LANGUAGE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS FOR NCE:
A Three Level Presentation Illustrated with the Modals of English

by

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my late father

ISAIAH OLOWODUN AKPARA

who first taught me how to read and write

and

MY STUDENTS (past, present and future)
whose field of study is going to be
English as a Second Language

DECLARATION

I, ILESANMI STEPHEN OLOWODUN wish to declare that this study is an independent research effort. It has not been submitted in any form (part or whole) for the award of another degree or diploma in Ahmadu Bello University or any other University or Institution. I have fully acknowledged all information derived from materials both published and unpublished by others.

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APPROVAL SHEET

LANGUAGE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS FOR NCE:
A Three Level Presentation Illustrated with the Modals of English.

This study has been read and approved as meeting the requirements of the Department of Education, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria for the award of the Degree of Master of Education

in

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I accept full responsibility for all cases of inadequate treatment, misapplication, and errors occurring in using the approach in the study.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS USED

i.	Nigeria Certificate in Education	..	NCE
ii.	Contrastive (Linguistic) Analysis	..	CA
iii.	Error Analysis		EA
iv.	Modal Auxiliary Verb(s)		Modal(s)
v.	Standard British English		Br E
vi.	General American English		Am E
vii.	Pedagogic Grammar		PG
viii.	Mother Tongue/First Language	..	L1
ix.	Second Language		L2
x.	Foreign Language		FL
xi.	Source Language		SL
xii.	Target Language		TL
xiii.	English as a Second Language	..	ESL
xiv.	Junior Post Primary		JPP

ABSTRACT

This study arose from the problem perennially encountered by those who tench and those who learn English at the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) level. Language materials are not written specifically for the NCE level and those being used are found to be inappropriate in some ways, either for the teacher[1]s purpose or for use by learners.

In order to save the situation, therefore, it is necessary to design language materials that suit the teacher's teaching purpose as well as cater for students' learning needs.

The present study is an attempt to design such materials. It proposes three levels at which NCE language materials may be written.

Level 1 material describes a specific aspect of the language largely in linguistic terms. It does not concern itself with the question of who is learning what in which context. It is more or less a reference grammar.

Level 2 material is a teaching grammar oriented towards a specific level of learners for a specific purpose and in a specific learning context. It is of direct relevance to language teachers at a level for which it is appropriate. "

Level 3 material is an abstraction from Level 2 material and it is designed as practice material for students.

The working of the proposed approach is illustrated with English modal auxil.ary verbs (models), which represent an area, of misuse or underuse by the set of learners for which the materials are designed.

Level 2 materials re-present carefully worked-out information on students' performance analysis (as opposed to error analysis) of the modals, that is, data on learners' use, misuse and lack of use of the modals. The materials were determined on the basis of a combination of approaches described in 4.3. The sample material at Level 3, however, is graded exercises intended as practice material (Chapter five). This chapter is based on a further selection from Level 2 (Chapter four), of areas of difficulty in the use of the modals and in distinguishing between the various meanings of the modal auxiliaries.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Aim of the Study

The existing NCE English course suffers from a lack of adequate materials (necessary for developing the required skills of learners). This study is based on my intuitive knowledge of the materials used for teaching English language in both the Advanced Teachers' Colleges (ATC_s) in Kano and Zaria.[1]

This experience has placed the researcher in a similar position to gain first-hand knowledge of the English syllabus to which a modest list of recommended texts is attached.[2] Most, if not all, of the texts so recommended are inadequate and inappropriate for use at NCE colleges.

English studies in the colleges covered by this study[3] is divided into three major components: English Language, Literature in English, and Methodology of teaching English (including Teaching Practice). A fourth component is General English which is made obligatory irrespective of subjects being studied because all classroom teaching at the Junior Post-Primary (JPP) level is done in English. Effective use of English for classroom communication is thus a precondition for success at this level of teaching in Nigeria. Language teaching and language learning is taken care of by both the Language and General English

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[1] The researcher taught English in ATC Kano from 1976-80, and he is currently teaching English at ATC Zaria.

[2] See appendix I for the Grammar Syllabus of English.

[3] These colleges (numbering 19) are collectively called NBU colleges - either owned by or affiliated.

components. However, this study focuses on the language component only. It suggests a set of guidelines to follow and certain principles to adopt in preparing instructional materials for the use of NCE learners.

1.2. A 3-Level Approach to Material Design

Basically, what is suggested is a design of language instructional materials at three levels to cater for the needs of both the teacher and his students.

Material at Level 1 is expected to be a little detached from specific educational level and stage(s) of language learning. At the same time it is closely linked to a broad language situation type. For example, a second language (L2) situation, foreign language (FL), or a first language L1) situations (but not specifically for learners at NCE). As a reference material, it is necessary for it to be so detached so that it can serve its purpose - that of serving a wide spectrum of situations from primary to tertiary levels in second language situation.

The Level 2 material is to be used for classroom teaching - to train NCE teacher trainees. The interesting point here is the cluster of sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic factors influencing the content and approach of such materials. Level 2 materials, therefore, in part present pedagogic information derived from Level 1 materials based on certain decisions, namely:

(a) what portion of Level 1 material do we abstract for presentation; how, and why is it to be

abstracted; and

(b) how what we finally abstract from Level 1 material should be presented to learners.

Thus Level 2 material is directed at teachers who teach English at NCE, to be used as a handbook for immediate pedagogical needs, including classroom practice. A distinction between Level 1 and Level 2 materials has been drawn by Allen (1969) when he says

> "... practical model of grammar[4] which might underlie a variety of practical teaching situations",[5]

and one in which a linguistic description is written for particular learners in a clearly defined situation.

Level 3 materials contain exercises for learners' practice, and are derived from Level 2. In language course books, it is common to find both Levels 1 and 3 materials combined. This fact does not obliterate the distinction between materials at the two levels. The drills, exercises, and communication practice materials of Level 3 grammar are designed to help students (individual learners) overcome their language problem and acquire a reasonable control over the use of particular language skills.

A further distinction between Level 1 and Level 2 materials has to do with their content and methodology. Level 1 material (that is, material at the reference level),

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[4] 'Grammar' refers to pedagogic materials (hence 'pedagogic grammar') as opposed to grammar types such as Traditional, Systemic, Transformational-Generative Grammars, etc.

[5] Allen, J.P.B. Mimeographed Lecture Notes. Department of Linguistics, Edinburgh University, 1969. Quoted by R.A. Omojuwa, Guidelines on Language Materials Preparation Institute of Education, A.B.U., 1975, p.50.

limits itself to a specific area of grammar which it sets out to describe. It is not obliged to explore pedagogical relationships between the specific area of grammar and any other. This is unlike Level 2 material which looks for and examines such relationships in order to increase the understanding of specific learners over how the language system works. For this purpose, Level 2 material relies on a combination of linguistic descriptions, sociolinguistic intuition and psychological explanation relating to language learning.

In content, structure and approach, there is a further difference between Level 1 and Level 2 materials. Materials at Level 1 describe all relevant aspects of any area of the target language (TL) it sets out to describe. Its position is neutral to specific stages in the language learning process. Level 2 material accounts for a further selection from Level 1 taking into consideration vital factors such as educational level, duration of study, specific individual (raised to group status) problems, purpose for which the course is designed, and above all the actual time available. These variables are reflected in the style of description and the type of complexity of the language exercises of Level 2 material. In this sense, Level 2 material can be said to describe <u>three grammars</u> as opposed <u>one grammar</u> that is described by Level 1 material. These grammars are

(a) the interlanguage[6]

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[6] "Interlenguage" is the imperfect TL version used by learners.

(b) the TL

(c) the L2 or L1

Level 3 materials are those carefully worked out to meet specific educational needs of learners. The material represents any mismatch observed in the process of measuring learners' competence and performance. It helps us to set our learning objectives and enables the teacher to reach his set target. It also helps syllabus designers to reach a consensus on depth of treatment and coverage for each area of language to be specified in the syllabus.

A three-level instructional material thus helps the learner:

(a) to see the differences and similarities between his MT or L1, his interlanguage and the TL ;

(b) to recognise the nature and the extent of the problem facing him in his TL/FL learning, and, in recognising these,

(e) develop an effective TL learning strategy.

1.3. The Problem and Background to the Study

This study is a response to a growing dissatisfaction with the NCE English language programme.[7]

The objectives which the language component is set to achieve appear to be unattainable any longer. This view has been expressed by graduates (beneficiaries) of the NCE programme. Other people involved in the programme, especially the academic staff, share the same view. These NCE lecturers

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[7] It has been stated elsewhere (1.1) that reference to NCE English is to the programme as mounted largely in ATC Kano and ATC Zaria which are teaching units of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. See also footnote 3 of this chapter.

have openly expressed dissatisfaction with the students' very low knowledge of, and consequently low performance in, the English language. Of concern then is the genuine worry by NCE teachers that their classroom approaches do not seem to be appropriately directed to solve the problem of falling standards. Regarding the concern to improve the students' mastery of English, they admit the uncertainty with regard to what they should teach, for what purpose, and how it should be done.

The students interviewed seem convinced that the NCE English language does not give them adequate foundation needed to cope with the communicative demands of their NCE course and of language teaching for which they are being trained. However, judged by the results of a pilot trial of the sample materials at Level 3, one can safely conclude that the study is pedagogically rewarding to a materials' designer.

Principals of post-primary institutions, secondary schools specifically, who are the major recipients of the NCE products, some of whom had assisted in absorbing the students for teaching practice (TP) during the course of their training, have also expressed dismay over the NCE students' inability to teach English effectively through the medium of English in the JPP classes for which the NCE students are being trained. Reports from such principals and also lecturers who supervise students' teaching practice (some of who are specialists in ESL teaching) reveal the prevalence of misuse of English by the NCE student teachers and the resulting inability of these students to correct pupils' errors in both written and oral English.

These various interest groups have tried to identify the causes of the problem consistently with their respective views. On their part, the students have identified poor teaching and lack of materials as the major cause. English lecturers blame the weak or falling standards and perhaps lack of result-oriented effective teaching on such political decisions as the imposition of non-suitable candidates [8] admitted to read the NCE English course, poor planning, a lack of useful guide for lecturers on what details to teach, what approaches to use, and what models and methods to adopt in certain specific areas of English language teaching.

One common problem area identified by both students and teachers which is partly responsible for the poor performance is the non-availability of adequate instructional materials. This is the basic problem that the 3-level instructional materials preparation approach is aimed at minimising.

1.4. Sources of Data

1.4.1. Inadequacy of NCE English Instructional Materials

Information which has confirmed the assumption that the basic problem of NCE English relates to inadequate teaching material was revealed by two separate surveys in 1980 and 1981. After Omojuwa's

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[8] The admission policy permits weak students into the NCE major English course. This relates to the quota system of admission for ethnic balancing. It is a non-linguistic factor which requires consideration in a specific learning situation.

(1975), these surveys represent sampled reactions to the NCE English programme.

The survey population included both the second and third year students in ATC Kano (1980) and a group of second year students of A.T.C. Zaria. Other people interviewed included lecturers who taught English in both colleges, NCE teachers (i.e. those with NCE qualifications) who at the time of the surveys were reading B.Ed. (Language Arts) at Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, principals of cooperating schools for teaching practice in Benue, Gongola, Kaduna, Kano and Plateau States.

The results of the surveys form the core of the discussion is 1.3 above. The conclusions reached were drawn from direct responses to interviews of both NCE students and lecturers, principals' confidential reports on student teachers, and supervisors' comments on the teaching practice assessment forms for the two year period covered by the survey.

1.4.2. Data for the analysis of the meaning and use of the English Modals

The data used for the determination of appropriate materials for Level 2 were sampled examination scripts in language of two sets of NCE final year students in ATCs Kano and Zaria. Four hundred scripts were examined.

As follow-up exercises, samples of essays written in classroom situation were used to supplement the examination answer scripts. Topics

of the essays were selectively chosen in order to elicit or induce students' use of the modals such that the use of the avoidance strategy is minimised. A full description of the procedure used including the results can be found in 4.5.

CHAPTER TWO

2.1. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature review relates to the proposed 3-level approach. The review is particularly concerned with:

(a) English Language Teaching (ELT) at the post-secondary level in Nigeria,

(b) The NCE English Programme,

(c) Teaching Materials/Pedagogic grammars,

(d) Language Errors and their uses in language teaching,

(e) The modals and the levels at which they have been described.

2.2. ELT at the post-secondary level in Nigeria

A growing disillusionment among language teachers as regards ELT at post-secondary level in Nigeria has been variously expressed. Akau (1977: 49) says:

> It is a feeling of failure and despondence; there is no hope that the situation is going to improve; so they believe. This is partly because even though so much time and energy is invested in the teaching and learning of English, very little is realised as reflected by the performance of students.

In a similar tone, Omoniwa (1982: 10) after reviewing earlier studies on the teaching of writing skill (Walsh 1969; Oluikpe, 1979 and Omojuwa, 1979) at tertiary level concludes:

> "In spite of the importance of writing, its present state at the tertiary educational level is far from desirable".

In his investigation into the problems of NCE reading comprehension, Aliyu (1977) has traced one of the major problems of ELT to inadequate textbooks that were being used for reading instruction. He says

> "The traditional textbook on reading comprehension provides a collection of passages followed by questions to be answered by students. These are usually few or no guidelines on how the texts are to be used. Often the teachers have fixed answers that they expect from the students.

He says further:

> The problems surrounding the teaching of reading comprehension have been increased by the inability of teachers and researchers to pinpoint the factors responsible for good understanding amongst learners.[1]

Perhaps, in trying to pinpoint one of the factors, therefore, Odumuh (1982) opines:

> "... there is need for old approaches to give way to modern (and by implication) more effective ones. In no other area is this search more evident than in language learning and teaching"[2]

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[1] Aliyu, J.S. "Suggestions for a General English Syllabus for the ATC with Special Reference to Reading Comprehension M.Ed. Dissertation, Faculty of Education, University of Manchester, 1977, p.101.

He identifies further, what seems a flaw in the area of English language teaching at the NCE level as revealed by the syllabus in English - what he refers to as "two serious oversights". The first is the lack of attention being "paid to the influence of the Nigerian environment - socio-cultural milieu - on English usage", and second, that "communicative competence or appropriateness is neglected in the spoken component". He then declares (op cit, p.5):

> "Our language pedagogy needs to go beyond the horizons of grammatical analysis of isolated sentences to the relationship between form and content, emphasising, for example, what it means to know a language well enough to be able to use it appropriately in real life situations"

This concept of "appropriateness" appears to have been partly explored and suggestions offered by Omojuwa (1975) in which his guidelines and principles of materials preparation for language teaching at three levels is indicative of a modern approach to language teaching.

In a similar fashion, the present study has attempted to cater for the different instructional material needs of course writers, language teachers and language learners in the area of the grammar sub-component of English language teaching at the NCE level. While Omojuwa (1975) successfully illustrated the working of

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[2] Odumuh, A.E. "Sociolinguistic aspects of English Language Teaching at Tertiary Level in Nigeria: A Neglected Situation. NCE English Conference, Yola, 1982, p.3.

the 3-level approach with "comparative constructions in English", the present study uses the modal verbs of English to illustrate the approach to materials designing.

2.3. The NCE English Programme

The language sub-component of the NCE English programme is studied under the following six headings

(a) Phonology
(b) Reading
(c) Grammatical structures
(d) Writing
(e) Lexis, and
(f) The use of English (register)[3]

Studies earlier conducted on NCE English language programme largely focused on the areas of reading and writing (see Aliyu, 1977; Ekere, 1977; Omojuwa, 1979; Omoniwa, 1982). Other studies relate to syllabus review and issues and factors that affect students performance in this area of tertiary level education (Amafah, 1982a, 1982b; Agukwe, 1982). While these studies had each contributed positively to NCE language teaching/learning, the present author is worried about researchers' neglect of the teaching of the other areas (see 'a'-'f' above). Of particular interest is the apparent non-availability of 'suitable' texts for the teaching of these areas, especially grammatical structures.

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[3] See appendix 7.1 for the syllabus on NCE English language.

In an investigation into the operation of the NCE English programme, Akere (1977: 13) acknowledged the neglect of the teaching of grammatical structures by saying it is

> "... perhaps the most difficult aspect of language to teach"

even though he clearly stated that its aim is to make students become familiar with the patterns of English sentences, so as to aid correctness both in speaking and writing.

In attempting to find an answer to the question "What textbooks and materials?" for teaching grammatical structures, Akau (1977: 66) out of disillusionment says

> "I find this a particularly difficult question to answer, and it is the one question which no one has found a solution to since I came into the A.T.C. It is not only that we have not been able to find suitable textbooks for our students but we have also found it difficult to recommend books that will provide the much needed guidance that we teachers require."

The problem he claims

> "... is not that there are not books in the market, but that there are none that specifically suit our purpose (NCE)"

This situation has not radically changed.

Omojuwa (1981) seems to have an answer to this problem of lack of suitable materials. First, he has suggested that an alternative approach to language data selection in the teaching of grammatical structures at the NCE level could be

"based on the language teachers' intuition/knowledge of learners' language needs".

This approach he claims is "economical and effective" but "requires wide experience and teachers' intimate knowledge of their students and of the characteristics of the local/regional varieties and usages". Judging from the qualities and experiences of the NCE English lecturers involved in this study, such a deep knowledge and wide experience is difficult to achieve, because "intimate" knowledge is a result of prolonged interaction. Such knowledge would be a gradual process. Thus the element of time becomes crucial if such an approach is to succeed.

Because of the constraint imposed by time, Omojuwa suggests that a "rigorous selection" be made from the total area of grammar. In working out such materials, selection should be viewed at two levels; namely: "Extensive Level" at which selection involves a number of areas of grammar to be taught (e.g. the tenses, agreement, comparison, determiners, the modals). The second level - 'Intensive Level' involves selections within each area of grammar" as for example, which modals do we select for teaching.

This approach has been found very useful in this study of preparation of instructional materials for use in the teaching of modals at the NCE level.

2.4. Teaching Materials and Pedagogic Grammars

The fact that after about two decades of the establishment of the NCE, there are no published texts on English, specifically designed for the NCE programme, which could guide a young and inexperienced lecturer, and students do not help the NCE English situation. Akau (1977: 66) had seriously made the point of high shortage of suitable texts and lecturers' difficulty of even recommending texts they might consider useful to learners.

Instructional materials directed at NCE learners are not available. This is unlike the primary and post-primary levels of education in which published materials specifically written as teachers' handbooks and learners' practice exercises are easily available. Apparently, the neglect of NCE English may be explained by the fact that it appears tedious for course writers and commercially unattractive for publishers to be encouraged to engage in materials production to meet the diverse needs of the different group of learners at the same level of education. This point has been reaffirmed by Omojuwa (1975) who has asserted

> ... a special course cannot successfully capture the real needs of a group of learners unless these needs have previously been identified, and the notions to be expressed, the linguistic forms, and the situations in which they occur are specified in one way or another in the syllabus on which the

instructional material or course is to be based.[4]

One other reason for the lack of NCE materials may be due to the fact that general education for which general courses are required appears to phase out at the post-primary level. Materials produced for a post-secondary learning situation seems to be specialised in a sense, in that each varies slightly to meet the occupational needs of each group of learners, hence English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), Nurses English, in fact, English for Special Purposes (ESP). In spite of this, none of such materials has been designed specifically for NCE.

Each course syllabus of the NCE English is supported by a modest (often antique) list of prescribed texts and reference materials. Most of the prescribed texts for students' lay emphasis on mechanical drills and exercises (see appendix for the list of texts). Allen (1974) is a good example. It was first published in 1947 based on traditional grammar which was a popular school noted for teaching grammar on the basis of notional definition. This is in opposition to modern approaches which emphasise description of language per se. Even though Allen's text is aimed at a foreign audience, a lot of the exercises have been selected on the basis of author's knowledge of the English culture. For instance, in writing the following items on "countables and uncountables" for an "intermediate" audience

Let's get — strawberries for — tea

I want — tin of — peaches, — sugar, and

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4 Omojuwa op. cit., 1975, p.13-14.

— pound of — raspberry jam,[5]

he has made use of very many unfamiliar terms for a Nigerian audience (NCE).

Forrest (1968) intended as material for revision of English "towards the end of secondary course" provides for mechanical exercises and it does not relate properly to the NCE syllabus specifications. Rowby (1958), Jupp & Milne (1968), and Forrest (1968), have pedagogical information at the beginning of each exercise to guide both the teacher and the learner. But selection of materials in these texts relate mainly to our level 3. The exercises are mechanical language exercises which

> "represents a drift from functional, communicative, everyday use of the data from which such exercise is abstracted"[6]

The point is that most of the recommended texts as specified in the syllabus for the use of NCE students are actually directed at lower levels of education. It appears, however, that there is a generally accepted claim (Odumuh & Olowodun (1983) that English language development reaches a fixation point at the secondary school level. Beyond this point, it is thought that learners could look after their own English.[7] Perhaps this contention may be advanced as another reason why published materials for NCE students are not available.

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5 Allen, W.S. Living English Structure. Longmen, Fifth Edition, 1974, pp.6-7.

6. Omojuwa, R.A. op cit, p.226.

7 Odumuh, A.E. & I.S. Olowodun "Tertiary versus University English: A Pilot Study of English Language Usage of undergraduates and Students of Tertiary Level Education in Nigeria". LAN Conference Paper, Benin, 1983.

It is a fact that there is a students' growing inability to use English for effective communication at the tertiary level education. Because of this, institutions at this level, including universities have mounted remedial English courses as solution for improvement of low performance of students. To succeed, there is need to discontinue the use of texts that are currently in use in most of our institutions including NCE colleges. Then alternative instructional materials should be sought as substitute for effective language teaching.

In view of the growing number of tertiary institutions that teach remedial English, for example, Use of English (University of Ife), communicative skills (Bayero University Kano), General English (Institute of Education, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria), Remedial English (SBS, ABU, Zaria), and in view of the fact that alternative materials should be sought to replace the inadequate texts currently in use, there is need for course writers to direct their attention to production of materials for teaching English at the tertiary level.

Moody (1972), Banjo and Unoh (1976), Parry (1979) and a few others, particularly materials produced by departments of English in some universities in Nigeria are positive attempts to make relevant instructional materials available for tertiary level education (including NCE). These, however, are not appropriate materials for the major English Language/Grammar syllabus for the simple reason that they do not cater for specific learners' needs, represented by materials at Level 2 in this study.

But faced, now, with unsatisfactory (published) materials appropriately designed for specific learning situations and

requirements as recommended above, the NCE language teachers should not be left to themselves without help. It is quite possible to work out a set of guidelines and principles which the language teacher can apply (with modifications) to suit his own teaching situation. This present study has attempted to do this, especially at Level 2 in which interlevel material is pedagogic, mediating between Levels 1 and 3 materials. What then is pedagogic material?

2.4.1. Pedagogic Material (Grammar)

The term pedagogic grammar (PG) has been used in various senses by linguists. Abbot (1981) refers to "pedagogic English" as language, the medium of which a second language learner is going to have his education. In selecting this sort of language for presentation to the EFL learner, he admits that

> "... there is every reason why a lot of his English lessons should be spent studying texts illustrating uses of language that he is likely to encounter - and indeed may already be encountering daily"[8]

A major constraint of the use of pedagogic grammar in this sense is the emphasis on the studying of "texts". Beginners or near-beginners, especially those with little or no knowledge of the English orthography

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[8] Abbot, G. "Approaches to English teaching" in The Teaching of English as an International Language: A Practical Guide by Corry Abbot & Peter Wingard (eds.) Collins, 1981, p.29.

are not provided for by this use of texts. Abbot claims,

> "... it would be counter-productive to begin by using 'texts', in the usual sense of that word".[9]

To Candlin (1973: 57):

> "a pedagogical grammar lies between statements about communicative competence (including linguistic competence in the narrow sense) and specific practical materials themselves dependent on local learning conditions".[10]

This implicitly recognises three broad levels of language material or grammar including a 'pedagogical grammar'. Arranged in the following order a pedagogical grammar mediates between the other two:

(a) statements about language competence (linguistic and communicative)

(b) a pedagogic grammar

(c) specific practical materials

To sum up, Candlin's PG underlies specific practical materials to the exclusion of statements about language competence.

Candlin's contemporary, Noblitt (1972) uses PG in the same sense when he says "a PG is not a pedagogical

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[9] Abbot, G., op cit. 1981, p.30.

[10] Candlin, C.N. "The Status of Pedagogical Grammars" in Corder and Roulet (eds.), 1973. Quoted from Omojuwa, R.A. op cit., 1975, p.35.

text - it is rather the basis on which a text is constructed". He adds, "The underlying PG for a specific language course can only be retrieved by analysing the total presentation, formal statements, examples, exercises, etc."[11]

In their contribution to the literature of PG, Allen (1971) with Van Buren (1973, 1974) use PG as an umbrella term for a variety of pedagogical materials that the teacher uses in his class. Allen, however, also sees a PG equally as statements about language competence.

In his own argument, Jarvis (1971) sees the need for an interlevel PG to act as a bridge between statements about language competence and specific practical materials. In effect, he appears to be saying that a PG should concern itself with three levels that roughly correspond to levels (a), (b), and (c) above.

Corder (1974: 168) has two explanations about PG. He says that a PG can be

(a) "a collection of statements about the target language expressed in a book or on the tape ..." or

(b) "a way of thinking about or 'representing' those categories and relations of the target language grammar ..."

He explains further what he means by saying

> "In other words, a pedagogical grammar is characterised by its approach to the facts not the selection of the facts

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[11] Noblit, J.S. "Pedagogical Grammar: Towards a Theory of Foreign Language Materials Preparation" in IRAL X, 14, 1972. Quoted by Omojuwa 1975, p.35).

> it proposes to teach, and this approach may be manifest in any number of teaching procedures only one of which is a collection of descriptive statements about the language. A set of exercises or texts, or a set of reading materials is as much a manifestation of a pedagogic grammar as the more conventional 'grammar book' for the use of the learner".[12]

A summary of these current schorlastic contribution of what "pedagogic grammar" is or the various senses in which it has been used, shows three distinctive levels which correspond to Candlin's levels (a), (b), (c) above, with level (b) as least clarified.

It is not safe at this stage to say that it is feasible to write a pedagogic grammar at three levels without finding solutions to certain questions. Any claim to feasibility of a 3-level PG approach should depend on satisfactory answers to such questions. For example, what differences are there in one level that differentiates it from any other level? Will the differences be that of content, approach, goal, functions, users, and so on? Can we possibly formalize these differences and is it pedagogically desirable?

It is not easy to find solutions to the questions; not even much could be got from the sources of literature of PG discussed above. In a warning against differences of approach, Corder (1973) says

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[12] Corder, S. Pit and Roulet "Pedagogical Grammars or the Pedagogy of Grammar?" in Corder & Roulet (eds) AIMAV, 1974.

> I suggest that the emphasis in the study of pedagogic grammar should shift from a discussion of the most appropriate forms; pedagogical descriptive statements should take to the processes or procedures whereby the facts of a language can be made available to the learner.[13]

These processes and procedures, that is, teaching and learning activities in the classroom according to Corder, involve

> "Four fairly well-defined elements in the grammatical component of teaching materials: data and examples; descriptions and explanations; induction exercises; and hypothesis-testing exercises"[14]

The core of Corder's argument is that, irrespective of the level, the processes by which language activities are revealed by a PG should be the same. To support this contention, Corder says

> We cannot always distinguish between those pedagogical grammars which are intended for teachers of the mother tongue from those meant for foreign language teachers, and, in extreme cases, from those suitable for the advanced foreign learner of the language[15]

Corder, in effect has a major contribution to the issue, and by extension to knowledge.

If it becomes necessary, as it is in this study, to write pedagogical materials on the same area of language to

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[13] Corder S. Pit & Roulet (1974), op cit., p.168.

[14] Corder, S. Pit Introducing Applied Linguistics. Penguin, 1973, pp.336-337.

[15] Corder, S. Pit, op cit., 1973, p.328.

(a) different groups, with

(b) different problems, and

(c) different objectives,

in what respects would such materials be differentiated? Would whatever distinctions made be of any pedagogical value? Could we formalize the characteristics of each type of PG such that the result could be turned to good account by all those concerned with teaching and learning?

One major goal of this study is to find answers to these searching questions. The first plausible remark to make here or at this point is that pedagogical materials are likely to vary with content and procedure depending on whom they are meant for and for what purposes. The differences we find in them are also likely to be of high pedagogical value as they will indicate what valuable instructional strategies or directions we should adopt. It should be possible to write pedagogic materials on the same area of language at three levels distinguished by users and functions, both of which factors will dictate the content and procedure of the materials at each level.

The English modals have been chosen because the various linguistic descriptions of this area can be easily adapted for pedagogical purposes. In adapting these descriptions, this study has taken into consideration the unique problem that Nigerian students, albeit ESL learners face in their uses of the modals. The main confusion arises from distinguishing between semantic considerations of some modals, and functions attached to such modals. For instance, learners normally assume that the primary meaning and function of WILL

SHALL is to mark tense relations, whereas this is not the case (see 2.6 below for a review of lit on modals).

It is noteworthy that, perhaps, whatever features may have been considered from the descriptions as ... unsuitable for use in this course is not suggestive of inappropriateness of the model. Neither is it an attempt to think of such material as a lapse for pedagogical reasons. Such omissions merely illustrate the need and justification for modifying, re-interpreting and supplementing linguistic theories as appropriate, for use in varying pedagogical needs. This view is similarly expressed by Green (1979) when he states

> "... it is the teacher's responsibility to ensure that the learner is skilled in the effective and efficient use of CERTAIN LEARNING RESOURCES"[16]

This point is more succintly put by Widdowson (1978) who says

> In designing a language course, we select from a description of the language in question (as represented in grammars and dictionaries) those structures and words which we suppose will be of most use to the learner for the purposes of which is he is learning the language. That is to say, we select items of the highest potential value: those which can be realised to perform the kinds of acts of communication which the learner will have to deal with.[17]

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16 Green, J.D. "LSRW Plus: Developing Learning Attitudes, Habits, and Skills" in ELT. Vol. xxxiii, no 3, April 1979.

17 Widdowson, H.G. Teaching Language as Communication. London: O.U.P., 1978, pp.12-13.

This study has attempted to make such selections of items of the highest potential value in the presentation of the models to the learners at Levels 2 and 3.

It is common knowledge that a textbook hardly ever attempts a detailed and wholly satisfactory description and explanation of a linguistic theory in its entirety. It is, therefore, usual to select and adapt materials, material that Corder (1973) refers to as "... data which we put before the learner". The data he continues

> "... are samples of performance, that is, fully fashioned examples of an application of the rules of the language".[18]

In the process of selection, a theory will certainly lose some of its original forms. Other contributory factors include psychological and sociological demands - both factors of which are relevant to language teaching/learning situations.

These considerations have guided the researcher in writing the present course.

2.4.2. Pedagogical Approach

The thinking behind writing a textbook may have involved two distinct approaches. The first is to make general statements that describe the language

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[18] Corder, S. Pit Introducing Applied Linguistics. Penguin, 1973, p.309.

which teachers can fashion for classroom use. This concept as Allen (1969) puts it

> "is that of a practical model of grammar which might underlie a variety of practical teaching situations"[19]

With this characteristic, the approach thus leaves open both psychological and sociological questions which relate to learning. In other words, such questions as "who might be teaching whom on any particular situation" are not necessarily considered. This approach is completely linguistic because material devised is not aimed at any particular learners or learning situations. (cf Leech (1971); Palmer (1965, 1974); Quirk et al (1972). Yet we cannot shy away from the fact that the approach can weaken the effect of learning - a weakness in the empirical domain which gives the approach its linguistic strength because the textbook writer is allowed

> "to admit some degree of generalisation into a discussion which must be based firmly in the empirical domain"[20]

The second approach to textbook writing is one in which the grammar (language) is described for particular learners in clearly defined situations. This latter approach, unless carefully handled, is capable of

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[19] Allen, J.P.B. Mimeographed Lecture Notes. Quoted by Omojuwa, R.A., op cit., 1975, p.50.

[20] Omojuwa, R.A. op cit., 1975, p.50.

> "distorting, or at least reclassifying, modifying, or over-simplifying linguistic facts in an attempt to strike a compromise between linguistic facts on the one hand and psychological and sociological factors on the other".21

This is an obvious limitation of the approach, which may have a great effect on linguistic materials. The effect is that, the approach imposes a selection constraint on linguistic materials, which must be further graded, presented and tested according to constraints imposed by non-linguistic factors.

It is only fair to strike a compromise between the two approaches as has been done in the presentation of the present course. This is due to the fact that the textbook writer who adopts the second approach has more to consider than the one who uses the first approach. It is also true that the present study is a statement intended for use by teachers and course writers who deal not only with linguistic facts but also with the methods in which the facts are presented in specific classroom situations.

This compromise position between the two approaches requires some study of language errors and their uses.

2.5. Language Errors and their uses

Investigation into learners' errors keeps growing. In his own contribution to the literature on error analysis (EA), McKeating (1981)[22] makes the following remarks

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21 Ibid.

22 McKeating, D. "Error Analysis" in The Teaching of English as an International Language: A Practical Guide by G. Abbet & P. Wingard (eds) London: William Collins Sons & Co., 1981, pp.29 ff.

about the errors that learners make. He asserts that there are varying attitudes toward the errors made by language learners. To the native speaker in informal contact with certain non-native speakers, for instance, tourists, "errors are often a matter for amused tolerance", though this will depend to a great extent on his attitude to non-native speakers (foreigners) in general. He observes further that employers (potential and actual), senior colleagues and others have "irrationally" expressed irritation toward errors made. He argues, for instance, that a "few glaring" mistakes made by subordinates can easily have negative results. Such mistakes, he contends, "may be trivial in themselves, but may be those particularly prevalent in local second language usage which therefore, are despised by 'people who know better'".

As for examiners, he opines:

> "some pounce on errors made by candidates. These are usually counted and held against them (their perpetrators). When such errors are commonly occurring, they are held very serious. Such examiners look with less favour on candidates who make them when marking is subjective in approach".

On the part of learners themselves, he claims that their attitude to their own mistakes will depend largely on the factors of personality and on what they know to be the attitude of other people who to them matter, namely: employers, teachers and examiners.

He states further that there are cases of learners who do not regard accuracy as important provided they appear fluent enough to be able to get their meaning across. This

category of learners, he contends, go on happily making countless errors in the foreign language (FL). In a further claim, he says that others are usually worried about the possibility of making mistakes. They are, therefore, hesitant to use the FL at all, except when they are compelled to utter a few one-word utterances or essential written work, the production of which is done with great caution and anxiety. McKeating's observations are prevalent in our classrooms today, especially at the NCE level.

Errors are of great interest and usefulness to the researcher in applied linguistics. But research workers, syllabus designers and materials writers have not reached a stage to be able to make absolute statements of the precise nature and origin of errors in every case even by the same learners. This is due to the fact that most language errors are often traceable to more than one source, some of which are hidden and therefore cannot be traced easily.

Corder (1967, 1971, 1973, 1974b); Wolfe (1967); Duskova (1969); Richards (1971); George (1971, 1972); Wilkins (1972); Headbloom (1979); McKeating (1981) have made the point expressed in the preceding paragraph, some of them in reaction to the structuralists theory of contrastive analysis which attributes virtually all language errors to mother tongue interference.

Error analysis involves collecting errors, studying them, classifying them in various ways and suggesting possible causes. An error analyst can be greatly helped by a direct familiarity with the learning situation in which the errors being analysed by him occur. This direct experience makes it possible for

him not only to interpret the errors "plausibly" and "authoritatively" (Corder 1973, 1974), but also to trace their origins. Furthermore, he can discover, or at least be able to make certain guesses which inform us about what the learner thinks the rules of the foreign language are.

To the teachers, specifically, and others concerned with the study of students' errors, these error analysts will be equipped to give the most relevant help they could to a present group of students. It also helps to plan programmes for future groups. In addition to these, a knowledge of the learners' first language(s) helps the analyst to see clearly the undesirable side-effects of contrastive study for a successful prediction of errors.

Having made these statements as above to describe a situation, certain decisions are taken concerning an aspect English language study often found difficult by foreign learners, albeit NCE learners of the English language, that is, the use and meaning of the models. The decisions are that:

(i) Several simultaneous processes go on (Corder, 1973) when a learner makes an error

(ii) L1 interference or the influence of any other language(s) possessed by the learner is a source of error, nevertheless it accounts for one of the several processes that can be traced as error sources and interference is seen as having contributed to the way NCE learners use the models. Why this group of learners do not discern the shades of meaning which each modal offers is also related to L1 interference.

These conclusions are arrived at, but not without limitations. Etherton (1977) on EA says "For adequate research, an analysis of 8000-12,0000 errors is essential"[23] This condition has not been met in this study. The study, however, is not, in the main, a study of learner error, and it is not expected to be seen as such. Although the aim of the study may point toward this, the information about the error study, including the data on which it is based is, in the light of Etherton's contention too brief than would otherwise have been the case. One major constraint is that I had no space for more than a small number of samples whereas, copious data samples and detailed analysis would have formed a major part of a study primarily on learner error.

The learner use (error) approach adopted in this study is because of the need for Levels 2 and 3 materials, directed specifically to the relative need of NCE learners. Such materials need to be focused on, or partly determined by, specific learning problems identified (or predicted). In this case, such problems have been identified from Level 1 material.

It is desirable to use elicitation techniques for elaborate verification in a learner error analysis proper. Even though this study includes mild elicitation exercises, the result does not justifiably represent elaborate verification due to the limited scope and nature of this research. Errors traced, and uses made of the models by NCE learners, cannot be said to be systematic. Because of

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[23] Etherton, A.R.B. "Error Analysis: Problems and Procedure" ELTJ 32, 1, 1977.

these constraints, the findings do not ascertain a general validity.

In spite of these limitations, there are sufficient reasons to justify the instructional materials on the modals at Levels 2 and 3 in this study. These have been carefully worked out on the basis of the study of the meaning and use of the English modals at NCE level.

2.6. The Modals and the levels at which they have been described

The modals have been described at three levels (see Chapter one) each with pedagogical implications for both the teacher and the learner.

In trying to describe the English modals, especially for ESL usage, the course writer faces two broad types of problems. The first set of problems are learning problems. The ESL learners (specifically Nigerian learners) generally do not know the restrictions placed upon usage because of the regional differences between American English (AmE) and British English (BrE). For instance, the contracted negative "mayn't" is restricted to BrE, where, even then, it is rarely used, while "shan't" is also rare in AmE. Furthermore, "ought" regularly selects the infinitive + "to" in BrE, but in AmE, the bare infinitive is used occasionally in negative sentences and questions. Cf

He oughtn't drink beer so much

Ought you drink/eat so much

"Should" is more commonly used in both cases.

The second set of problems relates to the past tense morphemes of the modals. The "past forms" of the paired modals do not often refer to past time. Take MAY, for instance, in which its corresponding past form "might" does not regularly mark time relations.

The man may come, and

The man might come

do not indicate present/past time relations. Compare SHALL and CAN in the following

I shall tell him. I should tell him.

Can he remember? Could he remember?

Gaps are left in the expression of past modality not only by the absence of past tense forms for "must" and "need" but by the non-occurence of certain meanings of "might" and "should".[24] This contention becomes apparently clear after a quick look at the following table which shows most modals that have special past tense forms

Present	Past
May	might
can	could
will	would
shall	should
need	-
must	-

The issue in this second problem is the fact that it is very difficult to formulate general linguistic rules that can

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[24] For a more detailed discussion on modal auxiliary in relation to tense see Leech, G.N. Meaning and the English Verb. Longman, 1971, pp.90-93.

account for satisfactory usage of the present and past forms of the modals without having to make very many exceptions. For example, in indirect speech, usage follows the usual pattern of tense form, for example

"He'll come" becomes "He said he would come",

and

"He may come" becomes "He said he might come".

But modals such as MUST, NEED, DARE, OUGHT have only one tense form which are always used to refer to both tense. This is part of the problem the modals pose to ESL learners.

This problem dates back from the earliest nineteenth century traditional grammar books to the present day. In modern usage, for instance, reference to future events in English can be done in several ways which includes the use of "will" and "shall". Jespersen's familiar shall and will paradigm in their collocation with personal pronouns when these modal auxiliaries were seen as markers of "the future tense" best illustrates this problem, namely:

I shall	Will I?
You will	Shall you?
He will	Will he?
We shall	Will we?
They will	Will they?

Jespersen's paradigmatic contentions, for example, probably held true up to a point in his own days, but hardly does today, but its persistence in Nigerian classrooms as part of the study on English usage gives much concern to modern teachers of English including the present author. The fact is that shall and will often function as modal auxiliaries carrying

an attitudinal implication (promise, threat, determination, probability).

Adetugbo (1976), further extends the simple future paradigm for modal usage. He changes the order of collocation with personal pronouns, thus

I will	Shall I?
You shall	Will you?
He shall	Shall he?
We will	Shall we?
They shall	Shall they?

It is clear from Adetugbo's contention, that both paradigms do not give us a full picture of the appropriate use of shall and will in referring to plain future (time). In modern ELT, it is conventional to say "Will you?" to refer to either plain future (time) or modality. It is preferred to "Shall you?"

The meaning of the modals has both a logical and practical element and this has mainly accounted for the difficulty in using them. In meaning, the modals, express thoughts rather than real life situations (non-actual situations). By non-actual situations, it is meant events expressed in situations that have not in fact taken place. Modals do not report objective events. Instead, we can talk about them in terms of such logical notions they convey as opinions, permission, necessity, obligations et cetera. Since most of the human intercourse is concerned with just such concepts, we, then have to consider ways in which these notions become remoulded by the psychological pressures which influence everyday communication between human beings: factors such as condescension, politeness, tact and irony.

The value of a thorough knowledge of the modals becomes apparent if good communication is to be maintained. Herein lies the usefulness and freshness of the present study.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0. SAMPLE MATERIALS AT LEVEL ONE:

3.1. A Pedagogical Grammar of Modal Auxiliaries

3.1. Introduction

In this chapter we attempt to describe English modals in terms of their semantic and syntactic features. Only the following modals are described: can, may, will and shall and some of their morphological and syntactic analogues such as could, might, would and should. Others include must, ought to, used to, need and dare. The study treats the modals as part of the general class of auxiliary verbs. It does not however cover everything that has to be said about English modals. What it does essentially is to look at their characteristic behaviour in utterances (sentences) and distinguish between the primary and secondary functions of modals.

It is pertinent to state at this introductory stage that all modals, except "shall" have two main functions - primary and secondary. In their primary use, they express some degree of freedom, or lack of it, to act (from complete liberty to inescapable prohibition), and this freedom, or lack of it, can apply to the speaker, or to the person(s) he is addressing, or to some person(s) to whom he is referring. In their secondary function, all except shall act as one of the devices English has for allowing a speaker to give his evaluation of the truth of the statement he is making (the use of disjunct

adverbials and also the use of seem and verbs of similar meaning are some of other devices). Consider the following examples:

(a) Apparently, the Principal has rejected the offer.

(b) It seems the Principal is addressing the students in the hall.

Both of these functions have been included in the description of the models at Level 1 of this study.

From the considerations of the syntactic and morphological properties of the models, we can safely conclude that the freedom of combination which lexical verbs have does not apply to the models. It is, however, appropriate to still regard them "as part of a close-knit sequence",[1] in which even the paradigms (appendix III) have shown that they occur in complex phrases.

Toward the end of material at Level 1, there is a summary section (3.11.1) in which the models are re-classified or re-grouped according to meaning. The distinctions among the members of each meaning group are highlighted by exemplification in juxtaposed sentences. This provides an alternative way of looking at this class of auxiliary verbs, and reinforces an English as a second language learner's understanding of them.

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[1] Palmer, F.R. The English Verb. Longman, 1974, p.100.

3.1.1. Meaning of the Modals

The chief meanings of the modals are represented in their use to convey a variety of moods or attitudes that indicate a possible state or action. These are clearly shown or embodied in the following sections, modelled largely after Quirk et al (1972), but also Palmer (1974) and Leech (1971).

3.2. CAN/COULD

3.2.1. (i) Can

The fundamental theme in "can" is "what the speaker assumes to be the freedom to act".[22] Ability, permission (that someone else has given us) and possibility, that is, the opportunities that circumstances provide may have been responsible for our freedom to act.

(a) Ability

Ability means I can = I am able to = I have the ability to = I know how to = I am capable of, with reference to my present ability. For example

1. I can speak Hausa correctly now but I can't write it very well.

In this sense an adverb of manner, such as correctly, is usable with can, and that can often precedes verbs of perception e.g. speak, hear, see, smell et cetera.

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[2] Close, R.A. A Reference Grammar for Students of English. Longman, 1975, p.269.

T refer to future ability, we should have to say

2. I'll be able to speak French correctly after a few more oral laboratory lessons.

(b) Permission

When can is used to express permission it is less formal than may. It has the meaning of be allowed to = be permitted to e.g.

3. Can I eat in here?

It is expected that an affirmative answer to 3 would be

Yes, you can

a negative,

No, (I'm afraid) you can't

Cf 4. Permission has been granted. He can now go for his lunch.

To refer to future permission, one can say

5. I can eat in here tomorrow afternoon.

6. Permission is granted. We can go next week.

(c) Possibility

I can = it is possible that/to = have the chance to e.g.

7. Man can make mistakes

8. I can sit at home and watch all the world cup football matches in comfort.

9. The auxiliary gate can be blocked (theoretical possibility) of 9 above with

10. The auxiliary gate may be blocked (factual possibility)

For use as future possibility, we can say

11. We can sit at home tomorrow and watch the finals of the world cup football match in comfort.

12. We can stand at the popular side of the stadium (to watch the match).

To reinforce the future reference we would replace "can" by "'ll be able to", "'ll be allowed to", and "'ll be free to" to represent ability, permission, and possibility respectively.

3.2.2. Could (To have freedom to act in the past).

(a) Ability = I could = was able to e.g.

13. I could speak French correctly then.

14. I never could play the guitar.

15. I told you I could speak French.

"We could" suggests possibility but does not mean we made successful use of the freedom to act. For example

16. I could pass the test

does not mean that I succeeded in passing it.

To indicate "freedom to act + achievement"

We could say

17. I { was able to pass / managed to / succeeded in passing } the test.

Whereas

18. I couldn't pass the examination

suggests that I did not have the capacity and therefore did not try or did not succeed;

while

19. I could have passed the test

means that I have the capacity and

(have not used)
( ) it
(did not use)

and either did not take the test or took it and failed.

(b) Permission

We could = we were allowed to = we were free to

20. Could we ert in here?

21. The Vice Chancellor was always available. We could see him at any time (i.e. we were always free to see him).

22. Cf You never came to see him. Why not. You could have seen him at any time (but you didn't).

(c) Possibility

In the following uses, "could" have future as well as present reference and has also served as a milder, more hesitant alternative for "can"

23. Go when you like. It couldn't bother me.

24. You could come now if you liked.

25. Could I borrow your car?

26. I could see you next week.

3.3.0. MAY/MIGHT

3.3.1. (i) May

(a) Permission

In colloquial English, 'may' signals permission given by the speaker. In more

formal contexts, however, the meaning is not limited in this way, but is extended to general permission without respect to who does the permitting.

In its primary use "may" refers to permission given to the speaker with its chief meanings as "be allowed to", "be permitted to" as in

27. A. May I smoke in this room?
    B. Yes, you may or
       No, you may not.
28. She may have a drive in my car if she likes.

In formal English usage, "can" is replaced by "may" which is often considered more polite and more "correct" than "can". An instruction to visitors in the National Assembly might say

29. Members of the public may sit at the gallery

thus preferring <u>may</u> to <u>can</u> as a more natural mood in conversation.

(b) <u>Possibility</u>

The use of <u>may</u> to mean "it is possible that/to" is common in statements but does not occur, however, in questions.

30. Careful, that point five metres away may be a booby-trap
31. He may never pass his examinations
32. She may not return in time, if she hasn't a guide

The ambiguity in writing between the use of <u>may</u> in the "possibility" sense (stressed) and in the sense of "permission" (unstressed) is usually resolved in speech, thus

33. You may leave next week (permission)

34. You MAY leave next week (possibility)[3]

Might is the past equivalence of may in reported speech e.g.

35. He said I might borrow the car

but 'might' is not used as past for 'may' in direct speech, thus the past of

36. You may leave next week

would be

37. You {could / = were allowed to} leave the following wee

or

38. You could leave the following week. Why wouldn't you?

(c) Benediction and Maledictin[4]

In certain utterances with exclamation as end punctuation marks, may refers to "benediction" and "malediction", for instance

39. May his dangerous manipulations stop!

40. May Allah grant him eternal peace!

The structure shows an inversion of the subject and the modal.

3.3.2 (ii) Might

(a) Permission

41. Might I borrow your book?

42. Might I take that seat away?

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[3] Leech, G.N. Meaning and the English Verb. Longman.
[4] Ibid, 1971, p.68, p.69.

The speeker in this use of might does not assume that permission will be granted, hence its use in this sense suggests more uncertainty than may. Even if the answer to both questions is

43. Yes, you might

the enquirer would still not be sure that a free permission has been given

(b) Possibility

44. The error you pointed out might be guess work

45. What you did might be realistic

46. The response to the toast might be accepted

3.4.0. WILL/WOULD

3.4.1. (i) Will

The temporal theme of "will" is to refer to future time. But for its uses as a modal auxiliary verb, in addition to the idea of futurity, "will" expresses either volition or confident certainty that a future event will take place. Volition expressed by "will" could be in three degrees, namely: weak, intermediate and strong volitions. Except for an idea strongly stressed (="insist on") "will" can be contracted to "'ll" (a) Weak Volition (willingness)

Notice the following uses of "will" in questions:

47. {Will / Won't} you have a piece of cake?

48. Have a piece of meat {will / won't} you?

49. Who will have some tea?

In making the offers the speaker has shown much willingness (weak volition). Similarly, invitations can be issued using a rising intonation; for example

50. {Will / Won't} you come into the hall? } rising intonation

51. Come into the hall {will / won't} you } rising intonation

To make a request the modal <u>will</u> may be used. The speaker takes compliance for granted.

52. Lend me your book for three hours will you?

To express weak Volition, downtoners like (please, kindly etc) may be used to soften the tone in requests e.g.

53. Will you (kindly) lend me your book for three hours?

(b) Intermediate Volition = Intention

54. I'll send a message as soon as I get there.

"Will" is contracted and its use is mainly first person.

(c) Strong Volition

In this case an uncommon meaning of "will" is always expressed. "Will" is stressed to mean "insist on" e.g.

55. She WILL come whatever happens = she insists on coming. Cf

56. She SHALL come whatever happens = she insists on her coming.

(d) Prediction

In using "will" one may be specific, timeless or habitual, e.g. -

57. The match {will / must / should} be over by now (specific).

58. Cast iron will sink/sinks when floated (timeless)

59. She'll (always) smile anytime she meets a man (habitual). "Will" is used to give a command with a falling intonation.

Strong volition is expressed, as in

60. Will you get out? } falling intonation
61. Get out, will you? }

"Shall" could not replace "will" in the following examples without alteration in meaning, "will" expresses

(i) a determined speaker or of a third party

62. {I / / He} will have {my / / his} way i.e. {I am / / He is} determined to have it.

63. I/He will not (or won't) be bullied.

(ii) persistent habit on the part of the person referred to by the subject.

64. I/You/He will leave that door open.

65. You/He won't leave me alone.

(iii) a characteristic habit

66. Granny will sit and play with the baby for hours

(iv) a promise

67. She'll take her pay next week, I promise you

(v) an order

68. The class will wait there till I return.

69. All staff except the Typist will leave this room at once.

(vi) willingness on the part of the person referred to by the subject.

70. If you'll give an aid, he'll pass his examinations.

3.4.2. (ii) Would

"Would" serves as a milder more hesitant modal that can replace "will". It expresses willingness e.g.

71. Would you come into the hall now? Cf

72. Would you { like to go / prefer to go / mind going / be interested in going } instead of the Principal?

73. A. What's the matter with Chris? Has he gone crazy.

In 72 and 73 will cannot replace would.

To express insistence, would is stressed and it indicates typical behaviour and cannot be replaced by either will or should, for example

74. It's your own fault; you would take the baby with you.

75. You've lost a button off your jacket. You WOULD do that, just on our way to the party.

76. Jack would make a fun of it.

Would can be used to express probability e.g.

77. That would be his coat.

It can also express hypothetical meaning in the main clause

78. She would drink too much if I didn't stop him.

3.5.0. SHALL/SHOULD

3.5.1. (a) Shall

The basic theme in both temporal auxiliary "shall" and the modal is "futurity". "Shall" is used to express

(i) an obstinate attitude on the part of the speaker with regard to his own actions:

79. A. Please don't fight.

B. I shall fight if I want to. Cf

80. I "will, 'll" fight if I want to.

In (80) the tone of obstinacy will then be weakened.

(ii) decision or determination on the part of the speaker with regard to the future of someone else.

81. You shall have all the things you asked for.

In this usage, "You shall" is replaceable by

"I promise (that) you will".

82. The hostile team shall lose, i.e., We are determined to let them lose.

83. We { agree / have decided / proposed } that each member of the club shall be asked to pay an annual subscription of ₦100.00

. "Should be" or simple "be" can replace "shall be" in 83.

The modal "shall" occurs in statements with second- and third-person subjects in volitional use. Willingness (weak volition) on the part of the speaker has restricted use

84. He shall get his prize.

85. You shall play with us as long as you like.

86. Good pet, you shall have a chunk of meat when we get home.

The most widely used meaning of "shall" today is that of intention (intermediate volition) of the speaker especially in British English. It occurs only in first person.

87. I shan't stay long.

88. We shall communicate our decision.

89. We shall conquer.

A third meaning of the modal "shall" is that of insistence (strong volition) on the part of the speaker.

90. You shall carry out the repairs.

91. He shall be present.

92. No one shall stop me.

For legal and quasi-legal use we could have

93. The publishers shall keep a stable price for a five-year period.

The modal "shall" occurs in questions:

94. (Shall I call for a drink at once?) first
(I'll call for a drink at once, shall I?) singular person

"Shall I" in 94 can be replaced by "would you like me to". In first person plural usage, a suggestion is implied, thus

95. Shall we have lunch at Samaru Restaurant?
Let's have lunch at Samaru Restaurant, shall we?
"Shall we" in 95 is replaceable by "I suggest".

3.5.2. (b) Should

(i) The model "should" can be used to express obligation and logical necessity (= ought to)

96. Musa should attend. It is {his duty / advisable}

97. They should be there by now.

98. He should not have rejected the offer.

(ii) After certain expressions "shall" has putative[5] use, e.g. ("it's a pity that, I am surprised that" et cetera.

99. It is unusual that you should do this to me.

100. I am sorry that such should have happened.

(iii) "should" can optionally replace "would" after "I" or "we" in sentences with conditional clauses.

Its use is hypothetical and in first person only.

{I / We} {should / would} love to go to London for a change if we can afford it.

(iv) "Should" cannot be replaced by "would" in tentative condition in conditional clauses.

101. I asked if I should go for a walk.

102. If you should need a help, please give me a a telephone call.

3.6.0. Must

3.6.1. Obligation or Compulsion (in the present tense imposed by the speaker). Inescapable obligation is expressed in

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5 Quirk et al, op cit., p.100.

103. You must return by dusk.

104. We must all bring our records up to date.

105. Tell her she must not go for swimming.

"Have to" can replace "must" while "Have got to" is used in informal style, as in

106. We {all have to / = 've got to} bring our records up to date.

When used in this sense, it carries a suggestion that the obligation is prescribed by someone (e.g. a head/leader), or by a rule. Except in reported speech, only "had to" (not "must") is used in the past e.g.

107. Yesterday we had to return by dusk (direct speech).

108. The Head of Department reminded us (that) we must (all/all had to) bring our records up to date.

Future referential use is same as present except that future reference can be made stronger as in

109. We'll all have to bring our records up to date.

For negative of "must" "needn't", "don't have to", "not obliged to" are used (but not "must not" or "musn't"). The negative of 109 would be

110. We {needn't / don't have to / are not obliged to / haven't got to / don't need to} bring our records up to date.

This usage implies that there is no obligation to do so. However, in expressions like

111. You {must not / = are not to} lose any copy of the minutes.

prohibition is implied.

3.7.0. OUGHT TO

3.7.1. "Ought to" expresses obligation and logical necessity and therefore can replace "should".

112. We thought that {ought to / should} go

113. Amina {ought to / should} have gone.

Why {hasn't she gone? / didn't she go?}

114. You {ought to / should} begin at once.

The following six operations demonstrate the full use of the modal "ought to".

115. (a) He {ought not / oughtn't} to {reject / have rejected}

(b) Ought we to go?

(c) {Ought we not / Oughtn't we} to go

(d) We ought to go, {ought we not / oughtn't we / should we not / shouldn't we}?

(e) We ought to go.

(f) We ought to go and so {ought / should} you?

3.8.0. USED TO /justə/

3.8.1. "Used to" means a state or habit that existed in the past but has ceased e.g.

116. He used to drink for days without food.

117. {He used to be / He was formally / He was once} an ace footballer.

Cf.

118. (a) He {used not / usedn't} to drink alcohol.

(b) Used he to drink alcohol?

(c) Usedn't he to drink alcohol?

(d) He used to drink alcohol, didn't he?

(e) He used to drink, and so did she.

There is need to distinguish between 118d as above - "He used (not) to drink alcohol" from

119. He's (not) used to drinking alcohol.

3.9.0. NEED

3.9.1. As a modal auxiliary, "need" functions only in its negative form or where there is implied negation, and in questions. Used with any of the negators, we could have

120. I need {hardly / ever / scarcely} suggest that to you.

or

121. I (scarcely / hardly) suggest that to you.

A negation in a main clause may justify "need", as a modal, in a dependent clause:

122. I am not sure that you need go,

as opposed to its use as a full verb in

123. I am quite sure that you need to work hard.

One major meaning recognizable for "need" is that it is merely a denial of an obligation or duty. Thus

124. You needn't bother about that.

"Need" appears to have past tense forms with HAVE

125. You needn't have bothered about it.

"Need" as a modal scarcely occurs in questions but the negative "He needn't come" can be inverted thus:

126. Need he come?

3.10.0. DARE

3.10.1. "Dare" as a modal occurs in negative contexts and in questions: e.g.

127. I can't look down.

I (daren't (modal) / = don't dare to (full verb))

128. I couldn't fight. I (daren't (modal) / = don't dare to (full verb))

129. (Dare we / = Do we dare (to)) come?

130. I am not sure that I dare come yet.

131. How dare you behave to him like that?

As a modal with past reference, "dare" can be used thus:

132. I never dare tell him, but as full verb, in

133. I never dared (to) tell him.

In its use as a full, non-defective verb, "dare" is used thus:

134. The soldier hesitated, not daring to pull the trigger.

The idiomatic use of dare in the affirmative will result in

135. I dare say you're right.

3.11.●. SUMMARY: CLASSIFICATION OF MODALS BY MEANING TYPE

3.11.1. Prediction: shall, will

Consider the following

(a) I think I shall/will/'ll attend the meeting.

In this sentence "'ll" makes the formal distinction between shall and will obscure and thus creates a problem. The precise meaning of "'ll" would be made clear only by the context, situation or intonation:

(i) I think I shall attend the meeting ('pure' future)

(ii) I think I will attend the meeting ('pure' future or intonation?)

(iii) I think I'll attend the meeting ('i' or 'ii'?)

(b) The match will be over by now (specific prediction).

(c) Cast iron should/will sink/sinks when floated (timeless prediction).

(d) She'll always smile any time she meets a man (habitual prediction).

(e) By next week I'll have moved into the new house (will/shall used to express past in future in English).

(f) Tonight the cyclists will have been riding their bicycles continuously for eighteen hours (perfect progressive infinitive).

(g) This time next week I shall be directing my p play in Kano (progressive infinitive).

Note that there are many ways of referring to future events in English, and the use of shall and will is among the many means at our disposal. Consider the following types:[6]

(i) will/shall + Infinitive

(ii) be going to + Infinitive

(iii) Present Progressive

(iv) will/shall + progressive Infinitive

(v) Simple Present

3.11.2. Ability: Can, Could

(a) I can speak Hausa correctly now but I can't write it very well ("can" means "I am able to",

[6] See Graver, B.D. Advanced English Practice. O.U.P., 1971, p55; and Leech, G.N. Meaning and the English Verb, Longman, 1971, p.64-5.

"I have the ability to", "I am capable of" with reference to my present ability).

(b) I could speak French correctly then (suggests "was able to").

(c) I could pass the test (it is not suggested that I succeeded in passing it).

(d) I could have passed the test ("could" means I have the capacity and either "have not used it" or "did not use it".

3.11.3. Permission: Can, Could, May, Might

Study the following sentences:

(a) Musa: Can I eat in here? (an affirmative answer is expected hence

Binta: Yes, you can.

(b) Permission is granted. We can go next week (reference to future permission).

(c) The V.C. was always available. We could see him at any time (i.e. we were always free to see him).

(d) You never come to see him. Why not? You could have seen him at any time (but you didn't).

(e) She may have a drive in my car if she likes.

(f) Members of the public may sit at the gallery ("May replaces "can" in formal English usage, and it is often considered more polite and more "correct" than "can".

(g) Might I borrow your book?

(h) Might I take the seat away? (In (g) and (h) the speaker does not assume that permission

will be granted. The use of might in this sense suggests more uncertainty than may).

3.11.4. Possibility: Can, Could, May, Might

(a) Man can make mistakes.

(b) I/We can sit at home and watch all the matches in comfort ("can" has been used to express "it is possible that/to", "have the chance to")

(c) You could come now if you like.

(d) Could I borrow your pen?

(e) I could see you next week.

In these uses (c-e) "could" has future as well as present reference and has also served as milder, more hesitant alternative for "can".

(f) He may never pass his examinations.

(g) Careful, that gun may be loaded.

(h) The error you pointed out might be guess work.

(i) The response to the toast might be accepted

("May" and "might" in examples (f-i) express "it is possible that/to". This usage is common in statements but does not occur in questions.

3.11.5. General Characteristics: Can, Could

(a) A house in Kano can cost a lot of money.

(b) She could feel very miserable when she was angry

(Neither of these sentences refers to an actual occurrence of the phenomena referred to, and "be able" is not

used as a substitute for "can" or "could" in such sentences).

3.11.6. Benediction and Malediction: May[7]

(a) May his evil designs perish!

(b) May God grant you happiness!

The use of "may" has been characterised by inversion of the subject and auxiliary verb. There are no interrogative, negative or Past Tense forms (see also 39, 40 of preceding section).

3.11.7. Volition: Will, Shall, Would

(a) Will you have a piece of cake?

(b) Will you (kindly) lend me your book for two hours?

(c) He shall get his prize.

(d) You shall play with us as long as you like.

(e) Would you come into the hall now? ("would" serves as a milder, more hesitant modal that can replace "will" to express willingness. In 7a-e, much willingness is expressed (weak volition) on the part of the speaker.

(f) I'll send a message as soon as I get there.

(g) We shall communicate our decision.

(h) We shall conquer.

Intention of the speaker (intermediate volition) is expressed in (f-g). It is the most widely used meaning of "shall" today, especially in British English. It occurs only in first person.

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[7] The exclamatory use of "may" is very formal and is rarely found in modern English. Leech, G.N. Meaning and the English Verb. Longman, 1971, p.69.

A third meaning of will/shall is that of insistence (strong volition):

(i) She WILL come whatever happens (she insists on coming).

(j) She SHALL come whatever happens = I insist on his coming.

(k) You shall carry out the repairs.

(l) Will you get out?)
(m) Get out, will you?) } falling intonation.

(n) It's your own fault; you WOULD take the baby with you ("would" is stressed to express insistence and indicate typical behaviour and can't be replaced by "will" or "should").

3.11.8. Obligation and necessity: Should, Must, Ought to

(a) Musa should attend. It is his duty/advisable.

(b) He should not have rejected the offer Cf

(c) You must return by dusk.

(d) We must all bring our records up to date ('must' express inescapable obligation).

(e) We thought that Amina should/ought to go.

(f) You should/ought to begin at once.

Other meaning types includes

3.11.9. Expectation or Probability: should not Ought to

(a) The next harvest should/ought to reduce prices of food items.

(b) He should/ought to have passed his examination easily (reference to expectations in past time

may indicate that expectations were not realised or fulfilled).

3.11.10. Advice and recommendation: Shall, Should, Ought to

(a) A. Shall I try this number again?
B. Yes, please do.

(b) You should/ought to see a doctor if you're still feeling ill tomorrow.

(c) You should/ought to play that game. You'd enjoy it.

3.11.11. Belief and conjecture: Will, Would

(a) You will already be familiar with this environment ("will" and "would" used with the present infinitive to refer to present time).

(b) He wouldn't be a friend of yours, I suppose?

(c) Would your food be ready, by any chance?

To refer to past time, "will" and "would" is used with the perfect infinitive:

(d) Ibrahim: I met a pretty lady at your party last night.
Musa: Ah, yes! That will/would be my niece Hajara.

3.11.12. Characteristic Behaviour: Will, Would

(a) Whenever he has a mathematical problem to solve, he will work at it until he finds an answer (a statement having general current validity and not a prediction); cf

(b) Whenever he had a mathematical problem to solve, he would work at it until he found an answer (reference to a similar situation in past time.)

3.11.13. Inherent Capacity: Will, Would

(a) The naira in your wallet will buy far less today than it would a decade ago (possession of an inherent quality).

(b) This brief case will hold everything.

(c) The car wouldn't start (Cf. The car refused to start).

In these examples "will" for present time and "would" for past time may refer to the possession of an inherent quality or capacity in relation to things (as opposed to people).

3.11.14. Inference and Logical Conclusion: Must, Can't

(a) She must be at least eighty. Cf

(b) Ali: She must be at least eighty.

Dodo: Oh no! She can't be anything like as old as that ("can't" in this sense being the opposite of "must"). Ali is almost certain that "she" is not. In reported speech, this dialogue becomes:

(c) Ali said she must at least be eighty, but Dodo thought she couldn't be anything like as old as that.

3.11.15. Legal or Quasi-Legal: Shall

The contract shall remain in force for five years.

3.11.16. State or Habit No more Existing: Used to.

(a) He used to drink for days without food.

(b) He used to be/was formally/was once an ace footballer.

3.11.17. Used to as a Negative: Need

(a) I need never/hardly/scarcely suggest that to you, or

(b) I scarcely/hardly suggest that to you.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0. SAMPLE MATERIALS AT LEVEL TWO: Analysis of the Meaning and Use of the English Modals by NCE Learners

4.1. Introduction

There are two main parts to this chapter. The first part deals with the need to identify students' problem. This section discusses various ways/ approaches by which this can be done. Attention is drawn to strengths and weaknesses of each approach in before justifying the combined approaches adopted in this study.

Preliminary information about the learners precedes the second part. This part describes the elicitation procedure that was used in arriving at Level 2 material. The processes actually involved and the information yielded are clearly stated and further presented in Table 1-9.. How the results derived have been turned into valuable pedagogic use is also described.

4.2. The need for identifying learners' problem(s)

There are two main purposes in studying learners problems. First, it enables teachers, syllabus designers and materials writers to give the most relevant help they could, to a particular group of learners, and second, it helps them to plan programmes for the future. Many teachers often base their judgment on a general impression rather than any objective count of errors made in comparison with instances of correct usage. It is desirable, for

class teaching purposes, to check just how many students actually did make a particular error and how many used that language item correctly. If the finding reveals that there is only a small group of learners involved, the teacher is saved from having to bore a larger group of the class unnecessarily in relation to both time and interest.

Similarly, a rather more careful study might reveal that learners' problems relate, for instance, not to "the modals" in general, but only to a particular type of modal, in presenting this area of grammar to students. This helps the teacher to plan the necessary remedial work and/or developmental programme as it is the case in this study (see 4.5(b)iii.

A survey of needs of a present group may help teachers to predict the likely problem areas of a future similar group, although no two groups are likely to have exactly the same problem. Plans, therefore, should be modified to suit each group accordingly. However, practical classroom constraints are such that students of the same age and with similar language learning backgrounds are quite often assumed to have similar problems and therefore brought under the same instructional process.

Furthermore, in trying to identify learners' needs, a study may reveal certain learning items which will require special attention and extra practice. A thorough analysis of learners needs may also suggest modifications in teaching techniques or order of presentation of material if a teacher has reasons for

suspecting that some of the students' problems may have been caused or added to by the order in which a particular item was presented.

These considerations have guided us in this study.

4.3. Approaches to data collection on learners' problem area

Researchers who wish to discover, or at least make informed guesses about language produced by the FL learner may adopt any or a combination of the following approaches. As earlier stated, we were ecclectic in adopting three of the four suggested approaches.

(a) Analysis of both correct and incorrect instances of language used

A "Performance Analysis" as opposed to "Error Analysis" (Abbot & Wingard, 1981: 215) is desirable, both for research into learning process and for pedagogic purposes. The approach requires a consideration of learners' overall performance. The data accruing from such study will include errors, but will also include instances of correct usage. To the researcher, they may be of equal interest because

(i) they indicate what learners have learnt, or appear to have learnt, as well as what they have not; and

(ii) they point to areas where instability or uncertainty prevails.

The erratic and unstable nature of many a learner's performance is a weakness of this approach. We often find a learner getting things right in one paragraph and the same item wrong in the next. This has been regarded as "carelessness". But learners who make this error work on assumption of trying out first one "rule" and then another such that he seems more likely to be right some of the time.

(iii) A third value of this approach may reveal the extent of the damage, that is, whether the learner misunderstands a whole linguistic system or whether the ignorance or uncertainty is confined to a small part of that system or even one item.

This approach was principally used for data collection in this study.

(b) Collecting data from individual learners or groups

Any research into learning processes demands data from individuals at various stages of learning - data which "can be used for making 'longitudinal studies' of an individual's progress" (Abbot & Wingard, 1981: 216).

In a classroom situation, teachers are more likely to be interested in the performance of whole groups,

and especially with the problems they have in common. Data for the identification of such problems should come from a fairly homogenous group, taking into consideration such variables as MT, age, previous teaching and language experience, and if possible learners' intelligence. The most important of these variables, especially in the study of pronunciation is mother tongue with the implication of 'negative transfer' or interference.

A knowledge of which problems are common to the various groups is interesting and instructive. They may be the very problems that teachers can do most to prevent in the future by a change of teaching method.

This approach was adopted, for instance, in determining Level 2 material with its corresponding items at Level 3 to illustrate the use of "will" in the expression of strong volition, that is, "insist on".

(c) Obtaining a variety of data

In this approach, samples of language from as wide a variety of sources as possible are examined. For example, in a sample of learners' pronunciations McKeating (1981) says

> It is usually necessary to consider errors of pronunciation and speech perception as well as written samples. Many spelling errors and some errors of syntax, e.g. non-use of regular past tense endings, may have their origin in the faulty perception of speech, which in turn is often reflected in pronunciation.

> Conversely, some teachers only become aware of their students' problems in perception and pronunciation through a study of their written work".[1]

This contention is true because written errors are more obvious than those orally made. Teachers tend to be much tolerant, or much less aware of students variations in pronunciation than they are of mistakes found in written work.

A consideration of a variety of data from one mode, reasonably leads to a thorough analysis of students' needs. An analysis should not be based on one writing task. Using one set of compositions on a given topic may not yield the required results either. A writing assignment on a narrative essay may require the use of one tense throughout. Whether learners would be able to handle a greater range of tense use would not be revealed. Any analysis based on these considerations is bound to be very limited.

Language work produced over, say, a whole term or semester during which a wide variety of writing tasks has been attempted will be useful for an analysis to determine problem areas. Of particular usefulness are examination scripts. They represent an additional source of data which reflects the students language work. They contrast with work done at other times, in which learners or students are often guided or controlled.

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[1] McKeating, D. op cit., 1981, p.

The design of this study took into consideration issues discussed in this approach.

(d) Using the elicitation technique for data collection

Data may be collected from a wide variety of exercises and sources. They do not always reveal all the problem areas because of learners avoidance strategy due probably to uncertainty and confusion. Herein lies the limitation of reliance on examination scripts as the only source from which data is collected. Learners or students tend to "play it safe" by using only the language they feel confident about.

A solution to this is to induce usage of language through elicitation. This technique aims at putting the learner in a position where he has to use a particular language item and thus reveal his true ability in that particular area.

These approaches precludes Etherton's (1977) general approach to error study.

In the present study, a combination of three of the four approaches, that is, "a", "b" & "d" above was adapted in obtaining the data. These approaches allow for great care to be taken in the choice of materials for analysis. It is assumed that a failure to choose adequate range of materials may invalidate the whole analysis.

The following principles have guided in this aspect of the study:

(i) Using written composition which was done at school, under supervision and without undue assistance.

Topics elicited were aimed at getting the students to use the modals.

(ii) Using answer scripts of two final-year examinations. These were analysed in search of students' use of the modals. These uses were not consciously induced.

(iii) Frequency count in errors made by students was not emphasised.

(iv) It is assumed that students have heard lessons on the modals (in their first year). The analysis is derived from their knowledge and use of the modals having been taught these (modals) as prescribed in their first year grammar syllabus.

4.4. Preliminaries on the Learners

The learners for this study belonged to a wide variety of Nigerian ethnic groups associated with the complex heterogenous linguistic situation. The linguistic groups into which the learners fall range from the Nigerian major languages like Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba to minor ones which include Kanuri, Tiv, Idoma, Nupe, Igala, Ebira, Fulfude, Gwari, Angas, Edo, Ogori, and Kaje. As a language for wider communication or of immediate environment, Hausa, and to some extent Yoruba, were widely spoken either as L1 or as a second alternative language (Wilkins, 1972) by the subjects whose scripts were analysed. A rough estimate shows

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[2] National Policy on Education, 1977.

that about 60% of the subjects understood and used Hausa, 22% Yoruba, and the last 18% spoke between them more than twenty clearly identifiable but assorted languages including those mentioned above.

One characteristic they share in common is that of their previous linguistic experiences. It is revealed that each of them has a minimum of nine years of instruction in English in a formal (classroom) setting before they were admitted to read the NCE course. More than half of the population had taught in primary schools. Over 90% of them used English as a medium of instruction and many more taught it as a subject. A good number of the subjects spoke English in other situations, for instance, at staff meetings and other social informal conversations.

All of them had either a "pass" and above in TC II English Language paper or GCE (O/L) or WASC Examination in English Language or a combination of these. In addition to such a background experience in English, they all received a two-year instruction in the NCE General English course.[3] The FL spoken by the subjects include Arabic (12%) and French (quite a negligible number). The average age of the learners involved in the study is about twenty-five, though there is an extreme age range of between sixteen and forty.

For those who taught in the primary school prior to their admission into the NCE course, their teaching experience ranged from months to twelve years both with or without break

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[3] See appendix II - a table showing the summary of the NCE English Programme for which General English forms a part.

in service, and/or professional qualification as a teacher, i.e. Teachers' Grades III and II certificates.

4.5. Data Analysis: Procedure

Two colleges were used for the research. They were the Advanced Teachers' Colleges in Kano and Zaria. Examination scripts of two generations of NCE final year students were randomly sampled and analysed. To guard against students who may 'play it safe' by using only the language they feel confident about during examinations, a further analysis of usage of the modals through elicitation provided additional information about learners' needs, that is, Level 2 materials.

Both the examination scripts and elicited essays that form the corpus examined in this study were productions of students from all the four academic divisions of the colleges; namely:

1. Arts (English, History, Geography, Religion)
2. Science (Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, PHE).
3. Education (Philosophy, Psychology, Sociology) and
4. Vocations (Home Economics)

The aim was to

(a) analyse the use of the modals to determine the range of coverage in terms of semantic areas as well as

(b) the level of appropriateness of the syntactic features also covered by the population and then determine from these

(i) relatively, the frequency of occurrence of the meaning types of the modals used and those not used.

(ii) syntactically, the modals that have been correctly exemplified and those incorrectly treated, and find out why, with a view to

(iii) designing NCE English course at the developmental level, which results from the feasibility of using the information in (i) and (ii) as a criterion.

Of the two aims ("a" and "b" above), "b" has a long-term effect in comparison with "a" which was immdeiate.

4.5.1. Data Analysed

For the examination scripts, 400 sampled scripts formed the corpus examined, two hundred each for A.T.C. Kano and A.T.C. Zaria. An additional 270 scripts represent sampled essay assignments based on elicitation technique. This brings the total number of scripts selected and examined to six hundred and seventy (see Table 1 for the breakdown of the scripts).

TABLE 1: Data for Study of the English Modals

	Area of Study	Kano 80/81	Zaria 81/82	Elicited Materials '82	Total
1	Arts	60	36	127	223
2	Sciences	34	24	87	145
3	Education	106	90	-	196
4	Vocations	-	50	56	106
		200	200	270	670

All the scripts examined for each year were numbered and were personally read twice. For the Zaria scripts and elicited essays, three assistants had helped in reading the scripts too. They were NCE graduates (beneficiaries of the NCE programme), who at the time of this study, were reading Language Arts in the two-year programme leading to the award of the Bachelors degree in Education of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.

4.5.2. First Reading

In the first reading, all the instances of use of modal auxiliary verbs of English were underlined. The personal assistants further read the Zaria scripts. Their reading supplemented the author's effort in ensuring that all cases of use of the modals were clearly ascertained.

In trying to determine the cases of usage by learners, whole answers to examination questions or full length essays based on elicited topics were read during the first reading.

4.5.3. Second Reading

To examine the uses of the modals further, a second reading of sentences containing the modals was done. In this activity instances of use were checked-off a chart for corresponding meaning types according to individual student's use. For the syntactic features, a device showing instances of

correct and incorrect uses was employed in the same chart (see figure 1 for the chart). The whole exercise in the second reading was aimed at determining:

(a) the systematic use of the modals or lack of use in its coverage of particular semantic fields

(b) the systematicity of use of certain modals to the exclusion of others

(c) certain syntactic features of poor use of the modals because of the difficulty in distinguishing between the modals and full verbs.

An interesting revelation as regards the frequency and distribution of use of the modals and appropriate combination of syntactic features, shows or exhibits very irregular usage. To be more specific, uses and lack of use as well as errors and correct forms of syntactic features of the modals are found as exponents of the same modal types in individual efforts at usage (see Table 2 for the analysis of the elicited essays comprising 270 scripts from A.T.C. Zaria). Though the uses of the modals as shown in the table corroborates the findings of students' performances or uses in the examination scripts, the elicitation exercise should be seen as more authentic because, factors that militate against optimum performance due to certain pressures under examination conditions have been eliminated.

In the consideration of idiolectal efforts, it was discovered that a few students' scripts on the uses of the modals

(a) covered consistently a wide range of semantic fields, minimum errors of use in syntactic forms were equally found to be consistent.

FIGURE 1: Analysis Procedure of individual use of Modals at the NCE Level

Modals / Meaning Types / Modals	Volition			Ability	Permission	Possibility	General Characteristics	Benediction and Maledictions	Prediction	Obligation and Necessity	Expendiction Probability	Advice and Recommendation	Belief and Conjecture	Characteristic Behaviour	Inherent Capacity	Inference and Logical Conclusion	Legal and Quasi-Legal	State/Habit No More Existing	Negative Use	Unclassifiable Use
	Weak	Intermediate	Strong																	
Can																				
Could																				
May																				
Might																				
Will																				
Would																				
Shall																				
Should																				
Must																				
Ought to																				
Used to																				
Need to																				
Care																				

Table 2: Distribution of Uses of the Modals and Number of Users

	Modals	Correct Uses	Incorrect Uses	Total Number of Users	Number of Users
1	can	190	23	213	119
2	could	64	11	75	54
3	may	48	4	52	39
4	might	20	4	24	26
5	will	1568	108	1676	249
6	would	371	28	399	156
7	shall	483	25	508	171
8	should	116	12	128	79
9	must	19	-	19	15
10	ought to	26	2	28	24
11	used to	-	-	-	-
12	need	1	2	3	3
13	dare	-	-	-	-

(b) some scripts revealed lack of use and

(c) in general, others were replete with errors of use.

Because of certain limitations which relate to practicability, instructional materials designed are aimed at the group and not individual learners. For this reason, idiolectecal errors, if they are of statistical significance, were raised to the status of group errors in order to attract the design of suitable teaching materials aimed at the group (and not individuals).

If we see each modal as a unit, and then consider the semantic coverage in terms of use, we can easily determine a systematic use and lack of use (see Table 3).

Table 3: Pattern of Semantic Coverage and Errors of Syntax of the English Modals

	Modals	Semantic fields coverable	Semantic field(s) covered	Semantic field(s) uncovered	Errors of syntax in %
1	can	6	4	2	11
2	could	5	3	2	15
3	may	4	4	-	08
4	might	2	1	1	17
5	will	9	8	1	06
6	would	7	7	-	07
7	shall	7	6	1	05
8	should	4	4	-	09
9	must	3	3	-	-
10	ought to	4	4	-	07
11	used to	2	-	2	-
12	need	2	1	1	67
13	dare	2	1	11	-

An intra-use analysis clearly shows that five of the thirteen modals for this study have received full semantic coverage. This represents, approximately, 31% of the modals in consideration. They include "may", "would", "should", "must", and "ought to". The lack of total coverage might be

due to lapses, slips, or deliberate avoidance of use in preference to alternative constructions. Such alternatives, it was discovered, were chosen with uncertainty. Even within the semantic uses identified in this study, it is sometimes difficult to decide for each modal the meaning type intended. The final meaning arrived at appeared, invariably as trials at a set of alternatives. This has demonstrated clearly a "lack of principles, of consistency, of determinacy".[4] This learners strategy of permutation is revealed during the second reading stage of the analysis, when I found it difficult at times to determine the meaning type intended by the students in very many uses of the modals.

4.5.4. Instructional Strategy

The researcher's main interest in this study is to work out a learner's grammar (Level 3) which has been determined by the use and lack of use of the modals. This represents the ultimate goal, like in error analysis, of any instructional strategy. Apart from the modals that were not used by the students, it appears as if "need" is the only modal with a high frequency of occurrence of errors of syntactic use (see Table 3). This does not invalidate the study and its usefulness if we consider the high percentage of lack of use and total

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[4] Omojuwa, R.A. 1975 op cit., p.127.

avoidance strategy or the strategy of the use of alternative constructions. This study, therefore, concentrates on the meanings of the modals and how learners have used modals to reflect the meanings, because

(a) except for "can", "will", "would", and "shall", only a few students normally use all the other modals. In other words, the inter-modal coverage seems under-utilised for effective communication purposes,

(b) many meaning types have not been covered (i.e. intra-modal coverage).

(c) an indepth coverage of the meanings of the modals and how they can be appropriately used, is yet to attract the attention of textbook writers.

In spite of the frequent occurrence of the modals in English language usage, learners have been handicapped, to varying degrees, in their abilities to utilize the communicative potentials of the English modals in day-to-day communication.

4.6.0. Distribution Patterns of Use of the Modals and their Meanings

4.6.1. Description of Use

At this point of the study, it is pertinent to indicate one of the features of modal verbs that often causes difficulty: many modal verbs have

more than one meaning or use, and in certain cases two different modal verbs have some meaning they co commonly share or have common syntactic use, yet, they are not completely interchangeable. For practical purposes, however, a learner's grammar should focus on the more important distinctions - a point that has been clearly made earlier on.

In this section, we focus on the study of the following modals based on a further selection from those treated at Level 1: could, may, might, should, must, ought to, used to, need, and dare.

4.6.2. Can

Of the six possible semantic areas of "can", the students in their use, demonstrated their knowledge of four of the meaning types. (See Table 4). The value of elicitation technique for elaborate verifications has been clearly stated. Throughout the present study, much of this technique was used. In the learners' use of can, the meaning areas that were covered did not represent a fair spread. For instance, "possibility" (one of the meanings of "can") was heavily weighted - 81% of the total use of "can", whereas, "permission" as a meaning type received 1% use. These extreme instances of coverage is observable in the students' coverage of all the modals.

The reason for this phenomenon has been partly stated elsewhere in this study - avoidance strategy

and use of alternative constructions. This is because some modals have more than one meaning or use, and in certain cases, two modal verbs have some common meanings and uses. In a situation like this, a user has alternative possibilities of use. He could even choose to avoid using any modal(s) in preference for alternative constructions. However, an avoidance strategy in favour of alternative constructions may be necessitated by uncertainty of correct use.

These contentions have been clearly exhibited in the use of "can" by learners. (See Table 4). Apparently, two meaning areas were not covered by students' use, namely: general characteristics, and inference and logical conclusion,

Table 4: Patterns of Use of "can"

	Meaning Areas	Use in %	Errors of use in %
1	Ability	9.0	29.0
2	Permission	1.0	50.0
3	Possibility	81.0	11.0
4	General Characteristics	-	-
5	Inference and Logical Conclusion	-	-
6	Negative	9.0	5.0

except for a few instances of the use of the negative. In the elicitation exercises, the students were expected, in their use of "can" to cover the former but not necessarily the latter.

Similarly, the instances of use of the modals to ask for permission or to give permission to (someone) was not adequately covered by the subjects.

Errors that were easily identified in the subjects' use of "can" include

(a) repetition of meaning e.g.

(i) I am sure you can be able to analyse their ways of life.

(ii) My uncle can be of able help to give us a transport for our journeys.

(b) indiscriminate choice of modal e.g.

(i) It is also the right time through which you can observe different cultures ...

(ii) I believe you can not miss coming.

4.6.3. Could

"Could" is the paired alternative of "can" used, like all the other alternatives of the paired modal verbs (might, would, should), to suggest a more tentative attitude on the part of the speaker. In requests, the use represents what is commonly referred to as the "polite" form, for instance:

Could (or would) you accept that?

A recurring error observed in this study is the students' inability to discern this use and that of the past tense morpheme of the modal verbs. Structures like the following appears confusing, though students used them quite frequently.

(i) My sister who will wed, could dance well.

(ii) My brother should give us his 504 car.

From these examples, it is clear that "could" in

(i) marks past tense, but not "should" in

(ii) which is a conditional marker.

For semantic coverage, two meaning types have been ignored, probably, due to the reasons suggested in 4.6.2. above (see Table 5 for the pattern of use and semantic coverage of "could"). In a similar fashion after "can", permission meaning type had received little attention as it is statistically indicated in the table.

Table 5: Pattern of Use of "Could"

	Meaning Areas	Use in %	Errors of Use %
1	Ability	-	-
2	Permission	3.00	-
3	Possibility	88.0	60.0
4	General Characteristics	-	-
5	Negative	7.0	-

4.6.4. May/Might

Both "may" and "might" received total coverage in terms of meaning types. However, only a few students used them - 39 in the case of "may" and 21 for "might" out of a total of 270 subjects. This low level response appears to relate to a corresponding

mild elicitation process. The errors of use do not attract any significant attention. Of the uses for which "may" was put, 8% errors were made, whereas 20% errors were revealed in the use of "might".

It is, for these reasons, that these two modals may not need any further elaborate consideration at Level 3 grammar, except for its special uses.[5]

4.6.5. Will

The subjects appeared to have used "will" quite satisfactorily. Firstly, all the semantic areas were adequately covered except one. (See Table 6 below). There was a judicious spread of the various uses of "will" among the meaning types. Students have exhibited preferences of use in the meaning types that were covered. They also made use of alternative constructions such as the "... going to" expression, which a good number of them used as substitutes for "will/shall" verb form for future reference or to predict events.

A total of 249 students used the modal, "will". In spite of this high number of users, the errors made were insignificant except for its use to indicate insistence, that is, strong volition. Even such errors that the students made were not systematic. This lack of systematicity may be due to low level of use of this meaning type. This may account for

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[5] Graver, B.D. Advanced English Practice. O.U.P. 1971, pp.17-18.

Table 6: The Pattern of Use of "Will"

	Meaning Areas	Use in %	Errors of Use in %
1	Volition (weak)	4.0	1.5
2	Volition (Intermediate)	13.0	4.5
3	Volition (Strong)	1.0	56.0
4	Prediction and Futurity	67.0	6.0
5	Advice and Recommendation	1.0	-
6	Belief and Conjecture	11.0	5.0
7	Characteristic Behaviour	1.0	11.0
8	Inherent Capacity	-	-
9	Negative	2.0	-

the reason why "strong volition" was the semantic field in the use of "will" which received the least coverage by the students. The 1% use is not copious enough to give the required systematic errors that could have been made.

The lack of use of "will" by the subjects to cover "inherent capacity" meaning option, is obviously due to the weakness associated with the elicitation technique that had been used to induce responses. The non-use may, perhaps be a result of the students' deliberate application of avoidance strategy or choice of alternative constructions. Subjects have commonly used such alternatives as

"My uncle's car is big enough to contain us and our load"

"Daddy's house is going to contain us"

These alternative constructions thus replace ... utterances like

"My uncle's house will contain everything"

"Daddy's house will/would adequately contain us"

We shall meet more of these uses in Level 3 grammar.

4.6.6. Would

Like its paired present form (will), a high percentage satisfactory use of "would" was demonstrated by the subjects. Most of its meaning areas were covered. Instances of mis-use were recorded but these are of no significant grammatical value. In the process of analysis, it was found that 4% instances of use (sixteen sentences in all) to denote "expectation/probability", was a result of misapplication of rules. (See 3.2 above for appropriate modals that signifies this meaning type).

The table below, representing the distribution of use, clearly shows that the intermediate volition meaning areas has been carefully avoided. One obvious reason for this seems to me to be due to the copious use of "would" to signify "weak volition", that is, willingness on the part of the speaker). In the process of use, the subjects apparently wanted to sound polite. Secondly, "shall" and "will" were frequently used as alternative choices to indicate intermediate volition (i.e. intention of the speaker, see "will" above).

Table 7: Pattern of Use of "would"

	Meaning Areas	Use in %	Errors of Use in %
1	Volition (weak)	52.0	4.5
2	Volition (intermediate)	-	-
3	Volition (strong)	3.0	-
4	Belief and Conjecture	22.0	8.0
5	Characteristic Behaviour	2.0	12.0
6	Inherent Capacity	1.0	-
7	Negative	11.0	4.0

Of the total coverage in the subjects' use of "would", 7% negligible errors were randomly made. The general performance, therefore, appears to be satisfactory and may not necessarily attract further consideration at the third level grammar except in its relation to the uses of other modals.

4.6.7. Shall

"Shall" has been very much used by the subjects considering the areas covered and the number of subjects that had actually used the modal. Except for the "legal and quasi-legal" semantic area, which would have required specific elicitation for it to be used, all the other meaning areas were adequately covered with some measure of satisfaction. Errors made in the students' use of "shall" were quite

unsystematic and they accounted for only 5% of cases of use.

About 63% of the subjects used "shall" to convey individual understanding of one semantic area or the other. The semantic areas that appears to be the students' favourites include "prediction/futurity" and "intermediate volition", otherwise referred to as intention of the speaker. These responses by the subjects appears to correlate the demands of the elicitation exercise which requires events to be predicted and speakers' intention willingly made known. (See Table 8 below for degree of usage).

Apparently, Level 3 grammar requires little attention as regards the use of "shall". But certain peculiar characteristics of usage in relation to "will" and how they can both be used to express futurity (both "pure" and "potential"), shall be considered and drilled. This is necessary for the Level 3 grammar to fulfil its remedial requirements - one of the objectives of this study.

Table 8: Pattern of Use of "shall"

	Semantic fields	Use %	Errors %
1	Volition (weak)	2.5	-
2	Volition (intermediate)	42.0	4.0
3	Volition (strong)	1.9	-
4	Prediction/Futurity	53.0	6.0
5	Advice and Recommendation	2.0	-
6	Legal and Quasi-Legal	-	-
7	Negative	2.0	-

4.6.8. Should

The four uses of "should" to convey the four corresponding meanings of the modal show adequate coverage by the students. Even though, only 79 students used the modal, the spread of use over the three meaning areas, with a negligible low per cent error occurrence is demonstration of learners' ability to use the modal. It is subsumed that the lack of use by a larger population of the subjects, does not signify ignorance. Rather, the need for its copious use did not fully arise. Furthermore, elicitation was probably mild and the subjects have alternative choices to make, namely: the use of "ought to" or constructions that begin with downtoners such as "I hope ..., I expect ..., I wish ..." Both choices featured reasonably well in students' written work.

Table 9 below shows the pattern of use and errors distribution.

Table 9: Uses of "should" and Error Distribution

	Uses and Meanings	Use %	Errors %
1	Obligation and Necessity	11.0	14.0
2	Expectation/Probability	55.5	10.0
3	Advice and Recommendation	23.0	7.0

4.6.9. Ought to

A comparison of the uses of "ought to" with "should" shows that students avoided the former more than the latter. But when faced with the choice between using "must" and "ought to", students tend to prefer "ought to" even though such a preference leads to the expression of lack of confidence in the fulfilment of the happening described by the main verb. Compare

You must honour my invitation

You ought to honour my invitation

It is quite safe to say that the lack of use of either "ought to" or "should" does not represent ignorance. This can be explained with the simple reason that both may be used freely and interchangeably, such that the choice of one automatically precludes the other. It seems that majority of the learners, as a matter of habit, are more familiar with "should" hence the higher number of users and a greater per centage of uses. Table 3 shows that percentage errors made in the use of "ought to" just like "should" is of insignificant value in error studies.

In view of this, it is assumed that students do not have major problems with the modal that may attract a detailed treatment in Level 3 grammar.

4.6.10. Must

The number of users - 15 out of 270 subjects, shows a general distaste for the use of "must" in

normal classroom learning/teaching situations. Expression of obligation is made using "should" or "ought to" + a main verb instead of the modal "must". Even then, expressions of obligation were sparingly heard or written by students.

One interesting observation that has been made is that the few instances of use (19) clearly reveal intimate friendship between the subject and the recipient of his message. The choices do not exhibit such characteristics observable in a master/servant, superior/inferior, et cetera, kind of relationships which is usually denoted by the use of "must".

The two principal meaning area; namely: inference and logical conclusion, and, obligation and necessity were satisfactorily covered by the few subjects who had used "must" and "mustn't". Errors were uncommon. This is largely due to very few instances of use.

In Level 3 grammar, the attention of both teachers and learners is drawn to certain special uses of "must" in order to attract more patronage.

4.5.11. Used to

A total avoidance of use of "used to" has been recorded in this study. The need for its use cannot be elicited without becoming too mechanical and far removed from everyday communication. Its use(s) appear to require specific situation especially in a dialogue.

Some of the students have preferred alternative constructions with "formerly" or "once + past form of verb". Compare

She was formerly your friend

The family once lived in Lagos

However, perhaps, a more plausible reason to put forward for the avoidance of "used to" by learners is because of the confusion or difficulty in distinguishing between USE as either an auxiliary or as a full verb:

He used to (not) to smoke. (auxiliary)

He's (not) used to smoking. (full verb)

Careful students have avoided "used to" in operations like this because of uncertainty. But a mild treatment should be given to the modal in Level 3 PG.

4.6.12. Dare and Need

"Dare" and "need" provide special difficulty that has been identified at the reference grammar level. "Dare" was not used at all by the subjects probably due to the difficulty it provides and partly, both because of avoidance strategy and lack of rigorous elicitation. As a modal, it occurs only in negative contexts and in questions, but also affirmative in its idiomatic use. While the students appear to be familiar with its occurrence in the affirmative, they tend to avoid using it in negative contexts and in questions. The ultimate result is that of no effort at the use of "dare".

On the contrary, there were only three instances of use of "need" by only three of the subjects. Two of these instances were incorrectly used representing a very high per centage error occurrence. A compromise starting point at resolving the problem is to help learners to be able to make clear distinctions between the modal need, and the full verb need occurring in the construction "need"+ to + Infinitive":

We need not stay (modal) = We are not obliged to)

We don't need to stay (full verb = It isn't necessary for us to stay)

You needn't have done that (modal = suggests that you have done something unnecessarily)

You didn't need to do that (full verb = whether you have done it or not, there was no obligation or necessity for the action).

The distinction between the two grammatical patterns of dare, and between the modal verb need and the full verb to need is summarised below:

Full Verb	Modal
1. He dares/need to come	1.
2. He doesn't dare/need to come	2. He dare/need not to come
3. Does he dare/need to come?	3. Dare/Need he come?

From the above illustration, we find that dare has two grammatical patterns (affirmative and negative) while need has one (negative only). Both, however, have question forms.

In PG Level 3, a conscious effort has been made to drill learners to use both modals appropriately. The pattern of exercises that relate their specific uses guide teachers in the preparation of similar exercises for use in their own peculiar situations.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0. SAMPLE MATERIALS AT LEVEL THREE: A Students' Workbook

5.1. General Notes on the Exercises

As the earlier chapters have shown, there is a problem of how to help students to use verb forms correctly. Particularly problematic is the system of auxiliary verbs which combine to form the tenses and the moods.

The stand taken by this study is that for formal instruction to successfully eliminate such problems materials are required at 3 Levels. Earlier chapters have illustrated the nature and type of materials required for the first two levels. In this chapter we give samples of materials at Level 3. What is provided is practice material on English modal auxiliaries. The practice exercises relate to learners' use of the modals in the whole process of language learning.

The items have been carefully selected and worked out to reflect the needs of the learners after a psycholinguistic description of the patterns of use of the modals. The practice materials have been graded to reflect the following three stages of language acquisition or of mental processing of language:

(a) hypothesis or rule formation,

(b) hypothesis testing or expression, and

(c) application for communicative use.

They are thus closely related to, or rather derived from, observed patterns of language (modal) use or misuse by the learners for whom they are designed. For instance, practice materials are designed for the hypothesis forming stage if it is observed that learners betray ignorance of the formation rule governing the use of a particular language item.

Practice material is designed at the hypothesis testing stage if correct use of a language item is unsteady: sometimes right, sometimes wrong. This is a manifestation of uncertainty at the expression stage rather than a total ignorance of a formation rule.

Practice materials at the application stage are designed to help learners increase the range of use of a particular language item to new fields that exist in practical communication. Materials at this stage go far beyond the mechanical or patter-drill type to genuine communication.

Once stage one practice materials on an item are judged necessary, they have to also be designed for the remaining two stages. Similarly, materials for the second stage with respect to an item should also be carried to the end of the cycle, that is, to the third stage. But materials for a higher stage need not regress to a lower stage. If it did, it would then have been designed at the lower not the higher stage. See chart 2 below which indicates language items (modals) for which practice materials should be designed. A suggested sample items form the major discussion in this chapter.

Chart 2: Areas of Modals and Design Stages at which practice materials may be produced

	Topic (Modals)	Meaning or Use Type	Design Stage			Items
			1	2	3	
a	Will/Would	(i) Various meanings - belief, prediction, instruction etc.				
		(ii) Using will/would + present infinitive	✓	✓	✓	
b	Must/Musn't	(i) Expressing obligation, instruction et cetera				
		(ii) Contrastive use to indicate action and non-action	✓	✓	✓	
c	Could	Expressing the unreal past		✓	✓	
d	Can/Could	General Characteristic			✓	
e	Can	Ability in specific circumstances			✓	
f	May	Use in clauses with a concessive meaning			✓	
g	Might	A tentative use of "might"			✓	
h	Shall/should	Use in Reported Speech			✓	
i	Ought to	Substituting "had better" for "ought to"			✓	
j	Need	Expressing negative form or implied negation			✓	

5.2. Sample Exercises for Practice

5.2.1. Will/Would

5.2.2. Introduction

Read the following carefully. In a purely predictive sense, only will is used after pronouns "you", "he" ("she", "it") and "they". Note, however, that it is not uncommon for will to carry an additional implication, especially after the pronoun "you", for example

You will

may stand for an instruction rather than a prediction:

"You will manage the section effectively next year", the general manager told him.

In interrogative sentences, "will you?" may stand for either

(a) a request for information, or

(b) a request for action; for instance,

"Will you know the outcome of the case soon?"

"Will (or Would) you go and report this to the personnel officer please?"

The predictive function of will is most clearly illustrated and most commonly found after nouns generally and after the following pronouns - "he" ("she", "it") and "they"; e.g.

The presidential jet will touch down at 8.00 a.m. tomorrow

~~Before~~ going on to ~~attempt~~ the exercises below, read also, 3.4.1. and 3.4.2.

Design Stage I: Hypothesis Formation

Work to do

What meaning lies behind the use of "will" ('ll) in the following sentences?

1. It's no use going there to meet him.
   He'll be on his way to the market.
2. She can be quite unapolegetic, but he'll generally withdraw at the end.
3. Why will you ask such foolish questions?
4. You'll carry out instruction as you are told.
5. The cargo plane will take all the cases.
6. The party will not begin until midnight.
7. This room is too small for a weekend party. It'll only sit ten in comfort.

Design Stage II: Hypothesis Testing

(Exercise 1)

In re-writing the following sentences, use "will" or "would" with the appropriate infinitive form; omit any words in brackets.

8. This is (probably) the thing we're looking for.
9. You (probably) haven't seen this morning's headlines, about the election killings, I suppose.
10. I met Professor Shehu at the last interview.
    He was the Vice Chancellor's deputy, I assume.
11. As you have no doubt known, she's having a baby soon.

More Work to do (Exercise 2)

Replace the underlined words by "will" or "would" + present infinitive. When the speaker's annoyance is expressed, stress the modal verb by writing it in capitals, for instance

My wife persistently leaves things where other people can fall over them =

My wife WILL leave things where other people can fall over them.

12. My family love watching video. They sit for hours without saying a word.
13. Apparently, the moderator's major fault was that he persistently interrupted members of the panel before they had finished.
14. Why do you persist in being so difficult?
15. No wonder the meal is burnt! You always put the food on the stove and go to bed.
16. We tried to refuse her wedding invitation, but she repeatedly insisted on our coming.

Further Work to do (Exercise 3)

Using "will" together with one of the verbs listed below, complete each dialogue. Certain cases require the negative form.

Verbs: seat bear do fit
hold reach suit work

17. A. "Is that jerry can big enough?"
B. "Oh, yes! It _____ at least eighteen litres".

18. A. "What's wrong with the ignition of the car?"

    B. "I don't know. It simply _____".

19. A. "Can we safely go on through the marsh?"

    B. "Oh, no! It _____ our weights easily".

20. A. "Is that ladder long enough?"

    B. "Oh, yes! It _____ up to high voltage lines on the electric pole".

Design Stage III: Communication Practice

21. Read the following dialogue.

Nurse: "May I help you?"

Patient: "Yes, if you will", the accident victim quickly replied. "Doctor Musa will not see me for a week. He won't sign my discharge papers either, until after another five days. The disgusting thing is that, some people WILL leave the toilet door open. They won't ever close it. The smell from the W.C. will disturb me. (I mean all through the hours that I'm awake). I will ask to be offered another bed. The hospital administrator will do that for me", the patient added.

Work to do

1. Extend the dialogue above to show how you can use will to express volition and/or certainty - (certainty that nothing can stop the event

from taking place, or the will to ensure that it is accomplished). Each speaker (the nurse and the patient) may talk twice or thrice, one after the other.

Underline all instances of the use of "will" in your work.

Why is the use of will in the patient's fourth sentence above in capitals?

2. Imagine yourself as a taxi-driver. State the things you will do to escape being charged, tried and convicted by the mobile court that sits along your route of operation.

Write two to three paragraphs.

3. Write another conversation as in 21 (1) above to illustrate the use of will in expressing volition and/or certainty. I suggest a motorist whose car had a serious mechanical fault on a highway, and a mechanic. You may choose your own interlocutors. You are not restricted to only two speakers either.

5.3. Must/Musn't

. - Design Stage I

5.3.1. Preliminary Notes

From Level 2 material, we find that there is general distaste for the use of "must". Probably, students are confused with the various meanings of "must". These include using must

(a) To express an instruction or what is obligatory, e.g.

Students must answer all the questions

(b) To express a sense of inner compulsion, like

I just must tell all the story

(c) To express what is necessary or inevitable in the speaker's opinion, such as

We must begin the journey at 4.00a.m. tomorrow.

(d) To express a little more than pressing advice, thus representing a "stronger" form of "should", for instance,

You must read the topic if you get some time left.

Work to be done (Exercise 1)

Identify the meaning type (a-d) above expressed by the following uses of must

22. She must cook jollof if she comes back early.
23. Candidates must attempt question one and any other three.
24. I simply must express my mind.
25. To be able to get to Kano early, we must start the examination at 8.30 a.m.
26. All fourth formers must offer Additional Mathematics.

Exercise 2

Using "Must" with adverbs and in reported speech

Notes:

(a) You can use "must" with adverbs having a present or future time reference, e.g.

We must resolve the issue (now, later, next week, after my return).

(b) You can leave "must" unchanged in reported speech, for instance,

"You must teach me how to drive a car". (direct speech)

I said that he must teach me how to drive a car (reported speech).

We cannot, however, use must to refer to obligation or necessity existing before the time of speaking. "Had to" is used instead, for example.

I had to over-stretch my voice to make myself heard by those sitting toward back wall of the theatre, (I tell you now).

Occasionally, we find the structure "must + perfect infinitive" which is equivalent in meaning to

"It is essential that this should already have been done", e.g.

"To be eligible for a full pension in this university an employee must have been a confirmed officer".

All the examples so far given for the uses of must express the necessity for positive action on the part of the subject. "Musn't" is used to express the necessity for non-action:

You musn't do anything about it (= You must not do anything about it).

Now, fill in the blanks with "must" or "musn't" to complete the sentences

27. Application forms for admission duly completed _____ be returned to the Academic Office not later than 15th April.

28. You _____ call on the Shehus again sometime.
29. I realise how difficult the situation is, but you _____ try not to let it get you down.
30. We _____ make the fees sound too exhorbitant, or he won't register as a member.
31. We have made quite a lot of money, but we _____ forget that all the workers have to be paid.
32. Candidates for the practicals _____ write in ink, and _____ write on one side of the answer sheet only.

Design Stage II

Inferring or Concluding for Interpretation of a situation or events

Introduction

"Must" is used to assert what a speaker infers or concludes to be the most likely interpretation of a situation or event:

He must be at least a Colonel. Listeners are not sure if this is true. We only think that it is almost certainly so, having taken everything into account. To negate this, "can't" is used:

Irene: He must be at least a Colonel

George: Oh, no! He can't be higher than a temporary Lt. Colonel now

This dialogue shows Irene as almost certain that "He" is a Colonel, and George is equally certain that "He" is not. To report this, we have

Irene said that he must be at least a Colonel, but George thought he couldn't be anything higher than a temporary Lt. Colonel then.

Work to do Exercise 1

Complete the responses to the following statements using must to suggest what seems to be the most likely explanation.

33. The Registrar drives in a Mercedes 450 SEL and his wife a latest model of Honda Accord.
    They must ...

34. John has no money to travel to Lagos by air but talks about going to U.S.A. next month. He must ...

35. The last plane has already gone. It must ... than I read in the schedule.

36. Not even his detractors thought he would be offered the job, but he was. The panel that sat to interview him must have ...

37. The Principal said he would ring from London, but he hasn't. She must have ...

Exercise 2

Rewrite sentences 27-32 in reported speech. Using the corresponding sentence openings suggested below.

38. The advertisement clearly stipulated that ...

39. I asked him ...

40. I told him ...

41. I warned the others that ...

42. The instructions stated that ...

Design Stage III

43. In most localities in Nigeria, certain norms are observed. Some of these norms relate to the tradition and custom of the people. Others have bearing on ones religion.

Identify and describe in paragraphs EITHER your societal norms OR those things your religion(s) permit or do not permit as acceptable behaviour.

Use "must" for instances described of things we must do and "musn't" for behaviour and actions which are not wanted or forbidden.

44. (a) Write about one page on the social and academic requirements expected of students of your college. Use must and musn't to illustrate your exposition appropriately. Underline all instances of use of must and musn't.

(b) Classify the instances of use in (a) above under the following meaning types:

(i) inference and logical conclusion

(ii) obligation, and

(iii) necessity.

45. Read the following dialogue

Lola: I must be frank with you.

Musa: But, I had to be frank too.

Titi: What's all these frankness about! We musn't stay in here any longer.

Lola: Must we continue the discussion?

Titi: Yes, but we must leave this place, or else, someone may pick up the 'gossip'.

Now, extend the dialogue as much as you can using must and musn't.

5.4. Concluding Remarks

One of our findings from Level 2 material is that our target audience (NCE learners) require largely practice material at design stage III, that is, applying the rules they have learnt for functional communication.

What we have done is to write sample materials based on two of the areas for which they require drilling. It is our expectation that the sample items would guide other language teachers in writing items on the same areas or the areas which this research has not covered.

We advise, however, that if teachers (and others) wish to compile similar sample materials, they should do so with great care. A wise thing to do (as has been done in this study) is to try such materials on colleagues before using them with a specific group of learners. (See 5.5.1. - General Notes on Model Answers).

5.5. MODEL ANSWERS

5.5.1. General Notes

The answers we have suggested below to the exercises are mainly intended for learners who might need to be guided while they work out of class. In this section, therefore, the answers supplied should guide the NCE learner but also, the NCE lecturer.

Some of the answers are very precise but objective. This may not be the case in real life situation. However, the precision and technical nature of the answers relate to the pedagogical needs of the learners.

As a general rule, an objective model answer is a result of a mechanical exercise to which it is an answer. In a similar way, a mechanical language exercise represents a drift from functional, communicative, everyday use of the data from which such exercise is abstracted (Omojuwa, 1975: 226).

It seems, therefore, that there is little opposition between the need to control language data which could be presented easily and with objective measurement of learning achievement on the one hand, and the need for language learning (and teaching) to be presented so that it can closely reflect the child's natural processes of language acquisition on the other. The latter is a process in which every bit of language that the child acquires is for its immediate communicative value.

In a classroom setting, especially a L2 situation, the latter approach can hardly ever be totally achieved. For pedagogical realisations therefore, a compromise solution is suggested. Aspects of the language which lend themselves to objective processing, should be so presented. Others which do not, needn't be forced into it. Viewing this compromise position in relation to the drills on the modals, we can see the exercises falling into three groups, which we have referred to as design stages:

Design Stage I

Answers in this stage are fixed or objective. Such answer may be given with or without

distractors. Even when distractors are not supplied, the verbal environment is clear about what answer is required. Learners are therefore expected to be able to supply the right answer.

Design Stage II

In this stage, a model answer is possible but it more or less a suggestion or a guide. The implication of this is that the teacher's answer is not absolute. He (teacher) should look out for or be prepared to accept other answers different from what he has provided.

In other words, answers suggested in this design stage are fixed semantically but the sameness or similarity in meaning permits alternative syntactic realisations.

Design Stage III

Model answers are hardly possible for exercises designed at stage III. The exercises demand 'productive' efforts of the learners. It is possible to provide cues for learners in form of a linguistic or factual guide or instruction. Such cues kindle learners' imagination. They also place the exercises in proper setting for them to be meaningful to learners.

5.2. Answers to Exercises on the Meanings and Uses of the Modals

1. belief

2. characteristic behaviour
3. characteristic behaviour
4. command/instruction
5. prediction/inherent capacity
6. prediction
7. inherent capacity
8. This will be the thing we're looking for
9. You won't (or wouldn't) have seen ...
10. Professor Shehu/He would have been the Vice Chancellor's deputy
11. As you will no doubt have known, she's having a baby soon.
12. They will sit for hours without ...
13. ... he would interrupt members ...
14. Why WILL you be so difficult?
15. You WILL put the food on the stove and go to bed
16. ... she would insist on our coming
17. will hold
18. won't start
19. won't bear
20. will reach
21. Stage III work
22. A little more than pressing advice
23. Instruction
24. Sense of inner compulsion

25. Necessity in the speaker's opinion
26. obligatory
27. must
28. must
29. must
30. musn't
31. musn't
32. must, must

suggested answers

33. ... be having more than one source of income; or ... be rolling in money etc.
34. ... be crazy; ... be kidding etc
35. ... be much earlier
36. ... been taken in by his articulate behaviour
37. ... forgotten everything about it; ... had problems with NET etc.
38. ... application forms for admission duly completed must be returned to the Academic Office ...
39. I asked him that he must call at the Shehus again sometime
40. ... that I realised how difficult ... was, but he must try not to let it get him down.
41. ... we musn't make the fees sound too exhorbitant, or he won't register as a member.
42. ... candidates for the practicals must write in ink, and must write ...

CHAPTER SIX

6.0. SUMMARY, LIMITATIONS, SUGGESTIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1. Summary

In this research, an attempt was made, largely to produce valuable sample instructional materials for the use of those who teach and those who learn English language at the NCE level. Of equal value is the 3-Level Approach adopted in working out the sample material. This approach, hopefully, should guide teachers and course writers in producing similar materials in the same area or other areas in language for the use of students (NCE students).

The area of the grammar syllabus used to illustrate the working of the approach is the modal verbs of English. These verbs are a constant problem for "all" learners of English, especially the NCE learners.

This study does not claim that the models and approaches suggested and illustrated are the absolute solutions of any language problems, general or specific. It is a fact that guaranteed solutions for the problems of second language learning and teaching are yet to be fully established by anyone. However, attention is drawn to the following two assumptions underlying the study: first, that appropriate texts for use in our classrooms are lacking, thus creating a gap in language learning/teaching, especially in a L2 learning/teaching situation with a specific reference to the NCE situation; second, that it is

possible to give guidelines to teachers on areas of language content and pedagogy in an attempt to "fill the gap" created by lack of appropriate texts resulting from complex pedagogical or commercial reasons. Designing materials at three levels can, indeed, correct these two areas of deficiency. This is the main objective of this study.

The objective is achieved in the foregoing five interrelated chapters. In the introductory chapter, the problem of inadequate instructional materials for use by teachers and learners was quickly identified and clearly stated. We suggested a solution - materials writing at three levels. We further discussed the characteristics of each level material showing how one is distinguished from the other. In reviewing the literature in chapter two, we examined the existing materials and found them to be inappropriate. We are also aware of the availability of certain materials directed at tertiary level students in a L2 situation. We found that these materials do not adequately reflect the syllabuses of our target learners. Some other issues of pedagogical value to the study were also discussed in this chapter. These include ELT at tertiary level in Nigeria, language errors and their uses, pedagogical materials, approaches to data collection on learners' problem areas, and a preliminary notes on the models.

Chapters three, four and five which form the main body of the study corresponds to the three levels specified in the approach. Chapter Three (Level 1) is sample material describing the modals of English. The information contained

in this section has been carefully worked out independent of specific pedagogical needs of users. It is for referential consultation by course designers, teacher trainers, language teachers and the "general public". Chapter Four (Level 2), that is Teachers' Handbook is information about the analysis of learners' uses of the modal.

The analysis has helped us in working out our Level 2 materials based mainly on cases of mis-use and lack of use. One major concern of the chapter was to suggest instructional strategies for use in teaching and correcting learners' cases of mis-use. Our expectation is that it should motivate learners, more, in their intra- and inter-use of the modals and direct them toward the application of rules learnt for communicative purposes. It is derived from students' examination scripts and elicited essay topics. A 'performance analysis' (the model mainly used in this study in arriving at sample materials at Level 2) of students' use and lack of use of the modals, leaves the language teacher with valuable information from which further selection is made for inclusion in the students' Workbook. The fifth chapter is Students' Workbook (Level 3) in which graded exercises are presented as learners' practice material. The grading reflects three stages of mental processing of language: hypothesis formation, hypothesis testing and application for communicative use. It is directed at language learners (NCE learners).

6.2. Limitations of the Study

There are some practical constraints, of course. We cannot easily abandon the instructional materials we use at the moment because of their inadequacy for other materials which are yet to be published. The "old" materials are likely to remain in our teaching situations for some time to come.

The study was faced with one major constraint in the chapter on learner error - chapter 4. The study had no space for more than a small number of samples, whereas, copious data samples and detailed analysis would have formed a major part of a study primarily on learner error. Etherton (1977: 70) has recommended on analysis of 8,000-12,000 errors to be analysed "for adequate research".

Even though an elicitation procedure was used to induce learners use of the modals[1], there was no total control of the subjects in their use or no-use of the modals such that errors made could be fully analysed and seen as being systematic or not. This is a limitation observed in the process.

Finally the material designed in this study is aimed at the group and not individuals, even though the problems identified with usage are individual problems. This is a constraint which relates to the issue of practicability.

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[1] See appendix v for the list of elicited topics.

6.3. Recommendations

Recommendations are directed toward improvement or elimination of the problem under consideration. The following recommendations about the NCE language problem arising from the study, should be seen in this light.

(a) The Syllabus

A teaching syllabus is preferred to the syllabus being currently used. The current syllabus (check-list) seems mere guides to teachers as to what to aim towards. It is not a teaching syllabus in the sense that any teaching syllabus must organise and sequence content into units/lessons on some principled basis.

At the college level, each Department of English should produce a scheme of work in which the language activities and language content are organised and sequenced into a teaching syllabus, probably on the basis of commercial or home-made materials available to the staff (like the present study) or that they intend to produce. This scheme of work would then be a blue-print made available to staff members, especially the inexperienced lecturers in English.

(b) Textbooks and Materials

Relevant instructional materials aptly designed for use at NCE level should be regarded

as a priority area by course writers. Because of the heavy demand for NCE teachers and the growing number of NCE awarding colleges, course writers and researchers should regard publishing materials and marketing of such published materials economically viable.

Teachers should no longer rely on texts designed for lower-level education for use at the NCE colleges.

(c) Teacher Supply

The quality of teachers required to teach any of the sub-components of NCE English Language should be strictly controlled by the departments of English of the NCE colleges. For a teacher to be able to make the best of a bad job, he should be a specialist. A specialist is aware of new developments in teaching and he takes this into account in his classroom situation. This is not to say that he should abandon the past.

It is true that the syllabus and textbook will influence the way we teach but they do not totally determine it. The syllabus and textbook provide us with the "what" but not entirely with the "how", that is, our procedures and techniques. A good language teacher should do better than what syllabus and textbook prescribe.

This element of self-determination to adapt some exercises, for example, or omit others, and sometimes include some of our own, that is, adaptation of

teaching materials suitable for both the needs of teachers and learners is what the whole study is about. This procedure should go on all the time.

(d) Further Research

It seems as if what this study calls for is a rationalisation of what we do already - (research into language learning/teaching, adaptation of materials and techniques other et cetera), and perhaps its extension into other areas, in order to make our teaching more effective.

The Literature Review has identified what language areas need some urgent attention. The 3-level material preparation approach could be adopted for use in the procurement of materials in these areas, especially in the teaching of grammatical structures. A further research into such areas as the propositions, adjectives and adverbs will supplement materials that we already have in language teaching at the NCE level.

6.4. Concluding Remarks

The present trends see language as a resource to be developed internally in the learner in response to his wants and needs so that he is able to cope with the demands made upon him. For the NCE learner, he needs the language to pursue a course of study after

which a further demand is made upon him, to use the language for instruction in schools.

However, in trying to suggest what to teach, syllabus designers, course writers and teachers have many areas of concern to take into account. Essentially, these are focused on the learner and the learning process, and on language and how it functions.

The task becomes so enormous if not impossible one when they, that is, course writers, teachers, etc, realise that account must also be taken of current educational materials and techniques, the organisational and political limitations imposed by the system (or college administration), the conflicting demands of the examination system, the different learning styles of individuals in a group and a host of other irreconcilable factors. This situation appears to make our objectives impossible to attain. But a well-developed curriculum, for which syllabus design and procurement relevent instructional materials form a part, appears to be an answer. The role of the teacher then is to adapt such materials and apply his own knowledge of his classroom situation to get the best from his learners.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

NCE Major English Syllabus

(Grammatical Structures Only Re
(Grammatical Structures only)

Revised in March 1980

CONTENT

UNIT ONE The English Sentence

a. The Students should be taught what makes up a good English sentence.

b. Sentence Patterns

c. Types of sentences

i. Statement

ii. Questions

iii. Commands

ix. Exclamation

UNIT TWO

1. Nouns

Countable + non-countable + collective

2. Determiners

a. Articles - definite, the indefinite a(an), some and ∅.

b. Predeterminers - all, both, half, double, twice et cetera.

c. Past-determiners - ordinals, cardinals and comparatives.

d. Quantifiers - many, few, little, several et cetera.

UNIT THREE

1. The Verb
   a. Verb forms
   b. Types of verbs (identification and function)
   c. Auxiliaries and Modals
2. Tenses
   a. Present and past tense (including different ways of expressing time, present time and future time).
   b. Active and Passive
   c. Indirect Speech
      Conditional Clauses

UNIT FOUR

Concord

a. Subject-Verb
b. Noun-Pronoun
c. Determiner-Noun

UNIT FIVE

1. Adjectives
   a. Syntactic functions
      i. attributive and predicative
      ii. Post-positive
      iii. Head of an NP
   b. Types of Adjectives
   c. Ordering of Adjectives

2. Adverbs

   a. As Modifiers of Adjectives

   b As Modifiers of Adverbs

   As Modifiers of Prepositions

   As Modifiers of Verbs

   As Modifiers of Noun Phrases

   As Modifiers of Determiners

   b. Adverbial Clauses of time, place, reason, purpose, result, concession et cetera.

UNIT SIX

Prepositions

a. Prepositional Phrases

b. Phrasal Verbs

c. Verbs followed by prepositions

UNIT SEVEN

1. Relative clauses (treat with relative pronouns)

   a. Defining

   b. Non-defining

2. Pronouns

   a. Personal pronouns

   b. Reflexive pronouns (emphatic and non-emphatic use

   c. Possesive pronouns

   d. Universal pronouns: each, all, everyone, et cetera

   e. Some and any series

3. Ambiguities

STUDENTS' TEXTS

1. Hornby, A.S. A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English Oxford University Press, 1958.

2. Jupp, T.C. & John Milne. English Sentence Structures. Heinemann Educational Books Ltd., 1968.

3. Allen, W.S. Living English Structure. Longman, 1974.

4. Zanvoot, R.W. A Handbook of English Grammar.

5. Forrest, R. Revision English. London: Longman, 1968.

TEACHERS' TEXTS

1. Quirk, R. et al. A Grammar of Contemporary English.

2. Strang, Barbara. Modern English Structure. London. Edward Arnold, 1962.

. Owen, Thomas. Transformational Grammar and the Teacher of English.

II

SUMMARY TABLE SHOWING FEATURES AND FUNCTIONS OF THE 3-LEVEL LANGUAGE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS*

Features	Level 1 A Reference grammar	Level 2 A Teaching grammar	Level 3 A Practice grammar
1. Production requires knowledge of			
i) linguistics	+	+	+
ii) sociology/sociolinguistics	+	+	+
iii) psychology/psycholinguistics	+	+	+
iv) foreign language teaching	+	+	+
v) source language system	?	+	?
2. Directed at			
i) course writers	+	+	-
ii) language teachers	+	+	?
iii) language learners	-	-	+
3. Intended for			
i) reference on language (only)	+	-	-
ii) reference on methodology and language	-	+	-
iii) practical teaching materials	-	+	+
iv) learning/practice materials	-	-	+
4. Include			
i) language and data for			
(a) exemplifications	+	+	-
(b) data testing	-	+	+
(c) practice	+	-	+
ii) notes on testing/evaluation of			
(a) learners	-	+	-
(b) instructional materials	-	+	-
(c) teaching	-	+	-
5. Materials content selected on the basis of			
i) descriptive convenience	+	-	-
ii) communicative value (utility)	+	+	+
iii) real or predicted learning problems	+	+	+

* Adapted from Omojuwa 1975, pp.45-6.

Features	Level 1 A Reference grammar	Level 2 A Teaching grammar	Level 3 A Practice grammar
6. Materials content is expressed in			
i) behavioural	-	-	?
ii) sociological	+?	-	?
iii) linguistic			
(a) grammatical	+	+	+
(b) semantic/notional terms	+	+	+
7. Data presented in a			
i) deductive	?	+	?
ii) inductive	-	+	+
iii) guided inductive approach	?	+	+
8. Instructional materials goal is			
i) linguistic competence			
ii) communicative competence			
iii) both (i) and (ii)	?	+	+

Key: + Yes

- No

? Uncertain

III

1.	will	take			
2.	would	take			
3.	will	be		taking	
4.	would	be		taking	
5.	will	have	taken		
6.	would	have	taken		
7.	will	have	been	taking	
8.	would	have	been	taking	
9.	will	be			taken
10.	would	be		being	taken
11.	will	be		being	taken
12.	would	be		being	taken
13.	will	have	been		taken
14.	would	have	been		taken
15.	will	have	been	being	taken(?)
16.	would	have	been	being	taken(-)

IV

Pronunciation of Modal Verbs

Two pronunciations can be discerned when some modals are heard in speech. If such modals are stressed, they take their STRONG form(s); in unstressed syllables, their WEAK form(s) are heard. Study the following tables: (after Wakely and Mc Arthur, 1974: 7)

MODALS WITH WEAK FORMS

SPELLING	PRONUNCIATION	
	STRONG	WEAK
must	/mʌs(t)	/mas, 's/
can	/k æn/	/kan, kn/
could	/kud/	/kəd, kd/
shall	/ʃ æl/	/ʃəl, ʃl/
should	/ʃud/	/ʃəd, ʃd/
will	/wil/	/əl, l/
would	/wud/	/wəd, d /

MODALS WITH NO WEAK FORMS

SPELLING	PRONUNCIATION
musn't	/mʌsnt/
may	/mei, me/
mayn't	/meint/
might	/mait/
mightn't	/maitnt/
can't	/ka:nt, kænt/
couldn't	/kudnt/
shan't	/ʃa:nt, ʃænt/
shouldn't	/ʃudnt/
ought to	/ɔ:tu, ɔ:tə/
oughtn't to	/ɔ:tntu, ɔ:tntə/
won't	/wount, wəunt/
wouldn't	/wudnt/

Note: Sometimes /u/ in "couldn't", "shouldn't" and "wouldn't" is sometimes pronounced very short. "have" after modal verbs take the weak form /ə/ e.g. "must have /mʌstəv/, "could have" = /'udəv/

Appendix v

Elicited Essay Topics

1. What would you accept to be free education at all levels?
2. Defend or attack the continuation of N.Y.S.C. for N.C.E. holders.
3. Write a letter to an African pen-friend to tell him how the English language course is run in your college. State its limitations and explain what should be done to improve the structure.
4. Write an essay on the need for unity among African nations.
5. What should be the role of religion in the political life of Nigeria today?
6. Should young people specialise too early? If they do, would you think that they would have acquired a broad education?
7. Should Nigeria establish an Open University?
8. Write a letter to advise the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education in your state on what his ministry should do to improve teachers conditions of service.
9. Write a letter to a friend inviting him/her to spend a holiday with you in some part of Nigeria outside Lagos. Tell him/her he/she ought to come and explain clearly why you think the holiday will be interesting and enjoyable.

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