A MODEL FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN AFRICAN LITERATURE CURRICULUM IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF SIERRA LEONE

by

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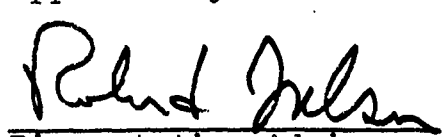

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ABSTRACT

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The purpose of this study was to provide a decision-making model that would be used in the development of an African Literature curriculum to be adopted in the secondary schools of Sierra Leone. Emphasis was put on the decision-making process in Sierra Leone, especially in terms of allowing lay members of the community to participate in curriculum decisions. A critical look at the current decision-making process in Sierra Leone as it relates to curriculum development and implementation was undertaken and the Vroom model for decision-making was analysed and adapted to suit the Sierra Leone situation.

After examining the way decisions affecting curriculum development in Sierra Leone were made and the role of the various officials connected with their implementation, existing curriculum and instructional practices were attacked at their most vulnerable points, especially in terms of their lack of relevance to the cultural aspirations of the students currently enrolled in the secondary schools of Sierra Leone.

In addition to describing the decision-making process in curriculum implementation, this study presented the psychological conditions which must be present in and out of the classroom before a student's behavior patterns can be modified. With this psychlogical framework, the basic curricular problems and issues were examined:

(1) The Nature of Educational Goals
(2) Curriculum Organization
(3) The Learning Process
(4) Evaluation of Student Growth and Development

Questions concerning the cultural and political aspects of the decision-making process as they relate to curriculum planning in Sierra Leone were raised. Tentative answers to these questions were suggested. I suggesting answers to these questions, a critical look at a particular discipline, African literature, was undertaken.

Finally, a model for the development of an African literature curriculum was proposed. This model, which is an adaptation of Virgil Herrick's diagram, reflects many of the current trends in curriculum planning and development. It emphases issues concerning the factors considered before curriculum decisions are made, the people involved in making these decisions, and when and how these decisions are made.

The study concluded with a recommendation to the government of Sierra Leone to undertake a revision of the entire secondary school curriculum in the country, using this study as a possible guide.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Purpose of the Study

This study was undertaken for the purpose of providing a decision-making model to be used in the development of an African literature curriculum in the secondary schools of Sierra Leone. The proposed model would serve as a theoretical framework through which needed curriculum changes could be initiated by the government of the Republic of Sierra Leone.

The Need for the Study

With the advent of independence to the state of Sierra Leone, the native government became aware that western education did not necessarily unlock the doors to political and economic progress. Disillusionment with the outcomes of educational expansion, at all levels, created a need for a thorough reappraisal of the educational achievements of Sierra Leone in the post-independence era.

In terms of the quantity of educational establishments, the progress made could be considered phenomenal. There was a sharp increase in the number of students entering all facets of the educational system; new

schools were constructed and more teachers hired. However, with regard to the quality of education, there was virtually no change in the situation. Various sporadic attempts were made to "Africanize" the curriculum content and to adapt the educational system to the needs of the citizens of Sierra Leone. These attempts failed because the new leadership was content to: "adhere to the structure and content of schooling bequeathed to them by the former metropole. Indeed, in some territories the similarities between metropolitan and post-colonial systems of education have increased rather than diminished since independence. As yet, few scholarly studies exist that have attempted to delineate the relationship between formal education and broader social structure of African states while even fewer efforts are apparent that have attempted to redefine the role that schooling might play in the development of these new politics."[1]

This quotation by Foster exemplifies the kind of thinking prevalent among foreign educators concerning the lack of progress made by most African nations in their attempts to relate their curriculum to the immediate needs of the people. This study is a modest attempt to answer the challenge offered by Foster.

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[1]"Education for Self-Reliance: A Critical Evaluation", Education in Africa, Philip Foster, (East African Publishing House, 1969).

Another impetus for this study is related to the narrow sense in which the term curriculum is used by curriculum planners in Sierra Leone. The term curriculum is not viewed in terms of learning experiences, but in terms of subject matter content. When the curriculum is viewed in this restrictive sense, the social, philosophical, and psychological foundations tend to be ignored during the curriculum planning process. Also, in formulating objectives, various terms are used which are not pertinent to behavioral outcomes.

With a centralized system of education in Sierra Leone, most curricular decisions are made in accordance with the bureaucratic model. The political head of the Ministry of Education is the final authority for deciding what the curriculum should be. Most of the people connected with the educational system, especially the consumers, have no input in curriculum decisions. The proposed model attempts a departure from this practice by considering the possibility of involving teachers, students, parents, and other community leaders in the curriculum development and implementation effort.

Design of the Study

This study is essentially descriptive for its primary aim is providing a decision-making model to be used in the development of an African literature curriculum

for possible implementation in the secondary schools of Sierra Leone. The following operational objectives are sought:

1. To examine the pre-colonial system of education in Sierra Leone and see how this has affected current educational practices.

2. To analyze thoroughly the current educational system of Sierra Leone in terms of organization and structure in order to determine its current status.

3. To apply research findings on human learning to the Sierra Leone situation.

4. To examine the role of literature in the secondary schools of Sierra Leone with a view to identifying weaknesses in the decision-making process.

5. To integrate the previous four steps so as to form a base for the proposed model which will include:

    A. Stating Objectives

        1. Criteria for the selection of objectives

        2. A suggested list of objectives for teaching African literature in the secondary schools

    B. Selecting Learning Experiences

        1. Definition of learning experiences

        2. What criteria should be used to select learning experiences?

    C. Organizing Learning Experiences

        1. Definition of the term "organization."

        2. What are the characteristics of an effective organization?

D. Evaluation

1. What is evaluation?

2. Characteristics of a comprehensive evaluation program

E. Summary of Processes Suggested for Curriculum Development

6. To appraise critically the current literature curriculum used in the secondary schools of Sierra Leone.

7. To recommend to the Ministry of Education an approach for the improvement of curriculum planning in Sierra Leone.

Definition of Terms

Curriculum. As used in this study, the term curriculum will be defined as "all of the planned experiences provided by the school to assist pupils in attaining the designated learning outcomes to the best of their abilities."[1]

Model. According to Talcott Parsons, the word model when used in a broad sense means " 'ideal type' of structure or process, arrived at by hypothetical reasoning from theoretical premises, which is then used, through comparison with empirical data, to analyze such data. In this contex, model seems to be almost identical with theoretical scheme."[2]

Learning Experiences. Learning experiences is used in this context to designate "the interaction between the learner and the external conditions to which he can react."[3] This definition includes course content and the teaching activities performed by the teacher.

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[1]Neagley, Ross and Evans, Dean, Handbook for Effective Curriculum Development, (Prentice Hall, 1967).

[2]Parsons, Talcott, "An Approach to Psychological Theory in Terms of Theory of Action," Psychology: A Study of a Science, (McGraw-Hill, 1957).

[3]Tyler, R., Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, (University of Chicago Press, 1963).

Basic Assumptions

1. Any curriculum design or plan if it is to become effective in improving curriculum, must make explicit and clear the bases upon which curriculum decisions are made.

2. A curriculum design becomes more usable in improving educational programs if it has as its major organizational focus the problem of selecting, organizing, and teaching the learning experiences of children and youth.

3. In curriculum design, the identification of the approach used in selecting and organizing the learning experiences of children determines the nature of the definition and use of objectives at the operational level.

4. Curriculum designs must provide staffs and individual teachers with an understanding of their roles and responsibilities in making the major decisions of curriculum development. [1]

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[1] Macdonald, James, Strategies of Curriculum Development, (Charles Merill, Inc., Ohio, 1965).

Limitations of Study

1. Because of the descriptive nature of the study, and the fact that the author is not in his native country, no attempt will be made to test empirically the workability of the proposed model. The study will, therefore, be limited to exploring the operational objectives listed earlier in the study.

2. No attempt is made by the author to select the subject matter content to be included in the African literature curriculum. The syllabus attached in the appendix is for illustrative purposes.

3. The various learning experiences that are vital to curriculum planning and development are not explored in detail. It is the responsibility of the curriculum committee proposed in the model, to determine what these experiences will be.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

Social Problems and the Curriculum

In developing a curriculum model for any school system, one needs to examine the role of education in the society in which this model is going to be implemented. Whether this role is viewed as that of transmitting culture, socializing the individual, or reconstructing society, one needs to analyze the structure of society in order to determine what the goals and problems of the society are. In a society that is undergoing rapid economic, political, and social changes, it is necessary for "a continuous examination of goals and demands of society and of the forces operating in it in order to keep education reality-oriented: to determine what knowledge is most worthwhile, which skills must be mastered, which values are relevant. These questions are all the more important if one conceives of education as a creative agent of social change in reconstructing society or as serving social or individual needs."[1]

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[1] Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice, Hilda Taba, (Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., New York, (1962) p. 3.

Thus, many curriculum experts have emphasized the need for taking social problems and goals into consideration when designing a curriculum. In this context, Hauson and Brembeck believe that three major areas must be considered whenever societal problems and goals are discussed in relation to curriculum development:

(A) It demands increased attention to the civic and political needs of the nation: to developing new attitudes toward government and law, to concern with effective participation in the political process, to placing national interests and well-being above narrow tribal or local interests.

(B) It demands increased attention to the social and personal needs of the nation: to improving the health and well-being of the people, to maintaining the individual's self-respect and self-confidence.

(C) It demands increased attention to the economic and technological needs of the nation: to selecting and educating qualified individuals for high level positions, to equipping technical and agricultural manpower with skills that will produce maximum efficiency in using natural resources, to developing a new spirit of economic innovation and to building new attitudes toward saving, investment, and purchasing.[1]

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[1]Education and the Development of Nations, John W. Hanson and Cole S. Brembeck, (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1966), pp. 33-34.

This point of view has direct relevance to the Sierra Leone situation in that those responsible for curriculum planning have never made a conscious effort to identify the social aims of the community and use them as one of the foundations of the curriculum. An attempt will be made in this chapter to identify the various social problems facing the country and their implications for curriculum development.

The Standard of Living

Like any other country of the Third World, Sierra Leone is a developing country. Its population is slightly more than 2½ million and the growth rate of population is 1½% per annum. Gross domestic product at market prices was estimated to be Le323 million[1] in 1969, giving a per capita income figure of about Le129.[2] Although the G.D.P. portrays the economic situation in a country, it does not always give a true picture of the real economic situation. There is a rural agricultural sector in Sierra Leone which predominates and is largely non-monetary. Transactions in this sector are extremely difficult to evaluate.

The government of Sierra Leone is the largest single employer of labor in the country. In any developing country, private capital formation is limited. Thus,

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[1] Le2 = $2.35

[2] Sierra Leone Trade Journal, Vol. II, No. I, 1971.

the most important agent for economic and social development is the government. The government of Sierra Leone seeks to carry out its role in economic and social development in two ways. Firstly, the government plans to create the best environment in which market forces for economic development can operate. Secondly, the government intends to participate directly in investment spending on new roads, bridges, schools, and other physical and social infrastructures.[3]

Of particular relevance to curriculum planning is the rate of industrial development in the country. Sierra Leone is confronted with a number of obstacles regarding industrial development. The country lacks a sufficiently large domestic market to enable rapid industrial development to take place. With such a small population and a low per capita income, there is a limit to the range of consumer foods that can be produced. Other obstacles to economic development that have direct implications for curriculum planning are:

(A) Because of Sierra Leone's colonial history, there is a tendency for the local people to confine themselves to ancestral occupations and derive reward on the basis of birth rather than ability or achievement. A modified caste system is in operation.

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[3]"The Economy of Sierra Leone," Ministry of Information, 1972.

(B) In most developing countries there are no explicitly stated goals of education. This contrasts very sharply with developed countries where education is deliberately oriented toward technological change and economic progress.

(C) The extended family system severely impedes the development of new methods of work and production. People in the community still believe in receiving handouts from their well-to-do relatives instead of seeking gainful employment.

If education is to be a functional entity designed, among other things, to help the individual develop personally, socially, and economically, then curriculum planners must address themselves to the economic obstacles listed above. Behavioral goals, desirable values, and attitudes can be used in helping the individual to accept and cope with change in a traditionally oriented society; instill a spirit of innovation and experimentation in students; and develop the capacity to rely more on competence and individual worth rather than on nepotism.

TABLE I

Education Budget: 1963-1969

(Pounds Sterling)*

Year	% of National Budget	Education Budget
1963	14.5	2,379,000
1964	14.7	2,532,000
1965	14.9	2,695,000
1966	15.1	2,868,000
1967	15.3	3,051,000
1968	15.5	3,246,000
1969	15.7	3,452,000

*One Pound = $2.35.

Illiteracy and the Sierra Leone Experience

As recently as 1963, slightly less than 10% of Sierra Leone's population was literate. The numerical breakdown was as follows:[1]

TABLE II

I. Literate in English

Number	Percentage of Population	Male	Female
117,090	7.7	80,876	36,214

II. Literate in Mende and Temne[2]

Number	Percentage of Population	Male	Female
13,237	0.9	11,298	1,939

III. Literate in Arabic

Number	Percentage of Population	Male	Female
19,225	1.3	18,166	1,059

The government of Sierra Leone realized that this was a deplorable situation that hindered both the economic and political development of the country. To remedy this situation, various strategies were developed, the first of which was the establishment of The Provincial

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[1] 1963 Population Census of Sierra Leone, Vol. 2 (Freetown, 1965), pp. 241, 284.

[2] Temne and Mende are the two major languages of Sierra Leone.

Literature Bureau in 1946 to increase literacy in the vernacular in the interior sections of the country. The Bureau was charged with the responsibility of disseminating teaching materials and hiring literacy supervisors to teach classes in the villages. Students who ranked very high in these classes were transfered to literacy centers in the major cities where they continued their studies. After attaining a specified competence in the vernacular, they returned to their own villages where they served as assistants to the literacy supervisors.

In 1957, the work of the Provincial Literature Bureau was taken over by the Ministry of Social Welfare because of severe budgetary limitations. Literacy classes continued to be held throughout the country and the number of literates continued to grow at a slow but steady pace. A national literacy committee was established in 1965 to coordinate and promote literacy activities. Conferences, seminars, and public meetings were held and recommendations made with regard to policies to be adopted concerning the eradication of illiteracy.[1]

From this brief survey of literacy development in Sierra Leone one can see that, although some progress has been made toward increasing the number of literate

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[1]"Literacy Development in Sierra Leone: A survey", Donald Samuels, (Journal of Education, Vol. 4, No. 2, 1969).

people in the population, more time and money must be expended in order to make these ventures worthwhile. The economic, political, and social development of a country depend to a large extent on the quality of its human resources. A society with a low level of literacy runs the risk of depending almost exclusively on the developed countries for technological help. Also, a high percentage of illiterate citizens adds to the economic and social problems and works as a permanent barrier to needed progress and change.

With reference to the decision-making process, it is evident that one has to be sufficiently literate to be able to understand what is involved in decision-making. If one lacks the experiencial background for making certain kinds of decisions and has not internalized those experiences that will help him make decisions that have quality and acceptability, he will be unable to understand the various ramifications of the decisions he has to make and will, therefore, not have the commitment that is necessary for effective decision-making.

Psychological Foundations of the Curriculum

Any attempt at curriculum development must incorporate a sound psychology of learning. Before decisions can be made concerning content and learning experiences, one must take into account what is known about the behavior

of man and the variables involved in the learning process. Knowledge about the learner and learning is relevant to making a host of curriculum decisions.

A curriculum is essentially a plan for learning, consisting of goals for learning and ways of attaining these goals. There are three essential areas that have to be considered when developing a curriculum plan. These are:

(A) Selection and arrangement of content.

(B) The choice of the learning experiences by which this content is to be manipulated and by which the objectives not achievable through content alone can be attained.

(C) Plans for the optimum conditions for learning.[1]

Knowledge of learners and the learning process will help determine what to teach at a given age level and what sequences learning experiences should follow. This in turn will enable curriculum planners to tailor curriculum content to the needs and capacities of students. "Knowledge of transfer of training can help in making decisions about the efficiency of learning: how to make whatever can be learned in school most useful for the rest of one's life, and how to apply it to things other than those in which the school experience centers. Knowledge about the total development of the individual can help discover what the total range of objectives can

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[1]Ibid., p. 76.

be and how the curriculum can accommodate or develop this range."[1] Conditions for effective, meaningful and relevant learning are virtually absent in most school situations. Drastic changes in the concepts of the roles of teachers and learners and of the other supporting conditions for learning are essential if schools are to seriously follow the implications of the real process of behavior change.

It is realized that, at one point in the history of education, it was thought sufficient for one to teach by imparting or trying to impart his knowledge to those who sat at his feet waiting for enlightenment. Recent developments in the area of cognitive theory, however, have clearly indicated that the extent of one's learning effectiveness is proportionate to his involvement as a participator rather than as a spectator of the learning process. Jerome Bruner has long advocated student involvement in the learning process. He writes, "I have been struck . . . by the passivity of the process we call education. The emphasis is upon gaining and storing information."[2] He goes on to state that changing this pattern is not easy because "often . . . the teacher, like her students, has not learned the material well enough to cross the barrier from learning to thinking."[3]

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[1]Ibid., p. 77.

[2]"Learning and Thinking," Harvard Education Review, (1959), p. 137

[3]Ibid., p. 79

The point that is being made here is that rather than being teachers, educators should assume the role of directors of learning experiences. Situations involving responsible exploration and discovery must be set up to encourage students to foster creativity. Educators must stimulate divergent thinking operations in which students " . . . think in different directions, sometimes searching, sometimes seeking variety."[1]

In this review of literature on learning, emphasis will be placed on the main theories of learning, the teaching process, and behavior change. Reference will be made to rewards and punishment, transfer of learning and motivation. Each of these concepts discussed will be related to curriculum development.

What is Learning?

Before discussing the main learning theories, it will be appropriate to define operationally the term learning. Traditionally, learning has been viewed by most educators in a narrow academic sense. To some educators learning means acquiring skill in reading, spelling, or a trade. Even psychologists today disagree as to what learning really is. These two definitions are cases in point:

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[1]"Three Faces of Intellect," J. P. Gilford, American Psychologist, XIV (1959), p. 470.

> Learning is a change in human disposition or capability which can be retained, and which is not simply ascribable to the process of growth.[1]
>
> . . . . Learning is the process of the formation of relatively permanent neutral circuits through the simultaneous activity of the elements of the circuits-to-be; such activity is of the nature of change in the cell structures through growth in such a manner as to facilitate the arousal of the entire circuit when a component element is aroused or activated.[2]

These are two examples of how definitions of learning differ. Although these definitions differ in many respects, all of them have several common elements. They all employ the notion of change. They all exclude those changes that result from inate genetic forces that produce growth. The major points of difference center around what gets changed. Learning is a complex phenomenon involving "mastering motor skills, memorizing information, learning feelings, concepts, and intellectual skills, such as generalizing, scientific inquiry, and problem solving.[3] For the purpose of this study, learning is defined as "any change in behavior

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[1]Aagne, Robert M., The Conditions of Learning, (New York, 1965), p. 5.

[2]Bugelski, B. R., The Psychology of Learning, (New York, 1965), p. 120.

[3]Taba, Hilda, Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice, (Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1962), p. 78.

which is a result of past experience, and which causes people to face later situations differently."[1]

The Main Learning Theories

In the literature, many learning theories have been postulated. Many of these theories rest on a concept of man and behavior. Historically there have been essentially two concepts of man. "One postulates a mind endowed with certain capacities--such facilities as reasoning, remembering, imagining, which grow with exercise. The second--attempting to maintain a balance or an equilibrium in response to other energy systems with which he interacts through his sense organs. This energy system encompasses his entire being; it includes his responses to stimuli, his motivation, feelings, and rational processes."[2]

Each of these concepts of man has generated several learning theories. The first concept produced a theory of learning often referred to as the theory of mental discipline or faculty psychology. In this theory the central idea is that the mind inherently contains all the attributes, or faculties, and that the function of education is to bring them forth by the exercise of acquiring knowledge. This theory places

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[1] Blain, G. M., Educational Psychology, (The Macmillan Co., New York, 1968), p. 107.

[2] Ibid., p. 79.

emphasis on the difficulty of the material to be learned. The harder the material, the better it is in terms of training the mind. Subjects such as Math and Latin were highly valued by the mental discipline theorists. In addition to the difficulty of the material to be learned, this theory had other characteristics. As Taba Hilda puts it:

> In this theory practice and drill are important not so much to induce proper responses, but for their disciplinary value. Motivation does not matter, and individual differences are irrelevant. Transfer is assumed to be automatic and universal because the training of the mind is general. Training in one field prepares the mind for another. Training in Latin makes a better lawyer as well as a better banker. The best content is that which has stood the test of time. [1]

In the light of current curriculum practices in America one can see that these assumptions are grossly inaccurate. In the Sierra Leone situation, however, these assumptions form the major bases for curriculum practices. Much teaching and curriculum selection in the secondary schools of Sierra Leone still perpetuate these assumptions.

With regard to the second concept of man, at least two learning theories have emerged. Firstly, the associative theory contends that man's behavior is controlled by heredity and past experience. Each specific reaction is an exact response to a specific stimulus

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[1] Ibid., p. 79-80

complex. Thus, "any combination of stimuli which has accompanied a movement will be followed by that movement when the combination occurs again."[1]

The other theory that emerged from the second concept of man was the Gestalt theory. This theory takes the position that cognitive processes--insight, intelligence, and organization--are the fundamental characteristics of human response. "Human actions are marked by the quality of intelligence and the capacity to perceive and create relationships. . . . In each new perception the object or event is seen differently, because the cognitive structure has been recognized by each prior perception."[2]

Each of these theories of behavior introduces a vastly complex concept for learning and, hence, of curriculum and instruction. Curriculum planners need to be aware of each of these theories because the way the curriculum is planned will depend to a large extent on which of these theories the planner subscribes to or vice versa. For instance, to the curriculum planner learning specific facts may be important to the extent that they feed the formation of ideas. Another curriculum

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[1]DeCecco, John, The Psychology of Language, Thought, and Instruction, (Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., New York, 1967), p. 312.

[2]Ibid., p. 81.

planner may take the position that learning is a cognitive process rather than the accumulation of specific facts.

It is evident from literature that the mental discipline approach to learning has produced curriculum designs that tend to be "narrow in objectives and unitary in scope, and the sequence of content or the continuity of learning experiences is not considered to be particularly significant. Subjects are studied in their 'logical' order, in which 'first things come first' regardless of the learner's forms of thinking and characteristic ways of viewing things. Definitions precede illustrations, and scientific classifications precede acquaintance with objects they represent."[1]

From the associationists' standpoint, the curriculum should emphasize specific content, with each part learned anew. This assumption leads him to value shaping gradual changes, detailed presentation, and active responding. The student must be able to "identify the desirable responses and the stimuli that lead to those responses, and to fix the appropriate responses to the appropriate stimuli by repetition and reinforcement, or shift the inappropriate ones by conditioning."[2]

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[1] Ibid., p. 83

[2] Ibid., p. 83

This brief discussion of three major learning theories and their implications for curriculum development is essential if one is to fully understand the various factors affecting curriculum development. Although there is a lack of consensus concerning the learning process, the five points of agreement listed below should be kept in mind as these will form a basis for the curriculum model that will be developed later in this study.

(A) A motivated learner acquires what he learns more readily than one who is not motivated. The relevant motives include desire to learn, need for achievement, desire for certain reward, or to avoid punishment.

(B) Learning under the control of reward is usually preferable to learning under the control of punishment.

(C) Learning under intrinsic motivation is preferable to learning under extrensic motivation.

(D) Active participation by the learner is preferable to passive reception when learning.

(E) Meaningful materials and meaningful tasks are learned more readily than nonsense materials and more readily than tasks not understood by the learner.[1]

The Teaching Process

In designing any curriculum model it is essential for curriculum planners to have an adequate conception of what teaching is. One needs to know what is involved,

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[1]Hilgard, E. R., Theories of Learning, 2nd ed., (Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1956).

or what kind of categories of things one must deal with in any adequate concept of teaching. The way one looks at teaching will determine what he believes is appropriate in the classroom. If a teacher holds one concept of teaching, he will behave in one way, and if he holds another concept, he will behave differently. This brief review of literature on teaching will attempt an analysis of the teaching process with its implications for curriculum planning. As in the case of learning theories, there is lack of consensus among educators as to what constitutes teaching. If one attempts an analysis of the many definitions of teaching, two crucial considerations are always present. The first one relates to the scope of teaching and the second to the relationship between teaching and learning.

To illustrate the scope of teaching, Hyman[1] gives three definitions of teaching which he believes are cases in point. These definitions are by B. O. Smith, N. Gage, and J. Scheffler.

A. Smith : Teaching is a system of actions intended to induce learning.

B. Gage : By teaching, we mean, for the present purpose of defining research on teaching any interpersonal influence aimed at changing the ways in which other persons can or will behave.

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[1]Hyman, Ronald T., Teaching: Vantage Points for Study, (J. B. Lippincott Company, New York, 1968), p. 6.

C. Scheffler : Teaching may be characterized as an activity aimed at the achievement of learning and practiced in such a manner as to respect the student's intellectual integrity and capacity for independent judgment.

According to Hyman, each of these definitions has certain deficiencies. The definitions by Smith and Gage consider indoctrination, lying, propagandizing, brainwashing as teaching, while that of Scheffler is so complicated that it requires elucidation.

Because it is difficult to make explicit statements about teaching that will satisfy everyone, it may be necessary to formulate certain assumptions that will serve as a guide in developing a concept of teaching. James Macdonald, et. al, believe such assumptions will help clarify the complexities involved in the teaching-learning situation. In their view the following assumptions are crucial:

(A) that teaching is a complex, multi-dimensional act;

(B) that it is conceived primarily with the efficient achievement of educational objectives;

(C) that it involves the responsible decision-making and action of a teacher; and

(D) that it can take place in different kinds of social-physical settings and can be directed by different educational rationales.[1]

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[1]Macdonald, James, Strategies of Curriculum Development, (Charles Merril, Inc., Ohio, 1965).

With these assumptions of the teaching-learning situation the authors believe a set of criteria for an adequate framework for teaching must be developed. This framework for teaching must:

(A) be comprehensive in the sense that it includes and finds a place for all other subsystems important in teaching.

(B) be more than a research rationale. Must be developmental in the sense that it permits going behind the specific teaching act to the phases of conceptualizing, structuring, acting, evaluating, and programming by both teacher and pupil.

(C) be open ended, nonvaluing, and reasonably nonstructured, but must permit supplying many different valuing structures and rationales to its framework, leading to many specific answers and plans for teaching consistent with such value orientations.

(D) be meaningful in relation to general education and the fundamental areas for teaching. It should serve as a means for forming a unified structure of knowledge and values about life and education, as well as about teaching and curriculum planning.

(E) utilize high face validity for dealing with both the act of teaching and the study and development of our meta knowledge about how to plan and deal with the teaching act more effectively.[1]

It is not expected that curriculum planners will be able to develop a framework for teaching that will encompass each of the above criteria. What is suggested here is that these criteria be used as points of reference whenever important curricular and instructional decisions are made concerning the teaching-learning process.

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[1] Ibid., p. 90.

Implications for Curriculum Planning

An important component of curriculum planning is the formation of objectives to be reached by students. Once these objectives are formulated, different teaching strategies are developed to achieve them. The teacher as a facilitator of learning has an important role to play in helping students reach their goals. The teacher who believes that the teaching process essentially involves dominating her students by controlling the students' behavior by the threat of punishment will hinder rather than help her students' progress. Ideally, the teachers influence on her students should be of an indirect rather than a direct nature. The teacher's behavior should encourage the student's initiative and expand his freedom of action. This will enable the student to be less dependent on the teacher, thereby giving him a greater orientation to a problem by helping to identify it.

> By assuming responsibility for developing effective methods of inquiry in addition to important concepts, the teacher's curriculum planning must be the kind which selects organizing centers which will permit observation, experimentation, and testing hypotheses. This commitment will lead to teaching structures which will encourage certain kinds of questions, patterns of student-teacher interaction, and learning roles assumed by students. When teachers do not see these process objectives as important, different teaching patterns and behaviors tend to follow.[1]

[1] Ibid., p. 100

An analysis of most teaching situations reveals that the teacher is "the goal and norm determiner and definer, and the observer and appraiser of the action. All the learner does is to behave according to goals unknown to him, to be judged on bases unavailable to his present and future use, and to direct his future behavior toward equally unknown educational objectives."[1]

It is evident from the above that there is a definite need for curriculum planners to delienate the roles played by teachers and students in the teaching-learning situation. Emphasis must be placed on the teacher who is accepting and supportive rather than one who is overly assertive and domineering. The student should be put in a situation where he can freely generate his ideas in a nonthreatening atmosphere, thereby becoming actively involved in what is going on in the classroom.

Epistimological and Axiological Considerations:The Value Crisis and the Curriculum.

A value is defined here as a belief that something is good or bad, desirable or undesirable. An individual is making a value judgement when he says that honesty,

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[1]Ibid.,p. 186

individual freedom, and responsibility are desirable, or that any of these is undesirable. Value statements do not explicitly give curriculum planners a definite focus in terms of content or sequence. The statement that honesty is desirable, for example, does not spell out tasks for education, nor for that matter imply that education has a role to play in instilling honesty in students. Thus, a given value statement does not necessarily provide ends for education, but values are basic to the determination of educational ends.

Smith very aptly draws a parallel between a value system and the game of football. He says that football is played "in accordance with a set of regulations that are internally consistent and binding on all players alike."[1] These rules do not describe how the game is played at any given time, but how it should be played. The actions of the players can be evaluated and those guilty of infractions penalized. "What a player strives to do, what he considers success to be, what he conceives to be good or bad, and what he expects of other players are all embraced in the rules of the game. In short, the football 'morality' of each player is determined by the extent to which his behavior conforms to the 'mores' of the game as expressed in its rules."[2]

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[1]Smith, et. al., Fundamentals of Curriculum Development, (Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1950) p. 61.

[2]Ibid., p. 61.

From this illustration five functions of a value system can be derived:

(A) It supplies the individual with a sense of purpose and direction.

(B) It gives the group a common orientation and supplies the basis of individual action and of unified, collective action.

(C) It serves as the basis for judging the behavior of individuals.

(D) It enables the individual to know what to expect of others as well as how to conduct himself.

(E) It fixes the sense of right and wrong, fair and foul, desirable and undesirable, moral and immoral.[1]

Ideally, every value system is expected to perform each of these functions. However, conflicting situations arise that tend to interfere with the performance of these functions. In the American context, the wind of social change that is blowing across the nation is rapidly eroding some of the basic value orientations of the American people. The American society is thus plagued by inconsistencies and pluralities of value orientations.

Implications for Curriculum Organization

It has become increasingly clear in all fields of inquiry that a completely value-free position is impossible. The curriculum planner is constantly faced

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[1] Ibid., p. 62.

with a demanding array of choices. In selecting from among possible educational objectives, values and philosophical positions inevitably enter into all aspects of curriculum planning. For example, in the evaluation process, which is essentially a process of checking on values, the educator checks each step in the curriculum planning process in order to determine the viability of the decisions made. As Goodlad and Richter put it, "sound evaluation assesses learning opportunities in relation to educational objectives, objectives in relation to educational aims, and aims in relation to values. It contributes to rationality through revealing that otherwise attractive learning opportunities simply do not provide for practice of the behavior implied in the objective, or that certain values selected initially are mutually incompatible. Careful evaluation forces validation and justification where none might have occurred otherwise."[1]

In addition to the evaluation component of curriculum planning, it is important for curriculum planners to identify and make clear the value positions they subscribe to in making all important curriculum choices. For instance, in the learning-teaching situation, the teaching strategies developed must reflect reasonable

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[1]Goodlad and Richter, The Development of a Conceptual System for Dealing with Problems of Curriculum and Instruction, H.E.W., 1966.

compatibility between different value orientations and the experiences children have in school. James Macdonald sums up the question of values and the curriculum in this way:

> If we want quality in education programs, and creativity, imagination, independence, resourcefulness, and problem-solving ability to be considered important values, then our educational practices must support, reflect, and encourage these virtues. Because values involve choices and because problem solving involves problems to solve, educational programs which include these factors must pay conscious attention to emotions and valuing operations as well as intelligence and ideas. These are not contradictory components of learning; they are necessary and supporting aspects of all purposive and differentiating human behavior.[1]

It is evident from the above discussion that values play an important role in curriculum development. In a culture with many contradictions and ambiguities, provision must be made for the clarification of these contradictions. In the educational setting, the educator can and must perform this most valuable function.

The Theory of Knowledge and the Curriculum

Knowledge is considered to be a universal matter that aims at discovering what is involved in the process of knowing. In this discovery, a series of questions are relevant: "Is there something to all the different activities to which we apply the term 'knowing?' Is knowing a special sort of mental act? If so, what is the

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[1]Macdonald, Op. Cit., p. 11.

difference between belief and knowledge? Can we know anything beyond the objects with which our senses acquaint us? Does knowledge make any difference to the object known?"[1] These are not idle questions. They are questions that confront the curriculum theorist in his quest to discover what knowledge is of most worth. And, in an attempt to answer this latter question, two extreme points of view are evident. From one standpoint, some curriculum planners contend that content per se is all that is important. Implicit in this point of view is that every component of each subject is inherently worth studying and that neglecting any aspect of it is educationally disastrous.

Other curriculum planners disregard content as being secondary. They believe that in the pursuit of knowledge, the mental discipline of the subject is of primary significance. In this regard, it is assumed that subjects have the power to discipline the mind. This assumption is based on the hypothesis that once one is trained in a particular subject area, he has acquired enough mental discipline to transfer that training to other subject areas. From this has evolved the concept that students must be made to analyze materials, engage in critical thinking and experimentation, and develop the ability to solve problems.

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[1]Kneller, G. F., Foundations of Education (John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, 1963).

A close examination of these two extreme positions reveals that both are equally untenable. If one assumes that learning results from the interaction between subject content and the abilities of the learner, then assuming that subject content per se is inherently superior to other aspects of curriculum organization is totally unacceptable. To passively master or memorize content does not guarantee the individual a disciplined mind nor does it help him develop desirable attitudes toward scientific inquiry and experimentation. As Hilda Taba puts it, ". . . A concept such as justice is of educative value only to the extent that the student can do something more with it than to repeat the verbal definition. An unthinking absorption of the accumulated core of the wisdom of the past is by itself of little educative value, especially since the retention of such learning is minimal."[1]

For effective curriculum development, the curriculum planner must consider school subjects as consisting of knowledge on four different levels. The first level is of a static nature and has a low level of abstraction. It consists primarily of specific facts, descriptive ideas and specific processes and skills.[2] Knowledge at this level does not lend itself to experimentation;

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[1]Taba, Hilda, Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice, (Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., New York, 1962).

[2]Taba, Op. Cit., p. 175.

it is the kind of knowledge one acquires through memorization. In this category can be included descriptions of the functions of the President, the causes of the American civil war, and specific rules of usage.

Although this type of knowledge is not of a very high level, it can be useful in that specific facts provide a base for the development of ideas. Once an idea is developed, generalizations and insights can be generated, thus leading to higher thought processes.

The second level of knowledge is that concerning basic ideas and principles. This kind of knowledge serves as a springboard to understanding various specific phenomena. "Basic ideas give control over a wider range of subject matter, organize the relationships between facts, and thereby provide the context for insight and understanding."[1] Scientific laws and mathematical principles fall in this category.

Another level of knowledge is that of concept formation. For example, one may develop a concept of socialism, of pluralism, of mutual dependence, and so on. Knowledge at this level is rather complex involving highly abstract ideas developed through experience in a variety of situations. This type of knowledge is usually neglected in most curriculum designs and is, therefore, not being utilized in the teaching-learning situation.

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[1] Taba, Op. Cit., p. 177

The last level of knowledge is represented by higher thought processes. For the most part, these thought processes have evolved from the other three levels of knowledge listed above. In addition to this, they also involve "propositions and concepts which direct the flow of inquiry and thought. Each discipline represented by a school subject presumably is organized around some such system of interlocking principles, concepts, and definitions. These systems direct the questions asked, the kind of answers sought, and the methods by which they are sought."[1]

From this discussion on the four levels of knowledge, it can be seen that each subject area in the curriculum can be made to function on one or all of these levels. For effective curriculum development, however, it will be unwise to limit oneself to any one of these levels. The ideal will be an integration of each level to effect maximum productivity from students.

African Literature in Perspective

Why African Literature? Before attempting to answer this question, it is appropriate at this point to offer a definition of what African Literature is. Like many definitions, there is considerable controversy as to what constitutes African Literature. Some experts in the field contend that for a literary work to be

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[1]Taba, Op. Cit., p. 179

labeled African, it should be written in one of the indigenous languages of Africa. As Obiajunwa Wali puts it, ". . . the whole uncritical acceptance of English and French as the inevitable medium for educated African writing, is misdirected, and has no chance of advancing African language and culture . . . any true African Literature must be written in African languages . . . an African writer who thinks and feels in his own language must write in that language."[1]

This comment which virtually dismisses the whole body of African writing in English, French, and Portugese as being of little value or relevance to the African experience is opposed by a second school. African Literature must be defined as "any work in which an African setting is authentically handled, or to which experiences which originate in Africa are integral."[2]

This definition has been more widely accepted by many African scholars in that its comprehensive nature incorporates the literary work of indigenous Africans writing both in the vernacular and in English, French, or Portugese, and the work of non-Africans who have been in touch with the realities of the African situation

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[1]Moore, Gerald, African Literature and the Universities, (Ibadan University Press, Nigeria, 1965), p.5.

[2]Creighton, T.R.M., African Literature and the Universities, "An Attempt to Define African Literature," (Ibadan University Press, Nigeria, 1965).

that they can authentically handle whatever aspect of African literature they are concerned with. Drawing upon the various comments that have been made about it, one might say that African literature:

(A) Is most typically written in the vernacular; that is, in one of the tribal languages.

(B) It is non vernacular and is a result of the contact between Africans and Europeans.

(C) Arises from and mirrors the African community and the historical experiences of Africa.

(D) Is, therefore, "committed" and is seldom an expression of art for art's sake.

"Most African writing identifies with the people of Africa, their aspirations, failures, hopes, frustrations, their culture, and history. African literature is important as a reinstatement of the dignity and pride which the black man lost through slavery in the New World and colonialism in the Old. As more and more countries in Africa gain their political independence, there will be a greater desire to reestablish African culture in the modern world."[1]

To answer the question why African literature, a brief historical analysis of the African literary scene will seem appropriate. Chapters one and three of

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[1]Shelton, Austin, The African Assertion, (The Odyssey Press, New York, 1968).

this study already contain a detailed account of the impact of colonialism and neo-colonialism on the educational system of Sierra Leone. This analysis is intended to supplement these chapters and relate the information they contain to the area of African Literature.

The African, throughout the colonial era, has been submerged in "the culture of silence" and in this context he has been regarded as "a lay figure in the African scene, whose role was to be manipulated by those of presumed superior culture and proved superior power. The poetry, the tales, and the other manifestations of the African creative drive were disregarded because they were held to be of secondary importance when such matters as technological development, the needs of a changing economic system, or the problem of adjustment to an urban setting called for attention."[1]

For hundreds of years the African had been told that he had no culture and had, therefore, been put in a psychologically perilous position of questioning the basic values by which he had been taught to live. By constantly interacting with Europeans, he had been made to believe that the only way he could improve his economic and social status was by assimilating the European culture.

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[1]Drachlier, Jacob, African Heritage, (The Crowell-Collier Press, New York, 1963).

As the African became more educated he realized that he was becoming more western in orientation and that he had more in common with Europeans than he had with his fellow Africans. This situation was so alarming that most of the educated Africans who had studied in universities in Europe, Africa, and the United States organized literary groups to protest the down-grading of Africans and their ways "to which they had been constantly and increasingly exposed as they came to have more intimate contact with currents of thought among Europeans."[1]

These protests expressed in the form of novels, short stories, and poetry had the double purpose of making readily available to the literary world some of the best and most readable writings by and about black Africans. To many African writers, it was imperative that the western world utilize the wealth of information available about Africans which up to now had been neglected because of ignorance and prejudice. Ignorance about the African stemmed directly from the distorted conception of the "primitive savage." He had always been portrayed as "a savage creature living in anarchism, without moral constraint, without sensibilities and is a vulgar caricature."[2]

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[1]Taiwo, Op. Cit., p.11.

[2]Taiwo, Op. Cit., p.13

These misconceptions which have led to a mutilated dialogue between Africans and the outside world for over five centuries are now being replaced by true dialogue which can only be achieved in an atmosphere of equality. A prerequisite for this equality is an understanding of the basic characteristics of the African: "What does he believe? What are the ruling forms of his imagination? What underlying values guide his life, whether of the old African or the new? In short, what is the African heritage, and in what ways does it survive the onslaughts of change?"[1]

Questions of this nature are significant if one is to fully understand the culture of a people. They are of even greater significance to Africans themselves who need to take pride in their cultural heritage. As stated earlier in this paper, Africans have been made to believe that their culture was inferior to that of the western world. As such subjects such as African history and literature have never been included in the curriculum of the schools. By using African literature as the vehicle for developing a decision-making model in curriculum, the writer is providing an additional impetus to the cry for recognition by the African people.

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[1]Taiwo, Op. Cit., p. 15.

CHAPTER III

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF SIERRA LEONE

Historical Antecedents

Sierra Leone is a small country totaling 27,925 square miles and is located on the southwest coast of West Africa.

Historically, Sierra Leone was the leader in the early history of African education, but this leadership was confined to Freetown, the capital city. In Freetown, the Creoles[1] were particularly receptive to the Christian missions, which were responsible for most education. Under their stimulus, Freetown emerged as the "Athens of West Africa", a springboard for the civilization of Africa. The first seventeen secondary schools in Sierra Leone were all located in Freetown, where also Fourah Bay College, the first modern institution of higher learning in West Africa, was founded by the Church Missionary Society of England in 1827 to train teachers and raise a native ministry. Anglican, Methodist, Catholic, and American Protestant missions were all active in the nineteenth century, teaching English to the population so that they could read the Bible and acquire Christian foundation for possible secular positions.[2] This type of education, though

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[1]The Creoles are the descendants of freed slaves.

[2]Milton, Harvey (ed) Sierra Leone in Maps, Freetown, 1970.

dispensed mainly by well motivated individuals, was inadequate both quantitatively and qualitatively in terms of the future needs and aspirations of the local population.

As President Nyrere of Tanzania aptly states:

> The education provided by the colonial government was designated primarily to prepare the young people to inculcate the values of the colonial society and to train individuals for the service of the colonial state. The interest of the colonial government in education, therefore, stemmed from the need for local clerks and junior officials; on top of that, various religious groups were interested in spreading literacy and other education as part of their evangelical work.[1]

What Nyrere was saying was that the British, who controlled large portions of Africa for over a hundred years, were not interested in implementing policies that would guarantee universal education for all the people under their control. Instead they created an elitist minority who were indoctrinated to believe that practical knowledge, experience, character and attitude were secondary and that survival in the school system and the resultant certificate were of primary importance.

Thus, the educational system Sierra Leone inherited from the British was a transplant of the British system, with virtually no regard for local conditions. The

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[1]Nyrere, Julius, "Education for Self Reliance," Ujamaa, (Oxford University Press, 1970). p. 46

TABLE III

Student Enrollment At All Levels

1945-1965

Level	1945	1950	1955	1960	1965
Primary	23,559	34,520	48,934	86,224	126,000
Secondary	2,064	3,041	4,247	7,512	13,200
Technical/ Vocational	--	19	422	1,185	1,430
Teacher Training	145	316	498	629	808
Higher Education	48	128	204	300	619

Source: Ministry of Education - Sierra Leone

curriculum was highly academic: Latin, French, Greek, Physics, Chemistry, Math, History, being among the most popular courses. Technical and vocational training were virtually nonexistent. Thus, it was evident that colonial education was not transmitting the values and knowledge of the African people; and as Table I indicates, the majority of children of school-going age were not having any access to education. For instance, between 1945 and 1971 there were over 600,000 children of school-going age. Of this number only 180,000 were enrolled in school.

The noted Brazilian educator, Paulo Freire, an exponent of the cultural and educational liberation of oppressed peoples all over the world, developed a theory for the education of illiterates, especially adults, based on the conviction that "every human being, however ignorant or submerged in the culture of silence, is capable of looking critically at his world in a dialogical encounter with others, and that provided with the proper tools for such an encounter he can gradually perceive his personal and social reality and deal critically with it."[1]

The people of Sierra Leone after being colonized for over a hundred years, and having suffered political, educational, and human deprivation, suddenly became

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[1]Freire, Paulo, Pedagogy of the Oppressed, (Herder and Heider, New York), 1972.

unwilling to be mere objects responding to changes occurring around them. Instead they became engaged in the fight for their total liberation. This liberating process went through the two stages Freire discussed in Pedagogy of the Oppressed. Freire said among other things that:

> The pedagogy of the oppressed, as a humanist and liberating pedagogy, has two distinct stages. In the first, the oppressed unveil the world of oppression and through the praxis commit themselves to its transformation. In the second stage, in which the reality of oppression is already being transformed, this pedagogy ceases to belong to the oppressed and becomes a pedagogy of all men in the process of permanent liberation. In both stages, it is always through action that the culture of domination is culturally confronted. In the first stage, this confrontation occurs through the change in the way the oppressed perceive the world of oppression; in the second stage, through the expulsion of the myths created and developed in the old order, which like specters haunt the new structure emerging from the revolutionary transformation.[1]

In the Sierra Leone experience, the first stage was evident when the masses realized that they had no control over their political, economic, social, and educational institutions and that their whole existence depended on the goodwill or better still, the false generosity of the oppressor. With regard to the second stage, the greatest myth that was exploded was that Africans were incapable of controlling their own destiny and that the white man was ordained by God to perform this valuable function.

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[1] Ibid., p. 88.

TABLE IV

Pupil Enrollment by Educational Levels

1970-1971

Primary		Secondary		Technical/ Vocational		Teacher Training		Higher Education	
No. of Institution	Enrollment	No. of Institution	Enrollment	No. of Institution	Enrollment	No. of Institution	Enrollment	No. of Institution	Enrollment
1,023	166,071	91	33,318	4	930	8	1,053	2	1,197

Source: Ministry of Education - Sierra Leone

With this new level of consciousness, Sierra Leone, like many other African countries, demanded independence from Britain and was granted nationhood on April 27, 1961. Since independence, there has been rapid educational development at all levels. In twenty years primary and secondary education enrollment have increased six-fold, while great strides have been made in teacher training, technical education and higher education. The elevation of Fourah Bay College to the status of a university college in 1960, the opening of a teacher's college in 1963, and the inauguration of an agriculturally oriented university college in 1964 are cases in point.

In spite of these developments, Sierra Leone had inherited from the British an inadequate and inappropriate educational system that failed to produce enough educated personnel to man the administration of government and undertake the tremendous economic and social development tasks that were so essential to a developing nation. Among the critical educational problems were: (a) a high level of illiteracy, (b) high failure and dropout rates, (c) shortage of qualified teachers, (d) the academic nature of the curriculum, (e) a need for more agricultural, vocational, and trade schools, and (f) the high cost of education.

The Organization and Administration of Education in Sierra Leone[1]

Administration. Education in Sierra Leone is the responsibility of the national government. It is financed through a national budget. Responsibility for the administration of the system lies with the Chief Education Officer who is the professional head of the Ministry of Education. The Minister of Education, who is the Political head of the Ministry of Education, relies on a staff of professional and administrative officers to implement policy. The system is more centralized than decentralized.

There are three levels in the educational system: primary, secondary, and higher education. Primary schools are administered through local education authorities and secondary schools through boards of governors. The institutions of higher learning are administered through their councils. Figure I represents a general picture of the administrative structure.

Organization and Development. The structure of education begins with the pre-school level, then to the primary and secondary levels, and then to the teacher training colleges and universities. The pre-school level is in its early stages and is not considered a part of the public school system.

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[1]Sierra Leone Government, Journal of Education, Vol. I, 1970.

Primary Education (seven years). The duration of primary education is seven years, the normal age range being 5-12 years. Since there is an acute shortage of primary schools to accommodate all the children of primary school age, education at this level is unfortunately considered a privilege rather than a right enjoyed by all. Entrance at the primary level is on a "first come, first served" basis, contingent on the ability of the family to pay the necessary fees. There are now 1,137 primary schools as compared with 1,023 in 1970/1971. The teacher/pupil ratio is 1.45.

Secondary Education. During the seventh year in the primary schools, students are expected to take the selective entrance examination, which is a public examination administered by the West African Examination Council. Those students who score the highest grades are admitted to the secondary schools. The duration of the secondary school level is five years. At the end of the fifth year, students take the General Certificate of Education Examination also administered by the West African Examinations Council. Those who pass this examination in at least five subject areas are awarded places in either of the two university colleges. Those who fail have the option of repeating the examination or attending one of the teacher training institutions.

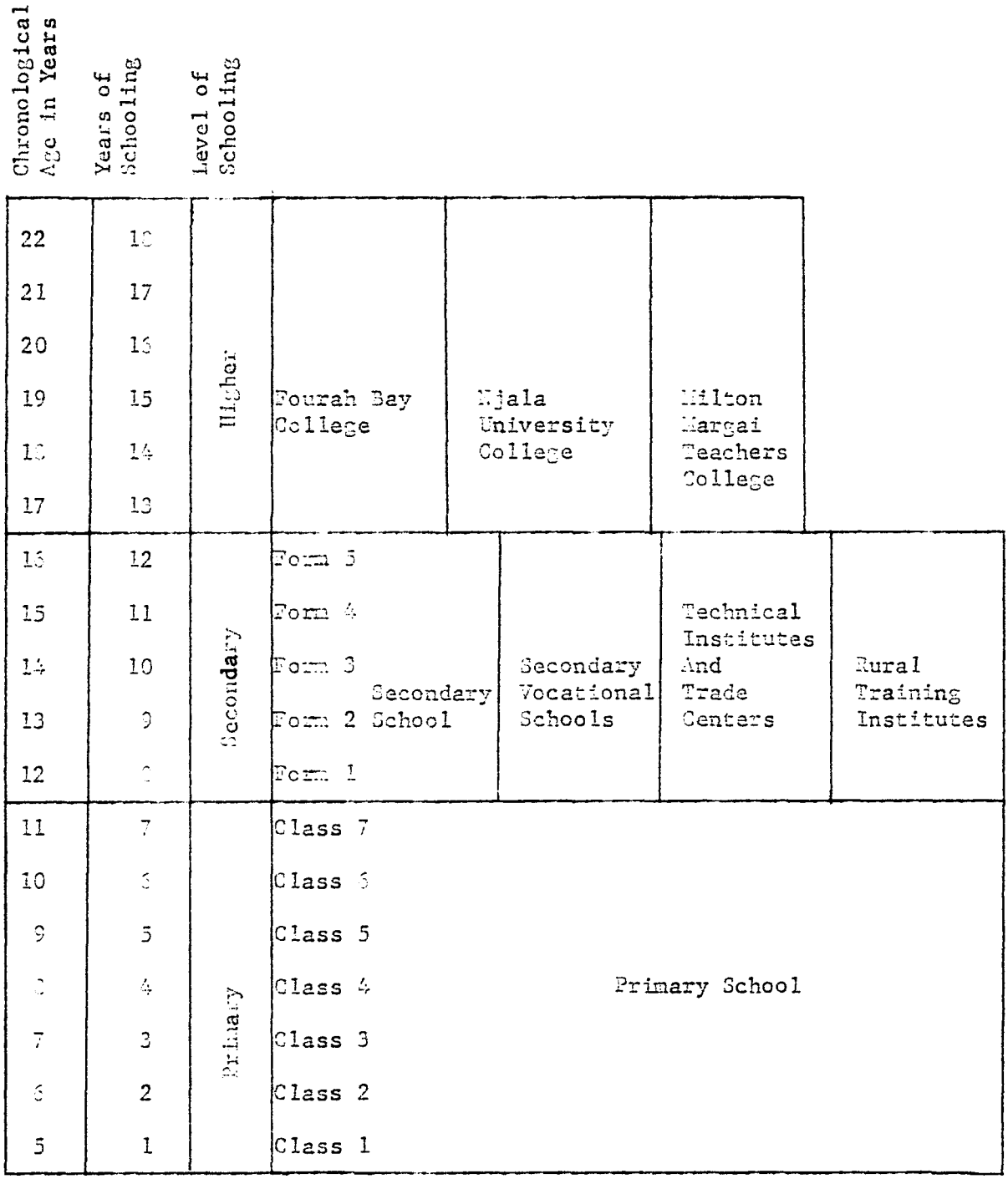
Teacher Training. Non-university teacher training is offered at two levels--the Teacher's Certificate level (T.C.), and the Higher Teacher's Certificate (H.T.C.) level. The T.C. course is designed for training teachers for primary schools and the H.T.C. for teachers in the lower grades of secondary schools. There are seven primary teacher training colleges and one higher teacher training college.

Technical and Agricultural Education. The number of technical, agricultural, and vocational institutions in Sierra Leone remain small in spite of the realization that the country is far behind the western world technologically. The reason for this slow growth in technical education is due to the heavy capital investment necessary for establishing such schools. The government is aware of this problem and is exploring the possibility of securing international help to alleviate the situation.

Higher Education. There are two constituent colleges of the University of Sierra Leone--Fourah Bay College and Njala University. Milton Margai Teacher's College is an advanced teacher training college.

Fourah Bay College offers degree courses in the faculties of Arts, Economics and Social Studies, and Pure and Applied Science.

FIGURE I



System of Education in Sierra Leone (1970)
Source: Ministry of Education - Sierra Leone

Njala University College offers degree programs in Agriculture, Education, Vetinary Science, and Animal Nutrition.

Current Educational Practices

As indicated earlier in this chapter, there is an elitist group of highly educated Sierra Leoneans who believe that a sharp line must be drawn between the teacher and the student. The teacher is the source of all knowledge and it is the responsibility of the student to get some of this knowledge from him. As Freire puts it, "The students become 'containers' to be 'filled' by the teacher. The more completely he fills the containers, the better a teacher he is. The more meekly the containers permit themselves to be filled, the better students they are." Freire further substantiates this position by listing the following practices and attitudes inherent in the educational systems of most developing nations:

(A) The teacher teaches and the student is taught;

(B) The teacher knows everything and the students know nothing;

(C) The teacher talks and the students listen meekly;

(D) The teacher chooses and enforces his choice and the students comply;

(E) The teacher chooses the program content and the students (who were not consulted) adapt to it;

(F) The teacher confuses the authority of knowledge with his own professional authority, which he sets in opposition to the freedom of the students;

(G) The teacher is the subject of the learning process, while the pupils are mere objects.[1]

What Freire is saying here is that students are made to mechanically memorize facts which they give back to teachers on an examination. If the goal of our educational system is geared toward character development, developing the interests, abilities, and aptitude of the individual student while also taking into account the manpower needs of the country, the society needs to reconcile the traditional conflict that has always existed between the student-teacher relationship. No longer should the students become passive observers of what is happening in the classroom, but must be active participants engaged in critical thinking. The teacher in this context constantly changes roles with his students, thus assuming a partnership role in his relationship with them. The author is firmly committed to this position and will deal with it more thoroughly in the next chapter.

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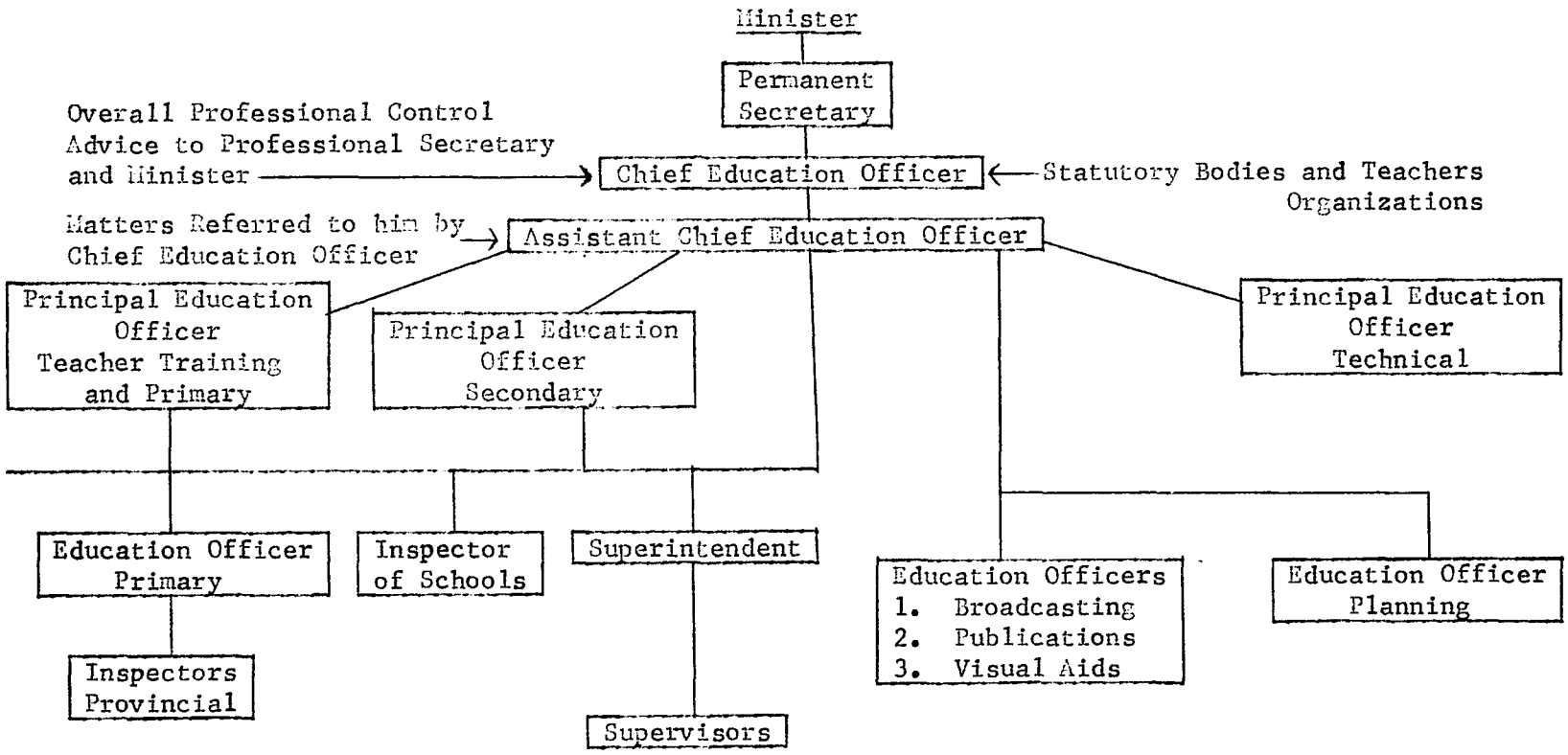
[1]Freire, Paulo, Pedagogy of the Oppressed, (Herder and Heider, New York), 1972.

FIGURE II

Professional Officers - Ministry of Education



Source: Ministry of Education - Sierra Leone

CHAPTER IV

THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS AS IT RELATES TO CURRICULUM PLANNING IN SIERRA LEONE

In Chapters II and III of this study, an historical overview of the educational system of Sierra Leone was presented with a view to identifying the various factors that have influenced its growth and development. No attempt was made to analyze the decision-making process within that system, especially in terms of its effects on curriculum outcomes in the secondary schools. This chapter will examine the Vroom leadership model as it relates to decision-making in Sierra Leone.

Although decision-making and leadership are not identical entities, they are so closely related that it is extremely difficult to speak of one without the other. Since these two terms will be used very extensively in this chapter, it is important that the relationship between them be kept in mind.

Many behavioral scientists have tried to solve the problems of society by the study of leadership. The rationale for this approch is based on the assumption that for any organization to function effectively the quality of its leadership is important. This assumption is often reflected in the tendency to blame

one administrator for making bad decisions and commend another for making good ones. Although there are many other variables that affect the overall effectiveness of an organization, officials who have demonstrated competence in making effective decisions are a great asset to the organization. An understanding of the decision-making process is, therefore, critical not only for the explanation of individual behavior, but also for the behavior of complex organizations.

In an attempt to understand the behavior of leaders in complex organizations, Victor Vroom[1] has developed a normative model that can be of value to administrators in determining which leadership methods they do and should use in each of the various situations that they encounter in carrying out their formal leadership roles. As the table indicates, the Vroom model consists of five categories.

TABLE V

Decision Methods for Group Problems[2]

AI	You solve the problem or make the decision yourself, using information available to you at the time.
AII	You obtain the necessary information from your subordinates, then decide the solution to the problem yourself. You may or may not tell your subordinates what the

[1]Vroom, Victor: Leadership and Decision-Making. University of Pittsburgh Press, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, 1973.

[2]Ibid., p. 12.

problem is in getting the information from them. The role played by your subordinates in making the decision is clearly providing the necessary information to you, rather than generating or evaluating alternative solutions.

CI You share the problem with the relevant subordinates individually, getting their ideas and suggestions without bringing them together as a group. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.

CII You share your problem with your subordinates as a group, obtaining their collective ideas and suggestions. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.

GII You share the problem with your subordinates as a group. Together you generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach agreement (consensus) on a solution. Your role is much like that of a chairman. You do not try to influence the group to adopt 'your' solution, and you are willing to accept and implement any solution which has the support of the entire group.

. . . . Each category is related to the degree of authority used by the leader and the amount of freedom available to his subordinates in reaching decisions. The administrator who functions on the extreme left of the continuum (AI) maintains a high degree of control, while the one on the extreme right (GII) releases a high degree of control. Looking at the leadership continuum from left to right (AI - GII), the first identifiable style is that in which the administrator makes the decision and announces it. In this situation

the leader identifies the problem, considers alternative solutions, chooses one of them, and then reports this decision to his subordinates for implementation. No opportunity is given to subordinates to participate directly in the decision-making process and very little consideration is given to what and how they feel about the decision.

In style number two (AII), the administrator presents his ideas and invites questions from subordinates. Here the leader has already made the decision and seeks full acceptance of his ideas. Thus instead of just announcing his decision, he presents his ideas and invites questions so that his subordinates can better understand the reasoning behind the decision he has just made. This approach gives subordinates an opportunity to explore fully the ramifications of the decision, especially in terms of how they are affected by it.

Next on the leadership continuum (CI), the leader makes a tentative decision which is subject to change. In this context subordinates are given a chance to exert some influence on the decision that is about to be made. The initial problem identification and analysis of alternative choices have already been made by the leader and a tentative decision reached. The role of the subordinates is to react to the tentative

decision before it becomes final. The administrator reserves the right to make the final decision.

In the fourth leadership style, the leader defines the limits and requests the group to make suggestions. In this case the administrator passes on to the group (of which he may be a member) the right to participate in the decision-making process. Before the decision is made, he identifies the problem and the limits within which the group must operate.

The last leadership style is one that is not usually found in formal organizations. It represents a high degree of group freedom. In this case, the administrator permits the group to make decisions within prescribed limits. Here the group as a whole identifies the problem, suggests alternative solutions, and then decides on one or more of these solutions. The only limits observed by the group are those prescribed by the leader. Usually the leader himself is a member of the group with no more authority than any other member. Once a decision is made, the leader abides by it and does not make any attempt to change it.

This brief look at the Vroom model of leadership behavior suggests a number of alternative ways in which the administrator can relate himself to the group or individuals he is supervising. Before one can determine which of these leadership styles to use, three factors

need to be considered. The first of these is the characteristics of the administrator. In this connection, the administrator's value system, his confidence in his subordinates, his leadership inclinations, and his feelings of security in uncertain situations play an important part. Relevant questions that can be asked here are as follows:

> Does he believe that subordinates should have a share in the decision-making process?
>
> Do subordinates have the competence and knowledge to deal with the problem at hand?
>
> Does the administrator function more comfortably in a directive rather than a nondirective capacity?
>
> Is his "tolerance of ambiguity" at a high or low level?

The second factor that helps determine one's leadership style is the characteristics of the subordinates. Most administrators realize that there are many personality variables affecting the behaviors of their subordinates. Also, subordinates have a set of expectations about how the boss is supposed to relate to them. The administrator who understands these factors will be able to assess his own behavior in order to determine how best he can relate to his subordinates.

In making this assessment, the administrator looks at his subordinates in terms of their needs for independence, their willingness to accept responsibility,

their tolerance of ambiguity, how they feel about the problem, relative to their needs and aspirations, and their past experience of involvement in the decision-making process.

The third factor is related to the characteristics of the situation. In this regard, the nature of the problem, pressure of time, type of organization, and the nature of the work group are especially important.[1]

Organizations are usually bureaucratic entities that have set values and operational patterns. These will have to be considered by the administrator in that any radical departure from established norms will create trouble for him. The nature of the problem is also important. Before delegating decision-making powers to subordinates, the administrator must be convinced that his subordinates have the kind of knowledge that is necessary to deal effectively with the problem. Any administrator who delegates his decision-making responsibilities to a group that is not equipped to handle the problem is asking for trouble.

The pressure of time plays a very crucial role in the decision-making process. If the problem at hand demands immediate attention, it is difficult for the

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[1]Hampton, David, Summer, Charles, & Webber, Ross, Organizational Behavior and the Practice of Management, (Scott, Foreman, and Company) Atlanta, Georgia, 1968.

administrator to involve other people. When the reverse is the case, more people can be involved in the decision-making process.

Another important consideration relates to group effectiveness. Before turning a problem over to a group, the administrator needs to know whether the group can effectively function as a cohesive unit. If the group is one that has experience in working together, then in all probability they are more likely to exhibit the kind of cooperativeness that is necessary for tackling the problem better than an inexperienced group. Also, if the group has similar interests and backgrounds, members will interact better with each other than if they have dissimilar interests.[1]

Given this analysis of the Vroom leadership model, the crucial question now is, how can this model be made applicable to the Sierra Leone situation, where most decisions are in the AI category? Since all decision-making situations involve the use of power, a brief examination of the nature of power will be undertaken in order to determine its effect on the decision-making process in Sierra Leone.

The term "power" means different things to different people. For the purposes of this paper, "power" will be defined as:

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[1] Ibid.

> The ability or authority to dominate men, to coherce and control them, obtain their onedience, interfere with their freedom, and compel their action in particular ways. It may be the outcome of charisma, which induces obedience to the genius of an institution, or rational acceptance; or the result of a monopoly of wealth. Every social order is a system of power relationships.with hierarchical super- and sub-ordination and regulated competition and cooperation. [1]

Power serves an important function in the community and is always unevenly distributed. Sometimes a small group of people at the top of their respective social and professional hierarchies make decisions that affect every member of the community. Floyd Hunter emphasizes this point as follows:

> Power is a necessary function in a society. It involves decision-making and the function of executing determined policies or seeing to it that things get done which have been deemed necessary to be done. The social rights and prerogatives implied in power functions must be delegated to specific men to achieve social goals in any society.[2]

With a centralized system of education in Sierra Leone, the Ministry of Education, an agency of the Sierra Leone Government is vested with all decision-making powers regarding the secondary school curriculum.

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[1]Fairchild, H.P., (ed.), Dictionary of Sociology and Related Sciences, Westport, Connecticut: Glenwood Press, 1955, p. 227.

[2]Hunter, F., Community Power Structure,Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1953, p. 2.

Since schools are governmental operations, they are designed to implement the objectives of the stste.[1] In this context, therefore, policy implementation in curriculum matters is the ultimate responsibility of the professional officers of the Ministry who function within the guidelines established by the Minister of Education. All major decisions, however, are made by the Minister, with the Chief Education Officer providing advice, when requested to do so.

As figure II indicates, the Ministry of Education which is the central administrative body of Sierra Leone is organized bureaucratically. This means that there is a clear line of authority and responsibilityin the Ministry so that every individual can be held legally responsible for his actions. The hierarchical nature of the organization is designed to insure strict compliance with rules, regulations, and directives issued by superiors. Thus, the Minister is the head, with the Permanent Secretary responsible to him and the Chief Education Officer responsible to the Permanent Secretary. This process is filtered down throughout the Ministry so that every body knows who is responsible to whom.

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[1]Brubaker, D., and Nelson, R., Creative Survival in Educational Bureaucracies, McCutchan Publishing Corporation, Berkely, California, 1974.

In terms of the Vroom model, almost all of the decisions that are made by the Minister are AI decisions. The Minister is the political head of the Ministry, and, consequently, most of the decisions he makes are political ones, the quality of which is determined by the anticipated reaction from the public. The same point is made by Brubaker and Nelson as follows:

> (A) Decisions in governmental organizations such as schools are political decisions, that is, decisions are structured by preassessment of public reaction;
>
> (B) the anticipated public reaction determines the level at which the decision is made: the more intense the reaction is projected to be, the higher the level at which the decision will be made, and conversely; and
>
> (C) the kind and quality of decisions made by governmental organizations are influenced primarily by anticipated public reaction rather than by their educational quality or soundness.[1]

Thus, his decisions are based more on political expediency rather than by their educational quality. Before he makes a decision, he usually consults his two aides, the Permanent Secretary and the Chief Education Officer, for professional advice. He is not obligated to accept their advice and may or may not consider it when making his final decision.[2] Whatever decision he makes, the entire staff of the Ministry has the

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ministry of Education, The Development Programme in Education for Sierra Leone, (Freetown, 1970).

professional obligation to implement it without question. Although they are part of the staff of the Ministry, their function is not to determine policy, but to implement policy decisions. Participation in the decision-making process is, therefore, almost non-existent.

Common understandings about power indicate that it is not distributed equally, whether the society is simple or complex. Sierra Leone is no exception. The power structure in Sierra Leone is one wherein a small group of individuals rule and very few citizens participate in making the important political decisions in the community. In the field of education, this small group of individuals is the Minister and his two professional aides. The influence of these professional aides is still substantial but somewhat vitiated. Their advice is sought primarily because the Minister cannot easily assemble the pertinent information needed as a base for his decisions; both the finding and the analysis of such information are things that naturally flow from the expert. The expert ,who also functions under constrained circumstances, gradually finds out that because of his limited latitudes and inflexibility, his position of expertise with its self-propelling and self-validating rewards is becoming more political.

In the next chapter, the proposed model for the development of an African literature curriculum in the

secondary schools of Sierra Leone will be presented. This model will focus attention on the involvement of other people in the community in the educational decision-making in Sierra Leone.

CHAPTER V

EDUCATIONAL CHANGE THEORY

Most of Chapter IV focused on the Vroom model for decision-making with particular reference to the overall decision-making process in Sierra Leone. This chapter will explore and propose answers to the following questions:

(a) What is the current leadership style used by the Minister of Education with regard to curriculum decisions?

(b) Is this style the most appropriate in the light of current educational pratices?

(c) What alternative styles are available to him and how can these alternatives be utilized to ensure participation by others in curriculum decisions?

(d) What role will African literature play in helping achieve the overall objectives of curriculum reform in Sierra Leone?

To put the role of the Minister of Education in its proper perspective, it is appropriate to recapitulate one aspect of the present system of education in Sierra leone that has direct relevance to his decision-making powers. This aspect is related to the highly centralized system of education that Sierra Leone inherited from the British.

Historically, the position now occupied by the Minister of Education was previously occupied by a British officer before Sierra Leone obtained nationhood. The prevalent philosophy at that time was that the African officers who

served under him were incompetent and therefore, did not have the ability to make rational decisions affecting their country.[1] With this in mind, the Minister of Education assumed all decision-making powers and only informed his subordinates of the various decisions he had made. They were expected to implement these decisions without question.

After independence, the British officers left and their positions were taken over by African officers. This change was seen by many as a change of personalities but not of ideology. The British had been able successfully to indoctrinate the African elite into believing that the majority of their fellow countrymen were socially and educationally inferior and could not be entrusted with important decision-making powers. This cycle is perpetuated by the Minister employing the A-1 leadership style in which all decisions are made by him using whatever information available to him at the time of the decision.[2]

The weakness in this leadership style is that there is no opportunity for those affected by the decisions to have any input. In fact, those affected by the decision may have information that may be crucial to the decision.

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[1]Uche, op. cit.,p.38.

[2]Vroom, op. cit., p. 12.

The necessity of involving others in the decision-making process cannot be overemphasized. Given the right kind of atmosphere, involving other members of the organization in decision-making will stimulate them into directing their creative energies toward organizational objectives, gives them some voice in decisions that affect them, and provides significant opportunities for satisfaction of social and egotistic needs. March and Simon believe that, "the greater the individual's participation in job assignment, the less the conflict between the job and the individual."[1]

Involvement in decision-making also serves the purpose of providing a feeling of identity with the organization and ensuring greater responsibility for planning and appraising the individual's contribution to organizational goals. This involvement also enhances the competence of individuals within the organization in that it gives them the opportunity to explore varied sources of information thereby making meaningful contributions to the functioning of the organization.

The writer is aware that, after over two hundred years of colonial domination and indoctrination, it will be an extremely difficult task to move the Sierra Leone decision-making model from the AI to the CII category.

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[1]March and Simon, Organizations, New York: Wiley and Son, Inc., 1958.

Since decisions are not made in a vacuum and effective decision-making depends on the cultural milieu in which the decision is made, the process by which change can be effected in an organization will be examined and suggestions made concerning educational change in Sierra Leone.

Before attempting to effect change in an organization, three major conditions have to be met. The first of these is for the decision-maker to re-examine his value system inorder to determine how he feels about the various decision situations he will encounter, and how strongly he feels about them. In short, he has to know himself. The decision-maker who really knows himself will be better equipped to handle the human relations problems that will develop within the organization.

Once the decision-maker is aware of his value hierarchy and the rationale for it, the second requirement is for him to know his organization. What values are important in his school system? How is the system transmitting these values? Knowledge of his organization will help the decision-maker to understand the values of the school in which he operates. After these two conditions have been met, the decision-maker can then devise ways by which the organization can be changed.[1] If these three operations are not followed in this order, the decision-maker will invariably run into problems that will impair his effectiveness as an administrator.

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[1]Nelson, op. cit., p. 73

The writer who anticipates being in a decision-making role in Sierra Leone is already familiar with his value hierarchy and that of the Sierra Leone school system. He also has knowledge of how the system functions, especially its inability to relinquish the status quo. Given this background, the writer proposes to use the African literature curriculum to stimulate reaction from the Minister of Education and his professional officers. The choice of African literature is based on the fact that most African writings identify with the people of African descent and reflect their aspirations, failures, hopes, frustrations, culture, and history. African literature is important in that it represents a reinstatement of the dignity and pride which the black man lost through slavery.

In the Sierra Leone situation, the first in trying to change the educational system is to establish a curriculum committee composed of the following:

(a) Minister of Education
(b) Chief Education Officer
(c) Education Officers in charge of Primary and Secondary Education
(d) Primary and Secondary School Principals
(e) Teachers
(f) Students

The choice of members of the curriculum committee is no accident. As was explaned in the previous chapter, all matters relating to education in Sierra Leone are the direct responsibility of the Minister of Education and his professional officers. Their presence on the committee will give weight to the deliberations of the committee, for without their co-operation the decisions made by the committee cannot be

implemented.

It is also important to include school principals and teachers in the committee in that the principals are administratively responsible for their individual schools and the teachers have the task of incorporating the decisions of the committee when performing their teaching functions. Since students are the consumers of the educational system, it is crucial that they have representation on the curriculum committee. Their insights concerning what should be included in the schools' curriculum will be valuable to the committee.

The task of the curriculum committee will be (a) to examine the culture, national problems, social values and beliefs of the society, (b) to provide research findings on learning and the nature of the consumers of the educational system, (c) to develop objectives, materials and resources for teaching the different disciplines. Information obtained from these three processes will be used in developing the new curriculum. It is realized that following this step will not necessarily guarantee that the desired curriculum will be developed. What it does is to make available to the minister a pool of ideas that will help him broaden his perspective when making his decisions.

In an effort to ease the anxiety of members of the curriculum committee, the writer proposes a second step in this educational change process. In this second step, the committee will randomly select trial schools in different sections of the country. This random selection will insure that all socio-economic areas of the country are represented. The proposed curriculum will then be tried in these sample schools for about three years and depending on the feedback from students and teachers, other schools will gradually be included. The writer considers this second step to be crucial in that, if the new curriculum meets the objectives, the skeptical members of the committee will feel more confortable in approving its continuation. On the other hand, failure to achieve the desired objectives will result in a reevaluation of the objectives and a modification of both goals and the implementation process.

CHAPTER VI

A MODEL FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN AFRICAN LITERATURE CURRICULUM IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF SIERRA LEONE

As indicated earlier in this study, the term "curriculum" has been narrowly used to designate lists of subjects taught in the schools, or simply the content of what is taught. The curriculum involves much more than this and should include some of the following:

(A) Purposes, aims, objectives based on the needs of the society involved and the individual needs of the students.

(B) Instructional materials.

(C) Instructional personnel.

(D) Environmental factors (e.g., time, space)[1]

One of the first considerations in designing any curriculum should be the demands and expectations which the particular nation and culture place upon the schools. Are the national, political, and economic goals universal literacy, more trained technicians, better health and nutrition, a more productive agricultural program, or a highly educated elite? Which goals have

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[1]Rukare, Enoke, "Designing Curriculum and Instruction for the Schools of Tomorrow." Educating the Young People of the World: ASD Publication, Washington, D.C., 1970.

the highest priority and what combination of priorities does the national government support?

For a developing country like Sierra Leone, a second consideration in curriculum design is the extent of commitment, not only in monetary terms, but in relation to other national priorities. Financial support will affect the nature and extent of materials, the size of classes, the length and quality of teacher training, and the salaries of teachers in relation to other public servants.

A third consideration relates to an understanding of learners. How much do we know about them? How do they learn most effectively? How do individuals differ in patterns of learning and behavior? If the culturally accepted pattern is rote learning, as it is in Sierra Leone, should this pattern be broken? If so, what methods are most likely to be effective?

Regardless of the cultural context, every curriculum design, in addition to the three factors mentioned above, must include four major processes. These processes are: selection of objectives, identification of learning experiences and suitable content, organization of learning experiences, and evaluation.

Various attempts have been made in Sierra Leone to design a new curriculum for the secondary schools. These attempts were not successful partly because they

failed to develop a rationale for content selection and other curriculum decisions concerning these four processes. As Hilda Taba puts it:

> . . . . If curriculum development is to be rational and a scientific rather than a rule-of-thumb procedure, the decisions about these elements need to be made on the basis of some valid criteria.[1]

What Dr. Taba is saying here is that, if any curriculum design is to be effective in improving the curriculum, the basis for making curriculum decisions must be made explicit and clear.

In addition to presenting the proposed curriculum model in this chapter, an attempt will also be made to develop criteria for selection of objectives and learning experiences, and for organizing these experiences and evaluating their outcomes. In developing criteria for selection of objectives, Dr. Taba believes that:

> . . . . Scientific curriculum development needs to draw upon analysis of society and culture, studies of the learner and the learning process, and analysis of the nature of knowledge in order to determine the purposes of the school and the nature of its curriculum.[2]

Criteria for Formulating Objectives[3]

In formulting objectives, several criteria must be considered. These include the following:

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[1]Taba, Op. Cit., p. 10.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Elashhab, G.A., "A Model for the Development of Science Curricula in the Preparatory Schools of the UAR." Unpublished dissertation at Michigan State University, 1966.

(A) Are the objectives clearly defined in terms of behavioral change in the student? This criterion is based on the assumption that learning results in a change of behavior. Ralph Tyler describes the learning process in this way:

> Education is a process of changing behavior patterns of people. This is using behavior in the broad sense to include thinking and feeling as well as overt action. When education is viewed in this way, it is clear that educational objectives, then, represent the kinds of changes in behavior that an educational institution seeks to bring about in its students.[1]

(B) Is the desired behavior observable? Can its attainment be evaluated in some way?

This criterion is based on the conviction that any proposed educational goal must be evaluated in some way. Without evaluation it will be almost impossible to determine whether the desired objective has been attained or not.

(C) Are the objectives stated clearly and specifically enough so that there is no doubt as to the kind of behavior expected? Are the terms defined operationally?[2] In terms of specificity of objectives, Dr. Taba believes that:

> . . . . Too often statements of educational objectives lack the concreteness and clarity that are needed if they are to serve as a guide

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[1]Tyler, Ralph W., Basic Concepts of Curriculum and Instruction. (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1963), p. 4.

[2]Ibid.

> for making decisions about the curriculum or about evaluation. They are stated in terms too general or too vague to be translated into educational practice. Such statements as "to develop a method of inquiry," a "mind that can cope with complexities of modern life," loyalty to truth," or "a knowledge and attitude basic to being a responsible citizen" are too broad, too vague, or both.[1]

(D) Are the objectives attainable and feasible in terms of the time and other resources available to the school?[2]

It has been realized that some objectives fail to take into account the age level of the student. For example, a student may be required to produce certain musical sounds that may be too difficult for him because his vocal cords are not sufficiently developed to produce them. Others may be required to deal with certain kinds of abstractions that cannot be conceptualized easily because of the learner's age level. This fourth criterion is supported by Tyler who says that:

> The old school of thought which attempted to teach children to be utterly quiet while they were in school was imposing an educational objective impossible of attainment.[3]

(E) Are the objectives broad enough to encompass all types of outcomes needed to be attained by the school?

Many curriculum designs usually focus on objectives dealing with the mastery of major concepts,

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[1]Taba, Op. Cit., p. 201.

[2]Tyler, Op. Cit., p. 22

[3]Tyler, Op. Cit., p. 25.

principles, and facts. Since objectives are important value statements of what the learner is trying to accomplish or what the educational program is trying to achieve, objectives must be broad enough to define the nature of the educational maturities that children, teachers, parents, and society are striving to achieve. Objectives should, therefore, form the basis upon which one distinguishes between learning as such and learning which results in education.[1]

Before an attempt is made to develop objectives to be attained in the teaching of African Literature in the secondary schools of Sierra Leone, it is appropriate at this point to discuss the effects of literature on the lives of the people. The typical African novel has its setting in the past--a past which has been greatly influenced by two historical events, the slave trade and colonialism. Most African writers try to recreate the simplicity and romantic attraction of the traditional way of life of the African disrupted by his contact with the Western world; they show the devastating effect of this contact on his culture, which has led to his present dilemma. This dilemma often results in his inability to cope with the rapid changes that are taking place in his society.[2]

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[1]MacDonald, et. al ., Op. Cit., p. 91.

[2]Taiwo, Oladele, An Introduction to West African Literature., (Thomas Nelson and Sons, Ltd., London, 1967).

Some African writers probe deeper into the past than others. Chinua Achebe's Things Fall Apart and Arrow of God present an image of the past at its point of contact with the Western world. Camara Laye's The African Child deals with more recent times. When Duro Ladipo looks into the past, it is to bring out its glory and grandeur, to celebrate its achievements and display the richness of his cultural heritage. On the other hand, there are writers like Wole Soyinka who are critical of the past and believe that the present is far more important. It would appear, however, that these writers in their judgment of the present are still influenced by history, and even when they tend to concentrate on modern times they do not completely forget the past.[1]

For one to fully understand modern African writing, it is important to learn about the past to which writers make constant reference; to know the political and social organization of traditional African society and how they differ from what is currently happening in the contemporary African society. Most important of all, students of African literature must appreciate traditional religious beliefs and attitudes in order to understand the literature.

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[1] Ibid.

The African literature curriculum that is being proposed in this study will be centered around four major literary ideas and forms. These are:

I. Negritude

II. The African Novel

III. African Drama

IV. African Revolutionary Poetry

It is crucial for all students of African literature to be familiar with the philosophy of Negritude. Although this philosophy has met with much controversy in recent years, it is important to expose students to it since it has been a source of inspiration to many African writers. In fact, some writers insist that all works of art, genuinely African, should draw their inspiration from this philosophy. They believe that any writing that is worthy of the attention of Africans should be irrevocably committed to the cause of African liberation, both political and cultural. They consider that in the present African context, all works of art should be judged not on their intrinsic value, but by the contribution they make toward the restoration of the dignity of the African. There are some African writers, however, who do not share this belief. They contend that the African writer should be influenced mostly by the uniqueness of his own experience, his desire to be integrated with his environment and to

propagate his own culture. This group of African writers emphasizes the universality of the beauty of a work of art and the need to aim at a literacy standard that is internationally acceptable.

Put in very simple terms, Negritude is a philosophy which obligates the African to glorify his past and preserve his cultural inheritance. It emphasizes that people of African descent all over the world have a right to be different from other races. This philosophy also raises questions from the African. For example, How can the African benefit fully from modern civilization without rejecting his cultural background? How can he, for instance, utilize Western ideas, techniques, and institutions without becoming a part of them? Will cultural liberation follow political independence?[1]

Another justification for exposing students of African Literature to the Negritude philosophy is to aid them in their search for personal identity. For centuries the black race has been struggling for some kind of recognition--to be recognized as a viable member of the world community. There is no need for the African to envy or imitate the cultural heritage of any other racial group. The concept of Negritude will hopefully serve the purpose of raising the stature of people of

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[1] Ibid.

African descent in international affairs and to remove all the disadvantages which previously went with the black skin. It is hoped that this message will come across very clearly to students.

In terms of formulating behavioral objectives for this first phase of the proposed curriculum, the following are suggested:

(1) To measure the student's growth in self-identity, particularly as an African, by writing an essay at the beginning of the course to indicate his reaction to the topic, "The African Personality."

(2) To cite five famous Africans and relate their contributions to the development of Negritude.

(3) To recreate by role-playing the master-servant relationship that existed between the British and the African.

(4) To relate orally and in writing the memories of one's own childhood, especially in terms of the degradations suffered by one's family in the hands of the British.

(5) To identify and seek solutions to the problems of the African by tracing the escapades of a fictional character selected from the African novel, Things Fall Apart, and describing and analyzing his rebellion against identities and values being thrust upon him by the British.

Materials and Resources:

A. Available Texts:

Things Fall Apart, Achebe
One Man, One Wife, Aluko
One Man, One Matchet, Aluko
Song of a Goat, Clark
A Dance of the Forest, Soyinka

B. Films:

An African in Paris

C. Professional Materials:

A Search for Personal Identity, Behr
Presence Africaine
The Negro Student

The second component of the curriculum is the African novel. The history of the African novel is a short one. Prior to 1952, only a few novels written by African writers were available in print. These included works by Amos Tutuola, Camara Laye, and Cyprian Ekwansi. Since 1952, many novels have appeared and the number continues to increase. This increase is, however, not significant by international standards, but it has been useful in reaffirming the African's confidence in his ability to express himself and to put across to the world his own point of view and that of his society.[1]

The purposes of this section are: (a) to point out the characteristics of the African society, and (b) to show the African's desires to escape from the conflict

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[1] Ibid.

between his culture and that of the Western world. Students will be requested to select works from each of the three major types of African writing: autobiographical, anthropological, and satirical. The objectives will be:

(1) To characterize in class discussion, aspects of contemporary African society.

(2) To discuss criticisms and characteristics of the African society as reflected in mass media and to relate them to works studied throughout the course.

(3) To discuss satire as an instrument of social criticism after reading Wole Soyinka's, The Interpreters.

(4) To outline the character development of Obi in, No Longer at Ease, as he tries to cope with the pressures of the African society.

(5) To analyze orally the conflict between the educated African and his traditional society.

(6) To determine through panel discussion the effects of Western civilization on the morality of African youth.

(7) To discuss orally the defense mechanisms used by most uneducated African males to adjust to the economic frustrations they experience.

(8) To write a justification for integrating certain aspects of Western civilization with the traditional African culture.

A. Materials and Resources:

The African Child, Camara Laye
No Longer at Ease, Chinwa Achebe
People of the City, Cyprian Ekwensi
The Lion and the Jewel, Wole Soyinka
Things Fall Apart, Chinua Achebe
Arrow of God, Chinua Achebe
Kossoh Town Boy, Robert Cole
The African, William Conton
The Burnt-Out Marriage, Sarif Easmon
Toads for Supper, Chuk Ike
Ambiguous Adventure, Cheikh Kane

B. Professional Journals:

Black Orphens
Prescence Africaine
Transition

African drama is the third literary form to be included in the proposed African literature curriculum. Drama is very much a part of the lives of the African--social functions, religious ceremonies, and traditional festivals have always been carried out in dramatic forms. Until recently, these dramatic presentations were not well organized--plays were not in written form, and theatres were also not well developed. With the introduction of written plays and the creation of national theatres, the study of African drama is important and should emphasize appreciation, particularly character development, sequence of action, presentation of theme, and setting.[1] The behavioral objectives to be achieved include:

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[1]Hunsinger, Iris, Co-ordinator, Page High School, "Language Arts Curriculum Guide", (Greensboro, North Carolina, 1971).

(1) To define and identify in plays read the following terms: protagonist, antagonist, conflict, climax, rising and falling action, and denouement.

(2) To establish through inductive discovery the characteristics of tragedy, social drama, melodrama, fantasy, comedy, and farce.

(3) To dramatize selected one-act plays in the vernacular.

(4) To discuss orally and in writing the development of character in plays such as: (a) The Jewel of the Shrine, (b) A Man of Character, and (c) Medicine for Love.

(5) To discuss in class the importance of setting in such plays as, A Dance of the Forest, and The Trials of Brother Jero.

(6) To analyze character and theme in, The Swamp Dwellers.

A. Material and Resources:

Available Texts:

Song of a Goat, John Pepper Clark
Ozidi, John Pepper Clark
Dear Parent and Orgre, Sarif Easmon
The New Patriots, Sarif Eason
Plays from West Africa, Henshaw Ene
The Strong Breed, Wole Soyinka

B. Human Resources:

The Sierra Leone Players
National Dance Troupe

The last segment of the proposed curriculum involves the study of poetry. The type of poems to be studied will be those that spring from the life of the people and have great cultural significance. Most of these poems have their origin in praise songs--songs that are appropriate for every occasion, from marriages to funerals. The hunter in the bush, the farmer on the farm sings songs of good cheer to make the burden of work easier. Poetry and drama go hand in hand during festivals, when people have an opportunity for self-expression. African poetry is usually spontaneous and has no fixed rules.[1]

Emphasis will not be placed on the student studying the internal structure of poems, poetic devices, or the relationship between form and content. The important considerations will be making distinctions between the various types of poetry, and exploring the audial relationship between music and poetry. Thus, students will be expected to:

(1) participate in a class discussion relating the moods of poetry with those of music;

(2) classify and group a series of ten to fifteen poems depicting beauty, loneliness, and ugliness;

(3) recite a poem that one feels expresses the mood of a musical selection of his choice; and

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[1]Taiwo, Op. Cit., p. 4

(4) present oral interpretations of selected poems in order to reflect an understanding of the poems.

Materials and Resources:

A. Available Texts:

Poems from Black Africa, Adali Mortty
African Voices, Davidson Nicol
Heavensgate, Chris Okigbo
Modern Poetry from Africa, Wole Soyinka
Rediscovery and Other Poems, Awoonor Williams

B. Audio-Visual Materials:

1. Films:

Festival of the Arts-Lagos

2. Recordings:

Drums for Poetry

It should be made clear that the objectives listed above are not all inclusive, but are a sample of behavioral outcomes anticipated as a result of the student's successfully completing all four components of the curriculum.

Criteria for Selection of Content and Learning Experiences

Once the behavioral objectives are established, the next process in curriculum development is the selection of content and learning experiences. To avoid confusion, it will be useful to make a distinction between "content" and "learning experience." The term "content" refers to fundamental facts, principles, and concepts. "Learning experiences" is used to refer to

the interaction between learners and their environment, which helps to elicit behavioral changes in the learner.[1] The following are two of the criteria considered in the selection of the contents for the proposed curriculum:

The validity and significance of the contents selected. In this context, if the contents selected are to be valid and significant, they should focus on the fundamentals of the discipline, and should reflect contemporary scientific knowledge. The rationale behind the selection of the discipline in this study was developed in an earlier chapter under the heading, "Why African Literature?"

Content selection must be relevant to the personal, social problems, and needs of the learners. If the curriculum is to be a meaningful prescription for learning, its contents and outcomes must be in tune with the social and cultural realities of the times. For example, in a developing country such as Sierra Leone, the African literature curriculum must deal with the problems of cultural identity, economic frustrations, and international recognition. A curriculum which fails to deal with social and personal life is not consistent with social realities.

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[1]Taba, Op. Cit., p. 272.

In terms of selecting learning experiences for the proposed curriculum, one must be aware that the learning experiences developed must have some validity. The validity of the learning experience refers to the degree to which students learn what is intended to be learned. For example, if one aims at the student's learning how to dramatize one-act plays in the vernacular, this learning experience is valid only to the extent that it improves the student's performance in this type of dramatization.

Also, in providing learning experiences, students must be able to build on prior experiences. That is, the student's ability level must be such that he can benefit from the new experience.[1]

Evaluation

In the secondary schools of Sierra Leone, the word, "evaluation", is used synonymously with paper and pencil tests. This limited concept of evaluation should be expanded to include a variety of methods used to determine how well the teacher has accomplished what he set out to accomplish. Other evaluation tools should include observations, interviews, attitude scales, interest inventories, and questionnaires.

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[1]Elashhab, Op. Cit., p.100.

A comprehensive evaluation program should be included in planning the proposed curriculum, with the following in mind:

(1) Identifying the specific objectives of each of the four areas of the curriculum listed earlier in this chapter. The behavioral changes sought should be derived from the list of objectives.

(2) Deciding which specific learning experiences are aimed at achieving each objective.

(3) Constructing suitable devices to evaluate each behavior desired.[1]

(4) Comparing the student's entering behavior and behavior after the learning situation.

(5) Providing a continuous program of evaluation throughout the course.

(6) Constructing instruments that are both reliable and valid. Reliability refers to stability and consistency in test scores, whereas validity refers to the degree to which the instrument actually measures what it purports to measure.[2]

A successful evaluation program will serve the purpose of providing for more effective learning and teaching. The results of evaluations must be fed back

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

into student and teaching behavior, if the time and effort that have gone into the enterprise are to be justified.

In summary, the proposed curriculum which has been developed primarily from Figure III, is based on the assumption that the following hold true:

(1) That curriculum planning in Sierra Leone is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education and that this body will continue to be the overall co-ordinating body of all curriculum changes.

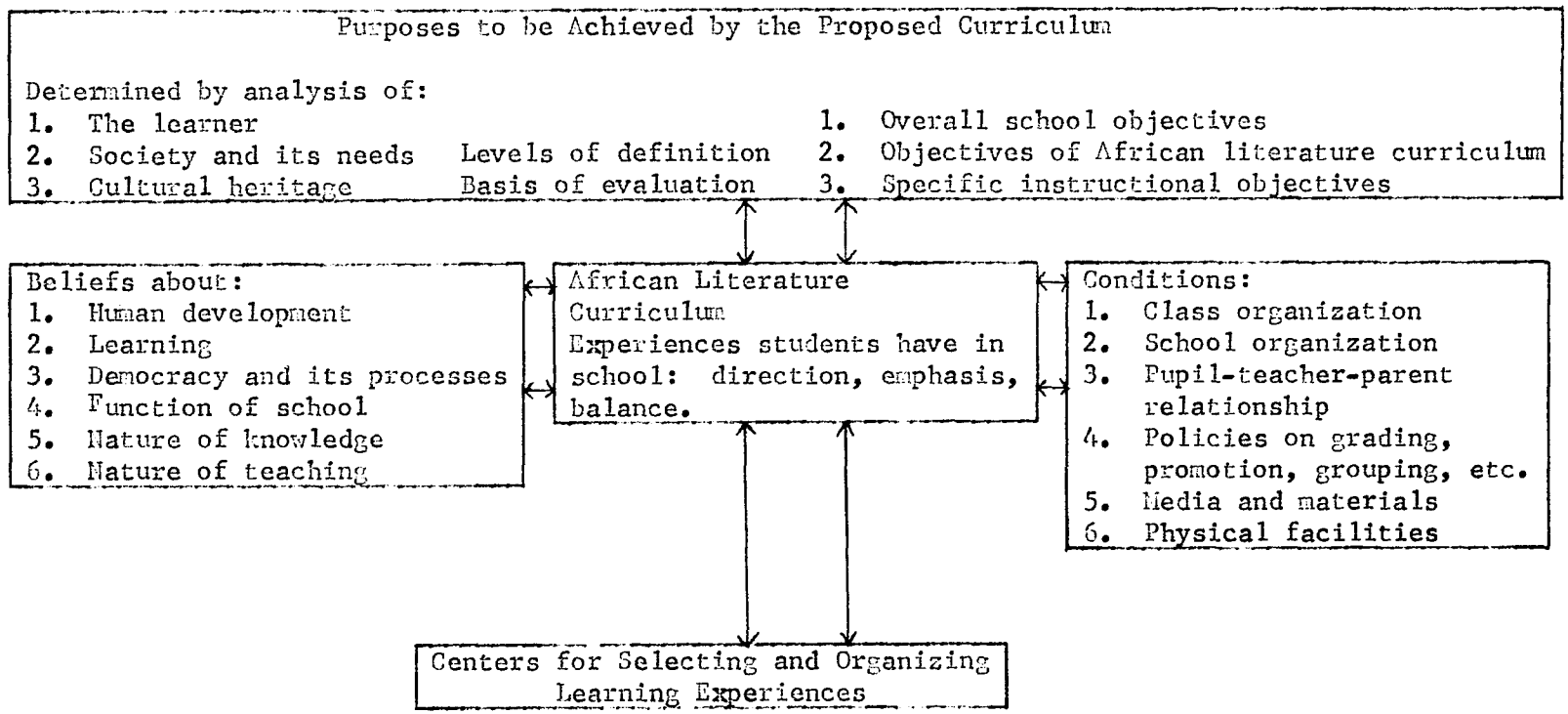
(2) That instead of limiting curriculum activities exclusively to the Ministry of Education, the curriculum committee must also include teachers, parents, students, and other lay people in the community.

(3) That this committee will be charged with the responsibility of examining the cultural patterns, national problems, social values, and beliefs of the community, and then deciding what objectives are to be achieved in the schools.

(4) That the teachers and students will be ultimately responsible for determining the evaluation procedures to be adopted.

FIGURE III

The Model



Adapted from diagram by:
Virgil Herrick, "Toward Improved Curriculum Theory",
p. 43 (University of Chicago Press, 1950).

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study, which is essentially descriptive, attempted to provide a decision-making model to be used in the development of an African literature curriculum for possible implementation in the secondary schools of Sierra Leone. The model suggested an approach to curriculum development, focusing upon a rationale for curriculum decisions. Such an approach makes curriculum development rational and scientific rather than a rule-of-thumb procedure. The rationale has drawn upon analyses of society and culture in Sierra Leone, and the effect of literature in the lives of the people.

In analyzing the culture and society in Sierra Leone, especially in terms of the type of educational opportunities provided, the writer became aware of the need for school structure and curriculum to be more relevant to African conditions. In contemporary African context, the educational policy must meet the requirements of a developing country such as Sierra Leone, which is determined to achieve equitable social and economic growth.

Educational policy must emphasize the role of the school in changing attitudes and habits, and in

spearheading attempts to create a new social and economic order. The school must be considered an adaptable social institution which not only shapes the community it serves, but is also shaped by the expectations of that community. For this reason, the writer suggested in the last chapter that curriculum decisions must not be confined exclusively to the Ministry of Education, but should also include lay members of the community. Including lay members of the community in curriculum decision-making means that the schools must function in a democratic setting, and conform to the expectations of the community enough to retain the confidence and co-operation of that community. At the same time, the schools must initiate changes, and in so doing present new insights to students and parents alike so as to stimulate them into reconsidering their values and aspirations, thus supporting the new form the schools are taking.

The importation of the restricted Western curriculum in the schools of Sierra Leone created many of the problems facing the school system. This colonial model was accepted because it fulfilled the immediate desires of the local people by offering opportunities for employment. This employment opportunity was, however, restricted to the few elite who could afford the high cost of

education. Moreover, the type of education they received was not compatible with the realities of the Sierra Leone situation. The curriculum was highly academic with Latin, French, Physics, Chemistry, History, and English literature among the course offerings. Technical and vocational training were virtually non-existent. Thus, it was clear that colonial education was not transmitting the values and knowledge of the African people. As the appendix shows, out of over fifty available texts in the present literature curriculum, only ten are by African authors.

Today, independent Africa's new planners should be able to see a clear historical distinction between "relevance" as part of a process of colonial tutelage, and "relevance" as the key to a realistic, independent government's educational policy.[1] The inherited colonial education is inadequate, both qualitatively and quantitatively, for the direction in which the Sierra Leone society is moving. It produced a small administrative and professional elite with insatiable expectations of material wealth, and disdain for their own traditional society. A developing rural society cannot expand an educational system based upon Western materialist values.

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[1]Anderson, J. E., "The Harambee Schools: The Impact of Self Help", Education in Africa--Research and Action, (East African Press, Kenya, 1968).

Sierra Leone seeks to change these inherited values and develop a curriculum suited to the needs of this emergent society.

The choice of African literature as the discipline that needs immediate attention by the curriculum planners in Sierra Leone is no accident. For hundreds of years the African has been told that he has no culture, and that the only way to improve his social and economic status is by assimilating Western values. This is evident in the fact that he has been made to study the works of Chaucer, Shakespeare, or T. S. Eliot as opposed to Soyinka, Achebe, or Taiwo.

As the African became more educated, he began to realize the extent of his indoctrination by the colonial power, and decided to vent his feelings in the form of short stories, novels, and poetry. This protest also had the additional purpose of making readily available to the literary world some of the best and most readable writings by and about Black Africans. To many African writers, it was imperative that the Western world utilize the wealth of information available about Africans which up to now had been neglected because of ignorance and prejudice. Ignorance about the African stemmed directly from the distorted conception of the African as a primitive savage.

In addition to providing new insights about Africa to the Western world, African literature will also serve the purpose of teaching students in the secondary schools of Sierra Leone about their cultural heritage, especially in terms of its political, social, and religious implications. African students need to know about their past as a first step toward their quest for personal identity.

One important point that was clearly brought out in this study is the behavioral objectives approach to curriculum development. Many curriculum theorists believe that there should be more specific ways of measuring curriculum outcomes. For example, in a paper presented by Benjamin Bloom at the 1969 Cubberly curriculum conference at Stanford University, he concluded that:

> In order to develop mastery learning in students, one must be able to recognize what students have learned it. Teachers must be able to define what they mean by mastery, and they must be able to collect the necessary evidence to establish whether or not a student has achieved it. The specification of the objectives and content of instruction is one necessary precondition for informing both teachers and students about the expectations. The translation of the specifications into evaluation procedures helps to define further what it is that the student should be able to do when he has completed the course. The evaluation procedures used to appraise the outcomes of instruction

> (summative evaluation) help the teacher and student know when the instruction has been effective.[1]

It is clear from this statement that curriculum development is moving toward emphasizing the establishment of specific objectives and precise measurements which will indicate the degree of accomplishment of these objectives.

Also worth mentioning in this summary is the dilemma facing curriculum theorists in defining the term "curriculum":[2]

> One of the anomalies in the discussion of curriculum design, construction and organization in the last twenty years is the inconsistency between the definition of curriculum in much of the educational literature. Curriculum is <u>defined</u> in terms of the sum of the experiences that a student has under the guidance of the school. On the other hand, curriculum is often <u>described</u> as a written outline that stresses or assumes the validity of a fixed group of graded and required facts, skills, and activities.[3]

Although this dilemma has still not been resolved, most curriculum theorists usually provide a definition of what they mean when the term "curriculum" is used in their writing.

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[1]Bloom, Benjamin S., "Mastery Learning and Its Implication on Curriculum Development," <u>Confronting Curriculum Reform</u>, ed. Elliot W. Eisner, (Boston: Little Brown, 1971), p. 39.

[2]Solomon, C. J., "Curriculum and Creativity: Reconciliation Through Language." Unpublished dissertation at the University of North Carolina, Greensboro, 1973.

[3]Kearney, Nolan and Cook, Walter W., "Curriculum," <u>Encyclopedia of Educational Research</u>, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960), p. 360.

It has been indicated that scientific curriculum development needs to draw upon analyses of society and culture, studies of the learner and the learning process, and the nature of knowledge. This principle has been adopted as the foundation for the model suggested at the end of Chapter V.

The following is a summary of criteria to guide curriculum decision making. These have been discussed in detail in an earlier chapter.

Criteria for Formulating Objectives

(A) Are the objectives clearly defined in terms of behavioral change in the student?

(B) Is the desired behavior observable? Can its attainment be evaluated in some way?

(C) Are the objectives desirable in terms of the value orientation of the culture?

(D) Are the objectives broad enough to encompass the types of outcomes desired by the school?

Criteria for Selection of Content and Learning Experiences

(A) Is the content valid and significant?

(B) Is the content relevant to the social and cultural needs of the society?

(C) Is the learning experience valid?

(D) Does the learning experience build upon the past experience of the learner? Is it within the learner's ability level?

The decision-making process as it relates to curriculum planning in Sierra Leone was also examined, with the Vroom model serving the purpose of identifying

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The decision-making process as it relates to curriculum planning in Sierra Leone was also examined, with the Vroom model serving the purpose of identifying

the leadership styles used by curriculum planners in Sierra Leone. The Vroom model has five categories ranging from the degree of authority used by the leader and the amount of freedom available to his subordinates in reaching decisions. This model suggests a number of alternative ways in which an administrator can relate himself to the group or individuals he is supervising.

According to Vroom, some administrators function on the extreme left of the leadership continuum, others on the extreme right, and others in between. He believes that no single leadership style is applicable in all situations. Deciding which leadership style to use in a given situation will depend, among other things, on the administrator's value system, his confidence in his subordinates, his leadership inclinations, and his tolerance of ambiguity.

In the Sierra Leone situation, most curriculum decisions are made by the Minister of Education with the help of his professional officers, the Chief Education Officer and his assistant. Teachers, parents, and students are not part of the decision-making process. This lack of participation in curriculum decision-making can be attributed almost entirely to the colonial phylosophy that Africans are incapable of governing themselces.

The writer sees no justification in perpetuating this philosophy. For one thing, the colonialists are gone, and the educational system is planned by Sierra Leoneans. Also, there has been, in the last ten years, a tremendous increase in the number of university trained people in the community. These people are capable of providing the leadership that is needed to enhance the overall development of the country.

Recommendations for Further Study

Curriculum improvement is a continuous process, and no single study is capable of answering all the questions raised about making the curriculum relevant to the realities of the Sierra Leone situation. It is hoped that this study will serve as a first step toward a complete curriculum revision (in all areas) in the schools of Sierra Leone.

The following are some questions which further research could provide answers to:

(A) What are the most effective methods of bringing about curriculum change in Sierra Leone?

(B) How could teacher preparation and in-service training be established so as to help teachers cope with change?

(C) What effect does the teacher's behavior and personality have on behavior patterns in students?

(D) What are the most effective techniques and instruments for evaluating the desired behavioral outcomes?

(E) What effect does a centralized system of education have on the quality of education in Sierra Leone?

In conclusion, the writer is aware that there are various ways by which curriculum change can be effected in any community. This study is one such way in which this can be done. The Ministry of Education in Sierra Leone will be presented with a copy of this study, with the hope that the professional officers will find it a useful document to be used in planning the schools' curriculum.

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APPENDIX I

ENGLISH LITERATURE-LEVEL I

SYLLABUS AND SET BOOKS FOR THE 1972 EXAMINATION[1]

Paper I

Section A: Shakespeare

(1) Julius Caesar

(2) Richard II

(3) The Taming of the Shrew

Section B: Drama and Prose

(1) Birdie: Tobias and the Angel

(2) Shaw: Caesar and Cleopatra

(3) Orwell: Animal Farm

(4) Laye: The African Child

(5) Cole: Kossoh Town Boy

Paper II

Section A: Poetry

(1) Chaucer: The General Prologue and The Nun's Priest's Tale (Coghill's Translation)

(2) A Pageant of Longer Poems

Gray: Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard

Coleridge: Ancient Mariner

Lawrence: Bat, Snake

Browning: My Last Duchess

Section A: Poetry (cont'd)

Crabbe: Peter Grimes

Tennyson: Ulysses

(3) Rhyme and Reason

Love Poetry

Time and Mortality

(4) West African Verse

Daddy: Dry Your Tears Africa

I Give You Thanks My God

Williams: Songs of Sorrow

Brew: A Plea for Mercy

Okara: Piano and Drums

One Night at Victoria Beach

Clark: Ibadau; Olokuni Night Rain

Soyinka: Abiku

Death in the Dawn

Season

Peters: We Have Come

Section B: The Classical Novel

(1) Hardy: The Trumpet Major

(2) Austen: Pride and Prejudice

(3) Dickens: A Christmas Carol

(4) Bronte: Jane Eyre

LEVEL II

Paper I. Drama

Shakespeare: Hamlet

Winter's Tale

Jonson: Volpone

Congreve: The Way of the World

Shaw: St. Joan

Bolt: A Man of all Seasons

Osborne: Look Back in Anger

Soyinka: The Strong Breed

The Swamp Dwellers

Paper II. Prose

Fielding: Joseph Andrews

Austen: Mansfield Park

Dickens: Hard Times

Hardy: Mayor of Casterbridge

Naipanl: The Suffrage of Elvira

Amadi: The Concubine

Lawrence: Sons and Lovers

Paper III. Poetry

Chaucer: The Prologue

The Pardoner's Prologue and Tale

Milton: Samson Agonistes

Paper III. Poetry (cont'd)

Dryden: The following selections are to be studied:

Satire

Argument

Elegy

Lyric and Ode

Pope: Essay on Criticism

Eloise and Abelard

Epistle to Arbuthnot

Windsor Forest

Wordsworth: Prelude I and II

Eliot: Selected Poems

Clark: A Reed in the Tide

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[1]The West African Examinations Council, "School Certificate and General Certificate of Education", Regulations and Syllabuses for the Examinations, 1972, (University Press, Oxford, 1972).