AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE TYPE OF

OCCUPATIONAL FRENCH USED BY

KENYANS AND HOW IT RELATES TO THE

TYPE OF FRENCH TAUGHT AT SCHOOL

BEATRICE NDOTI MULALA

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ABSTRACT

        In the introductory chapter, the research topic
is defined and justified in the light of the national
objectives of French teaching in the secondary schools.
Chapter II gives the background to the teaching of French
in Kenya: its introduction, its place on the curriculum
and the evolution of the 'O' and 'A' level syllabuses
with a description of the organisation of the corresponding
examinations. Chapter III examines the methodology adopted
to meet the objectives of the 'O' level syllabus, and
describes how the language skills of listening, speaking,
reading and writing are introduced and developed.

        The research data commence with Chapter IV, which
describes the selection of the sample from Kenyans using
French in their jobs and the method used for the collection
of data. The data collected on occupational French in the
form of written documents and taped conversations, as well
as the course "Pierre et Seydou" representing 'O' level
French, are analysed in Chapter V. This analysis is carried
out at the syntactical and lexical levels of the language.
For the analysis at the syntactical level, the Phrase
Structure Model is adopted to determine the rules governing
sentence structure, while at the lexical level the vocabulary
is classified into different parts of speech. Chapter VI
uses the results of these analyses to see how school French
compares with occupational French. Chapter VII concludes
by determining the relevance of school French to occupational

French in the light of the comparison made in the previous
chapter. It also gives some recommendations for increasing
the relevance of school French, and ends with some suggest-
ions for further research.

CHAPTER   I

INTRODUCTION

1.   Definition of the research topic

        In Kenya, French teaching begins in the first
year of secondary school.   Students at this stage already
speak, apart from their mother-tongue, English and Kiswahili.
French is usually therefore the fourth language to be learnt,
a fact which accounts for one of the obstacles encountered
in its teaching, namely, interference from this previous
linguistic experience.   Another difficulty lies in the fact
that the student, who has no prior knowledge of the language
before starting it in school, has no further contact with
it outside the classroom, and so cannot put into practice
what he learns.   The limited time-table at the disposal
of the French teacher (3 to 5 periods a week for 'O' level
French) does little to increase the student's exposure to
the language.   A final obstacle is that, for the most part,
the students lack any real motivation, once the novelty
of the subject has worn off.

        In view of the above difficulties facing the teach-
ing of French in Kenya, it would be expected that this
language was introduced with a definite purpose to which
it was going to be put.   The Wamalwa Report (1972:46)
justified the purpose of French by saying that "the
tremendously increased activities in the spheres of tourism,
international trade, communications and diplomacy give rise
to need for Kenyans with proficiency in such languages as

French and German." The Ministry of Education further defined the objectives of French teaching by saying that these were in fulfilment of a "progressive but controlled policy of equipping the nation at all levels of professional employment with those who can communicate and operate effectively in French" (Curriculum Guide, 1973:136). According to the syllabus, French was to be taught as an important tool of communication, with this national need in mind. The question one might ask here is: what type of French was selected to be taught and how was this selection made?

In language teaching, selection is an inherent characteristic of all methods. No method can teach the whole of a language, but must select that part of it that it intends to teach. The reasons for this selection are obvious when one considers the fact that no native speaker knows the whole of his language. Even the greatest writers never master the whole of the vocabulary of the language in which they write, and the average native speaker knows only a small fraction of his native vocabulary (Mackey, 1965). In making the selection, the following factors should be taken into account:

a. the purpose for which the language is going to be taught.

b. the level of the students for whom the language course is intended.

c. the duration of the course.

In Kenya, the fact that French teaching begins only in secondary school under the limited time-table mentioned above means that a very careful selection of what is to be taught has to be made, if the limited time available {about 450 hours to 'O' level (Obura, 1976)} is to be used as effectively as possible for the achievement of the objectives for teaching French.

The above-mentioned factors of purpose, level and duration determine the type of language to be taught. Selection of the language type includes a choice of register, style and media. Register is a term employed to indicate the uses to which a language is put. The daily life of an individual takes him through a succession of activities or roles requiring the use of language. These activities could be connected with his job, his leisure, his home life and so on, and in each he will produce or hear features of language that are typical of the activity involved (Wilkins, 1972). In this paper, the term "register" is going to be used to indicate the distinct varieties of language associated with different occupations. Language-teaching methods do not all use the same register, but are written at different registers depending on the occupational purposes aimed at, for example commercial, scientific or military purposes. From the point of view of style, a method may choose to teach the literary or colloquial style, standard or popular usage. The choice of media refers to the spoken or written language. This investigation will

mainly assess the type of French from the point of view
of register.

According to the quotations from the Wamalwa
Report (1972) and the Curriculum Guide (1973) given above,
the purpose of teaching French in Kenya can be summed up
as supplying the job-market with French-speaking Kenyans.
This purpose would imply the choice of a method which
takes into consideration the different occupational
registers in which the learners are likely to deal in
their future life. The aim of this investigation is there-
fore to find out whether the first factor affecting
selection, namely the purpose for which the language is
going to be taught, was taken into account in selecting
the French taught at school. In other words, were the
future occupational needs of the learners considered in
the choice of methods and courses to be used? The
investigator is aware of the fact that at the beginning
the factor of the level of the students would affect the
selection in terms of register, because "the lower the
level, the less the selection is affected by the purpose
of the course" (Mackey, 1965:163). Since students
embarking upon the 'O' level course in Form One are
absolute beginners, it means that at this level the teaching
objectives are geared more towards laying the foundations
of language use than towards the students' future occupa-
tional roles. Still, the 'O' level course covers four years,
and is followed by a two-year 'A' level course, and it is

therefore the aim of the investigation to see how far the
course goes beyond teaching the fundamental elements of
language and towards catering for the objective of teaching
French specified above.

2. Hypothesis

This research is being undertaken on the assumption
that, due to the development mainly of tourism and inter-
national trade, and because of the government's policy of
Kenyanisation, there are bound to be some Kenyans who are
using French in their jobs. The purpose of the research
can therefore be summed up as follows: to find out whether
the syntactical structures and lexical items used in
occupational French are covered by those taught in school
French.

3. Methodology

In order to be able to carry out this evaluation of
school French, it will be necessary to analyse and describe
both types of French, that is school French and occupational
French, in the same terms. Both will therefore be analysed
at the syntactical and lexical levels. The breaking down
of language into different elements is an essential stage
in the elaboration of language-teaching methods, because
the descriptive analysis of a language is the basis for the
analysis of its teaching. This descriptive analysis is based
on linguistic levels, which levels are described in terms

of units. Although descriptions of language differ in the number of levels and in the units used to describe them, they all nevertheless revolve around the systems of grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary and meaning, all of which are interrelated (Mackey, 1965). These levels may be subdivided, for example grammar into morphology and syntax, and pronunciation into phonetics and phonology, which accounts for their varying number in different descriptions.

At the syntactical level, the analysis will bear on sentence structure, and the model adopted for this analysis will be the Phrase Structure Model. The choice of this model was made in view of the economy that phrase structure descriptions represent by treating as similar in function groups of sentence elements which are themselves different in internal structure, for example singular and plural nouns, past and present verb forms and so on (Pit Corder, 1973), and thereby making significant generalizations which can be regarded as "rules" of sentence structure in the language under description. Due to this economy through generalizations, the phrase structure model is most appropriate in foreign language teaching, for it means that instead of memorizing a large number of unrelated sequences, the learner has to learn a much smaller number of rules or significant categories and relations. For this investigation, it is these rules which will be used in the comparison of school and occupational French at the syntactical level.

The analysis at the lexical level will be concerned with the vocabulary and the different categories into which it can be classified. In writing language-teaching methods, the principle of selection is more easily applied to vocabulary than to grammar, and it is in the field of vocabulary that there has been the greatest amount of work in language limitation (Mackey, 1965). In order to select what words to teach, it is necessary to have some sort of classification whereby the words of the language are put into categories, and the selection is then done for each category. These categories, or parts of speech as they are referred to in traditional grammar, are in modern descriptions determined through a formal analysis which takes into account the syntactic functions of words rather than their meanings. Although terminologies may differ in the naming of the classes, in this investigation the vocabulary will be classified into nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and structure words. These categories will therefore give the basis for comparison of school and occupational French at the lexical level.

A note should be made here that with regard to pronunciation, it was felt that an analysis at the phonological level would not be very significant since the principle of selection hardly applies to the phonetics of a language. Whereas items of vocabulary and grammar to be taught can and should be selected for any method, the possibility of restricting the sounds of a language is

extremely limited. Most languages have fewer than fifty significant sounds, and most of these are needed in the basic vocabulary (Mackey, 1965). French has only thirty-six, and they are all to be found in the school syllabus as well as in occupational French. This being the case, a comparison at this level between the two types of French would be quite insignificant.

4. Review of Literature

Over the last ten years or so, a lot of research has been done in the field of "languages for special purposes". These studies arise from a current trend to teach foreign languages for a utilitarian purpose as opposed to teaching them with a general educational aim in mind, with the result that there has been a movement away from grammatical syllabuses, to what are variously described as notional, functional or communicative syllabuses, (Munby, 1978). The utilitarian purpose is usually defined with reference to some occupational requirement, that is, the use of the language in a particular job, or some educational purpose in which the language is required as a means for furthering specialist education (Mackay & Mountford, 1978). Courses designed for special-purpose language teaching are therefore based on the specification of the learner's particular needs, and it is towards the writing of these courses that so many studies have been carried out to determine the semantic and structural content of different registers in

the main international languages. Among these languages, the biggest demand seems to be for English, with the result that within the teaching of English as a foreign language, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is the most rapidly-growing sub-division (Strevens, 1978).

From the book "English for Specific Purposes" edited by Mackay and Mountford (1978), two papers describing courses for educational purposes can be quoted to exemplify the notion of "language for special purposes" course design. In the first one, Swales gives a summary of his book "Writing Scientific English" which describes the setting up of a course in scientific English for students of Engineering in the University of Libya, where the faculties of Agriculture, Engineering and Science were English-medium. The students' needs for English were therefore for academic purposes - studying their science textbooks, listening to lectures, taking notes, writing examination answers and so on. The second paper by Bates describes the designing of an ESP course "Nucleus" in the University of Azerabadegan in Iran. The medium of instruction was Persian, but students of Science and Technology needed English to read textbooks written in English. The materials for this course consisted of an introductory core course (General Science), and various specific courses for different branches of science and technology.

This research falls more within the field of language for occupational purposes, since one of its objectives is

to analyse the type of occupational French being used by
Kenyans. As it will be the first one in this field in
Kenya, the research will be more of a general survey to
identify different occupational registers being used and
to analyse samples of language from them, rather than to
give a full description of the language used in any one
of them. Descriptions of various registers in French have
been done before, since here too there has been a demand
for courses written in different occupational registers.
The series "le Français et la Profession" comprises
courses written for foreigners who already know some basic
French and who wish to acquire the specialised language
of their profession as well as improve their general
French. In this series, "Le Français du Secrétariat
Commercial" (Dany, 1977), is written in the commercial
register for secretaries working in the marketing section
of a firm or company that does business with French-speaking
countries. It is intended to train them in the skill of
writing business letters, as well as to give them practice
in oral communication in situations relevant to their job,
for example giving information over the telephone, receiv-
ing French-speaking customers, showing them into the
Director's office and so forth.

In the field of Science and Technology, courses
have been written in French to meet the educational as
well as occupational needs of foreigners. Masselin (1971)
and his co-authors describe their course "Le Français

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Scientifique et Technique Tome I" as being the first in
a series intended to teach the specialised language of
physics, chemistry and technology to foreign students as
well as people already holding jobs in these fields, thus
enabling them to consult books on these subjects written
in French. The users of the course should have a know-
ledge of basic French, and the course is geared mainly
towards developing their comprehension of written texts,
since this is what the language is needed for.

Since this study is going to evaluate school French
by seeing how relevant it is to the occupational needs of
Kenyans who might be using French in their jobs, the above
descriptions of French courses in the field of language
for special purposes would be useful in cases where school
French might be found to be inadequate. In the event that
courses in specialised language were to be set up to cater
for these cases, it is good to know that such courses do
exist, which can be adopted and adapted to suit the
particular needs of the Kenyans in question (cf. Recommend-
ation (c) under Conclusion).

THE TEACHING OF FRENCH IN KENYA

Before the main body of the research could be
embarked upon, it was felt that some background to the
teaching of French in Kenya was necessary as it helps to
place the research problem in one of its contexts, namely
the school and the syllabus that is used to teach French,
since the evaluation of the latter is the main aim of
this investigation. This chapter and the following one
will therefore give a description of the introduction and
the place of French in the secondary school curriculum,
as well as of the evolution of the "O" and "A" level
syllabuses.

1. The introduction of French and its place on the
    curriculum

Before independence, French was a well established
subject in the European schools. It was taught in much
the same way as in Britain, and was considered of cultural
value, part of a general education. Emphasis was laid on
the skills of reading and writing.

Around 1960, French was introduced into a few all-
African schools. The introduction of French into these
schools was in keeping with the spirit of the Organisation
of African Unity which had urged on its member states the
development of French in English-speaking Africa and
English in French-speaking Africa. In 1961 this call was

repeated in Yaounde during the meeting of specialists on

the teaching of a second European language. It was

recommended to all African Ministries of Education South

of the Sahara to introduce the second European language

(i.e. either French or English) as soon as the patterns

of the first European language had been properly mastered.

It was the opinion of the meeting that

> the second European language should
> be considered not only as a means of
> communication between English-speaking
> and French-speaking countries in Africa,
> but also as an international language
> with a wider purpose which, jointly with
> the first European language, would enable
> Africa to communicate with other countries
> throughout the world (Brann, 1970:139).

The wish was expressed at the meeting that this inter-

national objective be taken into account, to the

greatest extent, in the preparation of syllabuses and

textbooks.

From 1964 onwards, Kenya began to seriously

implement the Yaounde recommendation, with the result that

by 1970 French was being taught in some 44 schools, in-

cluding the former European schools mentioned above,

which after independence had opened their doors to African

pupils. Today French is taught in 36 schools, the majority

of them being located in Nairobi and a few in other towns

like Mombasa, Kisumu, Machakos, Nakuru and Eldoret. The

turn-out at "O" level has remained at an average of 700

candidates during the 70s. It would appear from the above

figures that instead of continuing to expand, the teaching

of French has in fact decreased during the 70s.

The reasons behind this lack of expansion can be traced to Ministry policy and also to problems of curriculum and staffing in the schools. At the end of 1969 the Ministry of Education laid down the conditions under which a school could be authorised to introduce French. These stated that:

    a.   only full-developed three-or-more-stream schools in which a favourable staffing ratio permitted subject options could be approved for French.

    b.   schools have to have the financial and physical means to provide and maintain audio-visual equipment, and to purchase books.

    c.   any school wishing to introduce French must have teachers fully competent in the use of the language and trained to teach it.

These conditions excluded a large number of schools, which explains the uneven distribution of schools teaching French in the country.

A further limitation to the number of schools able to introduce French arose for reasons of curriculum, which in the three-stream and larger schools had become over-crowded due to:

    a.   the introduction of vocational subjects like Business Education, Agriculture, Industrial Arts etc.

    b.   the emerging importance of Kiswahili.

     c.   the increasing emphasis on the science
subjects (Inspectorate, 1976).

The availability of suitable staff was another limiting factor to the expansion of French. The first citizen teachers tended to abandon teaching for more lucrative jobs in the private sector or to go abroad for further studies. The cutback by the British government on ODA contract teachers meant that the country relied mainly on French Technical Aid teachers, whose number was cut down by two-thirds in 1976, resulting in a crisis in the staffing situation. This crisis has since been solved, mainly through Kenyatta University College graduate teachers of French.

In view of the above limiting factors, the Ministry realised the need to control and consolidate the expansion of French. It became even necessary to ask some schools which had introduced French disregarding the advice of the Ministry to drop the subject, which explains the decrease in the number of schools in the 70s. Emphasis was laid on quality rather than quantity, in other words, teaching the language effectively to a limited number of pupils instead of having a large number of them going through the motions of learning French, a waste that would be unforgivable given the heavy demands on the curriculum and on funds.

This quality versus quantity policy was quite in keeping with the nature of the need for French speakers in Kenya. In a country surrounded by French-speaking

neighbours, it might perhaps be useful that everyone have
some knowledge of French. But in Kenya it is a need for
a limited number of people who can "communicate and operate
effectively in fluent contemporary French" (Curriculum
Guide, 1973:136).

2. The Ordinary Level syllabus

It has been mentioned that in the days before in-
dependence, French was taught in the same way as it was
taught in Britain. The grammar-translation method used
prepared pupils for the Overseas School Certificate
Examination, which consisted very largely of translation.
There was an optional oral examination, whose mark did not
affect the overall result.

After independence and with the definition of the
national objectives for teaching French in Kenya, it be-
came clear that a change of syllabus and examination was
called for, if these objectives were to be achieved. In
1965 the Inspectorate began to prepare an alternative "O"
level examination for East Africa, which was accepted by
Cambridge and examined for the first time in 1968. After
1970 the Cambridge examination was phased out completely.
The present "O" level paper (E.A.C.E.) consists of the
following items:

  a. compulsory oral carrying 25% of the marks.
   This consists of reading, answering of set
   questions and a small talk prepared by the
   candidate on which he is questioned.

b. Paper I - two compositions and a series of structural questions.

c. Paper II - listening comprehension and reading comprehension with multiple choice questions (E.A. Exams Council, 1979).

The aim of the change in examination was to clear the way for new methods of language teaching, in which emphasis is laid on the acquisition of communication and information skills, with precedence given to oral and written comprehension and expression as opposed to the traditional study of grammar and formal translation. The planners of the new examination were aware of the fact that examinations condition class-room work, therefore defining the requirements of the examination implied the underlying objectives of the course.

The syllabus that was evolved as a result of this change of examination states the specific objectives that are going to be achieved during the four-year "O" level course. These objectives are listed in the Curriculum Guide (1973) as follows:

a. To expose pupils to a second international language of key importance in Africa today.

b. To give pupils the stimulus and challenge of "language learning".

c. To train pupils in the basic language skills of:

i. listening

ii. speaking

iii. reading

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        iv. writing

   d. To give pupils carefully graded and systematic
training in the associated activities which
build up the above language skills:

- hearing, imitating, listening, understanding
  - for c(i).
- repetition, pronounciation, controlled
  dialogue, free conversation - for c(ii).
- looking, seeing, recognising, reading -
  for c(iii).
- copying, guided writing, creative writing
  - for c(iv).

   e. Without resorting to dreary cramming which
distorts the, true processes of language-learning,
to prepare pupils for the specific activities,
some of them complex, required by the new
E.A.C.E. examination.

   f. To produce a significant number of keen and
fluent linguists with a sound knowledge of
French:

    i. who will continue French during their
vocational training.

   ii. whose French may be "dormant" during
vocational training, but can be "re-
activated" should it be required for or
during their future job.

  iii. who would be capable of continuing French
in forms Five and Six as soon as a sound
and well-adapted "A" level syllabus is
available, and who would then go on to
study French at University level.

The Curriculum Guide goes on to give an outline of the

content of the course, stating that by the time they reach
form Four, pupils will be expected to be familiar with:

    a.   the lexical content of "Le Francais Fondamental
        1 & 2" as set out in the "Dictionnaire du
        Français Fondamental pour l'Afrique Anglophone".

    b.   the grammatical and structural content of "Le
        Français Fondamental Premier Degré", and selected
        items of "Le Français Fondamental Deuxième
        Degré".

    c.   the obvious and accessible aspects of con-
        temporary life in francophone Africa as
        portrayed in the course books, reading material,
        supplementary material and certain characteristic
        features of life in France.

    d.   the preoccupations, language and style of the
        press and radio.

In order to implement the objectives of the new
syllabus, a different methodology had to be adopted. Audio-
visual methods were introduced, the recommended one being
"Pierre et Seydou", a method specially designed for
English-speaking African pupils. The grammatical and
lexical content of the method is based on "Le Français
Fondamental" which, as the result of a systematic study
of the commonest words and structures in use in France
today, forms the point of departure for most modern French
text-book courses.

3.   The Advanced level syllabus

        One of the objectives of the "O" level course quoted
above aimed at producing "a significant number of keen and

fluent linguists with a sound knowledge of French who would be capapble of continuing French in forms Five and Six as soon as a sound and well-adapted "A" level syllabus is available ...". The problem facing the "A" level course was that the only syllabus available was the traditional Cambridge Higher School Certificate syllabus, which was totally unsuited to those students who had done the new "O" level French, and ill-adapted to the needs of students in Africa today, who were not learning French as part of a general education or for cultural value, but as a tool of communication (Curriculum Guide, 1973). The Cambridge examination consisted mainly of translation and the literary appreciation of texts.

A new "A" level syllabus was therefore developed and examined for the first time in 1976 by the East African Examinations Council. The E.A.A.C.E. examination consists of the following papers:

Paper I

a. Test of Extensive Reading. Aim: to test the candidate's ability of reading rapidly.

b. Translation into English. Aim: to test not only global comprehension, but also the ability to follow complex sentence construction and to produce a precise, though not necessarily stylistically elegant rendering.

c. Reading Comprehension. Aim: to test the comprehension of written French and the subtleties of language interpretation.

Paper II

a.   French and francophone African civilisation.
     Aim: to test the candidate's understanding
     of certain aspects of 20th century Africa and
     metropolitan France and the links between them.

b.   Test of Intensive Reading. Aim: to test the
     knowledge of two 20th century texts that have
     been studied in depth, from the point of view
     of language and content.

Paper IV - Oral Test

a.   Listening Comprehension. Aim: to test the
     ability to understand a sustained passage of
     modern French speech.

b.   Reading Aloud. Aim: to test the candidate's
     accent, fluency and intonation.

c.   Conversation. Aim: to test the candidate's
     ability to converse freely in French on a
     wide selection of general topics, including
     topics of "Civilisation" (East African
     Examinations Council, 1979).

It is obvious from the above components of the
examination that the new syllabus moved away from the
emphasis on literature as an academic discipline which tied
French in with other liberal arts subjects and is geared
to the practical need for clarity of expression in com-
munication with African and other French-speaking countries.

Today, out of the 36 schools teaching French, only
about eight teach the subject to "A" level, producing an
average of 40 candidates every year since 1970. The Ministry

had set a target of 150 candidates to be reached in the 70s, and the failure to do so can be accounted for mainly on the organisation of the "A" level subject combinations and the students' selection of these subjects. For "A" level, the students have to choose either Arts or Science subjects. Due to the increasing emphasis on the need for scientists and technologists, those students who are good at French as well as in the science subjects usually choose to go into the science stream and therefore have to drop French. Despite the change in the syllabus, the notion that French is a liberal arts subject still persists, and leads parents into choosing non-Arts courses for their children who are talented in French (Kenya Association of Teachers of French, 1978).

CHAPTER   III

INTRODUCTION   AND   DEVELOPMENT   OF

THE   LANGUAGE   SKILLS

It was briefly mentioned in Chapter II that a new
methodology had to be adopted if the objectives of the new
syllabus were going to be implemented effectively. This
chapter is going to examine in more detail the various
aspects of this new methodology and how the reform in the
curriculum, as reflected in the syllabus and course-material,
renders possible the introduction and development of the
four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and
writing.

The grammar-translation method that had been
imported from Britain and in which the emphasis was laid
on the skills of reading and writing was replaced by
audio-visual methods which would better implement the
objectives of the syllabus since in these methods the
development of all four language skills was taken into
account. For purposes of description the different skills
are going to be discussed under three headings: the
phonological skills, the structural skills and the semantic
skills. The division into different categories is purely
for convenience, since the different linguistic levels
overlap especially where audio-visual methods are concerned.
The basic linguistic items will not be taught in isolation,
and an audio-visual method will only teach "complex
structures which are at once phonological, morphological

and syntactic" (Girard, 1972:22).

1. The phonological skills

        The phonological skills concern the ability to
distinguish and utter sound patterns (Brann, 1970). Audio-
visual methods, being based on the findings of linguistics
concerning the nature of language and especially the
primary importance of speech in any language, always
present the spoken language before the written one. The
recommended methodology for using the audio-visual methods
which replaced the traditional ones therefore lays emphasis
on "a purely oral introduction to French" with "a very
controlled and systematically planned exposure to the
written form of French" (Curriculum Guide, 1973). The
discrepancy between spoken and written French makes the
above approach even more desirable, and in order to avoid
"spelling-pronunciations", the comprehension and reproduct-
ion of oral patterns should always precede the reading
and writing of them.

        The most widely used audio-visual method in the
secondary schools is "Pierre et Seydou". Pierre et Seydou
Book 1, intended for use in forms One and Two, contains
twenty lessons. The point of departure for each lesson
is a dialogue taking place in a given situation in which
the interlocuters use the natural language of oral com-
munication. The course designers intended the first five
lessons to be done purely orally, covering about ten weeks

of form One. Though opinions still differ as to how long
the oral-only period should be, the basic principle of
presenting all new material orally first still remains,
and it is recognised that there will always be some time-
lag between the oral and the written, with the gap decreas-
ing as the pupils advance in the course (David, 1975).

The dialogue at the beginning of each lesson is
presented orally and pupils are not allowed to see the
written version before the oral stage is completed. New
elements in the dialogue are explained, and the pupils
then repeat and memorise the dialogue, with the teacher
correcting their pronunciation and intonation. This
repetition/memorisation phase of the teaching unit is
meant to train the pupils' phonological skills, as well
as fixing the oral patterns before the pupils start
writing them.

The new syllabus encourages a widening of the
registers of everyday speech, by which is meant the dif-
ferent spheres or situations in which pupils can perform
to understand and make themselves understood (Brann, 1970).
Thus in forms Three and Four pupils are exposed to listening
comprehensions in which a news-like item, a conversation
or a story is read out to them and they have to listen and
understand in order to be able to answer the questions.
To develop their listening skill further, the teacher
sometimes uses recordings made by voices other than his
own, for example the Voice of Kenya taped broadcasts which

constitute supplementary material for use in forms Three
and Four.

2.   The structural skills

The structural skills concern the ability to organise
language into acceptable patterns. The syllabus limits
these with reference to structures listed in "Le Français
Fondamental" which are themselves based on the correct
spoken use of contemporary French. Forms and structures
are introduced progressively, and are always presented in
significant contexts. In "Pierre et Seydou", the dialogue
at the beginning of each lesson contains the grammar points
to be taught in the unit, and the final phases of the
teaching unit consist in practising and exploiting the
new forms and structures. Unlike the grammar-translation
method where the grammar rule was given first and then
exemplified, the audio-visual method uses an inductive
approach whereby the structures are exercised through pat-
tern drills from which the rules emerge.

The integration of new structures proceeds step
by step, from the simple to the complex, from the relatively
artificial to the freest expression. In order for the
structural skills to develop, it is important that pattern
drills lead to free expression, both in speech and writing.
That is why the dialogue at the beginning of each lesson
is only a point of departure. At the beginning the pupils
identify with the characters and act the dialogue, a matter

of simple repetition. Next the teacher introduces new situations, either created in class or imaginary, and so by moving away from the situation of the dialogue, and without changing the structures, he gives the pupils an opportunity of using the structures for something they want to say. In this type of controlled conversation based on various situations the teacher can also bring in other structures that the pupils have already learnt, thereby reinforcing them to ensure their definite assimilation. The final step consists of having the pupils use the structures learnt in written expression for example a letter, a story, an account and so on, which could be guided or free.

It is perhaps useful at this point to describe more specifically the phasing-in of the skills of reading and writing. It has been mentioned that the authors of the course "Pierre et Seydou" intended the first five lessons to be done orally, but some teachers find it more convenient to introduce the written language as soon as the first two lessons have been covered orally, that is after about four weeks. While they are working on lesson three orally, they begin to read on lesson one. Pupils are made to repeat tiny extracts from the dialogue of lesson one which they already know well. The teacher then writes on the board the words corresponding to those segments, preferably chosen for the close correspondence between letters and sounds. The pupils read them out. This

exercise only takes a few minutes each day, and the dif-
ficulties are spread over a period of time in which they
can be satisfactorily assimilated. After about five
lessons have been read, it is usually found that all the
main difficulties have been met. The next step is to move
from the dialogues to small, specially constructed reading
passages, like the ones to be found at the end of each
lesson in the course-book. Around the middle of the
second year easy readers are introduced, and the comprehen-
sion of what is read is checked by means of short questions.

       Writing starts at the same time as reading, but
the reading exercises are not writing ones. Writing is
introduced through chosen words from the dialogue con-
taining a similar sound. The words are written on the
board, read and copied down. The words chosen will not
necessarily be the ones the pupils have learnt to read.
The main aim here is to establish links between the
spelling of certain sounds and their oral production.
After a few weeks it is possible for pupils to start copy-
ing small segments of dialogues that they already know
orally, and to move on to written exercises. These exer-
cises will be easy ones at first, such as copying sentences,
or writing down the oral exercises done in class. Dictation
is useful at this stage too, not as a test but as an
exercise to anchor the written form. Corrections are done
immediately. From the second half of the second year,
composition writing is introduced. At first it is guided,

either by pictures or by a model, and is still close to the situation evoked in the dialogue. In this way the same ideas, structures and lexis can be used by the pupil.

3. The semantic skills

The semantic skills concern words and their meanings. Language consisting of physical sound and organisational structure would be useless without reference to meaning (Brann, 1970). The syllabus limits the semantic fields to the vocabulary of "Le Français Fondamental", adapted with certain omissions and additions to the African context. Pierre et Seydou Book One is based on "Le Francais Fondamental Premier Degré" which contains about 1500 lexical items, and it is usually reckoned that this list provides enough material for these two years of the course. The aim in limiting the vocabulary taught is to make sure that the carefully chosen items are completely assimilated and can be used spontaneously when the occasion demands.

The order of vocabulary introduction is based mainly on the ease with which individual lexical items may be put into immediate use, and the length of words need not matter. With the help of visual aids, gestures, mime and other means at his disposal, the teacher explains the meaning of the new lexical items contained in the dialogue, avoiding translation. These items can then be practised and fixed at the same time as the structure, since one cannot drill a structure without words. The use

of bilingual dictionaries by the pupils is not allowed.
As a revision aid, pupils are encouraged to enter new
words in a vocabulary exercise book, in which the meaning
of the word entered should not be indicated by its English
or vernacular equivalent, but rather by copying a suitable
sentence in which the word occurs and which illustrates
its use and meaning.

In forms Three and Four the pupils' vocabulary is
widened further through the use of Pierre et Seydou Book
Two which introduces the remaining lexical items of "Le
Français Fondamental Premier Degré" and a few from "Le
Français Fondamental Deuxième Degré", as well as through
increased contact with written material, the sources of
which might be newspapers, magazines, readers and so on.
At this stage some of these lexical items will only be
known passively, that is the pupils will be able to re-
cognise and understand them both in sound and print, but
will be incapable of using them in their own expression.

From the preceding description of how the different
skills are introduced and developed, it seems that the new
methodology and course material effectively implement the
objectives of the syllabus. It was mentioned in the last
chapter that these objectives were laid down bearing in
mind the national objective for teaching French in the
secondary schools, which, according to the Wamalwa Report
(1972), arises from "the tremendously increased activities
in the spheres of tourism, international trade, com-
munications and diplomacy". This investigation is

therefore going to evaluate the teaching of French in Kenya in the light of this national objective, to see how far the syllabus chosen has gone towards fulfilling it, and how the introduction and development of the different skills, and the importance given to each, actually relates to the future needs of those pupils who do get to use French in their jobs. To do this, samples of the type of French being used in various jobs will be collected, to be analysed and then compared to the type of language taught within the syllabus described above. It is this comparison which will show the extent to which the syllabus caters to the objective for teaching French, and thereby give an indication of the syllabus' relevance to the future occupational needs of the learners.

CHAPTER   IV

SELECTION   OF   THE   SAMPLE   AND

COLLECTION   OF   DATA

The subjects for study were selected after a
preliminary survey in Nairobi and Mombasa in which dif-
ferent work locales where French is used were identified.
These work locales can be grouped under the categories
of Hotels, Airlines, Travel Agencies, International
companies and International organisations.

The next step was to select, from within each
category, Kenyans who were using French in their jobs.
To do this, the investigator interviewed, in French,
subjects whose names had already been listed during the
preliminary survey, to find out how much they used French
on the job, and whether it was mainly written or oral
French that they used. The main criterion for selection
was the frequency of use and not fluency, although the
interview also gave the investigator the chance to judge
the fluency of the subjects in the language, about which
comments are made in the conclusion. The information
about the kind of French mainly used, that is written
or oral, was useful in the selection of sources for the
spoken and written language.

Altogether 40 subjects were chosen, whose jobs
fall under the following headings:

-   bilingual secretaries

-   translators

- hotel receptionists

- company legal assistant

- company marketing officer

- air hostesses/stewards

- airline ticketing officers

- travel agents

This research, being qualitative rather than quantitative, did not seek to have a sample representative of all the Kenyans in the country who might be using French in their jobs. The aim was to obtain samples of language representing as wide a variety of registers as possible, since it was from the point of view of register that the type of French was going to be assessed.

After choosing the subjects, the investigator interviewed them more fully to elicit the following information from them:

a. where they learnt French

b. to what level

c. how much opportunity they had to use French in their jobs

d. whether they used French outside their jobs

e. whether the French they knew when they joined their job was useful in the job or whether they had had to learn a more specialised language

f. what their attitude was towards French if they learnt it at school

g. what motivated them to learn French if they learnt it outside school

The aim of asking these questions was to try and appreciate the position of French among the Kenyans using it in their jobs, and this is discussed in the conclusion.

The data collected consisted of samples of written and spoken language. Written documents or their photocopies were obtained from the subjects who mainly used the written language. Collection of the data for the spoken language proved a bit more difficult. Originally the investigator had intended to tape-record the subjects as they used the language, for example an airline ticketing officer talking to a French-speaking customer. Apart from the procedural difficulty of obtaining data this way (Crystal & Davy, 1969), the main problem here was that of timing. The subjects could not know in advance when they were going to use French, and so it was difficult for the investigator to be on the spot to obtain recordings. Most of the subjects using the spoken language worked in the tourist industry, and the fact that the tourists come and go by seasons added to the difficulty. Another problem was that in some work locales it would have been almost impossible to obtain a usable recording. This applied especially to big hotel receptions where the noise from the lobby and around the desk would have made it very difficult to record the receptionist talking to a customer.

The solution adopted therefore was that of simulation, whereby the investigator played the part of the French-speaking customer and held a relevant conversation with the subject. This conversation was recorded.

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In this way it was possible to obtain recordings of subjects who would otherwise be using French in situations almost out of the investigator's reach, for example, air hostesses and stewards dealing with passengers during a flight. It was felt that even though samples obtained through simulation might be lacking in authenticity, they were still representative enough of the subjects' performance in real situations.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Before a comparison can be made between the occupat-
ional French and the French taught at school, both have
to be analysed on the same lines. This analysis will be
on the syntactical and lexical levels of the language, as
was mentioned in the introduction. At the syntactical
level, the analysis will bear on sentence structure. The
model adopted for this analysis will be the Phrase Structure
Model, and it will be the phrase structure rules emerging
that will be used for comparison. At the lexical level,
the vocabulary will be put into the categories of nouns,
verbs, adjective, adverbs and structure words. School
French will be analysed first.

1. Analysis of school French

The analysis of the French taught at school will
be limited to the 'O' level syllabus. This choice has
been made in view of the fact that out of an average 700
candidates a year at 'O' level, only about 40 manage to
carry on to 'A' level, and an even smaller number to
University level. It is the method "Pierre et Seydou"
that is going to be analysed as representative of 'O'
level French. In addition, the supplementary material
introduced in Forms 3 and 4 as described in chapter three
will be analysed at the semantic level, for it might con-
tain some lexical items not included in the course-book.
This material is prepared at the Kenya Institute of

Education, and care is taken to ensure that all grammatical and lexical items are within "Le Français Fondamental". As far as grammatical structures are concerned, this material is not meant to introduce new ones, but to exercise and reinforce structures already introduced in the course material.

a) Analysis at the syntactical level

Even though the "Français Fondamental" gives an outline of the commonest grammatical structures in use in France today, which structures should therefore form the basis for any course for beginners, it does not say anything about the sentence patterns to be taught. These will have to be looked for within the lessons themselves. All the forty lessons of the course will be analysed systematically, and sentences displaying different patterns will be picked out for analysis.

The following are the sentences selected for analysis. The left-hand column gives the number of the lesson where the sentence occurs, with, in the middle column, the element of grammar that is being introduced as it appears in the outline given in the teacher's book. The letters A and B refer to Pierre et Seydou Book One and Book Two respectively.

Lesson	Grammatical Element	Sentence
A1	Interrogative by inflection	Pierre est ici?
	Imperative	Viens, Pierre!
	Coordination with "et"	Je ris, et Seydou rit aussi.

A2	Indefinite article – singular masculine Adjective after noun	Jevois un dessin amusant.
A3	Definite article – singular masculine Adjectives after "être" Adverb of place & time	Le métier est difficile, mais je suis content. Tu travailles ici maintenant?
A4	"Il y a ..."	Il y a un grand hôtel, l'Hôtel de Paris.
A6	Definite article – singular feminine Interrogative with "est-ce que"	Est-ce que vous allez à la gare, Monsieur?
A7	Interrogative with "qu'est-ce que"	Qu'est-ce que vous désirez?
A8	Interrogative with "où" & inversion of subject	Mais où est-elle?
A9	Possessive pronouns Negative "ne ... pas" Adjective before noun Interrogative with "comment" & inversion of subject	Tu ne veux pas montrer ton sac à ton vieux camarade? Comment vas-tu?
A10	Demonstrative pronouns "ce", "cette"	Tu vois cette vieille dame avec ce bébé?
A11	Interrogative with "quel" & inversion of subject	Quelle heure est-il?

A14	Exclamative form with "quel"	Quelle poussière derrière nous!
	Interrogative with "qui"	Qui est ce monsieur bien habillé?
A18	Interrogative with "combien"	Combien coûte ce foulard?
A19	Conjuction "que"	Je suis sur que je vais tuer de grosses bêtes.
	Immediate future	
B1	Adverbial pronouns of place "y", "en"	Au retour, nous allons y faire escale un jour ou deux. J'en viens.
	Indefinite article, plural Relative pronouns "qui", "que"	J'aperçois des autos qui roulent sur la route. C'est cette grande rivière que nous voyons au-dessous de nous.
B2	Interrogative with "que"	Que fais-tu ici?
B5	"Quand" + future indicative "Savoir" + infinitive	Quand je saurai lire et écrire, je ferai mieux mes comptes.
B9	"Si" + imperfect + conditional Indefinite article – singular feminine	Si vous coupiez une cabosse en deux, nous verrions ce qu'il y a sous l'enveloppe.
	Relative pronoun "où" "Il faut" + infinitive	Il faut laisser les racines dans la terre où elles ont poussé.
B13	"Si" + past perfect + conditional perfect	Si vous aviez suivi mes conseils, vous

Partitive pronoun "en"

Direct object pronoun

l'auriez planté la-bas et vous en auriez récolté le double.

B18 Relative pronoun "dont"

Demonstrative pronoun "celui"

Cet avion dont nous entendons le bruit juste au-dessus du toit, c'est peut-être celui des enfants?

B19 Relative pronoun "lequel"

Demonstrative pronoun

"celle-ci"

Indirect object pronoun

Present perfect

C'est une boite d'ébène dans laquelle nous t'avons apporté l'air de la forêt équatoriale.

The Phrase Structure Rules which emerged from the analysis of the above sentences are as follows:

1. Sentence →
- Noun Phrase + Predicate Phrase
- Adverbial Phrase + Noun Phrase + Predicate Phrase
- Sentence + Coordinator + Sentence

2. Noun Phrase →
- Determiner(Adjective)Noun(Adjective)
- Pronoun
- Proper Noun
- Noun Phrase + Sentence
- Noun Phrase + Prepositional Phrase
- Ø

3. Determiner→$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{Article}\\\text{Possessive}\\\text{Demonstrative}\end{array}\right\}$

4. Predicate Phrase → {Auxiliary + Verb Phrase}

5. Auxiliary → (Negative)Tense(Perfect)(Interrogative)
    (Auxiliary Verb)

6. Perfect → $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{être + Past Participle}\\\text{avoir + Past Participle}\end{array}\right\}$

7. Tense → $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{Present}\\\text{Future}\\\text{Imperfect}\\\text{Present Perfect}\\\text{Past Perfect}\\\text{Conditional}\\\text{Conditional Perfect}\end{array}\right\}$

8. Interrogative → $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{inversion of subject}\\\text{interrogative word(inversion)}\end{array}\right\}$

9. Auxiliary Verb → pouvoir, devoir ... vouloir

10.   Verb Phrase → {
```
Verb
Verb + Noun Phrase
Verb + Prepositional Phrase
Verb + Adverbial Phrase
Verb + Adjective
Pronoun + Verb
Verb + Complimentiser + Sentence
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11.   Prepositional Phrase → {
```
Preposition + Noun Phrase
Preposition + Verb Phrase
Preposition + Adverb
```

12.   Interrogative Word →   qui, que, ou, est-ce que,... combien

13.   Adverbial Phrase   → {
```
Adverb
Adverb + Prepositional Phrase
```

14.   Noun → dessin, hotel, sac, bébé ...

15.   Verb → voir, rire, entendre, mettre ...

16.   Pronoun → {
```
moi, toi, lui ... elles
je, tu, il ... elles
me, te, le ... leur
```

17. Article → $\begin{cases} \text{un, le, l'} \\ \text{une, la, l'} \\ \text{des, les} \end{cases}$

18. Possessive → $\begin{cases} \text{mon, ton, son, notre, votre, leur} \\ \text{ma, ta, sa, notre, votre, leur} \\ \text{mes, tes, ses, nos, vos, leurs} \end{cases}$

19. Demonstrative → ce, ceci, ceux ... celles-ci

20. Preposition → à, avec, pour, dans, de ... chez

21. Adjective → amusant, vieux, beau, grande ...

22. Adverb → ici, aussi, quand, bien ...

23. Proper Noun → Pierre, Seydou ...

24. Complimentiser → $\begin{cases} \text{Relative Pronoun} \\ \text{Conjunction} \end{cases}$

25. Conjuction → que .... si

26. Relative Pronoun → qui, que, dont ... lequel

27. Coordinator → et

b). Analysis at the lexical level

        At the lexical level, the analysis will consist of
putting the vocabulary into the following categories: nouns,

verbs, adjectives, adverbs and structure words. All the
forty lessons of the course-book "Pierre et Seydou" will
be analysed, plus some supplementary material in the form
of passages for reading and listening comprehension. The
teacher's book for Pierre et Seydou gives, at the begin-
ning of each lesson, a break-down of the lexical content
of the lesson, and this will be used as a guide. It does
not, however, say what content is new in each lesson. It
will therefore be a question of checking each word against
those already listed in its category, to make sure that
it has not appeared before, and thereby avoid repetition.
The lists obtained from this analysis will appear in the
appendix.

2.   Analysis of occupational French

The data collected on occupational French includes
samples of spoken and written language. The varieties of
language represented in these data can be classified into
technical, commercial, secretarial, hotel and travel
language, with the first three varieties being found mainly
among the written language data, and the other two among
the spoken language data. Representative samples of each
variety have been selected for analysis, and these are to
be found in the appendix.[1]   The documents are labelled

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[1] These documents appear anonymously in the appendix. The
reason for this is because the investigator had to promise
the subjects concerned that they would appear so, before
she could obtain them.

either "S" or "W", S standing for spoken language data as
transcribed from the tapes, and W for written language
data. The varieties of language used are as follows:

S1 - Travel language: an air hostess making an
announcement after landing. (Even though
this sample was collected orally, it can also
be classified as written language data, since
the subject was reading out a written text).

S2 - Travel language: a steward talking to a
passenger.

S3 - Travel language: an airline ticketing officer
talking to a customer.

S4 - Hotel language: a hotel receptionist talking
to a customer.

W1 - Secretarial/commercial language

W2 - Secretarial/commercial language

W3 - Secretarial/technical language

W4 - Secretarial/technical language

W5 - Secretarial/technical language

All the written language documents are in the form of letters,
which explains the presence of the secretarial variety of
language in all of them.

a)   Analysis at the syntactical level

To select the sentences for analysis from the samples
of occupational French, the same itemisation of grammatical

elements that was done for school French will be carried
out. The sentences chosen will then be analysed using the
Phrase Structure Model, to determine the phrase structure
rules covering them.

The following are the sentences selected for
analysis. The left-hand column gives the reference to the
document in which the sentence is contained, and in the
middle column are listed the grammatical elements dis-
played in the sentences.

Doc.	Grammatical Element	Sentence
S1	Definite article – singular feminine Adjective after noun	La température extérieure est de 25 degrés.
S1	Relative pronoun "qui" Relative pronoun "dont" Possessive pronoun Conditional	Notre personnel au sol, qui vous accueillera, est à votre disposition pour tout renseignement dont vous pourriez avoir besoin.
S1	Conjuction "que" Demonstrative pronoun "ce" Future	Nous espérons que ce vol vous a été agréable et que nous aurons le plaisir de vous revoir à bord.
S2	Interrogative with "quel" & inversion of subject	Quelles marques de cigarettes avez-vous?
S2	Interrogative with "est-ce que"	Est-ce que vous vendez du parfum?
S3	"Il faut" + infinitive	Est-ce qu'il me faut reconfirmer la réservation?

S3	Negative "ne ... pas"	Ce n'est pas nécessaire, Monsieur.
S3	Interrogative by inversion of subject	Voulez-vous faire votre réservation maintenant?
S4	"Pouvoir + infinitive Indirect object pronoun Indefinite article – singular feminine	Je peux vous donner une autre chambre pour aujourd'hui.
S4	Partitive (French) pronoun "en"	Vous en avez qui donnent sur le parc?
W1	Relative pronoun "que" "Faire" + infinitve Adverbs Indefinite article – singular masculine	Conformément au désir que vous avez exprimé, nous nous faisons un plaisir de vous faire parvenir, sous pli séparé, notre dernier catalogue ainsi que les tarifs actuellement en vigueur.
W2	Gerundive	Je me réjouis à l'idée de pouvoir satisfaire votre attente en vous adressant dans les prochains jours les publications que vous avez choisies.
W3	Coordination with "et" Demonstrative pronoun "ces" Definite article – plural	La fréquence de remplacement de ces parties est donc fortement réduite, et les frais opérationnels de cette palette sont moindres.
W3	Adjective before noun	Nous vous recommandons vivement ce dessin pour vos futures palettes.

W4   "Vouloir" + infinitive –   Veuillez trouver ci-joint
     (polite form of the   le rapport de la visite
     imperative)   technique que nous avons
                                      effectuée à votre usine
                                      du 11 au 14 mai.

W5   Demonstrative pronoun "cette"   Cette décoration ne peut
                                      s'appliquer que sur des
                                      bouteilles dont le
                                      panneau décoré est en
                                      retrait par rapport au
                                      corps de la bouteille.

     The Phrase Structure rules which emerged from the analysis of the above sentences are as follows:

1. Sentence →
$$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{Sentence + Coordinator + Sentence}\\ \text{Noun Phrase + Predicate Phrase}\\ \text{Adverbial Phrase + Noun Phrase +}\\ \qquad\qquad\qquad\text{Predicate Phrase}\end{array}\right\}$$

2. Noun Phrase →
$$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{Determiner(Adjective)Noun(Adjective)}\\ \text{Pronoun}\\ \text{Noun Phrase + Prepositional Phrase}\\ \text{Noun Phrase + Sentence}\\ \emptyset\end{array}\right\}$$

3. Determiner →
$$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{Article}\\ \text{Possessive}\\ \text{Demonstrative}\end{array}\right\}$$

4. Predicate Phrase → Auxiliary + Verb Phrase

5. Auxiliary → (Negative)Tense(Auxiliary Verb)(Perfect)
                                              (Interrogative)

6.　Tense　→　$\begin{cases} \text{Present} \\ \text{Future} \\ \text{Conditional} \\ \text{Present Perfect} \end{cases}$

7.　Auxiliary Verb　→　devoir, pouvoir ... vouloir

8.　Perfect →　$\begin{cases} \text{être + Past Participle} \\ \text{avoir + Past Participle} \end{cases}$

9.　Interrogative →　$\begin{cases} \text{inversion of subject} \\ \text{interrrogative word + inversion} \end{cases}$

10.　Verb Phrase　→　$\begin{cases} \text{Verb} \\ \text{Verb + Noun Phrase} \\ \text{Verb + Complimentiser + Sentence} \\ \text{Verb(Adverb)Adjective} \\ \text{Verb + Prepositional Phrase} \\ \text{Verb + Adverbial Phrase} \\ \text{Pronoun + Verb} \end{cases}$

11.　Prepositional Phrase　→　$\begin{cases} \text{Preposition + Verb Phrase} \\ \text{Preposition + Adverb} \\ \text{Preposition + Noun Phrase} \end{cases}$

12.　Interrogative Word　→　quel, est-ce que ... comment

13.　Adverbial Phrase →　$\begin{cases} \text{Adverb} \\ \text{Adverb + Prepositional Phrase} \end{cases}$

14. Complimentiser → $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{Relative Pronoun} \\ \text{Conjunction}\end{array}\right\}$

15. Noun → chambre, personnel, rapport ...

16. Verb → vendre, accueillir, espérer ...

17. Pronoun → $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{je, tu, il ... elles} \\ \text{moi, toi, lui ... elles} \\ \text{me, te, le ... leur}\end{array}\right\}$

18. Article → $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{un, le, l'} \\ \text{une, la, l'} \\ \text{des, les}\end{array}\right\}$

19. Possessive → $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{mon, ton, son ... leur} \\ \text{ma, ta, sa ... leur} \\ \text{mes, tes, ses ... leurs}\end{array}\right\}$

20. Demonstrative → ce, ceci, ceux ... celles

21. Preposition → à, pour, de ... dans

22. Adjective → agréable, extérieur, caustique ...

23. Adverb → aujourd'hui, d'abord, conformément ...

24. Relative Pronoun → qui, que ... dont

25. Conjunction → que ... si

26. Coordinator → et

b) Analysis at the lexical level

The vocabulary in the nine documents selected for

analysis will be put into the categories mentioned before, namely, nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and structure words. These lists will not feature in the appendix as do the ones from school French, but rather once the comparison between the two is made, any differences emerging in occupational French will be quoted.

COMPARISON BETWEEN SCHOOL AND

OCCUPATIONAL FRENCH

This chapter is going to deal with the comparison
between school and occupational French based on the analysis
of data carried out in the last chapter. This comparison
will be made first at the syntactical level and then at
the lexical level. At the syntactical level, it is the
Phrase Structure rules that will serve as a basis for com-
parison. At the lexical level, the lists of words obtained
from the analysis of occupational French will be checked
against those from school French, category by category.

1.   Comparison at the syntactical level

A first comparison between the two sets of phrase
structure rules shows very few differences, these being
mainly in the lexicon. The differences not in the lexicon
concern two of the rules that can be rewritten to more
elements in school French than in occupational French, with
the elements in the latter being a subset of those in the
former. These rules are:

a.   Noun Phrase, that in school French can be
     rewritten to

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Determiner(Adjective)Noun(Adjective)} \\ \text{Pronoun} \\ \text{Noun Phrase + Prepositional Phrase} \\ \text{Noun Phrase + Sentence} \\ \text{Proper Noun} \\ \emptyset \end{array} \right\}$$

while in occupational French it is rewritten to

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Determiner(Adjective)Noun(Adjective)} \\ \text{Pronoun} \\ \text{Noun Phrase + Prepositional Phrase} \\ \text{Noun Phrase + Sentence} \\ \emptyset \end{array} \right\}$$

b. <u>Tense</u>, that in school French can be rewritten

to seven tenses, namely,

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Present} \\ \text{Future} \\ \text{Imperfect} \\ \text{Present Perfect} \\ \text{Past Perfect} \\ \text{Conditional} \\ \text{Conditional Perfect} \end{array} \right\}$$

while in occupational French it is rewritten

to only four:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Present} \\ \text{Future} \\ \text{Present Perfect} \\ \text{Conditional} \end{array} \right\}$$

However, a closer look at these rules in relation to the

analysis of the sentences from which they were derived

brings out one major difference, and that is the number

of applications that the rules undergo. In the analysis

of occupational French, it was found that the sentences

chosen from the samples of written language displayed far,
more complexity than those from school French. This
complexity was assessed in terms of the number of nodes
(Palmer, 1971) in each "tree", which nodes then accounted
for the higher number of applications of the rules in the
analysis of occupational French. To give an example: a
comparison between the sentences chosen containing the
relative pronoun "qui", one from school French

       B1:   J'aperçois des autos qui roulent sur la route.

and the other from occupational French

       S1:   Notre personnel au sol, qui vous accueillera,

            est à votre disposition pour tout renseigne-

            ment dont vous pourriez avoir besoin.

shows that the "tree" for the first sentence contains ten
nodes while that for the second contains seventeen nodes,
as can be seen below. The abbreviations used in the
diagrams are as follows:

S	–	Sentence	NP	–	Noun Phrase
PredP	–	Predicate Phrase	VP	–	Verb Phrase
N	–	Noun	V	–	Verb
aux	–	Auxiliary	t	–	Tense
PrepP	–	Prepositional Phrase	det	–	Determiner
art	–	Article	prep	–	Preposition
pron	–	Pronoun	pres	–	Present
cond	–	Conditional	fut	–	Future
poss	–	Possessive	adj	–	Adjective
compl	–	Complimentiser	auxV	–	Auxiliary Verb

BI J'aperçois des autos qui roulent sur la route
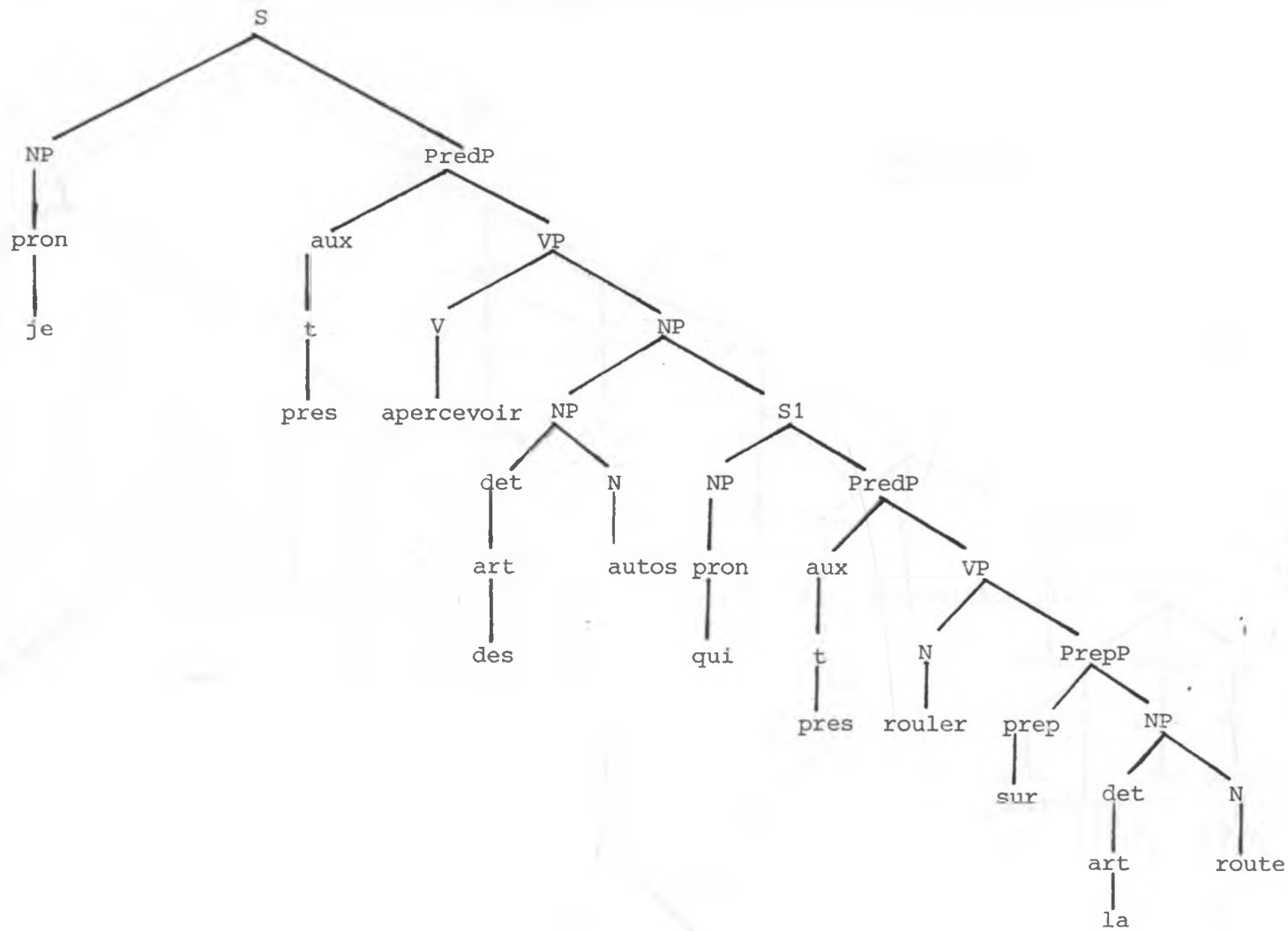
SI Notre personnel au sol, qui vous accueillera, est à votre disposition
pour tout renseignement dont vous pourriez avoir besoin

S

NP   PredP

det   NP   aux   VP

poss   NP   S1   t   V   PrepP

notre   N   PrepP   NP   PredP   pres   être   prep   NP

personnel prep det N pron aux   VP   à   det   N   PrepP

          a art sol qui t   pron V   poss disposition prep   NP

             le   fut vous accueillir   votre   pour NP compl S2

                                                                            adj N   pron NP   PredP

                                                                            tout   dont pron aux   VP

                                                                       renseignement   vous t   auxV   V

                                                                                              cond pouvoir|
                                                                                                    avoir besoin
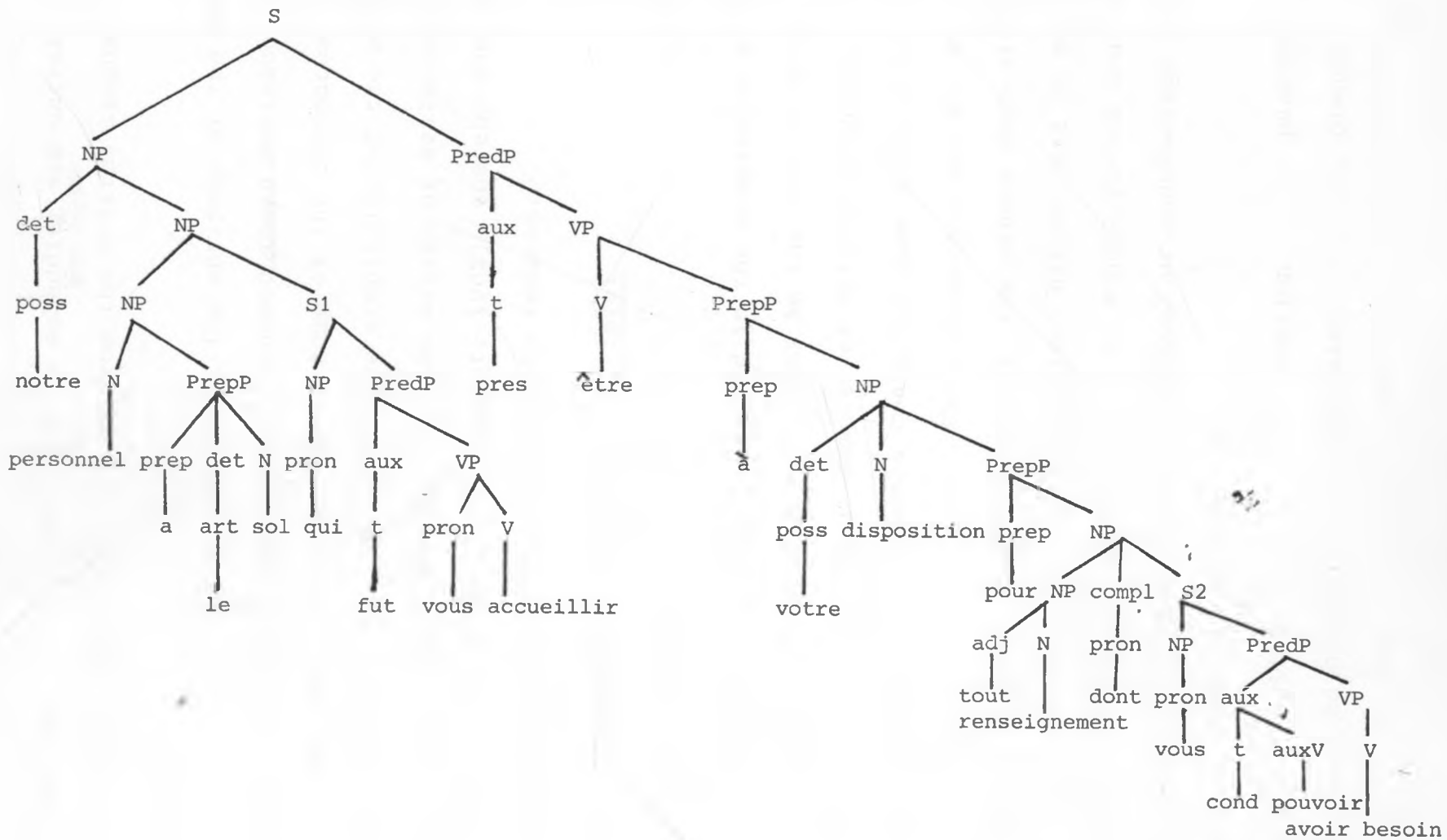
This type of complexity due to embedding was characteristic of nearly all the sentences from the written language samples.

Contrary to the above, the analysis of the sentence from the spoken language data showed these sentences to be comparable in structure to some of the sentences from the course book. This relative simplicity of the spoken sentences is in keeping with the nature of sentence structure in conversation (Sauvageot, 1962), whereby the number of embedded sentences is greatly reduced.

2.   Comparison at the lexical level

a)   Nouns

All the nouns contained in the samples of spoken language were found to be present in the list of nouns from school French. Of the samples of written language, four out of the five documents contained some nouns which do not figure in this list. These documents are W1, W3, W4, and W5. Apart from document W1, the others deal with themes of more or less a technical nature, and it was found that most of the nouns foreign to school French could be described as belonging to technical or specialized language. These nouns are listed below:

agitateur	désinfection	panneau
adjonction	dimension	plaque
algues	entonnoir	refoidisseur
bâche	incidence	retrait

---

casier	latérite	rubrique
cuve	moule	serpentin
détérioration	palette	stade

Document W1 contained two nouns foreign to school French, namely, "pli" and "vigueur", both of whose meanings here are extensions of their original meanings. They appear in the set expressions "sous pli séparé" and "en vigueur", which expressions are very common in the secretarial and commercial registers.

Talking about extensions, it was also noted that some nouns, while not foreign to school French, were used metaphorically in occupational French. These metaphorical extensions were noted for example on the nouns "alimentation" and "corps" in the expressions

- une alimentation indépendante du refroidisseur (W4)
- le corps de la bouteille (W5)

b) Verbs

With the exception of three verbs, "abonner" (W2), "démontrer" (W4) and "agréer" (W1 & W3), all the other verbs used in the documents figure on the list of verbs from school French. However, in spite of this high degree of similarity, one difference does emerge, and that is in the way in which certain verbs are used in occupational French. To quote an example: the verbs "vouloir", "accuser", "prier" and "croire" appear in the secretarial variety of

language in collocations that are not found in school
French, but which are standard expressions in formal
letter-writing. Examples of these are:

- Nous vous accusons réception de votre lettre
  ... (W1)

- Veuillez trouver ci-joint le rapport ... (W4)

- Nous vous prions de bien vouloir trouver
  ci-joint deux copies ... (W3)

- Veuillez agréer, Messieurs, l'expression de
  nos salutation distinguées. (W3)

- Je vous prie de croire, cher Monsieur, à mes sentiments
  les meilleurs. (W5)

Thus the verb "vouloir" here is used to mark the polite
form of the imperative, as opposed to the school usage
of "to want (to do) something" for example in the sentences:

- Je veux partir

- Je veux mon stylo

The verb "accuser" in school French would be found in a
context like

- On accuse Paul d'avoir tué sa femme

where its meaning would be the same as in English "to
accuse". But in secretarial language it co-occurs with
the noun "réception" to mean "acknowledge receipt".
The verb "prier" co-occurs with "vouloir" or "croire" in
polite expressions especially in formal letter-writing.
In these expressions, the verb "croire" and its object are
a collocation. The expression is nearly always as follows,
with variations on the adjective qualifying "sentiments":

- Je vous prie de croire, Monsieur, à l'expression
de mes sentiments | les meilleurs
distingués
devoués
cordiaux
etc.

c)   Adjectives

As with the two preceding categories, it was found
that all the adjectives contained in the documents from
the spoken language data featured on the list of adjectives
from school French. It should be noted here that when the
past participle form of the verb is used as an adjective
for example in

- sous pli séparé (W1)

- tous les parfums sont épuisés (S2)
this kind of adjective is considered covered in school
French if the corresponding verb form figures on the school
list, as do in this case "séparer" and "épuiser".

In the written language data, about one-third of the
adjectives were foreign to the school sample analysed. The
highest degree of difference was to be found in document
W3, the most technical of the three documents using this
variety of language. Out of the 15 adjectives contained
here, only four feature in school French. The eleven
foreign ones are:

biseauté	compact	distingué
ci-joint	détaillé	futur
latéral	portant	spécial
opérationnel	réduit	

d)   <u>Adverbs</u>

The list of adverbs turned out to be the shortest of the lists under the five categories, coming behind that of adjectives. Mackey (1965:219) states that "quality words are not indispensable parts of the structure of English", and that one can do without them. The same could be said for French, which would account for the relative scarcity of the modifiers, especially adverbs, as revealed by a count through the lists. It was found that there were 175 nouns, 123 verbs, 89 adjectives, 32 adverbs and 160 structure words.

Of the 32 adverbs, only five do not figure in school French, and they all occur in the samples of written language. They are:

entre-temps	relativement	conformément
vivement	fortement	

Since "relativement" and "fortement" are derivatives whose base forms "relatif" and "fort" appear in the school list under adjectives, then only the other three adverbs can be considered totally foreign to school French.

e)   Structure Words

All the structure words used in the samples of
occupational French were found to be present in the list
of those taught at school. This was not so merely by
coincidence, but can be explained by the nature of struc-
ture words. Even though they are limited in number and
belong to "closed systems" (Halliday, 1976), they have a
very high frequency of occurrence, and it is almost impos-
sible to make sentences without them (Mackey, 1965). For
this reason they have to be introduced and taught as soon
as sentences are used, and because they are limited in
number, sooner or later they are all learnt.

CONCLUSION

Throughout chapters IV, V and VI, in other words
the main body of the research, it was mentioned at various
points that relevant remarks would be made in the conclusion.
From Chapter IV which dealt with the selection of the sample
and the collection of data, remarks were to be made con-
cerning the interview that the investigator gave the sub-
jects, whose aim was to try and appreciate the position
of French among the Kenyans using it in their jobs. In
Chapter V the data were analysed, with 'O' level French
and samples of occupational French being analysed at the
syntactical level using the Phrase Structure Model, and
at the lexical level by putting the vocabulary into the
categories of nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and
structure words. The results of this analysis were com-
pared in Chapter VI to see how occupational French compares
with school French, and it was found that to a large extent
school French was relevant to the needs of the job
situations, since at the syntactical level occupational
French was fully covered by school French, and at the
lexical level only one variety of language out of the five
analysed, namely, the technical variety, was not covered
at all by school French. The varieties of hotel and
travel language were fully covered, and those of commercial
and secretarial language partially covered. Conclusions
arising from these results were to be made in this chapter.

This final chapter will therefore deal with those
remarks arising from the various stages of the investigation,
as well as the above-mentioned conclusions based on the
findings from the analysis of data which will be drawn in
the light of the hypotheses stated in the introductory
chapter. Before these conclusions are made, the limitations
affecting the study will be discussed, in order to determine
whether any of these limitations might affect the validity
of any of the conclusions that are going to be drawn. The
chapter will end with the investigator's recommendations
and suggestions for further research.

1.   Limitations affecting the study

One of the questions that the investigator put to
the subjects during the interview was where they had learnt
French. It was hoped that the answers to this question
would give an indication as to the importance of school as
a source of French for future jobs with French. However,
it would be difficult to draw a valid conclusion to this
point on the basis of the sample used in this investigation
which, as has been mentioned before, did not aim to be
representative of all Kenyans using French in their jobs,
but rather of the type of French being used. It would
have been necessary to obtain an exhaustive list of all
Kenyans using French before a valid statement could be made
about the importance of school as a source of French. This
has been one of the limitations of this investigation.

A second limiting factor has already been mentioned in Chapter IV, and this concerned the use of simulation in the collection of data for the spoken language. While this method was adequate for the purposes of data collection, it presented a difficulty when it came to that step in the analysis of data where the spoken language was to be analysed at the phonological level by judging the intelligibility of the subjects' speech. The main criterion here was to be whether there was a break-down in communication due to the way in which the subject produced the sounds of the language. However, having obtained the samples by simulation with the investigator playing the role of the customer talking to the subject, the problem was that the investigator was more or less aware of the response she was going to get, and therefore the message was always understood even when the French was not correct or when some words were given an English pronunciation.. Whether this would have been the case with genuine samples of conversation between the subjects and customers who spoke no English at all is difficult to say. Most probably there would have been a lot of repetition with rephrasing of questions and answers, but in the end the message would still have got across.

A final limitation to the investigation lies in the choice of only 'O' level French for analysis. School French in Kenya consists of both 'O' and 'A' levels, and so even though the choice of the 'O' level syllabus was

made and justified, it should still be borne in mind that
an 'A' level syllabus exists, especially when it comes to
suggesting modifications to the 'O' level syllabus.

2.   Conclusions arising from the investigation

Within its limitations, the research has been
successful in its purpose as described in the introductory
chapter, which purpose was outlined in the following
hypothesis: to find out whether the syntactical structures
and lexical items used in occupational French are covered
by those taught in school French.

With regard to the initial assumption about Kenyans
using French in their jobs, the investigation identified
40 Kenyans who were using French in their occupations,
and whose jobs were described in chapter IV. Although under
limitations it was mentioned that due to the kind of sample
analysed it would be difficult to make a valid statement
as to the importance of school as a source of French, it
is still worth noting here that among the sources that did
emerge from the answers given to the question as to where
the subjects had learnt French, school was the leading
source with 24 subjects. The other sources were the French
Cultural Centre and Utalii College with seven subjects
each, while two of the subjects had learnt the language
outside the country. It would appear from these figures
that the national objective for teaching French as des-
cribed in the introduction was being achieved, with the

school making its fair contribution towards supplying the job market with people able to communicate in French. The fact that the French Cultural Centre was also a source of French shows that there is a rising awareness of the need for people with French, since the subjects who had learnt their French there were adults who were already holding jobs in which the knowledge of French was an added advantage, and it was this fact that had motivated them to learn the language. It can therefore be argued that if the job-holders themselves have felt the need for French and made efforts to acquire the language outside of school, there is a strong case for strengthening the teaching of French in the schools, as long as efforts are made to channel the school-leavers into the relevant occupations so that they are not wasted in jobs where French is not needed.

The interview that the investigator gave the subjects was carried out in French as this gave the investigator a chance to judge the subjects' fluency in the language. The investigator's impression was that while most of the subjects were not fluent in French, and quite understandably so since most of them were either of 'O' level standard or below (for example the 7 subjects from Utalii College had had only one year of French at about 8 hours a week), they still managed to use their French effectively in their jobs when the occasion arose, and to communicate. One can conclude that to a certain extent this observation provides an answer to the questions posed in the introduction as to the purpose for which the French taught at school was

selected, which French was to be taught as an important
tool of communication, according to the syllabus. One
question that had been asked was: communication in what
situations? Since the investigation was dealing with job
situations, and since the subjects were found to be
performing adequately in their jobs, it can be concluded
that the syllabus must have taken into account the future
occupational needs of the learners. It was described in
Chapter III how all four language skills of listening,
speaking, reading and writing were catered for in the
syllabus, and the balance kept between the oral and the
written language, with the result that the learners could
communicate effectively in their future jobs in either
medium, written or spoken.

The hypothesis stated above was geared towards the
evaluation of school French through the comparison between
it and occupational French, and in terms of its relevance
to the latter. From the results obtained, one can say that
to a large extent school French is relevant to the future
occupational needs of the learners. At the syntactical
level, it was found that occupational French, both spoken
and written, was fully covered by school French, since the
Phrase Structure rules emerging from the analysis of
occupational French were a subset of those covering school
French.

Unlike the syntactical level, however, the lexical
level was found to contain some areas within the written

language data which were not catered for by school French.
Whereas hotel and travel language was wholly covered by
school French, and secretarial and commercial language
partially covered, the technical variety was hardly covered
at all. None of the nouns or adjectives of a technical
nature featured in school French, and this can be explained
by the nature of the syllabus.

The 'O' level syllabus can be termed a general one
whose objectives are to lay the foundations of language
use, by equipping the learner with what Pit Corder (1973)
refers to as the "common core" of the language. This
common core represents what anyone who learns the language
for whatever purpose must acquire, and therefore forms the
basis of any syllabus. If the varieties of hotel and
travel language turned out to be wholly covered by school
French, this is not because they were consciously catered
for in the syllabus, but because the linguistic material
necessary to deal with them falls within the material in
"Le Français Fondamental" on which the course is based.
The "Français Fondamental" is meant to represent the common
core, and provides a basis for subsequent learning of
specialised language (David, 1973). The course "Pierre
et Seydou" was therefore adopted with the knowledge that
some further linguistic training relevant to the career
chosen would be necessary before the pupils could use
French effectively in their future jobs.

3.   Recommendations for increasing the relevance of
     school French

From the description of the nature of the 'O' level
syllabus, it can be seen that this syllabus does achieve
its objectives of providing the learner with the common
core of the language, which is relevant to all situations.
One might be tempted to suggest increasing the relevance
of the syllabus further by including, alongside the common
core material, some other material belonging to more
specialised areas in which the students are likely to use
the language in their future occupational roles. However,
the limited time-table of three to five periods a week
for 'O' level French would not allow enough time for the
acquisition of the common core as well as of specialised
language, especially if the four language skills discussed
in Chapter III are to be developed to the level expected
in the examination which evaluates the achievement of the
general objectives of the course.

Another argument against the introduction of
specialised language into the 'O' level course is that at
this stage few pupils if any have a well-defined idea as
to their future career, which in many cases is determined
more by available opportunities and examination performance
than by the students' own interests. So whatever specia-
lised language is introduced, while it might happen to be
central to the future needs of a few pupils, will be
irrelevant to the majority, and consequently learning might
even be reduced, for in language teaching "we are successful

to the degree that we achieve the best match between the objectives of teaching and the needs or demands of the learners" (Pit Corder, 1973:202).

Now for more positive recommendations:

a.   The fact that some varieties of occupational French were found to be adequately covered by the school French analysed shows that in spite of the absence of specialised language from the syllabus, 'O' level French is still relevant to some occupational needs. What the investigator would like to suggest here is that those varieties of occupational French whose language content happens to fall within the linguistic material of "Le Francais Fondamental" be identified (this research has already identified two, namely, hotel and travel language) and be more systemati-cally catered for within the syllabus. The Kenya Institute of Education would play an important role here through the preparation of the supplementary material that is used in forms Three and Four. This material, which adopts a thematic approach, would be ideal for presenting, in an organised manner, any linguistic elements required in a given job situation but not adequately dealt with in the course-book.

Already by replacing most of Pierre et Seydou Book Two with this supplementary material, the curriculum developers have done a lot towards making the 'O' level course more relevant to the pupils' communication needs. The method "Pierre et Seydou" was originally designed for

English-speaking Cameroun, and this might explain why the
authors felt the need to base the course material on
different settings of life in an African context, including
the rural setting. While this material might be relevant
to the communication needs of the Cameroun, where everybody,
whether in an urban or rural context, might require to have
some knowledge of French (and of English in French-speaking
Cameroun), it is hardly relevant to Kenyan pupils whose
future jobs with French will be in the towns.

b.   The 'O' level syllabus teaches informal letter-
writing, whereby the pupils learn how to write friendly
letters using the relevant opening greetings and closing
expressions. While this is a good exercise in the develop-
ment of the skill of writing, one might wonder at just how
useful it is to the students in their later occupational
life. True, a few students might have francophone friends
or pen-pals to whom they would write informally, but for
the majority of them the need, if it is there at all,
would be for formal letter-writing. It seems therefore
that there is a stronger case to teach the formal style
of letter-writing rather than the informal, if both cannot
be taught. This should not be seen as a contradiction to
what was said above in the arguments against the introduct-
ion of specialised language into the syllabus, that while
this language might be central to the needs of a few
students it would be irrelevant to the majority. It is the

investigator's feeling that the secretarial variety of
language in the form of formal letter-writing would be
central to all students who would use French in their
future jobs, whether they were going to be secretaries or
not, since there is almost no job where formal letters do
not get written and received. The fact that French formal
letter-writing is characterised by a limited number of
set expressions makes it fairly easy to teach, and need
not take much time.

c.   With regard to those areas of occupation requiring
specialised language, the investigator shares the view
expressed in the Wamalwa Report (1972:46) that "post-school
vocational courses should be run for personnel in
secretarial or commercial work, in administrative affairs
(including members of the Foreign Service), and in tourism".

It is within the framework of these vocational
courses that the specialised language needs for different
occupations would be catered for through courses written
in the relevant registers. Already a few secretarial
colleges in Nairobi have introduced courses in secretarial
French for training bilingual secretaries. Utalii College,
which trains people for different jobs in the tourist
industry, is planning to adapt their French course more
by studying the language needs of each particular job
situation for which they teach French, and incorporating
them in their core course which, like the 'O' level French,

is based on "Le Francais Fondamental". Their need to teach a core course arises from the fact that their students are beginners, for those who have done French at school usually join the German course as beginners, to learn yet another foreign language useful in their future jobs. Kenya Airways have expressed a wish to set up a course for their air hostesses and stewards.

4. Suggestions for further research

a. From the above examples it can be seen that efforts are being made to achieve the objectives of French teaching in Kenya as discussed in the introductory chapter. The curriculum planners are perfectly aware that some further linguistic training is necessary before the school leaver can use his French effectively in a job. It is in this connection that further research can be useful in the designing of post-school language courses relevant to different job situations, by first identifying these jobs and then providing comprehensive descriptions of the language used in them, to determine what can be termed specialised language in relation to school French, and which would therefore require special courses to cater for it. These jobs would have to be classified according to the academic qualifications required for them, for this would indicate the level of French that the job holder might have reached at school, and on which his subsequent learning of specialised language would be based. What might be

specialised language in relation to 'O' level French might not be so in relation to 'A' level or University French.

b.   This research has only examined one aspect of selection, namely the selection of content in terms of syntactical structures and lexical items taught in the syllabus, and shown their degree of relevance to occupational French. The objectives of the syllabus and the teaching methodology adopted to meet them were only briefly dis-cussed. Further research in this area could try and evaluate the teaching methodology in terms of the objectives of the syllabus.

c.   The success of a method in teaching a language is affected to a large extent by the interest that the pupils have in learning the language. Research could be done to find out the attitudes of the secondary school pupils towards French, and suggestions for increasing the pupils' motivation could be made, since motivation remains a problem area in French teaching in Kenya today.

SAMPLES   OF   SPOKEN   LANGUAGE   DATA

DOCUMENT   S1

Mesdames et Messieurs,

Nous arrivons maintenant à Athènes et il est 14h. en heure

locale.   La température extérieure est de 25 degrés

centigrade.   Nous vous demandons de rester assis et de

garder votre ceinture attachée jusqu'à l'arrêt complet

de l'appareil.

Avant de quitter l'appareil, veuillez vous assurer que

vous n'oubliez rien à bord et que vous avez tous vos objets

personnels.   Notre personnel au sol, qui vous accueillera,

est à votre disposition pour tout renseignement dont vous

pourriez avoir besoin.   Nous espérons que ce vol vous a

été agréable et que nous aurons le plaisir de vous revoir

à bord.

DOCUMENT   S2

P   =   Passenger

S   =   Steward

P: Monsieur, s'il vous plaît!

S: Oui, Madame.

P: Est-ce que vous vendez du parfum?

S: Je regrette, Madame, Tous les parfums sont épuisés.
        Il nous reste seulement les cigarettes et l'alcool.

P: Quelles marques de cigarettes avez-vous?

S: Nous avons Dunhill, Benson & Hedges et Rothmans.

P: Je prends une cartouche de Dunhill.

S: Très bien, Madame.

P: Ca fait combien?

S: 40 francs Madame.

DOCUMENT   S3

C   =   Customer

T   =   Ticketing Officer

C: Bonjour Monsieur. Pouvez-vous me dire les jours

        des vols Nairobi - Paris?

T: Il y a des vols le lundi, le jeudi et le dimanche.

        Le lundi le départ est à 22h 30, le jeudi à 21h

        et le dimanche à minuit.

C: . Ce sont tous des vols de nuit alors.

T: Oui, comme ça vous arrivez à Paris le matin.

        Voulez-vous faire votre réservation maintenant?

C: Oui, Je voudrais le vol de dimanche dans deux

        semaines. La date sera ... euh ...

T: Le dix-sept.

C: Oui, c'est ça. Une place en classe économique.

T: Une minute, Monsieur, je regarde la liste. Oui,

        c'est possible.

C: J'ai déjà mon billet. Le voici. J'ai droit à

        combien de kilos de bagages?

T: Vous avez droit à 20 kilos gratuits.

C: A quelle heure faut-il être à l'aéroport?

T: Vous devez être à l'aéroport deux heures avant

        l'heure de départ, donc à 22h.

C: C'est un vol direct?

T: Non, on fait escale à Athènes.

C: Est-ce qu'il me faut reconfirmer la réservation?

T: Ce n'est pas nécessaire, Monsieur.

C: Très bien. Merci beaucoup Monsieur.

DOCUMENT   S4

C   =   Customer

R   =   Receptionist

C: Bonjour Monsieur. Je voudrais une chambre à deux

        lits. Quels sont les prix?

R: Les chambres à deux lits coutent 400sh. par jour,

        avec le petit déjeuner. Elles sont très confortables.

C: Vous en avez qui donnent sur le parc? C'est plus

        tranquille.

R: Malheureusement elles sont toutes occupées. Mais

        il y a quelqu'un qui part demain. Je peux vous

        donner une autre chambre pour aujourd'hui, et

        demain vous changer.

C: D'accord.

R: Remplissez cette fiche s'il vous plaît. Vous

        restez combien de jours?

C: Dix jours.

R: Je vous donne la chambre 213 pour aujourd'hui.

        Où sont vos bagages?

C: Dans la voiture, là-bas.

R: Je vais vous montrer la chambre d'abord, ensuite

        quelqu'un ira chercher vos bagages.

C: Très bien. Ma femme et moi voudrions visiter un

        parc national. Pouvez-vous nous renseigner

        là-dessus?

R: Il y a un Tour Agency pas loin d'ici. Ils organisent

        des excursions.

C: Elle est où, cette agence? Où bien est-ce qu'on

        peut leur téléphoner d'ici?

R: Oui, c'est possible de téléphoner.

APPENDIX   B

SAMPLES   OF WRITTEN   LANGUAGE   DATA

DOCUMENT   W1

Monsieur,

Nous vous accusons réception de votre lettre du 27
novembre.   Conformément au desir que vous avez exprimé,
nous nous faisons un plaisir de vous faire parvenir, sous
pli séparé, notre dernier catalogue ainsi que les tarifs
actuellement en vigueur.

Nous restons à votre entière disposition pour vous
fournir tous renseignements complimentaires qui pourraient
vous être utiles.

Veuillez agréer, Monsieur, l'expression de nos
sentiments devoués.

DOCUMENT   W2

Cher Collègue,

Je tiens en premier lieu à vous remercier pour l'interêt
que vous avez manifesté à notre projet de diffusion de la
presse d'Afrique francophone en Afrique anglophone, et je
me réjouis à l'idée de pouvoir satisfaire votre attente
en vous adressant dans les prochains jous les publications
que vous avez choisies.

En effet, conformément à vos souhaits, nous vous avons
abonné pendant un an aux quatre puplications que vous aviez
retenues. Vous recevrez en outre une revue spécialisée
"Afrique Contemporaine", un mensuel destiné aux jeunes
Africains "Bingo", un hebdomadaire d'information de
Brazzaville "La Semaine Africaine", une revue littéraire
de Dakar "Ethiopiques", et bien sûr "Recherche, Pédagogie
et Culture".

Grace à la collaboration du ministère français des
Affaires Etrangères, ces publications seront envoyées par
le service de la valise diplomatique au service culturel
de l'Ambassade de France au pays de votre résidence.
Nous vous prions de bien vouloir prendre contact avec ce
service qui, informé de cette opération, vous transmettra
les publications reçues.

Pour votre information, nous vous adressons la
liste des autres enseignants qui participent à cette

opération. Vous pouvez constater qu'ils sont relativement peu nombreux car nous tentons en fait une expérience pilote.

Dans l'attente de vous lire et de connaître les premiers résultats de votre propre expérience, je vous prie de croire, cher Collègue, en mes sentiments cordiaux et devoués.

DOCUMENT   W3

Messieurs,

Nous vous prions de bien vouloir trouver ci-joint
deux copies du dessin détaillé de la palette sous rubrique.
Ce nouveau dessin possède les caractéristiques spéciales
suivantes:

a. les angles d'entrée biseautés facilitent l'entrée
    des fourchettes des élévateurs.

b. les sections portantes latérales sont renforcées
    par trois plaques d'acier pour assurer une
    meilleure rigidité de la palette. La fréquence
    de ces parties est donc fortement réduite, et les
    frais opérationnels de cette palette sont moindres.

c. les barres de fer latérales en U permettent un
    chargement compact des casiers sur la palette,
    surtout lors de leur transport.

Nous vous recommandons vivement ce nouveau dessin
pour vos futures palette.

Veuillez agréer, Messieurs, l'expression de nos
salutations distinguées.

DOCUMENT   W4

Messieurs,

Veuillez trouver ci-joint le rapport de la visite technique que nous avons effectuée à votre usine du 11 au 14 mai 1980.

Un point particulièrement faible dans votre usine est le refroidissement du sirop simple avant l'adjonction des concentrés, spécialement depuis que l'embouteillage de la bière a commencé dans votre usine. En effet, une bonne partie de l'eau disponible est utilisée à différents stades de fabrication de ce produit. Nous recommandons une alimentation indépendante du refroidisseur à plaques pour le sirop simple pour résoudre ce problème.

D'autre part, la fréquence de la désinfection du filtre à charbon et de l'Intermix doit être augmentée, cette désinfection pouvant s'affectuer très rapidement avec l'eau chlorée du filtre à sable comme nous l'avons demontré lors de cette visite.

Ci-dessous les autres points importants dont nous avons discuté lors de ma visite.

a.   Lavage des bouteilles

La concentration des bains de soude caustique doit être augmenté à 3% et l'inspection des bouteilles stricte-ment supervisé par le Chef de production, étant donné que les bouteilles qui reviennent de l'intérieur du pays sont

fortement enduites de latérite.

Les bouteilles stockées longtemps à l'extérieur
de l'usine contiennent également des algues et elles
devraient être rentrées à l'intérieur de l'usine ou être
recouvertes de bâches en plastique pour protéger les
bouteilles des dernières palette contre les eaux de pluie.

b.   Siroperie

Cuve de chauffage:

Le serpentin de la cuve de chauffage du sirop simple
a des fuites et doit être réparé le plus tôt possible, de
même il existe une fuite importante au niveau de l'agitateur
latéral qui doit être également réparé.

Entonnoir pour chargement du sucre:

L'entonnoir pour le chargement du sucre dans la
cuve de chauffage a de trop petites dimensions, ce qui
cause une perte substantielle de sucre à chaque chargement.
Prière de le remplacer par un de plus grandes dimensions
comme ceux utilisés à vos usines de Ouagadougou et Niamey.

c.   Uniformes pour les travailleurs

Il est indispensable de vous procurer des uniformes
pour toute votre équipe de production comme promis lors
de cette visite.

Nous vous remercions de votre aimable accueil et
coopération et vous prions de croire, Messieurs, à
l'assurance de notre considération distinguée.

DOCUMENT   W5

Cher Monsieur,

Nous nous référons à votre lettre du 16 mai 1980 adressée à Monsieur Ferrarri concernant la décoration des bouteilles 300ml en deux couleurs, rouge et blanc.

Cette décoration ne peut s'appliquer que sur des bouteilles dont le panneau décoré est en retrait par rapport au corps de la bouteille de telle sorte que les points de contact entre bouteilles tombent en dehors du panneau décoré, ce qui évite sa détérioration rapide.

Quand SOVEMA devra changer le moule pour bouteille Coca-Cola 300ml un nouveau moule avec panneau en retrait devra être commandé suivant le plan que nous lui fournirons.

Alors seulement le décor en deux couleurs pourra être envisagé car appliquer le décor en deux couleurs sur la bouteille actuelle ne tiendra pas et en peu de temps produira des bouteilles peu attrayantes, ce qui irait à l'encontre du but poursuivi par la décoration en deux couleurs.

Entre-temps vous pouvez contacter SOVEMA pour savoir quand le moule actuel sera dû pour renouvellement et quelle sera l'incidence de la décoration en deux couleurs sur le prix de la bouteille.

Esperant avoir répondu à votre question, je vous prie de croire, Cher Monsieur, à mes sentiments les meilleurs.

VOCABULARY LISTS FROM THE LEXICAL ANALYSIS OF SCHOOL FRENCH

a.   Nouns

aile	accident	béret
appareil	après-midi	bouteille
avion	animal	boubou
aéroport	arbitre	bras
arrêt	argent	billet
ananas	appétit	banane
avis	air	bébé
arachide	autorisation	ballon
aiguille	boîte	bonbon
adulte	bijoutier	boutique
âge	bijou	bec
âne	bâton	bruit
arme	barrage	barbe
attaque	bille	bouc
auteur	bouchée	bouche
adversaire	bagage	bain
arbire	brosse	bracelet
aérogare	balle	bête
amour	blessure	bois
armoir	banc	branche
anniversaire	boisson	bandit
armée	but	bourse
avance	brousse	boeuf

capitale	conseil	chauffeur
ceinture	conseiller	chemin
cigarette	contraire	champs
compagnie	culture	case
carte	comédie	concession
costume	crédit	cour
conférence	climat	clôture
cochon	cravat	chien
cuvette	cas	cabane
compte	carotte	calebasse
courage	chantier	chasse
croyance	chapeau	cuisine
chef	chausette	chevre
chameau	crâne	couteau
chamelier	cimetière	cou
coup	cave	couleur
cuir	clé	camisole
corne	clou	ciel
contrôleur	camarade	crayon
coutume	cadeau	chocolat
cacao	cousin	crocodile
caoutchouc	culotte	carton
coton	chemise	chèque
chasseur	classe	cuivre
cacaoyer	client	dommage
coopérative	compartiment	départ
conserve	chose	danger

dispensaire	examen	fils
délégué	écriture	fille
destination	ébène	frère
dame	équipe	facteur
droit	expert	feuille
direction	épingle	faucille
disque	enveloppe	fusil
douane	équateur	faute
douannier	entrepôt	forêt
demoiselle	escale	fête
différence	envie	foulard
demi	example	feu
drap	éducation	gare
douche	ficelle	grain
demi-heure	fin	gazelle
dos	fauve	gerbe
danse	fosse	genou
drapeau	fève	glace
datte	fleuve	grand-mère
diner	fond	grand-père
diplôme	fer	groupe
éléphant	ferme	guerre
épi	femme	griffe
effort	fumée	gardien
endroit	fou	garçon
échelle	filet	histoire
école	famille	heure

homme	lait	mangue
hotesse	limonade	manguier
huile	lepreux	mais
habit	légume	main
herbe	ligne	matin
houe	lune	mil
haut-parleur	lycée	mot
habitude	matériel	mouton
idée	maison	mortier
installation	maire	mer
intérieur	mouvement	marigot
infirmière	monde	marche
journaliste	manioc	mètre
jupe	moitié	maître
jour	montagne	nièce
jouet	machine	neveu
jambe	mission	nez
kilogramme	musée	natte
kilomètre	match	noix
liberté	manche	oignon
litre	matelas	os
lunette	marteau	objet
linge	mur	orage
lac	mari	oncle
lézard	métier	oeil
lendemain	mécanicien	ombre
livre	montre	oreille

oiseau	parent	plafond
poste	photo	portefeuille
plante	pendule	panne
planteur	paille	plaisir
part	parc	palmier
paillote	proverbe	pays
paysan	panier	pantalon
poids	pagne	perche
piroguier	poussière	porte-monnaie
pirogue	poulet	pompe
pluie	peine	quartier
panthère	porte-clé	queue
pilon	porte-bonheur	quart
piment	professeur	quai
pot	pioche	route
pied	pelle	robe
pas	passeport	reine
promenade	police	rizière
poisson	patron	résultat
pêche	place	repiquage
patte	puit	rugby
piste	papier	retour
planche	prison	roue
paquebot	public	rencontre
poche	poing	représentant
père	partie	région
petit-fils	pansement	racine

retard	soulier	tissu
rôle	sortie	tasse
repas	surprise	thé
récolte	seringue	tour
soeur	secret	travail
saison	souris	uniforme
scénario	séance	vallée
singe	sculpture	viande
serpent	sauterelle	victoire
soie	seau	vitre
serviette	sabot	vol
savon	sandale	vélomoteur
sauce	sud	voile
sorcier	trésor	veste
soleil	tombeau	vie
stylo	terrain	voyage
souvenir	télegramme	valise
soif	toit	voyageur
scie	technicien	verre
sac	terrasse	village
savane	table	volaille
squelette	temps	veau
supplement	tête	voix
soin	train	ventre
signature	taxi	visage
spectateur	tonnerre	vitesse
sang	troupeau	voiture

retard	soulier	tissu
rôle	sortie	tasse
repas	surprise	thé
récolte	seringue	tour
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sac	terrasse	village
savane	table	volaille
squelette	temps	veau
supplement	tête	voix
soin	train	ventre
signature	taxi	visage
spectateur	tonnerre	vitesse
sang	troupeau	voiture

vérité	accuser	changer
vent	apprendre	chavirer
violence	adresser	casser
voleur	arrêter	crier
vanne	attirer	confirmer
wagon	amuser	contacter
whisky	augmenter	couvrir
b. Verbs	attacher	concerner
atterrir	avancer	contenir
avoir	apporter	causer
aller	appeler	couler
amener	battre	cueillir
apercevoir	blesser	chercher
attraper	baigner	cacher
assister	bouillir	connaître
arranger	broder	commencer
attendre	boire	courir
aider	briller	couper
asseoir	baisser	coller
accueillir	coucher	chanter
acheter ·	commander	demander
assurer	chauffer	dîner
aimer	charger	dépenser
appliquer	conduire	déranger
accrocher	croire	défendre
allumer	couper	descendre

déchirer	éviter	interdire
devoir	effectuer	installer
dessiner	exprimer	inviter
detruire	essayer	jouer
décorer	excuser	juger
démolir	essuyer	jetter
disparaître	emporter	laisser
donner	enlever	laver
découvrir	espérer	lever
declarer	entendre	maigrir
debrouiller	écarter	monter
deshabiller	faire	mettre
danser	fournir	mentir
dire	frotter	manquer
dépêcher	faciliter	montrer
defricher	faillir	marquer
escaler	finir	marcher
éteindre	fabriquer	moissonner
emmener	fumer	mourir
être	goûter	manifester
expliquer	grossir	nager
ecraser	garder	occuper
envelopper	gêner	obliger
enterrer	gagner	obtenir
ennuyer	habiter	ouvrir
étudier	habiller	oser
écouter	intéresser	passer

déchirer	éviter	interdire
devoir	effectuer	installer
dessiner	exprimer	inviter
detruire	essayer	jouer
décorer	excuser	juger
démolir	essuyer	jetter
disparaître	emporter	laisser
donner	enlever	laver
découvrir	espérer	lever
declarer	entendre	maigrir
debrouiller	écarter	monter
deshabiller	faire	mettre
danser	fournir	mentir
dire	frotter	manquer
dépêcher	faciliter	montrer
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escaler	finir	marcher
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envelopper	gêner	obliger
enterrer	gagner	obtenir
ennuyer	habiter	ouvrir
étudier	habiller	oser
écouter	intéresser	passer

poser	procurer	répéter
présenter	parvenir	retourner
prévenir	piler	reconnaître
préparer	photographier	se réjouir
plaire	pécher	recommander
peser	piquer	reculer
porter	prier	rencontrer
perdre	quitter	reposer
pencher	respirer	retarder
prendre	représenter	rouler
peindre	rassembler	recevoir
paraître	respecter	relever
promettre	regretter	remuer
plaindre	référer	revenir
pousser	remercier	ramasser
placer	retenir	répondre
payer	rendre	repartir
partager	remplir	souffler
promener	ranger	servir
pouvoir	raconter	suivre
penser	remarquer	signer
propre	remplacer	satisfaire
posséder	rire	séparer
parler	rentrer	sembler
permettre	recolter	siffler
pleurer	réussir	salir
préférer	rappeler	savoir

	c. Adjectives	délicat
semer	amer	direct
suer	agricole	dernier
sécher	agréable	doux
sentir	attaché	dur
sauter	aîné	drôle
sauver	anglophone	égal
saluer	aimable	électrique
tomber	adroit	extérieur
trouver	admirable	énorme
transmettre	assis	économique
tuer	autre	extraordinaire
travailler	bouilli	etranger
tenir	brun	entier
taire	brusque	fragile
tirer	beau	fou
toucher	bon	fière
téléphoner	bas	frais
trembler	bleu	francophone
tailler	complet	faible
user	clair	fertile
valoir	creux	fort
vendre	central	fatigant
venir	culturel	gros
voter	cinquante	gratuit
vider	courageux	gourmand
vouloir		

humide	noir	simple
heureux	nombreux	sourd
haut	nécessaire	solide
impossible	nouveau	sûr
international	naturel	spécial
indispensable	public	sérieux
indépendant	personnel	soixante
intelligent	particulier	sec
inutile	potable	seul
joli	pendu	traditionnel
juste	petit	technique
jaune	possible	trente
jeune	pareil	timide
large	peureux	tranquille
laid	précieux	utile
libre	prochain	vivant
lourd	propre	vert
léger	premier	vieux
local	poli	d. Adverbs
long	prêt	à côté
littéraire	profond	à droite
municipal	quarante	à gauche
muet	riche	ainsi
mort	régulier	alors
mauvais	relatif	à peu près
mûr	rond	après
neuf	rare	assez

aujourd'hui	enfin	peu
aussi	également	peut-être
autant	en haut	plus
autour	ensemble	plutôt
avant	ensuite	pourquoi
autrement	fort	près
actuellement	facilement	particulièrement
beaucoup	gentiment	presque
bien	hier	puis
bientôt	heureusement	quand
combien	ici	quelque part
comme	jamais	quelquefois
comment	justement	sans doute
certainement	là	si
d'abord	là-bas	souvent
debout	là-haut	seulement
dedans	loin	surtout
dehors	longtemps	sauf
déjà	maintenant	spécialement
demain	mal	tellement
derrière	même	terriblement
dessous	mieux	toujours
dessus	moins	tout
devant	non	très
en bas	naturellement	trop
encore	oui	vite
en face	partout	voilà

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