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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to clarify the theoretical concept of a syllabus by specifying important variables and priorities in its preparation and application. The scope and nature of the syllabus are discussed, followed by an examination of learning processes and strategies. The focus of the syllabus is seen as being fluency and flexibility, and as possible having some effect on student motivation. Since learning must be seen from the student's point of view, learning-focused materials are considered necessary in the syllabus. Some practical considerations are discussed, specifically general criteria for the language syllabus, sequencing, and item entry. Results of a questionnaire are shown, in which 50 ESL teachers indicated at what point they would introduce each of 45 grammatical structures. These results are compared to responses given by non-ESL educators. The use of Learning Effort Units (LEU's) as criteria for the entry of structures in a syllabus are discussed. It is hoped that this study will demonstrate the utility of an independent, objective teacher consensus in preparing a syllabus based on sound linguistic applications and not necessarily mirrored in existing language learning materials. (Author/AM)

PROLEGOMENA TO THE LANGUAGE SYLLABUS

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0.0 PROLEGOMENA TO THE LANGUAGE SYLLABUS

Preparing a syllabus is an onerous task. The primary complication of syllabus preparation is that little research has been devoted to the scope, the nature, and the focus of the syllabus. Every language teacher, linguist, and materials writer has his own working concept of a syllabus, but in many cases there is a theoretical misunderstanding and perhaps an unawareness of what a syllabus really is, specifically, the variables involved in developing and using a syllabus in a language course.

The purpose of this paper is to clarify the theoretical concept of a syllabus by specifying important variables and priorities in its preparation and application. We hope to demonstrate the utility of an independent, objective teacher consensus in preparing a syllabus based on sound linguistic applications and not necessarily mirrored in existing language learning materials.

1.0 THE SCOPE OF THE SYLLABUS

The span of proficiencies or levels constitutes the scope of the syllabus. Theoretically, a student of a second language begins his study with no knowledge of the language and continues through mastery.

The language journey to mastery is in fact the student's charting of language entities that he has learned along the way. This charting, if retrospectively analyzed, makes up the student's learning syllabus. Each student makes this journey at his own rate, assimilating and accumulating. For the persistent student who attains mastery or the ability to function effectively in the target language, the learning journey leads to the same language destination regardless of the alternate routes taken, detours encountered, or stops and starts en route. The syllabus, we believe, should be a general itemized account of the language acquisition journey.

2.0 THE NATURE OF THE SYLLABUS

Although we have pointed out that a syllabus is an account of a student's language learning journey, there are important

distinctions that complicate our metaphor. If, in fact, one simply tabulates the items as a student has learned them, there is a danger that the syllabus would be corpus-bound, that is, retrospective rather than prospective, a posteriori rather than a priori, and restricted to learned items rather than created (generated) new ones. Such a corpus-based analysis, as championed by structural linguists (Lado, 1957; Fries, 1945; et al) is limited, in our opinion, to observed language behavior and views language as other conditioned animal behavior. In practical terms, we assert that the goal of language learning is to have the student create (generate) utterances which are new in the sense that they do not represent mere copies of utterances which he has learned or memorized (Politzer, 1972). Lado could have been aware of some sort of language creative uniqueness as early as 1958 when he speculated that a language can be learned without repeating the same sentence twice (Stevick, 1971).

If a language is to be learned without parroting or mere repetition, the syllabus has to focus on the semantics of connected utterances and on the naturalness of language exchanges. This emphasis on the overall context, that is, sentential and discourse meaning, again points to a weakness in any proposed

corpus-based syllabus where all utterances are analyzed context-free. Context-sensitivy characterizes both a pedagogical grammar (as distinguished from a descriptive grammar) and a learning syllabus since extended use of the language in social contexts is the pedagogical goal. Sentential context, as a part of learning and total discourse, allows for verbal and/or non-verbal exchanges and for periods of linguistic introspection as well as demonstration.

2.1 Introspection

Introspection is our term to designate the student's non-verbal use of the language based on whatever knowledge he brings to the learning situation. Such knowledge branches from his noticing similarities and dissimilarities between L_1 and L_2, building new language segments by analogy and analysis (utilizing his awareness of known er .ties in the language to form new ones), and developing intuitions and inner criteria as to the grammaticality of items (a cumulative process which accompanies augmented competence). We strictly believe that introspection, to us synonymous with neural processing, guarantees meaningful learning.

It is an obvious point to most teachers that greatest learning, neural processing, probably takes place when little verbal behavior is exhibited (Stevick, 1962; Gattegno, 1972; Krashen, 1973) and surely in the absence of mechanical repetition. Mechanical repetition, of course, is verbal behavior, but to us it connotes parrot performance void of linguistic introspection. This introspective quality of learning builds competence, not mere performance.

A corpus-based syllabus is restrictively performance-based by nature. Performance, of course, is only half the story since, in Chomskian terms, competence underlies all meaningful performance. This dichotomy of performance and competence, for purposes of syllabus preparation, should not be confused with production and recognition since a grammar of a language is a description of competence and, further, this description of rules of competence underlies both production and recognition, which are respectively active and passive performance skills (Spolsky, 1973). A convincing example of this point comes from de Saussure who used the analogy of a musical composition where the player and the listener are both participating, the former actively and the latter passively. We are not saying that this analogy is purely applicable to the language classroom since the language learner (not merely the teacher) switches from active to passive roles as occasions and

needs arise.

A grammar is an internalized set of rules describing an idealized speaker-hearer's competence (Chomsky and Halle, 1968) whereas a learning syllabus is a reference skeleton of performance as derived from this abstract idealized competence. Thus, a language syllabus, although extracted from this internalized grammar, is a conscious codification which at times prescribes certain instructional units, motivates regular sequential circuitry, and sets up measurable performance criteria. At other times the syllabus does not mandate an ordering of entities since, in order to flex for learning variables, it is in the student's and the teacher's interest to allow freedom for entry and re-entry of a single perceptual entity. The nature of the syllabus, then, differs from a single grammatical accounting of the language facts (performance and competence); it is flexible, unitized, and modularized so that it invites students and teachers to "plug-in" language items as needed to trigger learning where the student's individual competence is put to use.

2.2 Learning Strategies

Students' learning strategies differ according to the applications of their own rules which may be verbal and/or spatial, analogical and/or analytical, general and /or specific, and of many different

mnemonic codes. To some, links seem to be established between the locale of language operations in the brain (left or right hemisphere) and the ability to make language deductions or inductions (Krashen and Harshman, 1973; Krashen, 1973). For most right handed people, it is thought that the left side of the brain specializes in verbal functions, deduction, whereas the right side of the brain specializes in visuo-spatial functions, induction (Bogen, 1969a; 1969b; Krashen, 1974). This exciting neurolinguistic view puts a new light on the student's "innate" preference for a learning strategy, but much more research is needed in this area before pedagogies are altered. The ways of accurately spotting hemispheric dominance in the brain are not yet dependable and it is, in all likelihood, very probable that other factors are to be reckoned with like ambi-hemisphericity. Obviously, the syllabus should seek to capitalize on all residual strategies, whether previously used or not. Yet, it cannot be ignored that these inductive and deductive powers do exist in varying degrees in second language learners, but they may be mis-analyzed by the observer. The teacher may clearly define his teaching methods, carefully choose his materials, and control other tangible variables, while being way off-base in accounting for the learning strategy a

student erects. Too few educators realize that the student's learning strategy is wholly independent of the methodology that is being used (Dakin, 1969; Richards, 1973). Consequently, to prescribe a formal teaching methodology is certainly not the purpose of a syllabus particularly since recent experiments in comparing methods of teaching foreign language (Scherer and Wertheimer, 1964; Chastain, 1970; Olsson , 1973) have not established the supremacy of any single method, and to monumentalize one as covering the varying needs of all language learning situations too often smacks of proselytism.

It is enlightening to analyze a student's mistakes in order to discern learning strategies. Mistakes can divulge the manner in which a student sees and applies a rule. The process of how he arrives at a new item based on a known one is best called analogy, but this process assuredly includes an initial ability to analyze a first form before producing a second form like the first. Analogy, naturally, is a very productive mechanism for expanding language items, but in order to maximally utilize it as a learning strategy, the syllabus, at a given time, must allow the student to analyze items within a single category.

The "category" is either marked or unmarked. A marked form designates an irregularity from the trend of a pattern whereas an

unmarked form includes all forms that are regular and follow the trend of the pattern. Categorization is relative, however; simple past tense verbs, for example, show different sub-categories. -ed is the regular simple past tense suffix (which is phonologically rendered as /t/, /d/, or /id/ in verbs like picked, played, and waited), but further examination of other simple past tense verbs reveals that broad categories of irregular (marked) verbs are made up of unmarked sub-categories. An example of a marked sub-category is rang, the simple past tense of ring, which serves as a basis for analogy to create sang (from sing), swam (from swim), or drank (from drink) and so on. An effective structure-centered syllabus, in order to fructify these analytical and analogical learning mechanisms (as revealed in student errors), emphasizes and groups these unmarked categories--judiciousnessly, however, to insure undistorted contexts. Sometimes the student's confusion of marked forms with unmarked ones results in "healthy" errors as the verb in the sentence "I goed to the movies last night." The verb form goed was formed by the student's analogy with such verbs as picked, played, and waited displaying the past tense marker -ed. It is this kind of hyper-analogy (the over-application of a sound grammatical rule) that reveals a student's understanding of general rules.

Specifically, student errors resulting from hyper-analogy are labelled intra-systematic or developmental and are the kinds of errors that are similar in both first and second language acquisition (Tripp, 1972; Bailey and Madden, 1973).

Other kinds of errors are more obvious -- like "interference" errors. Interference errors are the result of intrusion of the feature(s) of the native language into the language being learned, a quasi-seige on the target language system by the native language. Such kinds of errors are labelled extra-systematic because they are traceable to language features found outside the system of the target language. These error-types are based on the assumption that features familiar to the learner's native language will be simple for him, and features that are different will be difficult (Lado, 1957).

It is assuredly true that interference types of errors are made by the learner, but, in spite of the sometimes glaring presence of them, they represent only a small number of the total kinds of errors in second language acquisition. Developmental (or intra-systematic) errors far outnumber extra-systematic ones (Oller, 1972; Richards, 1972; Oller and Richards, 1973; Bailey and Madden, forthcoming). These findings unfetter syllabus preparation.

A learning syllabus must be viewed, consequently, as a general but potent guide for all learners since language learners, regardless of their first language, use similar strategies for learning as evidenced by their mistakes.

2.3 Conceptualization/Perceptualization

Another very important factor influencing the nature of the syllabus focuses on the dichotomy of conceptualization and perceptualization. Theoretical linguists have for quite a long time explored the existence of language universals (Greenberg, 1963). Although no one really knows how or if these universals can be effectively implemented in the language classroom, it is certainly believed by most linguists that universal concepts do exist. The syllabus, we assert, has no need to teach concepts because every learner comes to the language learning situation with concepts intact. The syllabus is obliged to relate perceptual entities to conceptual notions the students have. To us perceptualization connotes the mechanisms that any speaker of a language uses to verbally express any given concept. The society of a language cuts up the conceptual world into different perceptual pieces, but no language speaker is conceptually impoverished in comparison with another. Concepts are static, then, and perceptions are relative.

Examples make this point clear: to teach two merely means the presentation of the lexical item (a perceptual unit) since two-ness is a concept which the learner already possesses. In Veneto, there are many different names for winds: bóra, a strong, cool wind; scírocco, a humid wind; lebíc, a very strong, humid wind; levánte, a very cold and strong wind; psonénte, a mild wind accompanying cloudiness. Conceptually, all these winds exist in English, but Veneto has greater lexical precision in describing the various kinds of winds. Thus, it is possible to convey any conceptual content in any language, even though the particular lexical items available will vary widely from one language to another (Bach and Harms, 1968).

2.4 Summary of the Nature of the Syllabus

In summary, the nature of the syllabus reflects not merely retrospective elements which are restrictively corpus-based; it must stimulate prospective generation of new elements, and in order to achieve this creative ability, emphasis is on introspective use of the language utilizing the student's competence as well as his performance. The syllabus, like a pedagogical grammar, does not depend on any single pedagogy since no single pedagogy has been proven superior nor does adherence to a single method

necessarily insure a collateral learning strategy. Analyzing student errors reveals that unmarked language items should receive priority in a structural syllabus followed closely by marked items of high usage. Last, since conceptualization underlies all language use, the syllabus deals with learning perceptual precision needed to render concepts.

3.0 THE FOCUS OF THE SYLLABUS: Learning versus Teaching

The previous discussion of considerations about the nature of the syllabus assumed that learning is foremost in the language classroom, that is, the focus of classroom transaction is on learning. Recent innovators have sharply differentiated between teaching and learning where the former is even seen as sometimes obstructing the student's desire and ability to autonomously function in the language (Gattegno, 1973). In this learning-focused classroom, the student is ignited to experiment with language entities, to monitor his own language use, and to account for his own learning progress (Byrd, 1974). Innovative teachers are always receptive to effective ways to actively involving students, and it is through maximization of student participation that students learn to speak by speaking, to write by writing, to

read by reading, and to react by reacting.

In order to spark this activation of learning, stand-up language teaching in the traditional sense is dead! Involvement in the learning process minimizes memory as an indication of language learning since remembering a grammatical entity can also mean forgetting it, particularly if understanding and awareness were initially absent. Memory-type learning, moreover, lacks any cognitive utility of student awareness, not to mention the ennui encountered by both student and teacher. For the teacher, however, memory-type learning can be tantalizing if memory is seen as proof of learning, but such a view is assuredly irresponsible because memory is <u>not</u> proof of learning -- a testimony to another false icon in language study. The time in memorizing language items is misspent and misplaced energy which would be more profitably spent in meaningful introspection, invention, and practice. It is true that the language learner is responsible for some memorizing as evidenced by unconditioned recall but such memory is restricted and probably uncumulative as no proof has ever been found of a learner's having memorized an entire language. In lieu of memory, the focus of the syllabus is on involved learning utilizing all senses and any inner criteria the student has.

Man is the talking animal. Language, unlike other animal behavior, is innate and as such does not require conditioning in the Skinnerian sense (Chomsky, 1959; Lenneberg, 1974). Positive reinforcement is not the only way of insuring well-formed language use. Paradoxically, negative reinforcement seems to us noticeably valuable since both positive and negative reinforcement are cumulative indices of learning and the latter is valid for reasons of self-monitoring. A student learns to discriminate between his well-formed responses and those that are not well-formed. Practice in discrimination builds up, and he sharpens his acuity of what is well- or mal- formed. Only the student can best qualify his use of the target language while the teacher guides learning and increases the student's functionability. The student's reward, the act of acquisition itself, is not dependent on every gratuitous word, smile, or gesture given by the teacher. This observation is not intended to de-humanize language, the most human of systems; it is simply intended to enhance the student's undistracted awareness of the learning of the target language and to put the syllabus emphasis again where it should be: on learning.

3.1 Language Variations: Dialect and Register

Needless to say, syllabus items mirror occurrences in real life rather than decreed prescriptions of usage. Of course, language usage differs in written and spoken forms and prescriptions are unavoidable in effective writing, but naturalness of expression is still the most valid criterion -- whether in writing or speaking. Even naturalness of expression, however, depends on various external variables that the learner has to be sensitive of. To be able to understand various native speakers and to use a style of language appropriate to a social context are abilities which the syllabus enhances.

Language varies horizontally (geographically) and vertically (socially), both of which are tagged dialectal variation. To the surprise of probably no one, any educated native speaker is considered the language standard for learning. For recognition and understanding, it is desirable for the learner to be exposed to different dialects, if possible, but obviously for production skills, he must strive to emulate the standard received pronunciation as personified in that abstract, ideal speaker. Fortunately, however, since American dialects are so mutually intelligible, it should not at all be alarming if the learner absorbs certain unstigmatic dialectal features; it may even

add an enchanting character to his speech, a regional or social stamp, as it were. As the learner himself grows in awareness of the socio-economic implications of dialect, he learns, with the help of materials and instructions, to monitor and adjust his own speech.

Another language adjustment required of the learner and more subtle than dialect variation, is register variation. Register designates a language style relative to (1) the situation, (2) the listener, and (3) to some extent, the nature of the message itself (Bowen, 1968; Joos, 1961). A speaker's language style varies with the situation by reflecting the register that is required, for example, for an elaborate speech, a prepared talk, a normal monitored conversation, a casual or an intimate exchange. Variations depending on the listener include factors of respect, status, education, field of training, and dignity that exist between speaker and listener. Proper register is effected by the carrier of the message (written, oral, or non-linguistic) which determines the degree of formality necessary. The syllabus preparer considers register criteria more important than dialect criteria because the former are more vital and integral since a student's dialect use is a product of linguistic osmosis but his variation in register is

an object of study. It is his conscious choice of a language style that indicates how well he functions in the language milieu and how fluent he is. A mis-judgement in register could be dysfunctional if, for example, a sailor who in talking to a priest, lapses into his shopboard register, but a dialectal coloring of one's speech is usually benign.

Perhaps register is an underlying concept in that languages have prestigious forms. In any case, a student's ability to respond to a situation in a suitable style must be seen as a learning goal in language. Each person is multi-faceted; a member of a language-group may assume various real-life roles: father, son, parishoner, friend, politician. At any single time, when the speaker assumes one of these roles, his language use is altered accordingly. A language syllabus, then, mandates the development of fluency and flexibility to enable the learner to alter his language use chameleonistically to suit these register variables.

3.2 Motivation

Motivation for learning can be represented on a vertical - horizontal axis. Theoretically, we associate the vertical axis with what happens restrictively inside the self and includes

The language learning aspect of introspection and prospection. the horizontal axis is associated with peripheral factors and includes the interaction between the self and the external surroundings. Learners possessig instrumental motivation develop mainly along the vertical axis since their expectation for the use of the language reaches an instrumental goal-oriented threshold which the learner sets for himself. On the other hand, integratively-motivated learners are more involved with externals, that is, with social group which they wish to join and expand more fully along the horizontal axis. axis. Motivation/ attitudinal studies indicate that integrative learners are more open-ended and show greater mastery of the language, and that instrumental learners show restricted or different emphases on vertical, self-erected goals (Spolsky, 1969).

The syllabus by itself cannot cause the metamorphosis from the instrumental caterpillar to the integrative butterfly from this change not only depends heavily on the student's attitudes toward the society (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Jackobovits, 1970) but also most probably includes misconceptions and evaluative attitudes, including naive linguistic ones, toward the language itself (Byrd and Gray, forthcoming).. We are uncertain as to

whether or not an identical structural syllabus underlies both integrative and instrumental achievement, but it is apparent that if the syllabus can entice the student from an instrumental observer of the language society to an integrative participater in it, then even more potency is gained.

3.3 Learning Materials

Seen from the point of view of learning, the syllabus focuses on the inflectional system with all the redundant mechanisms that are woven into the layout of sentences; further focus on syntactic mechanisms of subordination and coordination combines with added attention to relationships among sentences as in rejoinders, tags, and ellipses. Excluding semantics, these three areas (inflections, syntactic and sentential combinations) essentially comprise the pedagogical grammar of a language.

Some new insights into the student learning of these above areas have been tried and have proved fruitful. Particularly worthy of mention is the contribution of Allen's Sector Analysis in which X-words designate the major working units of English, the "movers" for inverted-order questions, tags, paired sentences and the recipients of regular negations. The student, in learning to

use these relatively few X-words, can analytically manipulate the language in expeditious and meaningful ways (Allen, 1973).

More learning-focused materials are needed, and it is in this vein that we have conducted this study of the syllabus and the inherent paradox: although learning must be seen from the student's point of view, the teacher is responsible for the learning by means of syllabus preparation, materials design, student interaction and valid performance goals. Our purposes in the next portion of this paper are to shed more light on how teachers as a group view items in a learning syllabus and to establish their views of learning as a product of their pertinent training, independent thinking, and experience, yet not entirely brain-washed by prevalent teaching-centered materials in English as a Second Language.

4.0 PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Looking at published materials in English as a Second Language shows that many opinions exist regarding the progression of a syllabus since there is no agreed-on list of structural items covered. Some materials extensively treat one structure while other materials hardly mention it. Since there are so

many variables in the language learning situation, it is perhaps unrealistic to expect any sort of agreement as to which structures should be learned at which times.

Yet, it is our belief, and we feel a reinforced one, that trained and experienced ESL teachers agree on a core of structures, that is, a general syllabus, which is unaltered by learning variables. This agreement supports our view that an underlying syllabus exists, but such a syllabus is not invariable. Rather, we have found that teachers in general agree on which structures are beginning, intermediate, or advanced as supported by their statistical consensus.

4.1 General Syllabus Criteria

Certainly language teachers agree on general syllabus criteria, including factors of (1) simplicity, (2) functional load, (3) sequence, (4) hierarchy, and (5) markedness.

The simplicity level of a structure, as most language teachers know, does not signify a definite placement on a learning spectrum. Some basically difficult structures occur quite early in a language course. A good example of this arbitrariness of the simplicity-learning level is the verb to be which in the simple present

tense displays various suppleted forms (am, is, are). It is surely a beginning item, however, because of its frequency of use and its input for subsequent structures like continuous actions and the passive. By the same token, some relatively simple structures, because of the rarity and the precision of their use, enter at advanced levels. For example, the sentence I like my coffee hot shows the postnominal placement of the adjective. In transformational-generative terms, the underlying placement of adjectives is seen as postnominal. The above sentence, then, is simplified by the lack of a need for a permutation transformation to place the adjective prenominally as is the case for the placement of adjectives in general. Nevertheless, with all its simplification, it is still an advanced item in terms of usage. (Some theorists might, however, see this postnominal placement as more difficult simply because it is counter-systematic in a system where most adjectives do occur prenominally.)

Whether or not there is an absolute and intrinsic level of simplicity (or difficulty) of a structure is questionable. If it were true that materials could reflect a common or intrinsic level of simplicity, then objectively more difficult structures would necessarily fall higher on the learning spectrum where

more advanced students are supposedly more capable of processing this intrinsic difficulty. It seems to us that a universal simplicity index is not a reality. Developmentally and cumulatively, basic items become components of subsequent complex ones and the resultant complexity equates with "difficulty." The design of the syllabus has to deal with developmental complexities and expedite cumulative language learning.

Another problem facing teachers and materials writers is the dichotomy of structure versus context. By preparing a structural syllabus, one necessarily assumes that a natural context must emanate from a structure but rarely the converse. While it is true that a learning context hones in on a discrete structure, these contexts are also real communication exercises allowing for a variety of responses. Great care should be taken to realistically contextualize a structure by setting up an unambiguous situation when introducing it. Further, one should be sure that the language use is not distorted or confusing merely in order to hyperutilize the context. Examples of suitable structure and context link-ups might include (1) passives at a wedding (The invitations were sent by the bride), (2) causatives for routine (I have my hair cut once a month) or (3) Wh-questions at a job

interview (What's your name?).

The functional load of an entity determines the priority it receives in the syllabus. Obviously items of frequent use (with a higher functional load) should be presented earlier. Selecting a context without a confusing array of new lexicon requires careful planning since it is axiomatic that new structures should be taught using familiar vocabulary.

4.2 Sequencing

Sequencing grammatical structures is a teaching procedure that, in general, teachers agree on. In terms of learning effort, it is certainly a sound practice to relate new items to previously learned, related ones. New and previously learned language items can be related in one of two ways: (1) belonging to the same underlying grammatical carrier or (2) belonging to different underlying grammatical carriers. The former we call a homo-phorical sequence and the latter, a hetero-phorical sequence (Byrd and Dumicich, forthcoming).

Each of these categories includes one variable and one constant. For homo-phorical entities, the variable is sematic and the constant is grammatical whereas for hetero-phorical entities, the variable is grammatical and the constant is semantic. Figure 1, a homo-phorical sequence, schematizes a situation where a single underlying grammatical mode conveys various meanings. A hetero-phorical sequence, figure 2, shows the various grammatical modes available for conveying a single meaning. The constant, whether grammatical or semantic, is visualized as emitting the variable. Less circumscribable meaning categories are in dotted boxes whereas more definable grammatical modes are in solid boxes.

Figure 1: Homo-phorical Sequence

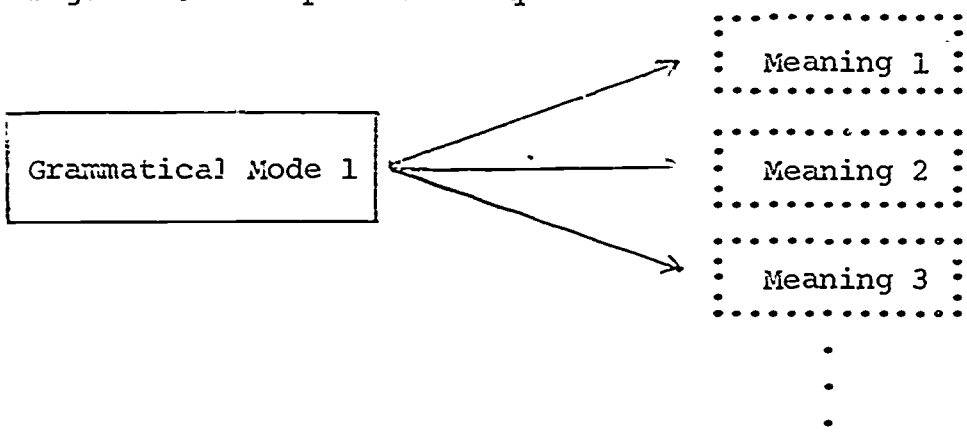
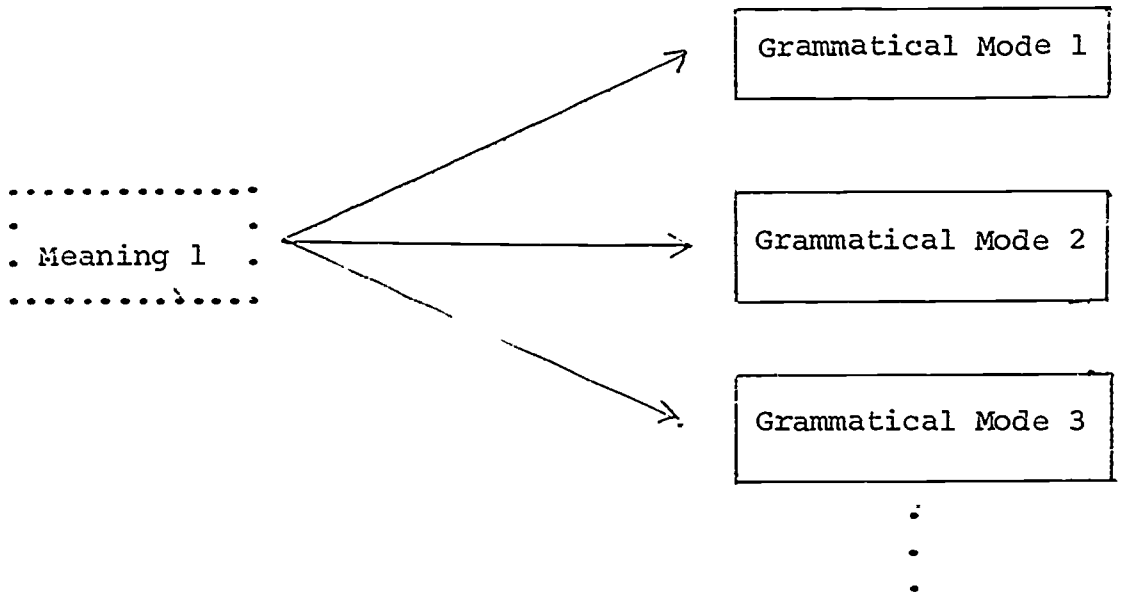


Figure 2: Hetero-phorical Sequence



Homo-phorical sequencing, used quite consciously by alert teachers, is exemplified in adjective comparisons since speakers use a similar mechanism for expressing different meanings. Sequencing in the comparative degree of adjectives most fruitfully progresses in stages because of the presentation of unmarked and unorthographically changing adjectives which precede other adjectives where the relative nature of markedness is obvious.

Figure 3: Constant Grammatical Mode/ Variable Meanings

(Homo-phorical)

category 1: small + er ——→ smaller

category 2: big + er ——→ bigger

category 3: pretty + er ——→ prettier

category 4: handsome + er ——→ more handsome

category 5: good + er ——→ better

As we showed, a single meaning expressed by different grammatical modes is hetero-phorical. To cite our previous example, the concept of comparing two entities can be expressed in a number of ways which is called agnation (Gleason, 1965; Stevick, 1971; Rutherford, 1974). Figure 4 shows examples expressing a single meaning.

Figure 4: Constant Meaning/ Variable Grammatical Modes

(Hetero-phorical)

Mary is taller than John.

John is tall, but Mary is taller.

In relation to John, Mary is tall.

Hetero-phorical sequencing seems almost limitless and is a far less tangible phenomenon than homo-phorical sequencing. Consequently, homo-phorical sequencing has probably received more exposure in materials due to this obvious tangibility, but

the syllabus should consider hetero-phorical sequencing in order to motivate students to react in various grammatical ways to a given context. In practice, hetero-phorical sequencing encourages paraphrasing, a meaningful device indeed for building fluency. Not all paraphrasing is, needless to say, hetero-phorical, particularly if the paraphrases account for different meanings as in sentence ambiguities.

Ambiguities occur when underlying forms seemingly converge to one surface form. The sentence "The man looked over the hill" has at least three readings traceable to three underlying derivations manifested in the following parenthetical clarifications:

1. "The man looked over the hill." (in the manner that he would a plot of land)
2. "The man looked over the hill." (in order to see the river)
3. "The man looked over the hill." (because he was old and over-worked)

Thus, paraphrases, for purposes of disambiguation, are neither homo-phorical nor hetero-phorical since in paraphrases of this kind a single constant (grammatical or semantic) does not exist for all sentences. Both the grammatical modes and the meanings are different.

As a last point regarding carrier sequencing, one should not confuse homo- or hetero- phorical phenomena with intra- or extra- paradigmatic items since many surface paradigms could be included in a single underlying grammatical mechanism. In our previous example of five categories of adjective comparisons, each category is in essence an inflectional paradigm belonging to a single abstract grammatical mode.

Phorical sequencing, as we have presented it, deals foremost with underlying grammatical carriers which might be the same or different but do not account for contextual meaning. From the point of view of meaning, rather that grammatical mode, sequencing can also be called thematic, conveying a single meaning regardless of the carrier, or non-thematic, conveying multifarious and unrelated meanings regardless of the carrier. Thematic sequencing answers the language learner's need to express an idea or meaning in more than one way. To use our terminology, the language learning syllabus should also project themes which the learner processes in various hetero-phorical manners.

The choice of constituents in the grammatical carrier often is restricted in ways not thematically obvious. There is a thematic unity in both the following sentences, but only the

first is considered grammatically well-formed due to the syntactic restraints of object pronominalization.

4. Look up the number in the directory.

5. *Look up it in the directory.

Thematic data, in short, account for variations in style emphasis, point of view, and other factors. They may simply utilize different lexicon if semantically equivalent as in these two sentences:

6. Mary beat John playing basketball.

7. John lost to Mary playing basketball.

In lieu of new lexicon, identical related morphological items may be juggled resulting in acceptable agnations which give evidence as to the nature of agnation itself (thematic but hetero-phorical surface modes) as in the following:

8. Germany invaded Poland in the past.

9. Poland was invaded by Germany in the past.

10. Poland's past invasion by Germany...

11. Germany's past invasion of Poland...

12. The past invasion of Poland by Germany...

13. The past German invasion of Poland...

14. The past Polish invasion by Germany...

15. Germany's past Polish invasion...

16. Poland's past German invasion...

Items 8 and 9 reinforce our previous point concerning ambiguities where the surface forms are derived from two underlying ones. Yet, these items, in spite of their ambiguity, show the possibilities of various grammatical modes for rendering a single theme -- if the single form underlies all of the above items (Germany + invade + past + Poland). Caution, then, is needed to anticipate ambiguities when equipping the syllabus for heterophorical variations of thematic entities.

4.3 Entry

Entry of a grammatical item in a syllabus can be (1) continuous, or (2) dis-continuous. Sequencing obviously deals with continuous items where a basic form is a component of or related to a more complex one. This componential combining or relating of entities is hierarchical in nature since the basic item always precedes, thus, is more basic, than the subsequent complex item. An example of continuous entry is the simple present of the verb have and the present perfect tense where the former shows a relatively simple paradigm but in combination with the past

participiple, for the latter, constitutes a more complex structure. Needless to say, sequence is important because thorough facility with a basic form expedites the learning of a more complex related one.

Re-entry refers to the presentation of an already-learned item as an input for learning a more complex one or for further expansion of a language category. In this study, re-entry accounts for the cumulative processing of language items and should be distinct from mere review which is characteristically uncumulative.

Two reasons account for re-entry: (1) to expand a single homo-phorical grammatical category or (2) to combine different hetero-phorical grammatical categories into a single hierarchical one. In the later stages of language learning, expanding a homo-phorical mode means learning more surface forms (both unmarked and marked) of an underlying grammatical rule as well as generating new luxury lexicon, but regardless of the kind of expansion, it gives surface substance to an underlying mode. This homo-phorical learning is either thematic or non-thematic depending on the priorities of the design of the syllabus. The most desirable combination for the first type of re-entry is to blend homo-phorical with thematic entities as was

mentioned in our previous discussion of structure and context where an unambiguous context inspires a given grammatical mode.

In contrast to the mere expansion of a homo-phorical category, hierarchical combinations of hetero-phorical categories are cumulative in that surface sub-components combine with other surface sub-components to produce a more complex surface form as illustrated by the constituents in the perfect tenses and progressive actions of verbs. If each constituent of a hierarchical mode is analyzed, it is seen to possess homo-phorical features like inflections, but the combination of these surface forms result in a higher order complexity which has its own phorical properties. In short, then, a homo-phorical re-entry expands the substance of an abstract grammatical rule whereas a hetero-phorical re-entry uses tangible building blocks (surface constituents) to produce more complex forms.

Whether or not continuous sequencing should be contiguous, that is, directly following, depends on the structural items presented and, of course, on the personal choice of the instructor. Most teachers would probably treat the previous structural example for the comparison of adjectives as contiguously sequential, but teaching style might reserve the marked forms

(better, worse) for separate treatment since the functional load of these marked comparisons is a considerable factor. These marked forms serve to further amplify an underlying grammatical mode of the same hierarchy rather than different hierarchies.

As was pointed out in the theoretical portion of this paper, marked forms offer very little source for the student to create analagous structures. Consequently, unmarked forms ideally precede marked ones. Considerations as to the functional load of a marked item, however, enter the picture and desirably alter the sequencing to enhance real language usage.

5.0 THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Figure 5 shows the results of our questionnaire containing names and examples of forty-five major grammatical structures in English as a Second Language. Each one of these structures was an autonomous or discrete entry and did not prescribe any contiguous sequence.

Using any criteria they chose, teachers from widespread ESL and EFL programs were asked to place a check on a continuum

Figure 5: Structure Level Assignments by ESL Teachers

Structure	Levels 1	2	3	4	5	mean
1. be + complement She's in class.	90.7	7.0	2.3			.744
2. present continuous They're baking a cake.	90.7	9.3				.767
3. nouns: plural formation books; pencils; boxes	88.4	11.6				.802
4. commands Open the book.	76.2	19.1	4.8			.928
5. pronominalization I have a book. Give it to him.	73.9	21.5	2.4	2.4		1.000
6. habitual present We usually play the piano.	65.1	27.9	7.0			1.128
7. simple past She played the tuba.	57.2	35.8	7.2			1.178
8. WH-words and questions What is he doing?	62.5	30.0	7.5			1.187
9. future: will She'll go home later.	53.5	41.9	7.0			1.325
10. adjective: comparative and superlative She's shorter than Tom. She's the shortest in the class.	47.6	42.9	9.3	2.4		1.450
11. mass - count I need a few books and some ink.	41.9	46.6	9.3	2.3		1.500
12. simple modals We can drive.	26.1	52.4	19.0	2.4		1.750
13. order of adverbials She usually takes him home every morning.	20.9	48.8	18.7	11.7		1.818
14. irregular verbs: past and past participle He sold the book. He has sold the book.	13.5	62.1	24.3			1.863
15. connected statements Mary is pretty and Helen is, too.	23.8	36.0	33.3	2.4	2.4	1.952
16. adverbs: degree She reads faster than John.	11.7	58.1	9.3	4.7		2.000
17. past continuous We were playing the piano.	9.7	61.0	29.3			2.048
18. adjectives: equality and intensity He's as tall as Mary. He's too tall for the sports car.	10.0	45.0	40.0	2.5	2.5	2.150
19. real conditional If it rains, I'll go.	7.2	45.2	40.5	7.2		2.214
20. request variations Would you please close the door?	12.5	40.0	27.5	15.0	5.0	2.225
21. present perfect I've played the flute for five years.	14.2	35.7	31.8	7.2	4.8	2.309
22. frequent two-word verbs Put on your clothes.	15.4	25.7	41.0	15.4	2.6	2.320
23. present perfect continuous I've been living in NY for five years.	2.3	39.6	41.8	11.6	4.7	2.523

Figure 5: Structure Level Assignments by ESL Teachers (continued)

Structure	Levels 1	2	3	4	5	mean
24. infinitives She's too tired to go to the movie.	4.8	31.0	38.1	26.2		2.560
25. simple passives I'm invited to the wedding.	2.4	38.1	42.9	11.9	4.8	2.600
26. lexical derivational contrasts She swims rapidly. She's a rapid swimmer.	16.6	23.8	23.8	26.2	9.6	2.666
27. relative pronouns The book which you saw is old.		24.4	53.6	22.0		2.695
28. verbal variations I like {swimming / to swim} in the summer.	7.0	21.0	41.8	18.6	11.6	2.814
29. adverbial expressions Since he's here, ask him.	2.4	21.4	40.5	28.5	7.2	2.850
30. simple reported speech John says that he's tired.	7.3	19.5	43.9	14.4	14.7	2.878
31. adjective clause reduction The boy with the blond hair... The blond-hair boy...		22.5	37.5	25.0	15.0	3.087
32. unreal conditional If I were rich, I'd buy a house.	2.4	14.6	31.7	41.4	9.8	3.100
33. transition words I don't speak English well; therefore...	5.4	18.9	32.4	27.0	16.2	3.202
34. complex modals She has to go by train.		4.8	38.0	42.8	14.3	3.316
35. negative variations I don't like to talk in a movie. I like not to talk in a movie.	7.0	23.3	13.9	25.6	30.2	3.337
36. pre-nominal order Both the last two difficult geometry lessons	2.4	23.8	11.9	26.2	35.7	3.464
37. causatives I must have the optometrist examine my eyes.		9.3	25.6	39.5	25.6	3.500
38. past perfect After John had shopped three hours...		4.7	27.9	48.8	18.6	3.535
39. advanced tags She could've dance all night, couldn't she have?		9.7	26.9	39.0	24.5	3.573
40. double comparatives The longer I wait, the more impatient I get.	2.3	4.7	23.3	37.2	32.5	3.660
41. gerunds I regretted my seeing you there.		4.6	23.3	39.5	32.5	3.709
42. complex reported speech and noun clauses He said that he had been to Paris.		7.2	19.0	42.9	30.9	3.797
43. cleft sentences It's obvious that Tom is happy.	2.4	4.0	11.9	35.7	45.3	3.976
44. uninflected verbs in noun clause He demands that John close the door.			21.4	42.8	35.7	4.095
45. complex passives I was given an apple by the teacher.			15.0	37.5	47.6	4.213

from zero to nine to indicate at which point the structure should be learned; zero represented very beginning and nine, very advanced. Of varying methodologies and experiences, fifty ESL teachers of adults took the questionnaire. In order to convert the preferences of these teachers to a learning spectrum consisting of five levels, we came up with a teacher consensus (percentages and means) as to which structures make up each level of a learning syllabus. The means, not to be confused with learning levels, could possibly range in polarity from 0.0 to 5.0.

The resulting tabulation in figure 5 shows that the entry of each structure is discontinuous and discontiguous, but it is important, in spite of this discontinuity and discontiguity to note the entry of th presentation. The consensus demonstrated by ESL teachers substantiates our earlier point about the componential combining or the cumulativeness of a language learning syllabus. Hierarchies of complexity are shown, i.e., be before "present continuous" (items 1 and 2), uninflected "commands" before the inflected "habitual present" (items 4 and 6), "nouns: plural formation" before "pronominalization" where the former is necessary for the correct suppletion by the latter (items 3 and 5). Apart from these apparent hierarchical

combinations, there are demonstrated choices of simplicity criteria such as comparative and superlative of adjectives before the more complex adjective structures of equality and intensity (items 10 and 18). In terms of markedness criteria, the simple past of regular verbs precedes the presentation of past tense or irregular verbs allowing the former to serve the student as bases for analogy. Careful study of the figures will probably yield more data than we have pointed out, but the resulting tabulation shows that there is signigicant teacher agreement on the discrete entry of most structures on a learning syllabus.

Figure 6 shows the results of this same questionnaire as taken by educators with experience and training comparable to the ESL teachers. Comparing the two figures yields the following data: (1) ESL teachers show greater agreement in designating the entry of an item on a learning continuum (ESL teachers showed 90.7% agreement on the first two items where as non-ESL educator showed only 52.6% and 43.5% agreement on the same items.); (2) continuous sequences were placed in "logical" order by ESL teachers, e.g
e.g., "be + complement" precedes "present continuous" where figure 6 shows "illogical" sequences illustrated by items 4 and 5 where "WH-questions" are chosen to precede the entry of all

Figure 6: Structure Level Assignments by Non-ESL Educators

Structure	Levels 1	2	3	4	5	mean
1. commands Open the book.	76.3	18.4	2.6	2.6		1.026
2. nouns: plural formation books; pencils; boxes	71.8	20.5	5.2	2.6		1.051
3. simple past She played the tuba.	65.8	31.6	2.6			1.092
4. WH-words and questions What is he doing?	60.5	31.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	1.276
5. be + complement She's in class.	52.6	36.9	7.9	2.6		1.315
6. pronominalization I have a book. Give it to him.	47.3	42.1	2.6	7.9		1.434
7. adverbs: degree She reads faster than John.	38.5	43.6	18.0			1.615
8. present continuous They're baking a cake.	43.5	28.2	17.9	7.7	2.6	1.654
9. future: will She'll go home later.	39.4	34.2	18.4	5.3	2.6	1.723
10. adjectives: comparatives and superlative She's shorter than Tom. She's the shortest in the class.	33.3	35.9	25.6	5.1		1.731
11. habitual present We usually play the piano.	34.2	26.4	23.7	15.8		1.894
12. connected statements Mary is pretty and Helen is, too.	31.6	31.6	26.4	10.5		1.921
13. simple reported speech John says that he's tired.	29.7	29.7	27.0	8.1	5.4	1.972
14. past continuous We were playing the piano.	40.5	24.3	16.2	10.8	8.1	1.972
15. simple modals We can drive.	30.8	30.7	25.7	12.8		1.974
16. infinitives She's too tired to go to the movies.	34.2	23.7	31.6	7.9	2.6	2.000
17. irregular verbs: past and past participle He sold the book. He has sold the book.	15.8	52.7	21.0	7.9	2.6	2.052
18. mass - count I need a few books and some ink.	23.7	36.9	23.7	7.9	7.9	2.197
19. simple passives I'm invited to the wedding.	15.4	33.3	35.9	12.9	2.6	2.256
20. verbal variations I like {swimming / to swim} in the summer	13.9	30.6	33.4	19.4	2.8	2.388
21. request variations Would you please close the door	10.5	44.8	18.4	7.9	18.4	2.500
22. adjectives: equality and intensity He's as tall as Mary. He's too tall for the sports car.	5.3	44.8	31.6	7.9	10.6	2.500
23. present perfect I've played the flute for five years.	15.4	23.1	33.3	20.6	7.7	2.538

Figure 6: Structure Level Assignment by Non-ESL Educators (continued)

Structure	Levels 1	2	3	4	5	mean
24. negative variations I don't like to talk in a movie. I like not to talk in a movie.	18.4	18.5	29.0	13.1	21.0	2.723
25. relative pronouns The book which you saw is old.		34.3	39.5	18.4	7.9	2.789
26. present perfect continuous I've been living in NY for five years.	5.2	26.4	34.3	21.1	13.3	2.828
27. real conditional If it rains, I'll go.	7.7	25.6	28.2	25.6	12.8	2.846
28. adverbial expressions Since he's here, ask him.		34.2	26.4	26.4	13.2	2.894
29. frequent two-word verbs Put on your clothes.	10.6	15.8	31.6	28.9	13.2	2.934
30. order of adverbials She usually takes him home every morning.	8.1	13.5	43.2	21.6	13.5	2.959
31. transition words I don't speak English well, therefore...		31.6	34.2	13.2	21.1	3.000
32. adjective clause reduction The boy with the blond hair... The blond-haired boy...		20.5	41.0	28.2	10.2	3.077
33. past perfect After John had shopped for three hours...	2.6	29.0	21.0	21.0	26.3	3.118
34. causatives I must have the optometrist examine my eyes.	2.6	23.7	23.7	36.9	13.9	3.118
35. lexical derivational contrasts She swims rapidly. She's a rapid swimmer.	5.1	10.3	30.6	35.8	17.9	3.205
36. complex reported speech and noun clause He said that he had been to Paris.		12.8	25.6	43.6	17.9	3.461
37. double comparatives The longer I wait, the more impatient I get.		10.5	23.7	52.7	13.2	3.500
38. complex modals She had to go by train.		8.1	27.0	48.6	16.2	3.513
39. complex passives I was given an apple by the teacher.	5.2	7.9	31.6	23.7	31.6	3.552
40. unreal conditional If I were rich, I'd buy a house.		13.5	29.7	24.3	32.4	3.594
41. pre-nominal order Both the last two difficult geometry lessons		15.8	23.7	28.9	36.9	3.605
42. uninflected verbs in noun clause He demands that John close the door.		10.5	23.7	28.9	36.9	3.605
43. gerunds I regretted my seeing you there.	2.6	12.8	12.8	33.4	38.4	3.705
44. advanced tags She could've dance all night, couldn't she have?		10.3	23.1	23.1	43.6	3.820
45. cleft sentences It's obvious that Tom is happy.		10.3	18.0	28.2	43.6	3.846

tenses except the "simple past" (item 3); (3) ESL teachers showed greater specificity in placing an item on the learning spectrum (the means of ESL teachers show a wide range from .744 to 4.112 while the range of non-ESL educators is more limited--from 1.026 to 3.846); (4) ESL teachers appear to exhibit a greater understanding of the functional load concept as evidenced by non-ESL educators' choice of "degree of adverbs" over the "degree of adjectives" (items 7 and 10) where the heavier functional load of adjectives is usually agreed on.

A surprising similarity between figures 5 and 6 is the very general synonymity of the consensuses. Apart from their ordering, the bulk choices include approximately the same items. Look, for example, at any ten-item block and it is generally evident that the same items in figures 5 and 6 are merely ordered differently. This observation is not always true, but it is a valid generalization. We feel confident that the strength of an ESL teacher consensus, then, is its sequencing in addition to the entry point of an item.

Since teachers exhibit a persuasive utilization of structural continuous and/or contiguous sequencing, we presume that teacher training and experience equips the ESL teachers with valuable and unique insights into the language learning

process. We posit the existence of some sort of economy criteria of language learning which teachers may develop. The relationship between economy of learning effort and sequencing is paradoxical. It is possible that economy of learning effort accounts for expeditious sequencing, but, on the other hand, the opposite might also be true, that is, appropriate sequencing enhances the economy of learning effort.

5.1 Learning Effort Units

Learning effort, we feel, can probably be calibrated; basic learning effort units (LEU's), interesting and useful concepts, serve as criteria for the entry of structures in a syllabus. LEU's are seen, in our point of view, as the smallest chunks of learning, be they phonological, lexical, syntactic, or sentential (Byrd and Dumicich, forthcoming). Learning effort is greatest when the student learns a new or unique (discontinuous) item, comparatively less when he learns a hierarchical one composed of some known components, and even less when merely assembling a compound consisting of all known items. A much more sophisticated learning task is to develop intuitions as to agnated relationships which are thematically unified but

grammatically disparate. We see LEU's as being units of internalization seen from the learner's point of view and can be measured as initial effort compared to total effort. The existence of LEU's is clear if one considers, for example, derivational contrasts in English as in the words supreme and supremacy where initial LEU's are fewer for the first word. The total amount of LEU's for the second word is greater. The exact learning mechanism for these words must posit an abstractly specified base form which appears sub-verbally as /səpr'm/ (Chomsky and Halle, 1968). By putting forth a learning effort, the student arrives at the nature of the surface vowel, /səpríym/; by putting forth multiple learning efforts, he can create the derivational noun /səprímɨsɨy/. We find this approach rich in possibilities for influencing syllabus design.

5.2 Leading Textbook Correlations

Figure 7 proves that ESL teachers are not overwhelmingly influenced by existing textbook series. A great deal of disparity is obvious in studying this chart. Of the six series analyzed, there is very little correlation shown between ESL teacher consensus and the structural content of these texts.

Figure 7 shows that the very beginning structures receive initial attention in most of the textbook series and that these beginning structures correlate significantly with the choices of ESL teachers. Beyond this beginning level, correlation is fragmentary.

We were careful to analyze only current textbooks which purport to cover the language learning continuum, that is, textbook series that range, as is the case in a language learning syllabus, from very beginning to very advanced. The series analyzed were: (1) English for Today (six book series), McGraw-Hill; (2) English 900 (five book series), Collier Macmillan; (3) Modern American English (six book series), Regents; (4) Lado English Series (five book series), Regents; (5) Orientation in American English (five book series), Institute of Modern Language; (6) American English (four book series), The Center for Curriculum Development. After carefully screening each series to find the entry of each structural item, we converted the entry point into a five-level learning continuum to compare with the questionnaire results. A simple prorating procedure was used by counting the total number of chapters and subtracting the review chapters. Textbook review activity was, for purposes of sequencing, a

Figure 7: Structure Level Assignments in Leading Textbook Series

Structure	EFT	E9	MAE	LES	OAE	AE
1. be + complement She's in class.	1	1	1	1	1	1
2. present continuous They're baking a cake.	1	2	1	2	1	2
3. nouns: plural formation books; pencils; boxes	1,3	1	1	1	2	1
4. commands Open the book.	1	1,3	2	1	1	
5. pronominalization I have a book. Give it to him.	1,2	1,2,3	1,2	1,3,5	1	1
6. habitual present We usually play the piano.	1	1,2	1	1	1	2
7. simple past She played the tuba.	1	1,2	1	2	1	2,3
8. WH-words and questions What is he doing/	1	1,2	1,2	2	1,2	1
9. future: will She'll go home later.	2	1,3	2,3		1,4,5	4
10. adjective: comparative and superlative She's shorter than Tom. She's the shortest in the class.	2	2,3,4	2	3	3,4,5	4
11. mass - count I need a few books and some ink.	1	1,2,3	2	3,4	3	1,3
12. simple modals We can drive.	2	1,4	3,4	3	2,3	3,4
13. order of adverbials She usually takes him home every morning.	1	2,3	3	3	2,3	3
14. irregular verbs: past and past participle He sold the book. He has sold the book.	2,3	3	2	2,3,4	1,2,3,4,5	3
15. connected statements Mary is pretty and Helen is, too.	1,2	3,4,5	4	4		1,2,5
16. adverbs: degree She reads faster than John.	2,4	1,5	2	3		4
17. past continuous We were playing the piano.	3	2	2	2		3
18. adjectives: equality and intensity He's as tall as Mary. He's too tall for the sports car.	2	2,3	5	3	4	4,5
19. real conditional If it rains, I'll go.	2,3	2,3,4	4	5	4,5	5
20. request variations Would you please close the door?	2	3,4,5	5	1,4		5
21. present perfect I've played the flute for five years.	2	2,3	2	3	3	3
22. frequent two-word verbs Put on your clothes.	1,3	1,2,3,5	2,3	4	1,2,3	
23. present perfect continuous I've been living in NY for five years.	2		3	5		3

EFT: English for Today; E9: English 900; MAE: Modern American English; LES: Lado English Seri
Orientation in American English; AE: American English

Figure 7: Structure Level Assignments in Leading Textbook Series (continued)

Structure	EFT	E9	MAE	LES	OAE	AE
24. infinitives She's too tired to go to the movie.	2,3,5	1,2,3,4,5	3	3,4	2,3,4	5
25. simple passives I'm invited to the wedding.	2	1,3,4,5	3	3	2	5
26. lexical derivational contrasts She swims rapidly. She's a rapid swimmer.	2					4
27. relative pronouns The book which you saw is old.	2,3,4	2,4	2,3	4	4,5	4
28. verbal variations I like {swimming / to swim} in the summer.		4	5	4		5
29. adverbial expressions Since he's here, ask him.	4	1,2	2,5	5		5
30. simple reported speech John says that he's tired.	3	1,4,5	2,4	4		5
31. adjective clause reduction The boy with the blond hair... The blond-haired boy...	5		5	4	5	4
32. unreal conditional If I were rich, I'd buy a house.	2,3		4	5	4	5
33. transition words I don't speak English well; therefore..	4	2,3,5	5	4,5		5
34. complex modals She has to go by train.	3	1,2,3,4,5	3,4	3	4,5	4
35. negative variations I don't like to talk in a movie. I like not to talk in a movie.	2	5	4			5
36. pre-nominal order Both the last two difficult geometry lessons	4	2,3	3	5	4,5	
37. causatives I must have the optometrist examine my eyes.		4		5	3	5
38. past perfect After John had shopped three hours...	3	5	2	3		
39. advanced tags She could've danced all night, couldn't she have?	5		4			
40. double comparatives The longer I wait, the more impatient I get.						
41. gerunds I regretted my seeing you there.	4	2,3,4,5	4	4	5	5
42. complex reported speech and noun clause He said that he had been to Paris.	4	2,5	3,4	4		5
43. cleft sentences It's obvious that Tom is happy.	4			4		5
44. uninflected verbs in noun clause He demands that John close the door.						5
45. complex passives I was given an apple by the teacher.	3	1	3	3	2	5

EFT: English for Today; E9: English 900; MAE: Modern American English; LES: Lado English Series
OAE: Orientation in American English; AE: American English

discontinuous entry and would have distorted our tabulation of continuous entries. The total number of chapters throughout the series was then divided by five to find out the exact placement of a structure in the series which correlated with our learning continuum.

The first level number in each column of figure 7 designates the primary place of entry. Subsequent level numbers indicate continuous re-entries which were always interpreted as homo-phorical, a mere expansion of the same underlying grammatical mechanism. A solitary level number shows a discontinuous entry which is not further expanded later in the series. No books showed any evidence of thematic sequencing.

6.0 CONCLUSION

This study focuses on a language learning spectrum as viewed by the teacher. It proves that ESL teachers show consensus of judgment, greater specificity, and independent thinking in designating the placement of a language structure on a learning spectrum.

Practically, we have learned that existing language materials do not always represent teacher preferences or sequences.

In comparison with non-ESL educators of equivalent background, this research has clarified that ESL training and experience are factors that influence the entry and the sequence of grammatical structures.

Experienced teachers, fledgeling teachers, and materials planners can utilize the results of this study because it shows a suggested format for a language learning syllabus -- objective, tabulated, and credible.

Before sitting down to write a language learning syllabus which many people offhandedly attempt, the teacher should consider all factors of the language learning situation covered in this paper and should approach the task fully aware of the theoretical and practical implications inherent therein.

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