Enhanced Language Learning National Textbook Company Illinois.*
- Daramola, A. (2013). *Information communication technology ICT and educational development in Nigeria An unpublished M.ed Thesis Ekiti State University Ado Ekiti.*
- Ibrahim, B.K. (1996). *Insight on English Language Teaching*. Kano: Al-Mazuru Publishers
- Jegede, J.O. (1990). *Effect of achievement, motivation and study habit on English language performance of senior secondary school students in Kwara State. An unpublished Ph.D. Thesis University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria.*
- Obadare, F.T. & Emoruwa, E.O. (2007). *information communication technology ICT: A tool for effective teaching and learning of English language Ikere Journal of Education (1):36-46.*
- Ogunmola, E.T. (2005). *Development of language skills II. Ado-Ekiti: Faloo Publishers.*
- Olanrewaju, R.F. (2011). *English language: A necessary tool in political administration in Nigeria. Being a Paper Presented at the 16th Annual Conference of the Association of Women in Colleges of Education in College of Education (Special) Oyo between 8th – 11th November.*
- Osalusi, F.M. & Adesua, V.O. (2008). *ICT and the Modern Day Classroom Teacher. Journal of Women in Colleges of Education JOWICE II (2): 114-115.*
- Patel, D.S (2014). *Technology enhanced language learning Tell in Learning Classes Internet.*
- Signes, C.G. (2011). *Language teaching and media literacy in teaching English in a Spanish Setting. Valencia Universitate Valencia pg 123-136*

- Susikaran, R.S.A. (2014). *The use of Multimedia in English Language Teaching*
- Udoada, M.P. (2006). *Teaching English as a second language through the internet in Nigeria in College of Education Ikere Ekiti. Proceedings of the First National Conference on Language Teaching in a Technological World 130 – 137.*
- Yusuf, J.C (1999). *The Role of Instructional Materials in Effective English Language Teaching in Nigeria Secondary Schools Journal of Studies in Language and Literature (Josil) 1: 80-83*
- www.albany.edu/etap
- www.ebooks.cambridge.org
- www.roberthalf.com

USING ENGLISH TO EFFECTIVELY TEACH ENGLISH IN LARGE NIGERIAN CLASSES, AT PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVELS

Adebukunola A. Atolagbe,
Department of English,
Faculty of Arts,
Lagos State University

Abstract

The paper briefly identifies the various factors that contribute to falling standards in education in Nigeria, especially in English (and mathematics), citing the 2014 WAEC abysmal failure rate as indexical. More importantly, the paper discusses how the 'input mix' of curriculum, teacher or teaching resources and methodologies affect 'output mix' of poor academic results and incompetent school graduates, especially at the West African School Certificate level. Insights from theories of teaching English as a second or foreign language such as the concepts of Interlanguage and Diglossia are combined with the advantages derived from the Behaviourists approach to language teaching. These theories provide the theoretical background to the research paper. The Nigerian Federal Government (Federal Ministry of Education and National Universities Commission's- NUC's- standards) stipulate that a class be between 30-35 students. Anything more than this, is a large class. The researcher discusses the issues in focus from relevant teaching experience from primary, through secondary, to tertiary level in the past three decades, citing relevant literature. The paper concludes that teachers must strive to achieve in students, both linguistic and communicative competence.

1.0 Introduction

Teaching English as a second language in Nigeria presupposes the teaching of English in a non-native speaking environment. This fundamental fact has serious implications for the teaching and learning of English in Nigeria, which unfortunately many teachers of English in Nigeria, at all levels of education (especially primary and secondary) apparently do not consider crucial to the effective and successful teaching and learning process.

The English language plays many important roles in Nigeria today but one of the most important roles is its use as a medium of instruction for acquiring formal or western education from primary school to tertiary level. This role is probably more important than its role as the main medium of communication (in whichever form or variety) in almost all spheres of our lives as Nigerians, particularly because we acquire English through English.

It is possible to acquire English through Yoruba – like the worldly acclaimed 'Ife special education project' by the late Professor Babatunde Fafunwa – or through any other Nigerian indigenous language or mother tongue – which Fafunwa advocated, especially at primary level, which is the period of a child's formative years. And, like Fafunwa's project showed, a child learns best in his or her mother tongue.

So if Nigerians are acquiring the rudiments of the English language through any other language than their mother tongues at primary level – basically English language in this case – what are the implications for teaching and learning, especially the teaching and learning of English in the Nigerian context. The Nigerian situation seems inevitable now, due to the national language question and issues that border on this question. This situation is unlike that of the Germans, the Chinese, the Russians, etc. who learn English first through their Mother tongue.

To compound issues, most primary and secondary school classes in the Nigerian context, have more than thirty-five pupils. Any number above thirty-five is regarded as large, going by the requirements of the Nigerian Federal Government and the National Universities Commission (for tertiary institutions).

These are the issues that propel the course of this discourse. How do we use English to effectively teach English, especially at primary and secondary levels, after which it is presumed, through a possession of a credit pass in the West African School Certificate (WASC) or its equivalent, that one is relatively competent in the use of English for communication purposes?

When one considers the fact that the Germans, the Indians, even black South Africans, are taught English through their mother tongues at the primary level and they are second language users like Nigerians, then it becomes easier to get the point being made here. The Nigerian child is acquiring life's basic educational skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as the subject content of a language – English, through a non-mother tongue medium – English. We expect him or her to end up using this medium of learning or skills acquisition as a medium of expression in almost all of life's endeavours thereafter. Moreover, we expect him or her to be almost as competent as the native speaker, if not as competent. How this expectation could be achieved, particularly in the light of various claims of falling educational standards, is the focus of this paper.

Aims/Objectives

The aim of this paper is to suggest ways through which English can be effectively used to acquire or learn English in large Nigerian classes at primary and secondary school levels in particular, and the objectives of the essay are the following:

- i. Identify factors contributing to the falling standards in education, particularly in English.
- ii. Discuss the 'input mix' and consequently the 'output mix' of teaching in Nigerian ESL classes at primary and secondary levels.
- iii. Identify and discuss concrete steps towards the use of English in teaching English effectively in large ESL classes, with focus on the input mix.
- iv. Identify challenges.
- v. Arrive at definite conclusions and make necessary recommendations.

We consider the 'input mix' as consisting of curriculum, teacher and teaching resources in the broadest sense of 'resource', and teaching methods. The 'output mix' on the other hand refers to poor academic results (at WASC) and incompetent WASC graduates.

3.0 Theoretical Framework.

Chomsky and other innatists believe that every human being has a language acquisition device (LAD) which naturally enhances language acquisition, especially first language acquisition. Also, innatists or mentalists claim that a native speaker has intuitive knowledge which guides him to know what is grammatical, acceptable or unacceptable in his mother tongue (MT or L1). This implies that a non-native speaker of that language does not have such intuitive knowledge. Hence, a sentence may be adjudged linguistically or syntactically anomalous, semantically anomalous or odd or pragmatically anomalous or odd, by a native speaker of English as in the respective sentences below:

- i. Please give me my green big dirty bag. (big green dirty)
- ii. My beautiful periwinkles are sleeping. (beautiful daughters)
- iii. My stomach is sweet. (I am happy) (Radford,1990; examples are ours)

Such a knowledge may not be possessed by a non-native speaker for the following reasons – he is not aware of the correct word order in that language (e.g. size before colour in the order of adjectives); he does not know the meaning of the word 'periwinkles' to know that they cannot sleep except in figurative use (e.g. * my periwinkles are sleeping); he does not know that the feeling of joy is all over the English man and does not just emanate from his belly (e.g. * my stomach is sweet), etc.

Behaviourists on the other hand, believe that linguistic structures are learnt and retained or imbibed through practice (constant learning) and reinforcement (Skinner, 1967). It is what one is exposed to that one learns. Exposure and environment therefore play a major role in the learning process. Also, approval or disapproval of performance is important to learning linguistic structures as well as retaining or imbibing them.

According to Okoro (2010), the Nigerian child learning English must be perceived as being on a point along the 'Interlanguage scale continuum.' This implies that he or she moves up the scale as his level of competence in the language increases. The teacher of English at primary and secondary levels in particular, must be aware of this fact and must be able to place his or her students or pupils roughly on this continuum at periodic intervals, whether as a group or as individuals. In this regard, the teacher can strive to improve the students' level of competence because he or she has an idea of what the students know or do not know and can take a cue from that in planning teaching content, teaching resources or aids and teaching methodology.

Nevertheless, all aspects of English must be taught and improved upon: listening and speaking skills, reading and writing skills, all hinged on the acquisition of speech sounds and their combinations, vocabulary and meaning relations and grammar as well as syntactic structures.

The Nigerian child ought to grow up as a coordinate bilingual with the right variables in place, considering the fact that he or she comes to the learning environment at about age three or at best age six, with the full potential of internalizing all rules of English just as he is concurrently doing the same for his or her mother tongue. He/she may then grow up possessing different 'dialects' of English (probably like Wole Soyinka) which could be used to address the illiterate 'meiguard' (gateman or night guard), the semi-literate market woman or the highly literate lecturer in the University classroom.

The Ife special education project championed by the late Professor Babatunde Fafunwa in the late 1960s- early 1970s pursued 'Learning and teaching in our mother tongue.' Fafunwa's contention was that colonial education robbed the Nigerian child of his inventiveness, creativity and

originality. He argued that since the Nigerian child is forced to think in English other than in Hausa, Igbo, Yoruba and other local languages, the child finds it hard to assimilate instructions easily and build manual dexterity effectively (Ola Onikoyi-jr. 2011).

This project showed the importance of the use of the mother tongue in imparting the basic learning skills in the early years of a child's education; as well as buttressed the fact that a second language can be properly acquired through the medium of a first language or the mother tongue.

Unfortunately today, the average Nigerian child starts school before or at the age of three when he has not even had the opportunity to internalize the rules of his mother tongue, to equip him with thinking capabilities in the mother tongue, and before he or she is thrown into an educational system that forces him to think and learn in a second language – English. This second language apparently competes with the mother tongue in the linguistic world of the child. So, the present scenario is slightly different from that of Fafunwa, where the child comes into school at age six (or thereabouts) – primary one, and is then taught throughout primary school in the mother tongue – Yoruba, in a monolingual and monolithic environment. No wonder, Fafunwa got such positive results from that experiment.

Today however, the situation is more complex – most schools in cities (and sometimes rural areas) have linguistically heterogeneous classes, where children have different mother tongues. Many children in cities (where their teachers have access to academic fora such as conferences) would have begun formal education by age three when they would have barely internalized unconsciously the intricate linguistic concepts and structures of their mother tongues. Many of the children begin formal or western education with great prospects of imbibing the new language – English – not just as second language (L2) but almost as competently as their mother tongue (L1) under the best teaching and learning environments, at this very early age in life, and as though they were taught by English native speakers from age three upwards. How then can Nigerian teachers provide such teaching and learning environments which would be almost at par with English native speaker environments in terms of (i) imparting the four basic learning skills through English, from age three upwards|| (ii) and effectively teaching the knowledge of English language for both linguistic and communicative competence, from age three upwards|| This is the task that must be achieved, using a combination of insights gathered from both the mentalists and the behaviourists.

4.0 Methodology

This paper is an exposition which relies heavily on the two major linguistic theories of Mentalism and Innatism as they relate to current trends in the teaching and learning of English in Nigerian primary and secondary schools. Results of previous researches are reviewed in the light of the present 6-3-3-4 Curriculum (which is about to be phased out) available teaching and teacher resources and teaching methodologies which shall be highlighted in the essay. Useful recommendations are then made on the basis of germane observations.

The Input and Output Mix for Effective Teaching in Large ESL Classes in Nigeria

We consider the input mix as consisting of curriculum, teacher and teaching resources in the broadest sense of 'resource' and teaching methods. These three are what make up for good results. The output mix on the other hand refers to poor academic result and incompetent West African School Certificate (WASC) 'graduates'.

The Curriculum

Talking about the curriculum, at primary and secondary school level, the teacher must ask: what are we teaching? Why are we teaching? The answers should be: At primary level, (i) We are laying the foundation for a life-long ability to function **in and with** the English language as a coordinate or subordinate bilingual for the Nigerian child, who presumably enters school before or by age three; (ii) we are providing the opportunity for the child to acquire as much English vocabulary and grammar that would enable him or her handle tasks, communicate and function effectively like any normal child his age anywhere in the world; (iii) we are assisting the child to unconsciously internalize the rules of English (from age three upwards) to the extent that he can in later years, fall back on his intuitive knowledge to decide those linguistic structures that are grammatical or ungrammatical and those that are acceptable or unacceptable.

These assignments for the English teacher at this level are no mean tasks at all. They require a lot of competence on the part of the teacher as well as a lot of dedication and commitment. The teacher must himself or herself be very knowledgeable – have a wide range of English vocabulary in his memory and be prepared to increase the stock daily; be confident with the grammar of English in all ramifications and be prepared to expose the pupils to its rudiments, both in terms of rules and concrete examples across topics and in different contexts.

This approach will involve the use of a lot of examples in class and as take-home exercises and a lot of practice exercises which the teacher must endeavour to mark or correct, even if randomly: for example, mark or correct one assignment out of two, and commend or reward pupils openly, such that the pupils do not know which assignment the teacher would correct and reward performance in publicly. Reward could be by public commendation and placing a star against the child's name for the week. Cumulative number of stars at the end of a month gets some concrete or definite prize which would appeal to the children. Thus, the children are motivated at this early age to work individually and in groups, in and outside of the class, with a persistent desire to know and learn more.

The teacher must however go through each and every assignment given, by picking few scripts from each set (e.g. 20 out of 100, the brilliant, average and weak students) to always gauge the students' performances in every assignment. This would serve as a feedback, to guide the teacher in knowing what has been mastered or not by the class and to know where to lay emphasis. Reading culture must be passed on to the children at this early age (from ages three, four, five) through story telling and reading of stories and poems, etc. Plenty of interesting story books in good English, both foreign and local, must be made available to children from nursery through primary six. This triggers their inquisitiveness and awakens their desire to explore, and not just to read. Thus, they learn a lot on their own, as they gradually pay attention to more things, happenings, communication, etc. that go on around them.

At secondary school level, why do we teach and what do we teach? Here also, the aims are the same as for the primary level except that rather than assist the child to internalize the rules of English unconsciously (the third aim mentioned above), the teachers should be providing opportunities for him or her to test already internalized rules of English to confirm grammaticality and acceptability. Thus, the teacher is reinforcing the student's knowledge, building his or her confidence and consequently improving his or her competence in the use of English as well as the capacity to listen more carefully, speak more correctly, read and comprehend as well as write more accurately, in the English language. The same steps taken by the teacher at primary level are encouraged here but with some additional methodology that would be discussed below.

At tertiary level, the teaching of English often goes beyond the need to communicate in English for the student but to become some sort of specialist or expert in a specific discipline. In this case therefore, the teaching needs of the students are tailored to meet specific goals. For example, the English student needs to be groomed to use the language with more dexterity and

creativity unlike the science or engineering student who needs to use English constructively to carry out specific tasks e.g. to conduct and report results of experiments. Specialized training with relevant technologies are needful at this level; also more of remedial teaching, more for corrective purposes, may be useful at this level – for the student to unlearn wrongly learned concepts, principles, structures, rules and build on properly learned ones. The main aim of the curriculum at tertiary and indeed secondary school levels, is akin to the second aim at the primary level – provide as much opportunity for the student to acquire (or re-learn) as much pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar (and English experiences) that would enable him or her to handle tasks, function normally like any person of his age (or with his qualification) anywhere in the world.

Teacher/Teaching Resources

At this juncture, the question to ask is: do we have qualified teachers teaching English at primary, secondary and tertiary levels? Also do we have adequate teaching and learning resources at these levels?

Mr. Eguridu, WAEC Head of Nigeria's National Office, speaking with a reporter of the Punch Newspaper, boldly asserted that many Nigerian teachers are incompetent (Punch, Aug. 2014:48-49). He gave this as a major reason for the abysmal failure of students in the 2014 WAEC results whereby less than 40% of the students had at least a credit pass in English (and Mathematics).

Other reasons cited by Eguridu (op.cit) to defend the poor performance of students in the 2014 WAEC English (and Maths) examinations included:

- i. Infrastructural decay in the school system.
- ii. Parents don't have time to supervise their children.
- iii. The children are distracted and have poor counsel (e.g. distractions from the internet, European football leagues, African magic on the television, etc).
- iv. Distorted societal values (e.g. winners of beauty pageants, musical and artistic competitions, footballers, etc get much more cash and material gifts – in millions of naira, in comparison to children who study hard and win academic competitions, school debates, etc.)
- v. Exam malpractices, sometimes encouraged by schools, teachers and even parents.

The reasons adduced for poor academic performance above are well known to us. Unfortunately, many teachers of English may not want to agree that they are incompetent and this is the crux of the matter. How many teachers of English can truly boast of a linguistic repertoire that accommodates enough vocabulary to discuss comfortably in any discipline or field of study (Agriculture, transportation, health, business, law, mass media, etc) in which we and our pupils or students have to converse daily? How many teachers of English never make mistakes of tense, concord or subject-verb agreement? How many teachers of English do not construct English sentences that collapse along the line or end up being faulty in one way or another?

Also, how many teachers of English do not utter English sentences that are full of Nigerian English expressions which have correct, acceptable Standard English equivalents? How many teachers of English do not code-switch from English to their mother tongues in formal contexts where such is not expected, simply because of their inability to confidently and promptly use the Standard English vocabulary, construction, expression that is needful? These are the issues which must first be addressed by the teachers themselves. Where there is a will, there is a way.

In terms of teaching resources or facilities, the situation is not any much better. Many of our schools lack qualified teachers (non-English graduates and NCE teachers are made to teach English, and even the qualified ones need to continually brush up their knowledge and skills). Also, we have inadequate teaching facilities and where they exist, the school fees are often exorbitant, such that very few students can attend such schools. The solution to this is to keep encouraging schools to invest more in teaching facilities as well as encourage individual teachers to improvise with whatever is available. This shall be discussed further below under 'Methodology'.

Teaching Methodologies

There are the traditional teaching methods used in both L1 and L2 or Lf teaching and learning situations such as the following:

- i. Grammar Translation and Direct methods
- ii. Audio-lingual and cognitive code-Learning Methods
- iii. Functional-Notional approach
- iv. Communicative Language Teaching (Wiliams, 1990)

Now we have:

- v. Computer-mediated teaching and learning strategies
- vi. Use of the web and online facilities
- vii. More of student participation/interactive sessions
- viii. Group work versus individual work. (Odumuh, 2012, Ayodele, 2012 and Aborishade, 2012)

In the Nigerian ESL class, the teacher of English must choose the most appropriate methodology for his class, considering the age and environment (e.g. ages 3-5 as opposed to ages 11-13; city as opposed to rural area). The teacher must start off from the known to the unknown, drawing ample examples or illustrations from the child's immediate environment to what he comes across on a global scale – on television, the internet, foreign texts, etc. The teacher must engage students in interactive sessions, allowing them ample opportunity to express themselves verbally and in writing with a lot of public commendation and very minimal public reprimand, even when a student is corrected. This will encourage the students to use the language more often in different contexts or environments e.g. in and out of the classroom, at play, at home, etc.

An eclectic approach which exploits the benefits of an ICT driven teaching and learning methodology, where the facilities are available and the benefits of the traditional audio-lingual approach (with a lot of repetition or practice exercises) must be utilized.

Class activities must be fun and real at primary and early secondary level, not just theoretical. Pupils or students must understand why they are engaged in the respective tasks; how are these tasks useful to them? In subtle ways, the teacher must make this clear (e.g. when the child uses the wrong tenses to make a statement, it gives the wrong information e.g. 'My mummy buy me my dress'. The teacher may ask: Oh is mummy just buying the dress now? Is it daddy that buys your dresses? Then explain the importance of why it should have been 'my mummy bought my dress') When the child sees the practicality and relevance of his or her communication skills to his or her daily living, then he or she is unconsciously motivated to learn. The students' inquisitiveness must be permitted as well. It allows the children to learn more on their own and come back to class or the teacher, to confirm what has been learnt. Thus, an enabling environment which simulates the non-available English mother tongue environment is being provided.

At secondary school level, the teacher has the duty to ensure that students love school and the English class despite the distractions out there when they leave the class. The teacher must surreptitiously monitor each student's performance in terms of linguistic and communicative competence and follow this up with an individual touch even in large classes. That is, once in a while, the teacher addresses the personal need of almost every child (in a class of 100-150) then there is a sense of belonging which propels the child to want to work, study or learn, especially if the teacher assigns students in a class to work groups of 5-10 each.

The brilliant ones in the group will serve to guide, motivate or encourage the weak ones. They can share or exchange reading materials that are in short supply. Also students are forced to do one hour of homework at school immediately after closing, before going home.

All these efforts of the teacher, if put in committedly, sincerely and diligently and done through good Standard English communicative skills, will certainly yield positive results.

Conclusion and Recommendations

From the discussion so far, we conclude as follows:

1. The Nigerian child (particularly in the cities) begins his or her exposure to the learning of English as a subject and a medium of acquiring the four basic educational skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing, from age three (to age six); consequently he or she has the opportunity to internalize the rules of English almost as competently as the rules of his or her mother tongue and therefore become a coordinate bilingual.
2. A near-native speaker-like teaching and learning environment can be provided by the teacher and school, (except for teacher's accent),utilizing all available facilities and resources locally and globally – using the media, local and international texts which suit the curriculum, the internet, etc.
3. In line with (2) above, the teacher must be a good role model in every respect by working on his or her own shortcomings and incompetencies, especially in the areas of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary development; this can then positively impact on the students.

4. The teacher must know the aims of teaching and learning at each educational level (our three aims specified in section 5.1 above) as well as know the content of the curriculum to be taught.
5. Importantly, the teacher must be able to locate his students periodically, as individuals and as a group, on the interlanguage continuum and administer appropriate teaching to move them higher on the scale, in terms of both linguistic and communicative competence.
6. Most importantly, individual work, group work, interactive, fun and activity classes, and plenty of class work as well as take home assignments with periodic public correction and commendation (e.g. correcting one out of every three or four tasks or assignments in large classes of above thirty-five should be given), especially at primary and junior secondary school.

All of these must go along with modern ICT-driven teaching where available and affordable, together with lots of improvisation from the teacher – as in Atolagbe (2014) where the teacher moved from the known to unknown, teaching English pitch from the perspective of Yoruba pitch for example, using the language of street urchins (Area Boys) whom the students encountered often.

All said and done, the teacher would have been able to overcome substantially, the challenges that come with large classes, yet produce motivated students who have both mastered the knowledge of English and acquired the skills, through the use of English to effectively teach English.

References

- Aborishade, P.A. (2012) 'Supporting English Language Teaching Using 21st Century ICT Tools.' *English Language Teaching Today (ELTT): A Journal for Teachers of English and Communication Skills*. Vol. 9 pp. 16-22.
- Atolagbe, A.A. (2014) 'Teaching Yoruba-English Prosodies in Context: Connectivity in Disparity.' *International Journal of English Language Teaching*. Vol. 1:No. 2 Canada: Sciedu Press. pp. 25-38.
- Ayodele, S.O. (2012) 'Utilizing the Electronic Media to Enhance Language Teaching in Nigerian Schools.' *ELTT*. Vol. 9. pp. 8-15.

- Chomsky N. (1972) 'Language and the Mind' in *Language in Education: A Source Book*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul. pp. 129-135.
- Fafunwa, A. B., Macauley, J. I. and Sokoya, J. A. F. (1989). *Education in Mother Tongue: The Ife Primary Education Research Project (1970-1978)*. Oxford: University Press. 166pp.
- Ferguson, C.A. (1972) 'Diglossia' in *Language in Education: A Source Book*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul. pp. 38-45.
- Jokthan, E.T. (2013) Curbing Examination Malpractice in Schools: Participative Advocacy. *Journal of Research in National Development*. (JORIND). Vol. 11: No.2. pp. 124-130.
- Nomlomo, V. (2003) 'Towards Mother Tongue Education in South Africa: The Teaching and Learning of Grade IV Science through the Medium of Isixhosa' Paper presented at World Congress on African Linguistics (WOLCAL 4) Rutgers University, New Jersey.
- Odumuh, T. O. (2012) 'English Language Teaching in a Globalized and Digital Age: Implications for Teacher Preparation and Professional Development in Nigeria'. *ELTT*. Vol. 9. pp.1-7.
- Okebukola, F. and Ogunbiyi, O. (2002) *Guide to Curriculum Development*. Lagos: Babs Olatunji Publications.
- Okoro, O. (2010) 'Perceptions of and Attitudes to Emerging Features of Nigerian English: A Sociolinguistic Survey of Students at the University of Lagos' In Okoro, O. (Ed.) *Nigerian English in Sociolinguistic Perspectives: Linguistic and Literary Paradigms: A Festschrift in Honour of Funso Akere*. pp. 70-92.
- Ola-Onikoyi, J. R. (2011) Re-Enlivening the Mother Tongue Debate Articles. Nigeria Village Square. <http://www.nigeriavillagesquare.com/articles/ola-onikoyi-jr/re-enlivening-the-mother-tongue-debate.html> Retrieved on 13/10/2014.
- Radford, A., (1990). *Transformational Grammar: A First Course*. Cambridge: University Press.
- The Punch Newspaper*, August 30, 2014: Many Nigerian Teachers are Incompetent – WAEC Head of National Office, Egoridu. pp. 48-49.

Thorne, S. (2008) *Advanced English Language*. Hampshire and New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Widdowson, H.G. (1990) *Aspects of Language Teaching*. Oxford: University Press.

Williams, D. (1990) *English Language Teaching: An Integrated Approach*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books.