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Is the Algerian Educational System Weakening?

An Investigation of the High School Curricula and their Adequacy with the University Curricula

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ABSTRACT

The present research has two aims. First, it is an evaluation of the learning of English as a foreign language in Algerian secondary schools and university. It investigates the apparent dissatisfaction that exists with regards to the quality of English language learning that students come with to university. We will examine the suitability and effectiveness of English textbooks in use in high schools in Algeria (three from the former programmes and two from the new ones). Thus, the evaluation is intended to explore, in some detail, the textbooks, whether they serve the students' expectations in relation to the objectives of the programme. The study will be conducted by examining the content of the five textbooks, their strengths and weaknesses and their suitability and effectiveness in promoting language learning and teaching in the classroom. It focuses on micro aspects of the textbooks that shape and affect the learning process. Data obtained from the university curriculum are matched against the data from secondary schools curriculum, syllabuses, and textbooks to allow for an exploration of similarities and differences.

And second, to situate the above analysis in its present-day context, the research analyzes two populations of students in a proficiency test. The first population concerns a sample of first year students we tested in 1996 for our Magister thesis; the second concerns first year students enrolled in 2005. Both populations were first year students at the English Department (University of Constantine) and received the same treatment: a sociological questionnaire, and three tests aiming at evaluating their competence in English. The sociological questionnaire showed that the geographical, social, and cultural features of the students have changed in the intervening time. The results of the tests proved to be enlightening in the fact that the 2006 test-takers performed less well than their 1996 counterparts, particularly in the Cloze test.

On the basis of the results, the hypotheses we tested came to be confirmed, in that university and secondary school curricula do not match, textbooks do not meet students' needs and interests, and that the standards are indeed declining.

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Introduction

School is often referred to as the key element for improving well-being and prosperity, the first and all-important step in climbing the proverbial social ladder. It is ironical to see that in our country, it has become a cause of failure, deception and disillusion, a sign of exclusion from the development to which Algerians aspire. Our school is sick, as much by the rate of drop-outs than by the teachers' exhaustion, when they are not simply disillusioned. Vividly remembered as a *happy experience* or *unhappy* for most cases, school is never neutral; it is a *passionate issue of political and social choices* (De Queiroz, 1995:5).

As regards the social ascension, the access to education is limited owing to relations of unequal power. Although the dynamics of power and domination are visible or invisible, they permeate the school fabric. The daily decisions the practitioners take inside their classes shape and are shaped by the social order outside school. The pedagogic choices, the development of curricula, contents, documentation, school processes, use of language, though apparently founded on apolitical professional considerations, are in fact inherent to ideology. More simply, our choices as educators play a role in the influence of the choices made by our students and choices inside school reflect the social relations and practices (Auerbach, 1995).

Durkheim (1938) justifiably said that *education is an eminently social matter*; no aspect of education could be understood without taking into consideration the social forces and the consequences that characterize it. The central point to the sociology of education is the analysis of the educational activities which include all the aspects connected to the different levels of structure of school, the social processes, the social milieu, the teacher and the class. When we examine how power and politics get into the school institutions, the first question we ask ourselves is: "what is power and how does it appear?" That education in general and school in particular be among the most involved in the promulgation of ideological power is not new. A great number of documents show the role of school in the socialisation of pupils in certain social roles, not only on the political level of planning but also through a differential content and educational interaction. Any practice in education implies an ideological position, conscious or unconscious. In the methods and texts used by educators and students, we would find options which reveal man's philosophy, well or badly exposed, coherent or incoherent; a technique of men in their orientation of the world is not neutral. According to Freire (1985) education is used inevitably either to perpetuate the existing social relations, or to stimulate them. He maintains that every time an educational program is shaped by the dominating classes and that the objective is to reproduce the existing social relations, there is a resistance to this program. This resistance may take the shape of the denial of the teacher, of a refusal to learn in such conditions, or withdrawal; this resistance may take the shape of privatisation as well; resistance may be organised or not; classrooms become then battlefields in cultural and/or linguistic wars. The interrelationship between individuals, educational institutions and society means that education is the most relevant social institution; it penetrates practically every aspect of society.

On a much more concrete level, Algerian educational agents and the society at large have manifested their concerns about the suitability and efficiency of the school and university system, at least as regards the baccalaureate end results and the absence of job opportunities.

Aim of the study

The main concern of this research is to see if such assertion as "academic standards are declining", an assertion that teachers, educators, parents and the wider social environment have been uttering for many years now, can be rational. We justify this study on the grounds that with greater dissatisfaction on the part of lecturers of their students entering University, there is a need for research into the processes and causes of their increasing dissatisfaction (on the part of lecturers). If this claim is substantiated, the present research would provide guidance for institutions, instructional materials, national educational policy and curriculum development. As part of the general climate to improve and somewhat maintain quality in Education, the standard of students in general and the standard of those who chose to study English at University in particular, are becoming of increasing interest, and questioning to the profession and their cause(s) stimulated the present research.

1. Statement of the problem

From our experience of more than twenty years teaching English at the University of Constantine, we noticed changes in the attitudes of our peers towards students: a gradual and growing dissatisfaction of the students' motivation and performance. Students come to university with real gaps in their knowledge of English. It is with the objective of knowing whether the dissatisfaction is really grounded and if so, what the essential reasons of the decline of standards are.

It is within this framework that we conceived our work in order to understand what brought most of the Algerian social parties involved to decry the educational system. During

the exploration phase, we came to meet documentation dedicated to all school disciplines—history, philosophy, Arabic, sciences, and French, and even in the teacher training system — and as such English is not the only discipline where the standards were regarded as dropping.

Through classroom observation, exploratory-teaching approach (Allwright & Lenzuen, 1997), discussions with our colleagues in the department and university, and our peers' perception, and even our own, it is felt that things are changing: students come to university without the adequate linguistic background required in the university curriculum. We questioned whether the level of the students complies with the expectations of their teachers. A mere perception can by no means guarantee the reality but it may help in the direction of the comprehension of the unease. This dissatisfaction has been equally felt by many researchers (K. Taleb-Ibrahimi, 1993, 1995, 1997, 2000; Miliani, 1998, 2003; and Grandguillaume, 1979; 1983, 1997, 2002, 2004, 2006; to name only a few).

2. Hypotheses

Basing themselves on the baccalaureate exam results, the members of the National Reform Commission (CNRSE) (2001: 151) described English teaching as *catastrophic*. In their *Memorandum* (Ministry of Education, 1999), textbook designers and some other experts from the Institute of Research in Education (INRE), raised the question of inefficiency of English textbooks. In a similar vein, teachers, and inspectors of English report an ever growing dissatisfaction with the syllabuses and textbooks (Kara, 2002). The originality of the present research is that despite the decline in standards abundantly referred to and deplored in the literature, little research in Algeria has been really and concretely devoted to this issue. For

De Queiroz (1995), this question itself is as old as school. Many questions about the reasons for the decline in standards must be asked:

- The kind of schooling which pupils had. (Obsolete methods of teaching or methods very rarely efficient? Much less stress on foreign living languages, French first, then French and English?)
- The educational system? (What are its values, ideologies, etc.?)
- The different course books proposed to Middle-school and High-school pupils. Do they meet students' needs, requirements, interest?
- The different branches students come from (for some years now, the department of English is open to any student regardless of the branch —scientific or literary —they have followed during the high-school classes; scientific pupils are given a smaller amount of learning English and thus less exposed to English than the literary or foreign languages pupils, and yet these students seem to succeed better than the literary students. Do the teaching methods of the scientific branch account for this difference (much rigueur, etc.), or is their sociocultural background different?
- Individual factors -- psychological and sociological (the students' attitude towards the foreign language and the foreign language teacher, their motivation, and/or their socio-cultural background, etc.).

On the basis of what preceded, we formulated the following hypotheses:

1. Would secondary school terminal education in English match university curricula as it would appear that students enroll in the English department without the required overall language ability?

2. Would high school textbooks meet the students' requirements and needs in terms of contents, tasks, and balance of skills?

It would seem that because of the above state of affairs, the standards in English at university are declining.

4. The coursebooks to be evaluated

In this study, the textbooks of secondary schools that will be evaluated are as follows:

1. *My New Book of English,* Bereski, K.E.S. (1998).
2. *The New Midlines,* Achour, K. & Salmi, M. (1997).
3. *Comet,* Benzian, A., Bouakkaz, H. & Hadjidj, B.S. (1997).
4. *At the Crossroads,* Arab, S.A. (2005).
5. *Getting Through,* Riche, B., Arab, S.A., Bensemane, M., Ameziane, H., & Hami, H. (2006).

These coursebooks are being used to teach the first year through the third year students English as a compulsory subject in the program in high schools (the last two being part of the new programs).

5. Research methodology

Along with the evaluation of the curricula, syllabuses, and textbooks, a questionnaire and a proficiency test will be administered to a panel of first-year students. These students (referred to as 2006 students in our study) will be chosen randomly among the whole population of first year students in English at the university of Constantine. The sample will represent one fifth of the whole population of first-year students. Through the questionnaires and the tests, the 2006 students (81) will be compared to students whom we studied in 1996 (61) in our Magister

thesis. The questionnaire and the tests are the ones we used for our Magister thesis. It appeared to us that they could provide a scientifically-grounded comparison. Through the evaluation of the textbooks and the Baccalaureate exams, we shall have a somewhat full picture of students' prior knowledge to which we shall relate the tests.

In order to test our hypotheses, we will apply the following measures:

5.1. **Evaluation Checklist**: The data collected from the referred textbooks will finally be analyzed by an Evaluation Checklist, which will be used as the evaluation criteria to find out the strengths and weaknesses of the materials already in use and whether they meet the aims of the course and learners' needs.

5.2. **Questionnaire and Test**: The data collected from the questionnaire will help us in the identification of the sociological, geographical and cultural background of the students who enroll in the English department. The results of the proficiency test would enable us to compare two populations of study: 2006 and 1996.

In order to have a full picture of the quality of learning, we shall analyze the English exam in the Baccalaureate.

5.3. **Teachers' questionnaires**: The data we collected from this questionnaire will be used to back up our hypotheses. The questionnaire will not be treated concretely in our thesis, however, we will have to relate, in many ways, to it throughout our research. The treatment of data is to be found in the appendices section (Appendix V). Our panel consists of 40 lecturers, teaching at the Department of English (Mentouri University Constantine).

6. Terminology

6.1. Materials

"Materials" refer to everything designed specifically for language teaching and learning such as coursebooks, authentic materials like recordings, newspaper articles that are specially selected and exploited for teaching purposes by the classroom teachers; teacher-written materials; and learner-generated materials. In this research, materials would mean coursebooks.

6.2. Supplementary Materials

Materials designed to be used in addition to the core materials of a course such as newspaper articles, crossword puzzles, and various kinds of grammar and vocabulary exercises, in other words, any texts or tasks outside the textbooks.

6.3. Material evaluation

Materials evaluation refers to the assessment of the usefulness or appropriateness of the materials in relation to the learners' needs and the context of learning.

6.4. Textbook

A textbook provides the core materials for a course. It aims to provide as much as possible in one book and is designed so that it could serve as the mainly used book which the learners

necessarily use during a course. In the Algerian program, textbooks are used as the core books where almost all of the exercises or tasks in them are done.

7. The organization of the research

The research study is divided into six chapters. Chapter One presents a broad view of education and attempts to show how it is grounded on philosophical, psychological and sociological theories. Education is a diverse and complex field of enquiry which has direct bearing on many facets of language teaching. This chapter intends to show the history of language pedagogy as the result of interplay between general educational history and influences on language teaching (from teaching methods to learner's roles). Chapter Two shows the Algerian educational system, its origin and development through the different reforms which affected the universities, and particularly the English Department. Chapter Three is devoted to the main changes which took place in the educational system in post-independence Algeria. Chapter Four offers a review of literature relating to material and curriculum evaluation, the schemes and procedures used in the study, and the practical criteria for coursebook evaluation. Chapter five deals with the analysis of the textbooks used in secondary schools in Algeria according to the framework of chapter four and reviews the main features of the coursebooks identified for the study. Chapter Six presents the evaluation of the students, based on the data collected from questionnaires and the presentation, analysis, results and discussion of the English tests. Pedagogical recommendations for further studies will follow this final chapter and close the research.

The appendices section will present all the data used in our study: from the questionnaires (teachers' and students') and tests to the detailed results obtained in the comparative study of

the two populations of students (Appendix III). These data are followed by the different baccalaureate exam questions (1980, 1985, 1995, and 2005) (Appendix VI).

CHAPTER ONE

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Introduction

Language teaching is a complex undertaking. It is an enterprise that is shaped by views of the nature of language, of teaching and learning a language specifically, and of teaching and learning in general; and by the sociocultural settings in which the enterprise takes place. Applied linguistics has contributed research—and practice—based ideas that have helped to shape these views, and promoted understanding of the diversity and commonalities of the settings. One product of applied linguistics has been attempts to crystallize the theoretical views of language, education, and language education into prescribed teaching materials and strategies, or methods. The abundance of methods is derived from different theoretical standpoints.

1. General definition of "education"

It is commonly held that the concept of education derives from the Latin *educatio* (to educate= *educare)* which refers, in general, to the process of acquiring knowledge, especially during childhood and adolescence. On the other hand, to educate is to impart knowledge, to develop from a potential. From a much broader perspective, it is the bringing-up of children physically and mentally; it is a word of such a wide reference that at times it is, of necessity, vague (Manheim & Stewart, 1962: 15). For example, we read that it is concerned with all the qualities which are acquired through individual instruction and social training. Adams (1912) points out that education has for its aims not merely to supply a certain amount of knowledge

but also to modify the nature of the pupil. It is noticeable that in the history of the institution of school, we have been moving steadily away from the narrower concept of school instruction, of training in specific knowledge or techniques, towards the notion of the school and other agencies as part of an educative society. This is to be detected in the shift and enrichment of the word “education” itself. It will be interesting to explain the narrower and the wider senses in which the term is used.

Dilthey (1833-1911) speaks of education as the *planful* activity of grown-ups to shape the mind of younger generation (Hodges, 1952). Here one personality acts upon another in order to modify the development of the other. That is to say, that the process is not only conscious but deliberate, for the educator has the clearly realized intention of shaping and modifying the development of the pupil. There are two means by which this process operates: first by the presentation of certain kinds of knowledge (in its various forms), selected and ordered by the educator in his wisdom, and second through the direct and indirect relationship of the two personalities. It is of the greatest importance psychologically to recognize that only at a relatively late stage, and not always then, can a pupil separate out the ideas that are presented to him from his response to the personality of the teacher who is presenting them. Dilthey (Hodges, *op.cit.)* sees in education the influence of person upon person in which the older generation wishes to prepare the younger generation in terms of ideas, knowledge and attitudes. In the foreground of this activity stands the school as an institution in which there is concentrated the purpose of presenting knowledge deliberately and on the basis of a

consciously planned program. Only relatively recently, have the ideas of emotional factors in learning taken some importance in educational thought.

From a sociological point of view, education represents the organization of forces and influences that are to lead to a higher standard of behaviour and values (Manheim & Stewart, ibid).

Education can only arise out of a social institution. If the need for education arises out of people living together, one of its aims in socio-psychological thought is to enable them to live together more successfully in the widest senses of these terms. The influence which one person has upon another is only one form which the educational process may take. It is true that this influence may be most complex, subtle and lasting—one has only to consider the importance which is attached to infantile experience as a factor in the form taken by adult personality to see one very significant aspect of this influence. Or again, the lasting effect made upon us through having met and worked with sympathetic and cultured teacher. Yet, there are other forms of education which have to be taken into account. While we know that school is only one among the multi-faceted educational environments in which a child grows up, we have now to take more cognizance of the fact that in the school not only the teacher is important but also the nature of the organization to be found there, the kind of discipline which prevails, and the environment in which it is set.

In the mainstream of sociological studies, Young (1971: 24) gives another definition:

> *Education is not a product like cars and bread, but a selection and organization from the available knowledge at a particular time which involves conscious or unconscious choices.*

Bailyn (1960: 14) called for a complete redefinition of education from the narrow focus on schools, policy, and institutions to include *the entire process by which a culture transmits itself across generations*.

For Cremin, the historian of American education, too, education as a historical (and contemporary) phenomenon was only partly occurring in schools, but also in social and cultural agencies. Cremin (1977: viii) defined education as any

> *deliberate, systematic, and sustained effort to transmit, evoke, or acquire knowledge, attitudes, values, skills, or sensibilities, as well as any outcome to that effort*.

2. Philosophy of education

The 20th century has seen the conflict between two main paradigms employed in researching educational problems. The one is modelled on the natural sciences with an emphasis on empirical quantifiable observations which lend themselves to analyses by means of mathematical tools. Within such a paradigm, the task of research is to establish causal

relationships, to explain. The other paradigm is derived from the humanities with an emphasis on holistic qualitative information and interpretive approaches.

The two paradigms developed historically as follows.

2.1. The Scientific Paradigm

By the mid-nineteenth century, when Auguste Comte (1798-1857) developed positivism in sociology and John Stuart Mill (1806-1873) empiricism in psychology, there was a major breakthrough in the natural sciences at the universities with the development of experiments and hypotheses testing. They therefore came to serve as models and their prevailing paradigm was taken over by social scientists, particularly in the Anglo-Saxon countries. However, on the European continent there was another tradition from German idealism and Hegelianism (Absolute idealism). The Galilean, mechanistic conception became the dominant one, particularly with mathematical physics as the methodological ideal. Positivism was characterized by methodological monism. Philosophers at the University of Vienna (such as Neurath), referred to as the 'Vienna Circle', developed what is called 'Neopositivism' or logical empiricism. Around 1950 they founded a series of publications devoted to the study of what they called "a unified science". Positivism saw the main task for the social sciences as being the making of causal explanations and the prediction of future behaviour. Neopositivism emanated from the strong influence of analytical philosophy, represented, at the beginning of the 20th century, by B. Russell and A.N. Whitehead in their major work *Principio Mathematica* (1910).

2.2. The Humanistic Paradigm

Husèn (1997:17-18) identifies at least three strands for the other main paradigm in educational research.

1- The Continental idealism of the early 19th century has been mentioned. Around the turn of the century it had a dominant influence with philosophers such as Wilhelm Dilthey (1833-1911), who in the 1890s published a classical treatise in which he distinguished between *Verstehen* (to understand) and *Erklären* (to explain). Dilthey strongly rejected using a model formed exclusively from the natural sciences and instead proposed developing a separate model for the human sciences. His argument centered around the idea that in the natural sciences we seek to *explain* phenomena in terms of cause and effect, or the general and the particular; in contrast, in the human sciences, we seek to *understand* in terms of the relations of the part and the whole. He maintained that the humanities had their own logic of research. He also distinguished two kinds of psychology, the one which attempted to generalize and predict by means of experimental methods, and the one that tried to understand the unique individual in his/her entire, concrete setting. Another personality was the French Henri Bergson (1859-1941) who asserted that *the intellect was unable to grasp the living reality which could only be approached by means of intuition* (Husèn, ibid.).

2- A second strand was represented by the phenomenological philosophy developed by Edmund Husserl (1859-1938) in Germany. It emphasized the importance of taking a widened perspective and of trying to “get to the roots” of human activity. The phenomenological, and

later the hermeneutic, approach is holistic: it tries by means of empathy to understand the motives behind human reactions. By widening the perspective and trying to understand human beings as individuals in their entirety and in their proper context it also tries to avoid the fragmentation caused by the positivistic and experimental approach that takes out a small slice which it subjects to closer scrutiny.

3- The third strand in the humanistic paradigm consists of the critical philosophy, principally the one of the Frankfurt School (Habermas-1929) which developed with a certain amount of neo-Marxism. Marx himself would probably have felt rather ambivalent in an encounter between the two main philosophies (Husèn, 1997:17). On the one hand, he felt attracted to the positivism and by the behaviourist approach (Pavlov). On the other hand, Marx belonged to the German philosophical tradition and the neo-Marxists have not had great difficulties in accepting hermeneutics and merging it with a dialectical approach. (Young, 1971:28).

The paradigm determines how a problem is formulated and methodologically tackled (Husèn, ibid.) According to the traditional positivist conception, we should have both a micro and a macro analysis of what is going on in the classroom. Husèn (ibid.:18) gives the example for the micro analysis of *either the pupils, who might be neurotic, or the teacher, who might be ill-prepared for his /her job*. The other conception, according to her, is a macro analysis which leads to the concern of the society at large.

3. Psychology of education

3.1. Behaviourism

During the second decade of the 20th century, Thorndike E.L. (1874-1949) developed a theory of learning known as "connectionism". It assumed that specific responses become linked with specific contiguous stimuli, in a so-called "S-R bond" (stimulus-response) or connection; according to Thorndike, behaviour is controlled by application of different laws of learning. His two most important laws in psychological theorizing are well-known: the law of effect and the law of exercise. According to the law of effect, when responses to a stimulus are followed by a positive, rewarding effect they are strengthened or reinforced. For example: "How much is 12 times 4?" Answer: "48". Reinforcement: "That is correct!" The law of exercise states that the connection between S and R becomes stronger by use, exercise, or repetition. "Drill-and-practice" instructional programs are based on this law. Thorndike's influence on education has been great, although he first worked on the study of mathematics. His interest in education came as consequence of the 19th century's attacks to Plato's mathematical reasoning. For Plato, the highest value to be gained from the study of Mathematics is cultivation of the powers of clear thinking and logical reasoning: mathematics serves to discipline the mind. Attacks started in the 19th century, when educators questioned the claim that reasoning power gained in the study of mathematics could effectively be transmitted to the non-mathematical situations. William James was the first psychologist to test the doctrine of formal discipline experimentally. Then in 1901, Thorndike and Woodworth published their classical transfer study that banished the theory of discipline or mental exercise

from serious psychological consideration, if not from common school practice (Rosskopf & Fey, 1971).

In his *Talks to Teachers on Psychology*, given in the 1890s, William James (1842-1910), (1899:9) pointed out: '*to know psychology …. is absolutely no guarantee that we shall be good teachers'*. Another ability is required, the ingenuity in meeting and pursuing the pupil, the tact for the concrete situation. He mentions the demand of making systematic observations that some enthusiasts for child study have burdened teachers with, including compiling statistics and computing the percent. In order to avoid such endeavours, resulting in trivialities, they must be related to the anecdotes and observations which acquaint the teachers more intimately with the students.

What James refers to is something in the terminology of today would be regarded as a conflict between two main research paradigms. By the turn of the century the scientific paradigm emerged that had since been the prevailing one, at least in the Anglo-Saxon world. It was part of a larger movement towards "scientific management in industry".

The new scientific approach emerged at the turn of the century with the leading educational psychologist Edward Lee Thorndike of Columbia University, in the preface of his seminal book *Educational Psychology* (1903). He proposed to apply the methods of exact science to educational problems, rejecting speculative opinions, and emphasizing accurate quantitative treatment of information collected. He dealt with the problem of education as a science and presented the main characteristics of what he regarded as scientific education:

> *It is the vice or misfortune of thinkers about education to have chosen the methods of philosophy or of popular thought instead of those of science….. The chief duty of serious students of the theory of education today is to form the habit of inductive study and learn the logic of statistics.* (Thorndike, 1903:164).

Skinner (1953) has been the first psychologist after the 1930s to develop a scientific behaviourist learning theory. He distinguished two kinds of behaviour: *respondent* and *operant* behaviour. Respondent behaviour follows on a stimulus from "outside", as in the case of a reflex or a conditioned reflex in the sense developed by Pavlov (e.g. when a dog salivates at a bell signal, having learnt to associate the bell with the imminent provision of food). Operant behaviour is more spontaneous: it is initiated by the organism, animal or human being. When it is reinforced in a positive or negative way, it can be considered as conditioned behaviour. This means that it will be strengthened and will be repeated as soon as the reinforcer, that is the rewarding or aversive stimulus, appears. Two other applications of Skinner's approach are mastery learning and behaviour modification, the latter being a technique that is also used in psychotherapy. According to behaviouristic theory, only behaviour that has been reinforced is under control. "Learning" means developing correct behaviour in a situation in which reinforcing stimuli are presented by a teacher or a machine. The theory says nothing about the

processes that take place within the individual during learning. Therefore behaviourism can be considered as a non cognitive theory[1].

3.2. Gestalt Psychology

At the same time that in America Thorndike and Watson were founding *Connectionism*, a school of European psychologists were developing a theory compatible with the insight experience (Rosskopf & Fey, *op.cit.*). Early European Gestalt psychology is based on the principle that a figure or configuration can only be seen, because it stands out against a background. This spontaneously observed global Gestalt is gradually given structure. For example, a rose window in a cathedral is at first seen a many-coloured whole, but gradually it acquires structure and sense: the whole is more than the sum of its parts. They argued that understanding a situation is not simply a matter of knowing the collection of parts individually, but of grasping the dynamic interrelationships between the parts that make them an entity. Applied to learning, this viewpoint provides an explanation of insight. According to Gestaltists, there is no difference between observing, thinking, and learning. Learning means getting inside, i.e., discovering a structure. Creative problem-solving and learning imply switching from an approach that does not lead to a solution to an approach that does by means of forming a good Gestalt. As a consequence of their global approach to learning phenomena, the Gestaltists, unlike the behaviourists, have said little about instruction (Knoers, ibid), and

[1] This is a basis for the rejection of behaviorism by the cognitive psychologists whose approach became dominant in the last forty years (cf. section 3.4. and the following).

neither theory of learning seemed adequate to explain all forms of learning whether in mathematics or in any other field (Rosskopf & Fey, ibid).

3.3. The Wurzburg School

According to this school, thinking operates with ordering categories such as means-aims, cause-effect. The problem of how thinking takes place was investigated by Selz (1924) (cited by Knoers). He found that special thinking operations or methods are used to solve a particular thinking task. They may be regarded as schemes that anticipate the thinking process: *schematic anticipation* (Knoers, ibid: 2881). Therefore it is possible to acquire thinking methods that are most appropriate for the solution of different kinds of problems. The educational implication of this paradigm of schematic anticipation is that teachers can help students to use the correct thinking methods in solving different kinds of problems. Duncker's (1935) accurate analysis of problem-situations has exerted a strong influence on psychologists. He demonstrated the important role in problem-solving processes played by heuristic methods such as goal-analysis, situation analysis, and conflict analysis; in other words, a breakdown of a goal to solve a problem into sub-goals.

3.4. Piaget (1896-1980) and Vygotsky (1896-1924)

The Swiss psychologist, Piaget is one of the most famous precursors of cognitive psychology. He had a great interest in the development of intelligence (1947), and essential to his theory of development is the idea that an individual plays an active role in acquiring

knowledge about reality. Piaget distinguished four stages in the development of intelligence (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969). Development from one stage to the next is caused by the accumulation of errors in the child's understanding of the environment.

1. Sensory-motor stage (years 0-2): Children experience the world through movement and senses and learn object permanence.
2. Preoperational stage (years 2–7): the stage of the acquisition of motor skills, and processes such as symbolic functioning, centration, egocentrism, and intuitive thought.
3. Concrete operational stage (years 7–11): Children begin to think logically about concrete events.
4. Formal operational stage (years 11–adulthood): It is characterized by the acquisition of the ability to think abstractly, reason logically and draw conclusions from the information available.

In each stage the activity of the individual is directed toward removing the disturbance of an original balance which is caused by an unknown phenomenon (the conflict). The notion of Cognitive Conflict Theory is characteristic of a mode of thinking about behaviour which stresses the importance of overall structure or organization (often hierarchical) and thus stands in opposition to the atomistic Stimulus/Response. Learning is an active process in the individual, a process of discovery based upon assimilation or *the integration of any sort of reality into a structure* (Piaget, 1964: 195). The core of Piaget's work is his belief that looking carefully at how knowledge develops in children will elucidate the nature of knowledge in general. Development is the basis of all possible learning processes. This position differs markedly from the theory of Vygotsky (Knoers, ibid). For Vygotsky, cultural influence and

education play a greater part. Learning is based upon the guidance and the transmission of culture by a teacher, who stimulates what Vygotsky calls *the zone of proximal development* (ZPD) (Lieury and De La Haye, 2004*:* 19), which is understood in terms of:

> *The distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers* (Vygotsky, 1978: 86).

This means that the teacher, after having assessed the actual development of a student, can help him by adequate instruction to attain better and unexpected results. The distance between what the student can make alone and what s/he is capable of doing with the help of his/her teacher is called ZPD and constitutes the area in which s/he learns. Guided by his/her teacher, the student can attain a higher level of learning than his/her own actual development seemed to make possible.

Piaget's ideas on discovery learning and Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal (or potential) Development had and still have a genuine influence on developmental psychology (and cognitive psychology for that matter).

3.5. Cognitive Psychology or Cognitivism

It had its foundations in the Gestalt psychology and in the work of Piaget. The term cognitive psychology refers to an approach that attempts to describe and explain the

underlying cognitive processes of behaviour. In contrast with the S—R or "black box[2]" paradigm of behaviourism, cognitive psychology postulates that clear inferences are possible about the inner transforming process between "inputs" and "outputs" (the "white box" paradigm) (Knoers, *op.cit.*: 2882). Cognitive psychology can be defined as the scientific analysis of human mental processes and memory structures in order to find out more about human behaviour. *The analysis considers the human being as an information-processing system, and focuses on the cognitive processes, the cognitive structures, and strategies employed* (Knoers, ibid): the analysis of processes starts by giving students an intellectual task, for instance, an arithmetic problem. The researcher observes accurately the way in which a student solves the problem, asks questions about the solution activities, and tries to find out what the knowledge looks like. Analysis of cognitive structures tries to untie knowledge and to look for a structure into which the component parts of this knowledge are fitted. In addition to these, there are also the metacognitive capabilities. They plan, regulate, and control the cognitive processes that take place in the mind.

3.6. The Phenomenographic Approach

This approach, deriving from phenomenology, is in some respects a reaction against the lack of attention in research to the question of how learners themselves experience their learning. The point of departure for these studies was one of the simplest observations that can be made about learning, namely that some people are better at learning than others (Marton,

[2] Because behaviorists are concerned with observable behavior, they treat the mind as the "black box".

1994:4424). Using experiments, Marton (1981) reached the conclusion that qualitative differences in understanding revealed that there are different categories of approaches to learning. Students commenting on what they experienced in their own everyday studies, reported different learning strategies. Marton adds that students have different intentions: being able to reproduce at the given moment what has been learned to forming a personal opinion built upon what has been learned. The Phenomenographic approach has formed the basis of fruitful research on several approaches to learning.

3.7. The Situated Cognition and the Learning Paradigm

This paradigm involves a reaction against the cognitive psychology approach, especially in the neglect in cognitive psychology of the impact of situational and contextual factors on learning and cognition (De Corte, 1989). This paradigm derives from Pragmatism and is also influenced by Vygotsky. It emphasizes that knowledge should not be abstracted from the context or the situation in which it is embedded: students, for instance, should not learn words in the foreign language without the context of ordinary communication.

Many of the most contentious debates in the areas of educational psychology during the last thirty years have revolved around the issue of how language proficiency is related to academic achievement. Disagreement about appropriate ways of conceptualizing the nature of language proficiency underlies diverse controversies, as for example, the extent to which the poor school achievement of low socio-economic/cultural status students is caused by

differences in the language use patterns of these students in comparison with middle-class students (Labov, 1972).

4. Sociology of Education

Much of the work done by educational sociologists centred on the relationship between education and the larger society. Some of it was abstract and philosophical. For example, they argued that schools could develop our ability to shape the future by teaching us to approach all subjects scientifically. Some of their work was utopian; they argued that education was the key to the alleviation of all social ills. Some of it was narrowly pragmatic, and focused on details of school and classroom organization. There was much discussion of administrative problems and of methods for managing conflicts between schools and families, special interest groups and problem students.

Virtually all social thinkers, since the time of Plato and Aristotle, have considered the education of the young as part of their theory of society. From a social point of view, the process of education has always been linked with other social processes, either as a source of stability or a source of social conflict. However, given that the discipline of sociology did not emerge until the mid- nineteenth century with the writings of Auguste Comte (1798-1857), what could be called sociology of education did not emerge until Emile Durkheim (1858-1917) began to teach, and write about education. The other major nineteenth century sociologists, Max Weber (1864-1920) and Karl Marx (1818-1883), did not write about

education, either as process, or social institution. Nevertheless, all three have had considerable influence on the development of sociological schools thought of education (Young, 1971).

4.1. Classical views

4.1.1. Marx

Marx ‘s claim that education in a *capitalist society* is a tool of *ruling class interest*, does direct one to examine the relation between the interest of economically dominant groups and the prevailing ideas of education as *good* or *worthwhile* in itself (Young, ibid: 28). It follows that the dominant emphasis of the education systems of capitalist societies, which might be described as the competitive concern with exams, grades and degrees, can be seen as one expression of the principles of market economy. He believed that education was a way of imposing a dominant ideology on members of society, particularly the working classes, so that they would accept and not question their position in society (Saha, 1997). Althusser, a French Marxist of the late twentieth century, referred to this process as one of *symbolic violence* (ibid.).

Antonio Gramsci, an Italian Marxist, (1957, 1967) was more concerned with education. His primary concern with both the role of intellectuals (and by implication ‘their kind of knowledge’) and what he called the *cultural hegemony*, which he saw as imposed on the working classes who are thus prevented from thinking for themselves, is important for any consideration of the content of education.

Sociologists should raise the wider question of the relation between school knowledge and common sense knowledge, of how, as Gramsci suggests, knowledge available to certain groups becomes 'school knowledge' or 'educational' and that available to others does not.

4.1.2. Weber

Weber, too, saw education largely in control terms. Thus even though he focused his analysis of society on bureaucracy and rationality, for him education served as a credential whereby an appropriate way of life would be prepared for. Weber is suggesting that curricula are defined in terms of the dominant group's ideas of the "educated man" (Young, ibid: 28).

4.1.3. Durkheim

His specific works on education, apart from the emphasis on the social nature of curricula and pedagogy, are not helpful, although it is important to remember that these books are collections of his lectures to student teachers and not systematic studies in sociology. The familiar criticisms are however applicable—firstly, his undifferentiated view of society which blurs the culture/social structure distinction and assumes them to be synonymous or congruent or functionally related; and secondly, an over emphasis on the value-component of education which he envisages as having a primarily integrative rather than stratifying and differentiating function.

It is Durkheim who was the first to set up the school culture in a social object. Resulting from lectures given over ten years, his posthumous book *L'évolution pédagogique*

en France analyses the educational system since its origins and considers that the educational ideals, as well as the programs in which they are conveyed, are to be linked to the whole social system and its changes: economic, social, and cultural (Durkheim, 1938). He presented the following definition of education:

> *Education is the influence exercised by the adult generations on those who are not ready for social life. Its object is to arouse and develop in the child a certain number of physical, intellectual and moral states which are demanded of him by both the political society as a whole and the specific milieu for which he is specifically destined.* (Durkheim,1956:71)

He contended that education is of prime importance to the operation of society. The prime function of education is socialization. This is the process which changes the human being into a social person.

4.2. Introduction to the theories

4.2.1. The Consensus Theory

Consensus theorists (Durkheim, for instance) point out that societies cannot survive unless their members share at least some common sets of perceptions, attitudes, and values. As their name implies, consensus theorists often stress the beliefs and interests that we share in common and give less attention to those beliefs and interests on which we differ.

Consensus theorists, like many other social theorists, see societies as being made up of "parts". These "parts" make up the social structure of each society. There is some disagreement as to whether these "parts" are best thought of as social institutions, patterns of social behaviour, social roles, or some other type of unit.

No society is completely static, and consensus theorists recognize that at least some social challenge is inevitable. For example, events may occur outside a particular society that impinge upon it and force it to change in response. Nevertheless, consensus theorists stress the forces that keep societies relatively stable rather than those that press for radical and abrupt change. They point to the persistence of such basic institutions as the family and to similarities in the values and behaviour of various generations as evidence of how slowly societies actually change.

Agreement on important perceptions, sentiments, values, and beliefs is another theme of consensus theory. Consensus theorists point out, however, that in any society, there is a shared set of abstract and complex assumptions about the world without which social life would be impossible. This consensus is achieved through socialization, and, in modern societies, the function of socialization is primarily performed by the family and the schools.

According to Durkheim, then, the primary function of education is to socialize new generations to overcome their egoism and to become productive members of society. Education contributes to the maintenance of the social system and the conservation of the national character.

4.2.2. The Conflict Theory

Whereas consensus theorists focus on functional integration, core values, and social stability, conflict theorists[3] focus on the coercive nature of society and the pervasiveness of social change. To the conflict theorist, power struggle is the main dynamic of social life. On the one hand, societies are held together by powerful social groups that coerce cooperation from the less powerful; on the other hand, societies are perpetually changing and in danger of disintegration because power struggles can result in new elite groups replacing the old. Conflict theorists view social systems as divided into dominant and subordinate groups. The relationship between these groups is exploitative, with the dominant group taking all or most of society's valuables for itself. The dominant group also imposes its own values and world view on its subordinates (Young, 1971).

The solution to all of these problems was offered by a system of mass education. Compulsory public schooling could accomplish several important goals, all in service to the state.

First, mass education could supply workers with the cognitive, intellectual, and technical skills required by the economy. Secondly, it could supply workers who had already learned the values and behaviour conducive to productive labour. Children could be taught punctuality, discipline, deference to authority, and acceptance of responsibility for their work.

[3] Conflict theory in education derives from Marx' social conflict theory between social classes.

The social relations of the school (the relationship between teacher and students, for example) could replicate the social relations of the workplace and ease the transition from the family to the world of work. Third, the schools could teach loyalty to the state and obedience to the law. The schools, then, could provide with a ready, willing, and able supply of workers. Bowles (1972) argues that it was for these reasons that a system of mass education was finally established in the United States.

Bowles takes his analysis one step further, however. He argues that the system of mass education not only supplies skilled and committed workers, but it also actually legitimizes existing inequalities in the social division of labour by suggesting that these inequalities are based on merit rather than on coercion. For example, the educational system appears to be open to all and to reward people on the basis of ability and willingness to work. Children are taught that they all have an equal chance of proving their worth, of receiving prestigious educational credentials, and of going on to positions of affluence and power in the larger society. However, Bowles argues that this is a myth. In fact, the educational system rewards children differentially on the basis of their class origins. Children from elite families become the elite of the next generation. Children of the poor remain poor. Consequently, the social division of labour is reproduced in each generation. Furthermore, because the system gives the appearance of openness and promotes this ideological myth, children believe that those in the dominant class are there because they deserve to be and that those who are poor are poor because they are lazy or uneducable. This effectively blinds most people to the oppressive nature of the system.

4.3. School as a social organization

This is a general concept which embraces a range of theoretical and methodological perspectives on the school as a complex social system which has a structure (a formal and informal organization, a system of management and administration, an allocation of roles with duties and rights, etc.) and a culture (one or more systems of values, norms and sanctions among its members).

The classic account of the school as a social system is that by Waller (1932), whose writings were devoted to school and its values: the distinctive culture of the school, the characteristics and social relations of the teachers, the relation between the school and its community.

Research on language choice and symbolic domination in schooling can be seen as one approach to one of the major sociological questions regarding education, namely the role of education in social and cultural reproduction. Sociologists and anthropologists have long argued that, while schooling is often supposed to be a major means of meritocratic, and hence democratic, access to social success, in fact its evaluation procedures favour the already successful. In other words, schooling simply reproduces existing social hierarchies, whether based on class, ethnicity, race, religion or gender.

Bourdieu and Passeron's (1970) pioneering work on this subject focussed attention on the process of social selection through education. Central to their argument is the notion that schools contribute to social and cultural reproduction because the knowledge they value is not,

as they claim, universal, but rather is the privileged property of the dominant classes. As a result, students who come to school already possessing that knowledge have a better chance of doing well at school than those who do not. Or, as asserted by Young (1971:27), *the school curriculum becomes just of one the mechanisms through which knowledge is* [*socially distributed*][4]. However, in order to fulfil this function effectively, it is crucial that it be masked; that is, all participants must accept the basic, albeit false, assumption, that schools are really meritocratic. Bourdieu and Passeron (1977) term *symbolic domination* or the ability of dominant classes to convince themselves and others that the existing social hierarchy is thus justified on the basis of inherent properties of people or knowledge.

4.4. Equality of opportunity

The concept of equality of opportunity has been spreading through all post-war educational history. This dominated the educational debate until the end of the 1970s, as did the concept elsewhere. Its implications were far reaching. Preschool education would allegedly start the culturally and socially deprived off on the same footing as their more fortunate fellows. Secondary education for all has become a reality. Although by 1980, in the developed world, this had largely been achieved, the developing nations had to be satisfied with the goal of universal primary education: this was unfortunately not achievable. In 1987, the world population topped 5,000 billions for the first time; this was greatly significant for education. It meant that the majority of children would receive a fully primary education, let

[4] In italics in the text.

alone secondary education, before well into the next millennium. Equity, in a global context, was therefore very problematic (Hall, 1994).

In the West, however, the comfortable assertion of sociologists, such as Schelsky (cited by Hall, 1994: 1062), in the 1960s that the school was the main distributor of life chances—a powerful argument particularly for those committed to a comprehensive secondary school—was modified by the Coleman Report[5] which showed that variance in school attainment arose more from causes external to the school. However, confidence was further shaken by the publication of Jencks' et al *Inequality* (1972), which demonstrated that equality was nowhere within reach: resources available differed from school to school, as did the quantity and quality of what was offered, and cognitive skills differed between children—a regrettable oversight of nature.

4.5. The reproduction Theory

During the 1970s, radical educational theorists drew attention to the apparent failure of liberal educational reform to bring about structural changes in society which would produce more equitable distributions of wealth and power.

Reproduction theory (Bourdieu & Passeron) arose in response to the failure of mass systems of education in Europe to achieve greater social equality. Previously the failure of

[5] Coleman Report: It collected a vast amount of information on students and schools that permitted, indeed provoked, a veritable flood of reanalysis, replication and critique. In one bold stroke, it challenged the methodological and conceptual assumptions that had been prevalent in education for an age. (Heyns, 1986: 304)

children from lower status background had been interpreted in terms of individual differences in intelligence, language, or motivation. Attention had been paid to the presenting characteristics of children, rather than to the operation of schools as institutions. With the reproduction theory, the focus shifted to the teaching relationship, the use of language, and the influence of implicit models of “good” and “bad” pupils.

While recognizing the importance of economic factors connected with class position— income, living conditions, resources for study, time and physical constraints — Bourdieu and Passeron argue that cultural differences are more important. In *The Inheritors* (1964, 1979 for the English version), the authors identify two major ways in which educational opportunities were constrained or enhanced by cultural factors linked to social class.

To examine the importance of language as a source of cultural advantage, Bourdieu and his colleagues studied the teaching relationship in French higher education and in particular the efficiency of communication between teachers and students in faculties of arts. The code of communication was rhetorical. As such it favoured young people from upper middle-class.

The cultivation of a particular disposition to learn is central to Bourdieu and Passeron’s arguments about the social origin of educational inequality. Language training is the core of the family’s pedagogical work, and the type of language patterns laid down by the family determine how far away in cultural terms a child will be from school, or how close. Thus, for Bourdieu and Passeron (1977: 73):

> *Language is not simply an instrument of communication: it also provides, together with a richer or poorer vocabulary, a*

> *more or less complex system of categories, so that the capacity to decipher and manipulate complex structures, whether logical or aesthetic, depends partly on the language transmitted by the family.*

The language facility of children brought up in well-educated homes represents part of their *cultural capital.* Cultural Capital is progressively translated into scholastic capital—marks, school record, qualifications, prizes, —and scholastic capital controls access to the most profitable parts of the curriculum in school and the most prestigious institutions of higher education.

The translation of cultural capital to social capital could not occur except through the medium of teacher judgement. Again the social and institutional contexts need to be taken into account to appreciate the role of teachers in translating cultural capital into academic success. The argument, in Bourdieu and Passeron, is that:

> *[B]ecause learning is an irreversible process, the habitus acquired within the family forms the basis of the reception and assimilation of the classroom message, and the habitus acquired conditions the level of reception and degree of assimilation of the message produced and diffused by the culture industry, and more generally, of any intellectual or semi-intellectual message*. (1977:43-44)

This is why the *petite bourgeoisie, the transitional class* (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1979: 23), is the stratum most attached to scholastic values, because the educational system

promises to answer all their aspirations by combining the values of social success with the values of cultural prestige.

In the 1960s, among the prominent explanations offered for the skewed representation of certain groups among those doing well, or, conversely, doing poorly, at school, the argument that the problem was due to cognitive, social and linguistic deficit among unsuccessful student populations *(*Bereiter & Engelman, 1966; Jensen, 1969) was particularly influential. Bernstein is a sociologist whose research was prominent in this area. It is not at all clear that Bernstein intended himself the deficit hypothesis, at least in its strongest forms, but some of his proposals were interpreted in that direction. Bernstein wrote that two kinds of codes could be distinguished: *elaborated code* and *restricted code* (Bernstein, 1972, 1975). Restricted code is used by everyone, but some children acquire also the elaborated code, which Bernstein saw as essential for success in school. He indicated that the working-class child was likely to be limited to the restricted code, while the middle-class child would also have the elaborated code, but he later modified this, referring to the codes as sociolinguistic rather than linguistic.

Bourdieu and Bernstein have clearly been reciprocally influenced by each other's work (Bernstein, 1975: 116-145; Bourdieu and Passeron 1977: 146). Bourdieu and Passeron, referring to the seminal work of Bernstein (1971), emphasize that the early years of school are crucial. For Bourdieu (1966: 329-330),

> [*O]f all the cultural obstacles, those which arise from the language spoken at home are without doubt the most serious and the most insidious, especially during the first years of schooling,*

when comprehension and manipulation of words are the focus of teacher judgement.

Reproduction theory arose as the first efforts in the post-war era to democratize secondary education were shown to be failing. Much contemporary research, including the early work of Bernstein (1971), sought to explain this by documenting cultural deficiencies in working-class children. With the writings of Bourdieu and Passeron, a major shift occurs from the *provider* perspective to the *client* perspective. From the point of view of the families and children seeking to access secondary education, the school's implicit expectations on language training in the home, on scholastic orientation, and on cultural capital amount to a *culturally arbitrary system* which inevitably disadvantages them.

In Bernstein's view (1971), in order to understand the social system, how it persists and changes in the course of the transmission of a culture from one generation to another, you have to understand the key role that language plays in this. He approaches this through the role that language plays in the socialization process; he then moves towards a much more general social theory of cultural transmission and the maintenance of the social system, still with the language playing a key role. Bernstein's and Bourdieu and Passeron's works sum up theory of the social system with language embedded to it.

5. Educational Linguistics and Second /Foreign Language Learning

Explicit consideration of the role of language in institutionalised education is relatively a recent phenomenon. Only in the last third of the twentieth century, centred on newly professional teacher educators for mother-tongue or foreign language teachers, has there been systematic interest of the role of language in classrooms in schools or colleges. This period has coincided with major developments in linguistic and educational research, but work on the central role of teachers as educational linguists (i.e. as conscious analysts of linguistic processes, both their own and others') has scarcely begun.

The formal tradition of language in education derives from the teaching of classical languages, emphasizing literacy, translation, a canon of approved literary texts, and grammatical instruction. Outside formal education, more naturalistic methods for effective development of foreign language skills co-existed, while the democratisation of schooling led to an increasing role of mother-tongue education. As primary education expanded, basic courses developed to train teachers, and language study began to respond to the impact of psychological and sociological research as these disciplines established themselves through the 20th century. Thus Piaget's and Vygotsky's work underlay notions of child development and socialisation (van Lier, 1997).

As education systems on western models spread around the world, debates about the appropriate content for teacher education proliferated. In Britain, around the 60s, a consensus rose that in addition to subject knowledge and pedagogy required for the teaching of the

subject, teachers had to have an understanding of philosophy, psychology and sociology of education. The intellectual boundaries have been drawn without linguistics, first. But through Fries' (1952) link of structural linguistics to audio-lingual procedures in foreign language learning, and Halliday's establishment of the *Linguistics and English Teaching Project in Britain* (1964-70), the theoretical statements and teaching materials were produced (van Lier, *ibid.*).

5.1. Early developments

Linguistic theory and research have always had an influence on language teaching to varying degrees. Our review will discuss how different types of linguistic theory—structural, generative, and functional linguistics—have influenced language teaching.

The period when linguistics had the strongest influence on second/foreign language teaching was the 1950's and the 1960's, when the audio-lingual approach, which is based on structural linguistics (and behaviourist psychology), was the most influential teaching method. Based on the structural linguistic tenet that *languages can differ without limit* (Shirai, 1997: 1) and the behaviourist learning theory of habit formation, second language learning was considered to be essentially creating a new habit (the target language) by suppressing the old habit (the mother-tongue). Learning difficulty, therefore, was believed to stem mainly from the difference between the first language (L1) and the second (L2) or foreign language (FL). The *Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis* (Lado, 1957) was a major tool in this approach: it was thought that by comparing the learner's L1 and the target language, the areas of difficulty could be predicted, which in turn could make the teaching of linguistic structure more

efficient. Techniques emphasized in the audio-lingual approach were structural oral drills which aimed at having learners acquire the structural properties of the target language. By means of oral drills such as substitution, conversion, and mimicry memorization, learners were expected to develop the habits of L2 structure, and at the same time, overcome interference from habits from L1 (ibid.).

Although the audio-lingual method continued to be in vogue in the 1960's, in the field of linguistics Chomsky's transformational generative grammar had begun to change the scene. Structural linguistics as well as behaviourist psychology had focused only on the analysis of "observable behaviour", claiming that postulating non-observable constructs was unscientific (Shirai, *op.cit:*3). Chomsky's transformational generative grammar, however, not only proposed a more adequate model of description by using non-observable constructs such as *Deep Structure Transformations* but it also addressed deeper questions, such as why language has the form it has, and how humans acquire it. During the 60s, Chomsky's grammar gained the status of orthodoxy in theoretical linguistics (Newmeyer, 1986). It was also instrumental in the fall of behaviourist psychology, and the rise of cognitive psychology, which is more mentalistic (items of knowledge do not exist except in the mind).

With the demise of structural linguistics and behaviourist psychology, Audio-lingualism lost its theoretical backbone. Furthermore, various empirical studies which tested the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis did not support it. In addition, it was shown that not all errors are the result of creative processes of hypothesis testing (intra-lingual errors, Richards, 1971 [1974]). Losing both its theoretical and empirical validity, Audio-lingualism lost its legitimacy by the late 1960's.

5.2. Major contributions

Unlike structural linguistics, Chomsky's generative theory of language did not have much to say about second language teaching (Chomsky, 1966). Generative linguistics has therefore not influenced teaching methodology directly. However, it did influence second language teaching indirectly through the work of second language acquisition researchers inspired by the spirit of generative linguistics. At the same time, there were also other theoretical frameworks of linguistics, namely those of a more social and functional orientation, that influenced second language teaching as well as research on second language acquisition.

Currently, there are two schools of communicative approaches that are considered to be good sources of second language teaching: the Input Model (e.g. the natural approach) and the Input–Interaction Model (e.g. Communicative Language Teaching) (Shirai, 1997:2).

Krashen is the most well-known proponent of input (i.e., comprehension-based) models of L2 teaching. Based on his own synthesis of second language acquisition (SLA) research, he postulated that second language acquisition occurs when the learner comprehends the language input in a low-anxiety, high-motivation situation, and proposed that the teacher's role is to provide students with just such an environment in the classroom. He also claimed that conscious grammar teaching/learning is effective only in monitoring (i.e. checking)

grammatical correctness, not in the acquisition of L2 *per se* (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). Krashen's theory appears to be based on three major areas of research:

1. Chomsky's generative linguistics,
2. Research on the effectiveness of different L2 teaching methods, and
3. Research on affective factors (anxiety, motivation, personality).

First, Krashen borrowed Chomsky's notion of the Language Acquisition Device (LAD), though only at a metaphorical level (Schachter, 1997). He claimed that given linguistic input is comprehensible; the LAD of L2 learners will work just like that of children acquiring L1. Second, Krashen's theory is based heavily on morpheme acquisition order, which claims that it is a universal order that cannot be altered by instruction. These morpheme studies are strongly influenced by generative linguistics. As we said earlier, the predominant view of the 1950's and the 1960's was that learners' errors result mostly from L1 interference. But Chomsky, in invalidating behaviourist psychology and structural linguistics, emphasized instead the universal aspect of language and language acquisition. Inspired by Chomsky's ideas, second language researchers began to investigate the learner's acquisition process. Studies on morpheme acquisition point to some universal tendencies in second language acquisition, which in turn inspired Krashen's theory of second language acquisition (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982). It should be noted, however, that Krashen's theory on second language acquisition has been questioned by other researchers (McLaughlin, 1987; Gregg, 1984), even though his teaching method is regarded as effective.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT, sometimes called the Communicative Approach), on the other hand, developed independently from Krashen's Natural Approach. It originated in a project undertaken by the Council of Europe, whose primary goal was to construct a teaching methodology to teach foreign languages to meet the increasing need for communication in a second language in the rapidly internationalizing Europe—the Threshold Level (van Ek & Alexander[6], 1975). The outcome was the Notional Functional Syllabus, which emphasized the teaching of communicative functions of language (e.g., requesting, apologizing, disagreeing) rather than of linguistic structures. To teach communicative abilities using this syllabus, a number of teaching principles/techniques (e.g., information-gap activities, use of authentic language) were proposed which have now grown into the present day CLT.

CLT has its theoretical underpinnings in Speech Act Theory, Functional Grammar and sociolinguistics (Munby, 1978). Speech Act Theory was developed by philosophers such as Austin and Searle. Austin (1962) pointed out that when people say something, they are not only uttering the sentence, but are also engaged in some pragmatic act such as requesting, warning, promising, instructing, etc. and he developed a theory of how such *speech acts* are performed. These led to the functions used in CLT.

Systemic Functional Grammar (Halliday, 1978) is also radically different from Chomskyan formal linguistics. Whereas Chomsky emphasizes the concept of modularity of syntax from semantics or focus on the study of *competence* (i.e. abstract knowledge

[6] Alexander, L.G. would be known in Algeria for his textbooks used by secondary school pupils. The textbooks will be dealt with in Chapter Five.

representation in the idealised native speaker's mind) and disregards *performance* (i.e. actual use of language), Halliday argues that the study of functions of language is important in itself, and that the nature of language should be explained in functional terms. Naturally, Halliday's ideas are quite compatible with the needs of CLT, whose focus is to help learners acquire the ability to use a second language in a communicative setting. Halliday's theoretical constructs, including the interpersonal functions of language, were thus translated and used in actual L2 teaching syllabuses, and were also used as important constructs in language testing (Bachman, 1990).

Hymes (1972) proposed the notion of Communicative Competence which is generally considered today as the L2 ability to be attained in CLT. Coming from a background of sociolinguistics which investigates language in actual use, Hymes considered Chomsky's notion of linguistic competence too narrow, and asserted that a theory of language competence should include knowledge concerning the rules of language use, such as rules about social appropriateness. The notion of communicative competence was further refined and expanded by Canale and Swain (1980) in relation to second language teaching and testing, and their paper has since been a reference point for any discussion of Communicative Competence.

6. Learner's Autonomy

A conception of language learning is an essential component of a language theory. Empirical research has developed concepts about language learning and has tried to recognize possible relationships between learning outcomes, the learning process, learner characteristics, and the conditions for learning, i.e. the social and linguistic context in which learning occurs.

Language education research moved since the 1960s from method studies to learner-centered work. Attempts have been made by a few investigators to find out how learners cope with the difficulties that are presented by language learning. Efforts were made to study the strategies and techniques of learners. Rubin (1975), the well-known sociolinguist, for example, produced inventories of learning strategies. On the basis of observation she came out with a provisional list of seven learning strategies. She defined strategies as techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire second language knowledge. Later Stern (1975, in Stern, 1983) produced a list of ten strategies: *planning, active, empathic, formal, experimental, semantic, practice, communication, monitoring, and internalization, strategies*. These strategies were used in a research carried out by Naiman et al (1978) on some outstanding language learners in Canada. The study found out that

> [G]*ood language learners take advantage of potentially useful learning situations, and if necessary create them. They develop learning techniques and strategies appropriate to their individual needs.* (Naiman *et al*: 25, quoted by Stern, 1983:406)

The so-called "good language learner" studies of the 1970s (notably Naiman et al., 1978) laid the foundations for this research by investigating some of the qualities that characterize successful language learners. These learners are characterized above all by strategies for active involvement: for example, they repeat silently to themselves what the teacher or other students say; they think out their own answer to questions which the teacher puts to other students; they pay close attention to the meaning of the language they are

practicing; and they seek opportunities to use the language outside class, for example by reading or seeking personal contacts.

6.1. Learner's Strategies

One of the ways learners become actively involved in controlling their own learning is by using strategies. Learner strategies are the thoughts and behaviors that learners use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain information (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Or there are, according to Oxford (1990:235), *operations used by the learner to aid acquisition, storage, or retrieval of information.*

Subsequent research (McDonough, 1999, citing Chamot, 1987) has confirmed that successful learners generally use a greater number of active learning strategies. It has identified strategies which fall into three broad categories: (1) metacognitive strategies (e.g., which involve an attempt to regulate learning through planning, monitoring and evaluating), (2) cognitive strategies (e.g., which involve analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials; and (3) socio-affective strategies (e.g., social/affective, which concern ways in which learners interact with other users of the L2). A practical aim of this research is to identify in more detail the strategies which lead to more successful learning, so that these strategies can be introduced to less successful learners. It is generally accepted, however, that the specific strategies which best suit one learner will not necessarily be those that best suit another learner. An essential point to highlight is that what seems to characterize successful

learners above all is the flexible use of learning strategies. Good language learners have a range of strategies at their disposal and select which strategies to use in accordance with both their long-term goals for learning the L2 and the particular task at hand.

6.2. The Learner's Role

During the past two decades, the active role of the learner in the language learning process has been clearly acknowledged. The major emphasis in research on the role of the learner is the work that has been done on learner strategies. As we saw previously, the interest in leaner strategy was initiated in the 1970s and the 1980s out of a communicative perspective on language teaching methods which emphasized the involvement of the learner in the process. The concepts of learner autonomy were central ones in discussion of communicative language learning.

The importance of self-directed techniques emerged from the work of Knowles (1975) in the area of education and the identification of the need for ongoing learning to prepare adults for the social and technical changes in contemporary society. Knowles identifies the ability to go on learning as central to the adult learning experience and quantifies the success of the adult educator as one who has left students with the ability to pursue their own learning. The ability to go on individually with the learning process necessarily implies a different role for the learner. The application of this general idea to language learning was made fully explicit in Henri Holec's *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning* (1979). Here learner autonomy, understood as the learner's capacity to plan, monitor and evaluate his or her own learning, comes to be seen as a prerequisite for the success of a needs-based approach to

language learning for communication. Self-assessment (*internal evaluation*) is fundamental to the process of autonomous learning:

> *It is one of the stages of learning, that during which the learner evaluates the attainments he has lately made as compared with what he was aiming at so that, in the first place, he can be certain that he really has acquired something – and the learning process is not at an end until this evaluation, whether positive or negative, has been carried out – and in the second place so that he can plan his subsequent learning.* (Holec, 1979: 21, cited by Little, 2006: 176)

More research has been done on learner autonomy and independence (Holec, 1981; Benson, 2001) and its importance to a successful learning process. Wenden (1991) has particularly promoted the notion of autonomy in relation to language learning.

For a definition of autonomy, we might quote Holec (1981: 3) who describes it as *'the ability to take charge of one's learning'*. Little (1996: 4) expands it to say that it is

> *essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning—a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making, and independent action*.

It is not something done to learners; therefore, it is far from being another teaching method (ibid.). This line of reasoning operates within, and is congruent with, the theory of constructivism.

6.3. Learner Autonomy and the Psychology of Learning

Positivism, which reigned supreme in the first half of the twentieth century, as we saw earlier in this chapter, is premised upon the assumption that knowledge reflects objective reality. Therefore, if teachers can be said to hold this "*objective reality*," learning can only *'consist in the transmission of knowledge from one individual to another'* (Benson & Voller, 1997: 20).

Constructivism is an elusive concept and, within applied linguistics, is strongly associated with Halliday (1978, cited in Benson & Voller, 1997: 21). In contrast to positivism, constructivism posits the view that, rather than internalizing or discovering objective knowledge (whatever that might mean), individuals reorganize and restructure their experience. Language learning does not involve internalizing sets of rules, structures and forms; each learner brings his/her own experience and world knowledge to bear on the target language or task at hand. Apparently, constructivism supports, and extends to cover psychological versions of autonomy that relate to learners' behavior, attitudes, motivation, and self-concept (Benson & Voller, 1997: 23). As a result, constructivist approaches encourage and promote self-directed learning as a necessary condition for learner autonomy. The constructivist premises stipulate that students should be agents who manufacture rather than receive knowledge.

On a general note, the term autonomy has come to be used in at least five ways (Benson & Voller, 1997: 2):

- for situations in which learners study entirely on their own;
- for a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning;
- for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education;
- for the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning;
- for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

It should be emphasized that autonomy requires, rather than eliminates teacher's intervention. Little (2007) emphasizes that both the ability to learn and the ability to teach are crucial to the success of the autonomous learning process. The teacher's role is indispensable in the development of language learner autonomy.

6.4. Advantages

In general, autonomous learners are more highly motivated than non-autonomous learners. In other words, autonomy leads to better, more effective work. The literature has provided evidence that learning autonomy increases motivation and consequently increases learning effectiveness. Knowles (1975), for instance, reported that

> *there is convincing evidence that people who take the initiative in learning (proactive learners) learn things and learn better than do people who sit at the feet of teachers, passively waiting to be taught (reactive learners). They enter into learning more purposefully and with great motivation,* (Knowles, 1975: 14).

As suggested by Littlewood (2000: 33) the main focus will be on what the learner can do in order to attain a considerable degree of autonomy, even though the success of the learner is, to a great extent, determined by the educational system and the requisite role of the teacher. For students, the ability to behave autonomously is dependent upon their teacher creating a classroom culture where autonomy is accepted. For teachers, this acceptance of autonomy would come from the institution. For both, this acceptance is really the transfer of power—the loss of power and control from teachers / institutions.

6.5. Learner's Autonomy in the Local Context

Discussion of learner autonomy has not been entirely positive. Some critics have claimed that the very idea of autonomy is part of the Western cultural tradition and thus by definition alien to non-Western learners (Jones, 1995). An extension of this argument claims that the methods used to foster the development of learner autonomy are likewise alien to non-Western pedagogical traditions. As for Algeria, Miliani (1991) questions in his paper on self-access learning, whether an educational system that is known for its conservatism could lead to learner's autonomy, given that both teachers and students are used to certain roles in the classroom. Teachers have usually a domineering role and in order to create environments which will develop learner's emancipation, they have to move towards a more tolerant role of counselors and guides. Miliani is rightly cautious about teachers' new role: they have to cater for the participative role of the learners, and be themselves convinced. Besides, the Algerian

reform of the educational system[7] (2001) has already predicted changes in curricula and methodologies and advocates the autonomy of the learners together with the shift from a classroom-centered to a learner-centered approach.

7. ICT and Language Learning

The tradition of using technology-based material in language teaching goes back to the days of early language laboratories and the use of audio material for text comprehension, and recording functions for pronunciation practices. Grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods, grounded on behaviorism, went hand in hand with programmed instruction. Students were able to repeat drills with the seemingly tireless and patient laboratory-as-tutor, and instruction appeared to be at an upmost efficiency. Many instructors felt that repeated exposures to certain practices and structures were beneficial to students.

Thus there has been a fertile ground for more varied ways of technology-supported, pedagogical arrangements in foreign language teaching along with the development of technology.

For the last twenty years language learning has seen the introduction and integration of new information and communication technologies (ICT). The integration of the personal computer and information technology to language learning is becoming increasingly commonplace in many institutions. Moreover, the promotion of student self-directed and

[7] According to the works of a national commission, called Commission Nationale de la Réforme pour l'Evaluation du Système Educatif (CNRSE).Presidential Decree N° 2000-101of May 9th, 2000, on the creation of a National Commission of the Reform of the Educational System. (Article 12) Official Journal.

This will be more dealt with in the following chapters.

metacognitive learning is integral in allowing students to become increasingly aware of their own abilities to remember, learn, and solve problems and more strategic and reflective in their learning, thinking, and problem solving (Mishan, 2004).

Whatever name it may take, be it CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning) or WELL (Web-Enhanced Language Learning), the main objective of the program is to *improve the learning capacity of those who are being taught a language through computerized means* (Cameron, 1999: 2, cited by Gruba, 2004: 623). Gruba notes that the definition focuses more on language learning than language teaching while at the same time the use of the computer forces the reconsideration of the traditional roles: learners, teachers and researchers have each to adapt to the demands and opportunities offered by a range of new technologies. With the advent of computers and the Internet, learners are increasingly called upon to design and execute their own computer-based activities. New approaches to language learning are emerging as Gruba (2004: 623) states:

> *Socio-collaborative approaches to teaching and learning are replacing communicative ones, and debates about pedagogy now center on aspects of learner autonomy, collaborative project design, and appropriate assessment practices*.

Chapelle (2001, cited by Gruba, 2004) notes that the Internet usage prompted not only a much greater access to resources, but also provided the motivation for developers to create sophisticated materials that would hopefully attract large audiences. Classroom-based CALL activities could include learner communities throughout the world through email, virtual

environments, and shared domains. Pedagogical discussions of CALL have thus shifted to exploration of such communities and their use of collaborative activities but research in this era was critiqued for its absence of a focused agenda (Chapelle, 1997, cited by Gruba, 2004).

The Internet as a resource can enrich and expand language instruction. There are numerous reasons in favor of integrating the Internet into a language curriculum. Increasingly, Internet access to foreign newspapers, specialized websites, and other forms of media has shifted a view of materials as authentic discourse (Chambers et al, 2004). Specifically because they help make available such a wide range of authentic materials, Kramsch and Anderson (1999: 31) write that *computers seem to realize the dream of every language teacher – to bring the language and culture as close and as authentically as possible to students in the classroom*. (Quoted in Gruba, 2004: 631).

We live in a world where population mobility and technological change are rapidly transforming social, economic, and educational realities. The fact that cross-cultural and cross-linguistic contact is at an all-time high in human history has resulted in increased demands on the education systems in many countries. Intercultural education is seen as necessary for both the social purpose of promoting tolerance and cooperation within and between societies, and for the economic purpose of facilitating business in a global economy. Technological change and the information explosion have also resulted in demands that schools promote higher levels of conventional literacy (reading and writing skills) together with expertise in new forms of literacy (e.g. computer literacy, media literacy) that are emerging in unpredictable ways (Gruba, 2004).

During this period also, technological change has escalated and the phenomenon of “globalization” has gathered momentum. As a result, schools are expected to prepare students for a new economy that is technologically sophisticated and operating in the global arena. Just as technology has infiltrated virtually every sphere of human endeavor, access to technology has increased in schools, albeit unevenly across ethno-cultural and income groups. In North America, many politicians and promoters of privatized schooling see computers and the Internet as a means of increasing the productivity and cost effectiveness of schools. Others are much more skeptical, pointing to the fact that computer technology appears to have had little overall impact in improving academic achievement (Gruba, 2004).

Clearly, ICT permits powerful access to informational and people resources as documented in a number of case studies of sister class projects around the world (Cummins, 2002). However, these projects are very much the exception rather than the rule in education systems. A major reason is that such projects do not fit easily within rigid centrally-imposed curricula where the textbook dominates teacher-student interaction and high-stakes testing ensures that teachers do not stray off-task. The focus on raising test scores has had more impact on low-performing schools, usually in low-income areas, than on more affluent schools. Increasingly, (in the United States, for example) behaviorist drill-and-practice pedagogy dominates in these schools with teachers teaching directly to what they believe will be on the test. Not surprisingly, in these contexts computers are used primarily to transmit information and skills in very much the same way that paper-and-pencil worksheets have been used for generations. By contrast, in affluent areas there is more likelihood that ICT will be used in more powerful and creative ways.

In summary, although ICT incorporates significant potential to boost academic achievement dramatically among underachieving students, this potential remains unrealized for a number of reasons including:

- lack of teacher preparation to use computers;
- lack of integration of computer technology with instructional approaches to teach content standards (Cummins, 2002).

In Algeria, ICT technologies and distance learning are still in their infancy. It is mainly one of the priorities of institutions which plan their installation in the near future. In Constantine, for instance, a “Centre for Distance Learning”, is under its way, though not with the prime objective of enhancing learning. The centre’s major albeit provisional role would consist in serving as a palliative in order to contain the overcrowding classes in the university.

But we believe in the existence of human universals, and in particular we believe that human beings have a tendency to strive after autonomy within the limits imposed by their inescapable interdependence. We believe that in seeking to foster the development of learner autonomy in foreign language classrooms, we are merely responding to one of the defining characteristics of humanity (Little, 2006).

Conclusion

When we study historically the ways in which education and thus educational systems came to be shaped and developed, we realize that they depend on multiple factors:

religion, political organizations, the degree of science development, etc.; if we remove them from these historical causes, they become incomprehensible.

Education is not an inviolable and universal reality which, identical everywhere, would produce the same effects. An educational system is a social and historical reality, closely linked to national, economic, social, political and cultural conditions in which it developed and is often keeping on transformations. An educational system is neither autonomous nor universal. Each society determines its ideal which education achieves, as asserted by Durkheim (1922:9):

> *Ainsi, c'est la société, dans son ensemble, et chaque milieu social particulier, qui déterminent cet idéal que l'éducation réalise.*

Rowlinson (1994:7) argues that:

> *What is taught and how it is taught is a product of [the ideas of the time], as well as of the conditions in which it is to be taught. It is society that determines the content of education, in the light of the dominant philosophy and (more recently) scientific concept. Many, perhaps most, new approaches are rediscoveries of old methods neglected and left in the shade, now re-illuminated by the light of social need. Language teaching, like all other teaching, reflects the temper of the times.*

Differences in students' performance at school have long been an important topic in the sociology of education. Sociologists of education compare students' outcomes on the basis of curriculum and pedagogy. On this basis, we put forward our hypotheses, as to whether university and high school curricula are in adequacy and whether school textbooks meet students' requirements.

Rowlinson's argument is enlightening in the sense that it is society that establishes the content of education: the forthcoming chapter, entitled "The Algerian University", would attempt to give the personality of the Algerian education. It will examine the historical, social, and political contexts in which the Algerian university developed, the transformations it has undergone, and the states it has reached presently.

CHAPTER TWO

THE ALGERIAN UNIVERSITY

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Introduction

The original function of universities should be borne in mind. In Europe, the first universities (such as the Sorbonne and Oxford) appeared in the middle Ages. The first universities in the Arabo-Islamic world were Al Qaraouiyine University in Fes (Morocco) in 859 and Al Azhar University in Cairo (Egypt) in 970. Originally, they were places in which scholars should congregate and spread their message; they were not meant for students. This initial function is still strongly present. In fact, the career prospects for academics depend exclusively on the research they produce: no account whatsoever is taken of their ability as teachers or their competence in transmitting skills. At a later stage, universities developed into places where advanced knowledge was disseminated. It is only recently, that they have become the almost systematic next stop for baccalaureate-holders, who often lack the motivation and aptitude for higher studies and whose sole concern ─and a perfectly justified one at that─ is to get the training that offers the best possible guarantee of employment upon completion of the course. Thus, in addition to their original role of producing and disseminating advanced knowledge, universities today are being called upon to fulfil a new function, namely that of a correspondence between the output of the higher education system and employments requirements.

1. The role of the educational system in Algeria

The central role played by the education system in Algerian society has been strengthened in the last thirty years. Far from being only a political institution, detached from

people's lives, school plays a large part in personal lives and family life across the whole spectrum of social backgrounds. Thus, it is able to implant its values and constraints deep into the hearts and minds of people. Over these years, pupils and their parents have increasingly become focused on one specific function of the education system. This function has to do with securing a job and, whenever possible, securing a higher social position than that enjoyed by one's parent. This was not one of the concerns of the founders of the education system back in the 60's; they were primarily concerned with the ideological and moral aspects of education, along with a school open to everyone. Thirty years ago, unemployment was almost absent. The emphasis then was on acquiring know-how. Nowadays, the emphasis is on securing a job through degrees. High levels of unemployment have upset priorities. Everyone now understands that school is the funnel one must inevitably go through in order to realize one's aspirations. From the point of view of families, even longer studies are not an end in themselves. Aiming to get the "Baccalaureate" and to go higher education is simply a means to access better jobs likely to lead to higher social status (profession, security, wage, etc.); studying is no longer an end in itself but a means to ensure social advancement or salvation.

Has education really been a lifeline for all those (boys and girls) who, over the past years, placed so much faith in it? What are the returns on investments made by both state and families— be they economic or psychological? In a nutshell, was it worthwhile and rational to invest so much in terms of public funds and family resources in training the next generation?

Asking those questions and giving them a high profile is equivalent to making a global evaluation of the educational system. The problems that beset schools are not educational problems per se. Schools are not institutions set apart from the rest of society. On the

contrary, they are at the heart of the social system. Everything that happens in society is instantly mirrored in schools ─ be it lay-offs, unemployment, uncontrolled expansion of towns and cities or factory closures. What happens in schools can only be explained by what happens in the wider world, in the economic and social systems.

All these questions would not be so exacerbated if, on leaving school, all youngsters were able to find a job corresponding to their aspirations. Schools have been given the task of ensuring that all the pupils get the necessary know-how and training to enable them get a job and find their place in society. The trouble is that many will end up on the dole or casual employment. Given that, it is very difficult to ask younsters to invest in their own studies. They have lost hope. Most of the problems affecting education system have their roots in the fact that people no longer believe the system can deliver. Young people have lost faith in the educational system. Most of them have seen for themselves that however much work and effort they put in, the rewards will not be on a par with the remuneration they are expecting. The educational system did not fulfill its promises: diplomas do not hold the looked for social efficiency and do not guarantee the places expected. With too few job opportunities on the horizon, the system is in danger of functioning in a kind of void and of focussing on internal problems. Solutions and remedies will be all the harder to find since they lie outside the education system itself. It is so particularly when we consider the university alone, without looking at school and the dreaded "Baccalaureate". With regard to the performance of the education system, although major efforts have been made, the Algerian education system has a long way to go to meet society’s legitimate demands. Success rates are too low: 24.6% in 1999/2000, 37.3% in 2004/2005 and 51.1% in 2005/2006 at the baccalaureate and 33.09% in

1999/2000 and 60.2 in 2005/2006 at the BEF[8]. Internal performance is also inadequate: a 12.2% of pupils repeating the grade in 1st/2nd grades of basic education, 26% in 6th/7th grades, 32.3% in 9th grade; a 7.7% drop-out rate in 6th/7th grades of basic education, 28.8% in 9th grade (figures for the 1998/1999 school year).

On the school drop-out rate point, Kadri (1992:348) gives a dramatic image of the percentage of success, saying: *chances to access higher education are 1% of pupils enrolled in their first grade at primary school*[9].

The stark competition for educational credentials and ultimately, employment, has led to two common educational outcomes: high rates of grade repetition and *shadow education* (Buchmann, 2002). Shadow education consists of non-formal, extra-curricular activities that aid pupils in preparing for national exams and improving their academic performance. It is no longer, at least in Algeria, a remedial role for low-performing pupils. This organizational feature of education provides cultural capital to some students and is utilized by families to advance their children's likelihood of educational success. This education often starts as early as the first year in high-school, the families thus consider that the earlier the better, pushing their children to prepare the exam during three years. This variable, which should be considered in the study of academic achievement, created new behaviours in the society. Schools are now proposing after-school tutorials for less advantaged pupils. For some years, Third Grade pupils leave school prematurely, in April, devoting the

[8] Brevet d'Enseignement Fondamental (Certificate obtained at the end of the Intermediate Cycle, enabling pupils to go to the Secondary Cycle)

[9] As a means of comparison, in Western Europe, about 2% of each age cohort went to the University at the end of the 19th century (Sultana, 1999:12).

remaining time before the exam to lessons in the shadow schools. Benghabrit-Remaoun (1998) carried out a fieldwork among secondary school pupils[10] on their relation with schoolwork; one of her question concerned the shadow school attendance, to which 31% of the pupils surveyed answered positively. Her results are displayed in the following table:

Streams	Sciences	Maths	Literature	Technology
Percentage	**39%**	**37%**	**21%**	**20%**

Table 1 : Pupils attending shadow schools (Adapted from Benghabrit-Remaoun (1998 :49)

Another question concerned the disciplines the pupils attended in the shadow schools:

Disciplines	Sciences	Maths	Literature	Technology
Philosophy	------	------	**44%**	------
Languages	------	------	**13%**	------
Maths	**43%**	**53%**	**23%**	**43%**
Physics	**43%**	**41%**	------	**21%**
Sciences	**12%**		------	------
Accountancy	------	------	------	**21%**

Table 2 : Disciplines attended in shadow schools (Adapted from Benghabrit-Remaoun (1998:49)

We note the high percentages of pupils enrolled in Mathematics and scientific disciplines.

[10] Her survey concerned six secondary schools in Oran.

Besides, new private schools are expanding throughout the country, gaining ground over public schools, though they are only attended by a minority. Finally, parents are not investing culturally only in their children, but financially, too. It explains the stress and anxiety experienced by pupils and their families. In every way, all these investments do not go on a par with the results.

2. Baccalaureate Examination Results

We studied the results of the baccalaureate starting from 1968-1969:

Year	BACCALAUREATE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION		
	Examination Candidates	Examination Passes	Pass Rate (%)
1968/69	3260	1988	**61**
1969/70	4890	2787	**57**
1970/71	8150	3667	**45**
1971/72	11736	5281	**45**
1972/73	14344	5163	**36**
1973/74	17930	7172	**40**
1974/75	20538	6572	**32**
1975/76	25754	11331	**44**
1976/77	29992	5398	**18**
1977/78	39597	9458	**24**
1978/79	51945	12617	**24**

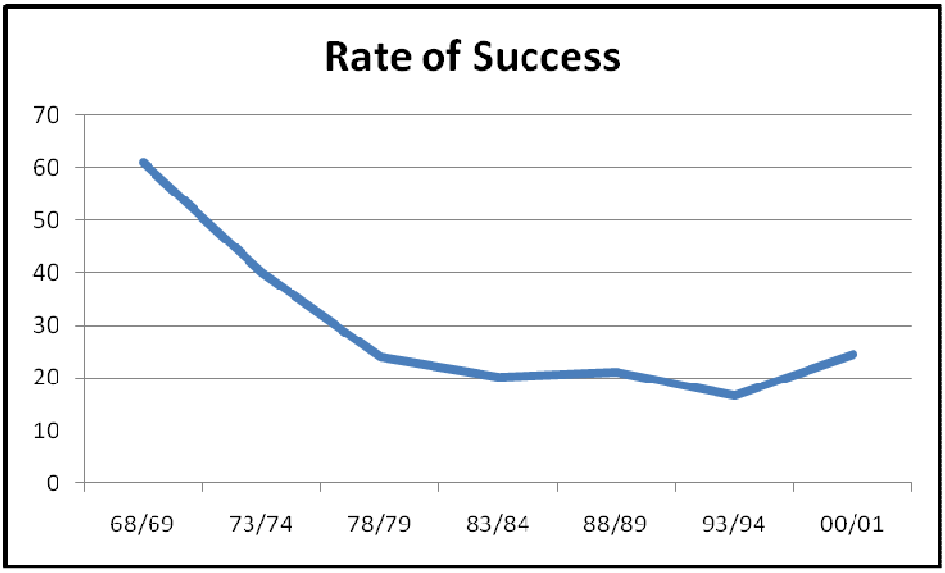
1979/80	75964	17197	**23**
1980/81	78517	16653	**21**
1981/82	76777	18586	**24**
1982/83	84767	17911	**21**
1983/84	104853	20963	**20**
1984/85	117060	29627	**25**
1985/86	125693	36874	**29**
1986/87	148220	34597	**23**
1987/88	183038	44870	**25**
1988/89	209801	44953	**21**
1989/90[11]	250000	52000	**21**
1990/91	335836	63988	**19.05**
1991/92	226013	51609	**22.83**
1992/93	317073	35085	**11.07**
1993/94	261946	43321	**16.54**
1994/95	252501	51114	**20.24**
1995/96	296313	71324	**24.07**
1996/97	293989	80916	**27.52**
1997/98	299340	71830	**24.00**
1998/99	309457	76520	**24.73**
1999/00	306968	99089	**32.28**
2000/01[12]	506739	123496	**24.37**

Table 3 : The Baccalaureate Rate of success. (Adapted from Kadri, 1992; Grandguillaume, 2004)

[11] The figures for the years 1968/69 to 1989/90 are Kadri's (1992).

[12] The figures for the years 1990/91 to 2000/01 are Grandguillaume's (2004).

To get a clearer idea of the decrease of the rates, we made a graph, representing the same results, starting with the year 1968/69 and we give here the results for every five years.



Graph 1 : Rate of success in the Baccalaureate exam.

As has been shown on the graph (Graph 1), the rate did not stop its spectacular slope since 1976/77. The very year President Boumediène called for a moratorium on arabization as a consequence of the disastrous results[13] and the declining standards.

What is difficult to define is the term *level or standards.* The idea of level is a creation of the scholar meritocratic ideology, exactly like the notion of passing and failing, and thus makes sense only within the school institution and its own criteria of selection. According to Williams (1976), standards have undergone different meanings through time, getting the

[13] It will be dealt with in Chapter 3.

general sense of an authoritative example of correctness and the prescription of certain levels of competence. The very idea of level is a *social organiser* (Baudelot & Establet, 1989) which function is to draw a pattern of society, to produce a leading elite, and to exclude the highest number. Is it, as it is stated by Goblot (1930:89), a barrier or a level? For Kadri (1992:327) it is a barrier and this is how he explains it:

> *This absolute decrease in the pass rate of Bac not only suggests a worsening in the level of the pupils, and not only appears as a clue of a limit put to the access to higher education by the manipulation of results of an exam which is going to function more and more in the representations of the different social classes, but also more as a barrier than a level.*[14]

The 1990 results prove that the baccalaureate has lost its pedagogical significance: out of 52000 successful candidates, 35000, i.e. 67.3%, were declared successful after reviewing their marks which ranged from 7 to 9 (ibid.: 327).

3. Access to university

Along with the drastic measures put upon this *barrier*, access to university will be regulated by means of restriction. In 1978/79, the first retrictions appear under the ministry of Rahal, called *Rahal measures*, where the enrolment in university is conditioned by the marks obtained in the main subjects, marks corresponding to the course of study chosen. Later, in

[14] The author's translation.

1983/84, access is regulated by competitive examinations (Medicine, Architecture, Computer Science) or entry tests, as in English. Then in 1989, enrollment becomes for all courses subordinate to the marks obtained at the Baccalaureate, and according to some quotas set for each course. From 1990 on, a new orientation appears in the form of a computerized card; students organize their wishes in hierarchy and following their marks (obtained in the baccalaureate exam), they are enrolled in such or such course. As for the English departement all these measures are quite tangible when we relate to the table showing the number of students per year.

3.1. Transformations in the Algerian University

The Algerian University has gone through transformations which are the outcomes of a twofold action:

a) A visible one: the system of higher education has been restructured by the 1971 Reform, deep change in its structures, the way it operates, and in its own philosophy. The reform of higher education will be articulated around major options among which: democratization, arabization, algerianisation, and scientific and technical orientation. From the country's declaration of independence, the algerianisation of the educational system in general and higher education in particular appeared to be a major concern of the Algerian authorities. The algerianisation supposed an intervention on the level of teaching programs, as to ensure their adaptation to the nations' requirements of executives. This resulted in a

policy aiming at a massive access of Algerians to the teaching posts in order to ensure the transition after the foreign co-operation. With the academic year 1962-1963, there were only 82 Algerians, especially assistants, among the university teachers, on a total of 298. The decisions taken in 1982 allowed the total algerianisation of the assistants and lecturers in 1987, medical sciences in 1988 and social sciences in 1989.

b) An invisible one: the society's transformation. It occurred as if the society decided, after an expectancy period, "to enter" university, appropriate it, and make it work according to its own logic.

The university went through six transformations:

1. Considerable increase of the enrolments: in 1954 there were 504 students, some thousands in 1964, 350 000 in 1998. The figures of student enrollment increased by thirteen times (Sultana, 1999). This real explosion which resembles a historical "revenge", as stated by Kadri (1992: 300) *entre le vide colonial*[15] *et le trop-plein national* is due to a twofold demand: the families' (better chance to get a job), and the country's (in need for managers). Kadri gives the following figures for the university during the pre-independence period:

[15] The proportion of students is: in 1953-54, Europeans: 1/ 22, Algerians 1/15341 (Kadri, 1992: 105).

Years / Series	1879/80 to 1908/09	1909/10 to 1911/12	1912/13 to 1914/15	Total
Mathematics	21	18	24	63
Philosophy	8	1	6	15
Total	29	19	30	78

Table 4 : Number of Baccalaureate Holders (Muslims[16]) Adapted from Kadri (1992: 108)

However, Kadri does not mention the number of students enrolled in the Koranic schools during the pre-independence period and even the pre-colonialism period. Table 5 displays the number of students and teachers in Koranic school (Siari-Tengour, 1998: 89), though the years and levels are different from Kadri's table (cf. table 4).

Years	Schools	Teachers	Students
1933	2542	2518	36 305
1935	2833	2878	43 445
1937	3088	3710	52 787

[16] Algerian identity was denied so the French colonialism referred to Algerians (whose religion was Islam) as French Muslims.

1938	3148	3189	50 293

Table 5 : Number of students in Koranic schools (Siari-Tengour, 1998: 89)

According to Sultana (1999: 10), education fared worse under occupation than before it: such is the case of Algeria where, from the start of French dominion in 1830 till independence in 1962, the literacy rate actually declined. However, Sultana does not provide a table showing the literacy rate before colonization to justify the use of the comparative 'worse'. Colonna (1975) also states that when the French arrived to "civilize" Algerians *the literacy rate in urban Algeria was 40%.When the French left the literacy rate among Algerians was 10-15%* (Colonna, 1975: 142).

As for university level, we know students attended universities (called Medersas, which exclusively concentrated on legal and religious studies, becoming in effect colleges of religious law), but regretfully we do not have their figures.

Still with the expansion of schools and pupils after independence, Kadri's view is shared by Vermeren (1999) for whom the educational system moved in less than two decades

(from the 1960s to the 1980s) from a situation of educational *Malthusianism*[17] (as in France in the 19th century) to a situation of school expansion (as in France in the 1970s).

This demographic explosion would lead to important problems, as we shall see later on.

The following transformations next to the considerable increase of enrolment are:

2. Extension of the university network: from one university (Algiers) and two university centres in 1962 (Constantine and Oran), in 2002, their number reached fifty five centres (of which 13 universities), sixteen high schools and higher educational establishments: giving 55 higher educational establishments covering thirty-seven university towns (Djeflat, 1992).

3. Constitution of the Algerian teaching staff: from 82 in 1962 to 14581 in 1997. The algerianisation of teachers is close to 100%, though the number of professors is still low (Djeflat, ibid.).

4. Female representation: the number of women has never stopped rising, both as students and as teachers. The proportion of the female element compared to the whole of the registered students went from 22.78% in 1972 to 50.31% in 2000. From then on, the female component tends to become the majority (Guerid, 1998).

5. Arabization of most of the disciplines: practically all the university disciplines have been arabized, except Medicine; but Medicine is the only exception (with technology to some extent) since the medical staff in the University Hospital Centres, has not as

[17] Malthusianism refers to Malthus T.R. (1766-1834), a British economist who presented the population growth as a danger for the world subsistence and advocates birth restriction.

yet a single doctor of Medicine who is totally arabized. However, we question the idea that there is "non-arabization" of Medical Sciences, when we know that students are fully arabized when they enter this discipline. Have they somehow affected the way they are taught because of their poor command of French?

6. Reversal of the ratio: there is more enrolment in the scientific and technological disciplines than in the languages and humanities: the former shows supremacy in terms of mass and prestige. In 1986-1987, the proportion of the students registered in scientific and technological sections represented 72.3 % of the total of the registered students, with a clear prevalence in technology (34.4 %) (Benghabrit-Remaoun, 2003)[18].

3.2. The increase of the student population

All these transformations have changed the face of the university and the status it had once. The increase of students led to three problems:

1. The student background which changed and so did culture at university. The students of the 1960's were mainly of urban origin, and were recruited essentially in the big northern cities. On the social and cultural level, there were from middle and upper classes, generally with French culture and language. The student of the first years of independence was "*attendu*" (Guerid, 2001: 28). In opposition to this student,

[18] This issue will be detailed in Chapter 3.

the present student is "*nombreux*" (Guerid, ibid: 34): he comes from the inside country, and possesses the Arabic language and the Arabo-Islamic culture. The difference lies in the pedagogical practice and the relationship to knowledge, in the perception of the professional future, in the relationship with religion, and in the political and ideological choices (ibid.).

2. The university level which is thought to have declined, due to the huge number of students and thereby influences the quality of teaching, as asserted by Guerid (1998:14):

> *Because of the number, teachers are in situations which prevent them from doing their work; the consequence is that the level—inevitably poor—of the receptors, establishes itself to the teacher as the compulsory level of emission.*[19]

Mucchielli (1978) defines the pedagogic communication as an instrumental one, in that its objectives depend on the reactions of the receptors (the learners). He goes on saying that the emitter (the teacher) adapts his teaching according to the receptor.

Another problem linked with the level is that this load slows down the period of training and lengthens the examination period. Generally, two fifteen-day periods are devoted to exams, and because of the third exam "synthesis", another period in June is taken for that purpose; and two other weeks in autumn. All in all, examinations take at least seven weeks from the academic year.

[19] The author's translation.

In addition, this increase led to the employment of a large number of teachers without real qualifications but *with a remarkable strategy of promotion and no scruple*, (Guerid, 2001:35). In contrast, Kadri (1992:398), though confirming that the algerianisation of the teaching staff was synonymous to a levelling down, nonetheless exempted from responsibility these young teachers who acted selflessly; he blamed rather the authorities for this fact. Thereby the widened reproduction of a category (non qualified teachers) which has become a majority was organized. In this way, universities and colleges were created though they were not endowed with the minimum conditions to operate. Along with this, it was put an end to the foreign teachers' employment, mostly professors.

3. Job opportunities; their growing shortage is the source of this new phenomenon: students leaving university with diplomas face up to unemployment: appearance of what De Queiroz (1993:122-3) called *lumpen intelligentsia*, people who feel they have been betrayed by the system which did not give them access to employment, though they had all the qualifications required to get a job: university degrees.

As we said earlier, the university has lost the prestige it had in the past, and as such it has stopped attracting the elite who went in search of other alternatives:

1. Policy of containment and confinement: this consists in setting up barriers in order to stop the pressure towards some disciplines, as Medicine and Pharmacy; since some years we have noted the burgeoning of new schools especially in Algiers, such as School for Banking, the Higher School of Commerce, and the High School of Diplomacy which pursue the same policy.

2. Western universities: some families decided to send their children to European universities, aiming at a better training which would favour them in the race, in Algeria, for higher positions of conception, decision, and command.

3.3. The Students and their Number

We dealt previously with transformations which affected universities and showed that one related problem was the demographic explosion. Benhassine (1998:125) made a grid showing the number of students according to the period from 1962 to 1994 in the Algerian universities:

1962/63	63/64	64/65	65/66	66/67	67/68	68/69	69/70
2.8	3.8	4.7	6.5	8.4	9.2	10.8	13.8
70/71	71/72	72/73	73/74	74/75	75/76	76/77	77/78
19.3	24.3	27.1	30.7	37.1	43.5	52.4	54.5
78/79	79/80	80/81	81/82	82/83	83/84	84/85	85/86
53.8	61.4	71.3	78.0	95.9	104.3	111.9	132.1

86/87	87/88	88/89	89/90	90/91	91/92	92/93	93/94
154.7	173.8	180.8	195.3	207.8	236.2	243.4	239.2
94/95							
233.0							

Table 6 : The students and their number (in thousands) (Benhassine, 1998 :125)

The period from 1962 to 1971/72 is distinguished by a sharp increase in the number of students (number multiplied by eight).

3.4. The University Teachers

Regarding the composition of the teaching staff, Benhassine's table shows the number of university teachers and their ranks:

	1962/63	1969/70	1971/72	1975/76	1982/83	1988/89
Professors	-	-	46	95	260	362
Associate Professors	-	-	46	82	150	330
Lecturers	-	-	271	315	2863	7336
Assistants	-	-	402	1409	5625	4719
Collaborators	-	-	91	100	-	-
TOTAL	**93**	**445**	**856**	**2001**	**8898**	**12747**

Table 7 : Number of University teachers and their ranks (Benhassine, 1998:125)

Benhassine adds other complementary data for the following years, concerning the whole body of teachers:

Years	1989/90	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95
Whole body	14167	14379	14180	14475

Table 8 : Number of university teachers (all ranks taken together) (Benhassine, 1998:125)

We note, in examining the tables of the students and the teachers, that the rise in the number of teachers is parallel to the students' rise. As Benhassine questions (1998: 128-129), was university prepared to hold such cohorts of students? Was it possible then to anticipate and undertake a massive teacher training in order to better control the pedagogical relationship and to give it more coherence? Or did it consist in solving the most immediate and urgent problems as they went along? An important recruiting of teachers was undertaken after 1976, and much more during the 1980's. Benhassine analysed the ratio of students in relation to teachers and obtained the following results:

Period	Professor	Lecturers	Assistants
1971-72	1 for 528	1 for 160	1 for 61
1975-76	1 for 458	1 for 138	1 for 31
1982-83	1 for 968	1 for 33	1 for 17
1988-89	1 for 500	1 for 25	1 for 38

Table 9 : Ratio Students/Teachers. (Adapted from Benhassine, 1998: 130)

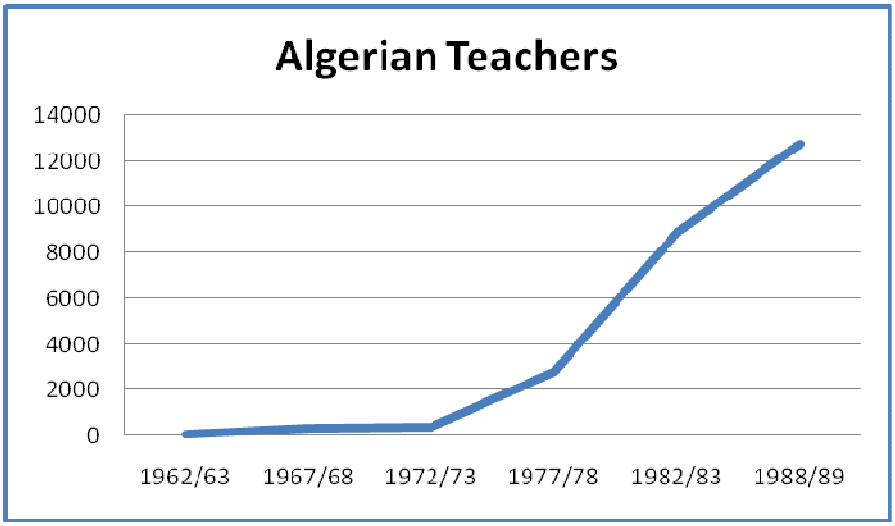
Another source (Djeflat, 1992:15) shows the number of teachers at university level, where “L” stands for local teachers (Algerian), and “F” for foreign teachers (all nationalities are mixed up).

Year	1962/63		1967/68		1972/73	
L/F	L	F	L	F	L	F
P	9	57	10	44	46	132
A.P	1	12	61	52	49	102
L	17	57	46	52	268	142
A[20]	54	84	214	197	402	420
TOTAL	**81**	**210**	**331**	**345**	**765**	**796**
Year	1977/78		1982/83		1988/89	
L/F	L	F	L	F	L	F
P	120	92	260	168	362	128
A.P	121	295	150	577	330	533
L	709	1130	2863	1248	7336	630
A	1868	1147	5625	767	4719	49
TOTAL	**2,818**	**2,664**	**8,898**	**2,760**	**12,747**	**1,340**

Table 10 : University teachers: quality, number and nationality. (Djeflat, 1992: 15)
P: Professors; A.P.: Assistant Professors; L: Lecturers; A: Assistants.

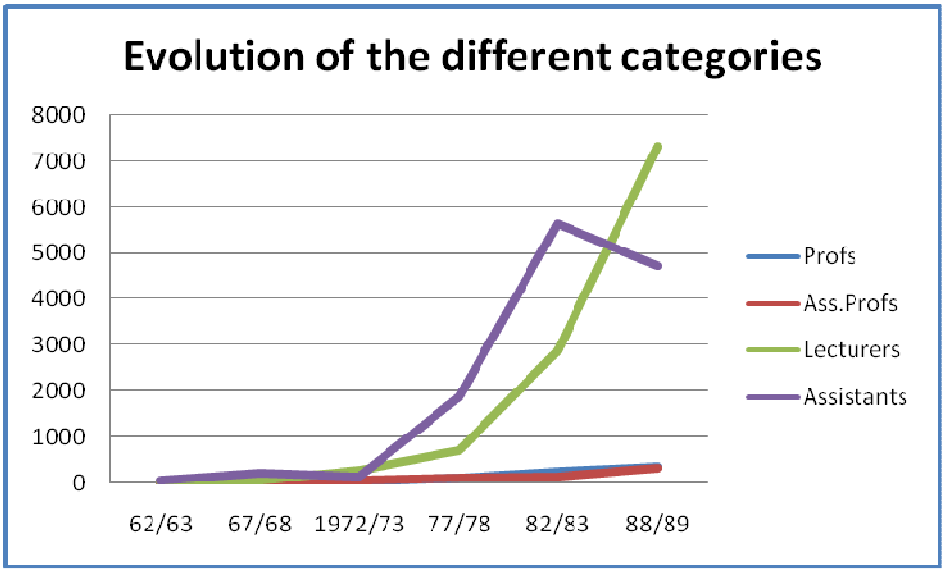
On the basis of Table 10, we have drawn a graph (cf. Graph 2), which shows clearly the rising number of Algerian teachers:

[20] The figures for assistants include technical collaborators



Graph 2 : Evolution of Algerian University Teachers

There have been, undoubtedly, great attempts of recruiting teachers to supervise an increasing number of students. The problem is that most of, if not all, new teachers were assistants and very few lecturers (Maîtres-Assistants). Though by 1988, the body of assistants tended, in a way, to decline. Was it because they improved in their academic ranks, or because the universities preferred to recruit teachers with more academic qualifications? A third alternative would be to say that universities stopped recruiting. The following graph displays the evolution of teachers in different categories:



Graph 3 : Evolution of Algerian University teachers through their ranks.

Again, we had to deal with the most urgent matters first. Do we have to believe that there was no strategic, long term vision of the university? Yes, according to Kadri (1993: 82), who says that the educational policy did not clearly state its strategies:

> *L'institution a souffert d'une politique qui ne s'est jamais affirmée de manière globale et cohérente, qui n'a à aucun moment explicité ses options stratégiques de politique éducative.*

4. The English Department in Constantine from C.E.L.G.M.[21] to L.M.D[22]

The beginnings of the English department go back to 1969, where the first students in Constantine, eight, enrolled in a three-year diploma (C.E.L.G.M.). The diploma consisted then in one year of common core (French and English), students had to attend lectures in English Language, French Literature, Philosophy, History, and Geography from which they had to choose certificates; the following year, they studied the English Language (*Certificat D'Études Pratiques d'Anglais*) and American Literature and Civilization; the final year was devoted to the study of British and American literatures, English Philology, and Arabic. The students were evaluated annually, and were given mentions.

4.1.The Reform of Higher Education (1971)

With the Algerian Reform of Higher Education in 1971 (la *Refonte de l'Enseignement Supérieur*), there was no longer the common core, the English and French sections became departments of their own and the curricula changed, mainly focusing on the study of English only, the other languages (German, Italian, Russian) being an option.

Some important changes affected the evaluation methods: the progression from one semester to the other depended on the success to the modules, some of which were

[21] Certificat d'Etudes Littéraires Générales Modernes

[22] Licence, Master, Doctorat.

"prerequisite", thus disabling students to enroll in the following semester's module. The students' success depended on the success to these modules, no mean was calculated. There was no concrete period devoted to evaluation; it was the “contrôle continu” system: students were under continuous assignments. The following table shows the curriculum:

	HEADING	Hours/Week
Semester I	Oral comprehension and expression. Phonetics	8
	Written comprehension and expression	8
	General sociology (French)	4
	Arabic (contemporary literature)	4
Semester II	Oral comprehension and expression. Phonetics	8
	Written comprehension and expression. Introduction to Literature	8
	General Linguistics	3
	Cultural sociology (French)	3
	Arabic (contemporary literature)	3
Semester III	Oral comprehension and expression. Phonetics	5
	Written comprehension and expression.	6
	Linguistics	2
	Civilization	3
	Literature	4
	Arabic (contemporary literature)	3
Semester IV	Oral comprehension and expression. Phonetics	5
	Written comprehension and expression.	6
	Linguistics	2
	Civilization	3
	Literature	4

	Sociological study of literary texts	2
	Arabic (contemporary literature)	3
Semester V	Oral comprehension and expression. Phonetics	4
	Written comprehension and expression.	4
	Linguistics	4
	Civilization	2
	Literature	4
	Psychology	2
	Language of science and technology	2
	Arabic (contemporary literature)	3
Semester VI	Oral comprehension and expression.	3
	Written comprehension and expression.	3
	Linguistics	4
	Civilization	2
	Literature	4
	Educational Technology	2
	Language of science and technology	2

Table 11: The English curriculum under the Reform of Higher Education

Although the codes varied, the curriculum remained unchanged until the academic year 1982/83 where a fourth year was added to the curriculum involving amendments:

1. The term becomes annual,
2. The evaluation methods: introduction of an annual evaluation with a system of compensation between modules, with eliminatory marks (7 according to the Ministry,

but then reviewed to 5, subsequent to students' strikes). Remedial exams in September which had remained as exceptional[23] until then were institutionalized by the year 1983.

3. Another remedial exam was held in June, to the great displeasure of lecturers. The ministry showed some inclination to remove this remedial exam of June, but each time students went on strike.

4. The curriculum itself changed; the fourth year is divided into two semi-annual classes: the first consists of seminars in TEFL and for the second, students had to choose either a pedagogical training or writing a dissertation, though these latter have been later cancelled from the programs and replaced by lectures.

Later in 1987/88, a major change takes place: the class session drops from 120 minutes to 90.

The university structure was to be marked by a series of reforms: the first in the 70s, the second in the 80s and the last in the late 90s (Lakhdar Barka, 2003):

1. In the 1970s: the restructuring of faculties into institutes: the ILVE era, Institute of Foreign Living Languages, or the transition from *"Belles Lettres"* to the instrumental language.

2. In the 1980s: the ILE (Institute of Foreign Languages) era, period of great convictions in the myth of integration of the languages of science and technology, recognition of the instrumental language.

[23] We obtained this information from searches in the minutes of deliberations.

3. In the 1990s: back to the previous faculty of arts and languages where the foreign languages lose their inherent specificity: they are reduced to a functional language.

4.2. The enrollment of students in the English Department

As we said earlier, with the expansion of education, the number of students enrolled in departments was on the raise. The following table shows the ever increasing number of students enrolled in the English Department:

69/70	70/71	71/72	72/73	73/74	74/75	75/76	76/77	77/78	78/79
8	**8**	**94**	**66**	**162**	**273**	**279**	**233**	**361**	**176**
79/80	80/81	81/82	82/83	83/84	84/85	85/86	86/87	88/89	90/91
222	**157**	**164**	**315**	**282**	**400**	**394**	**411**	**460**	**877**
93/94	94/95	96/97	97/98	99/00	00/01	-----	-----	04/05	05/06
823	**813**	**1555**	**1172**	**1465**	**1558**	**-----**	**-----**	**1609**	**1707**

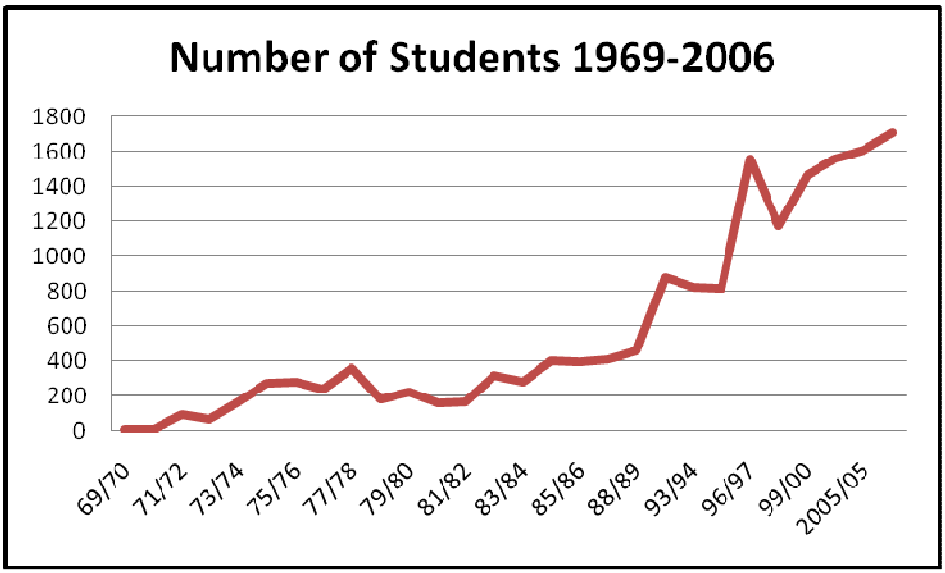
Table 12: **Number of students in the English Department (Archives of the English Department, Constantine) (The number of students for years 2001 to 2003 was not available)**

The table below shows the number of students in 2005/2006:

Students	**1st L.M.D.**	**2nd L.M.D.**	**2nd Year**	**3rd Year**	**4th Year**	**Total**
Regular	408	307	136	345	256	1452
Repeating	20	0	112	102	21	255
Total	428	307	248	447	277	**1707**

Table 13 : Students in 2005/06 (Archives of the English Department, Constantine)

The following graph is based on table 12 and shows the growing number:



Graph 4 [24]: Number of students in the English Department

It had been suggested by some that this is the consequence of democratization:

> *The democratisation of school should be able to ensure the education for all. The democratized education is a mass education.*
>
> (National Commission of the Reform of Education[25], 1970:10)

[24] All these figures have been found in the archives of the department but they are the result of our investigation: no statistics have been found.

[25] Commission Nationale de la Réforme de l'Enseignement

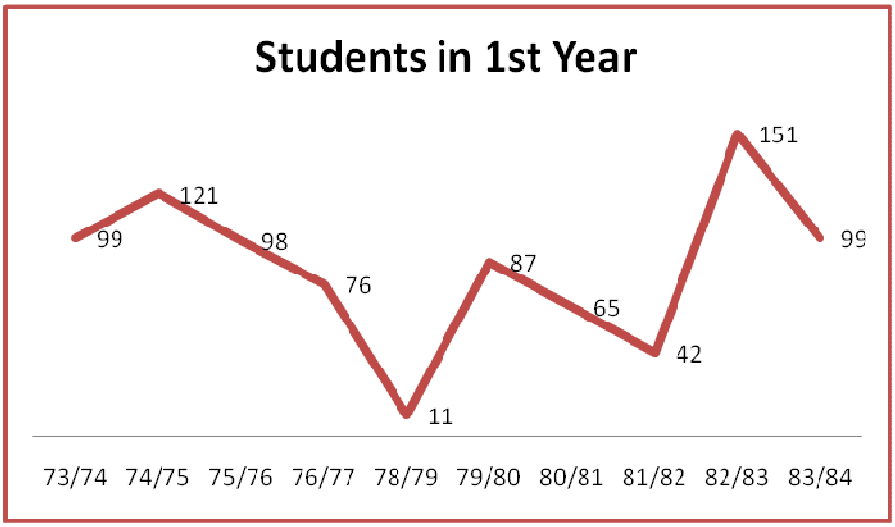
This is one of the various and varied definitions of democratization. However, others as Prost (1986), Kadri (1992), Duru-Bellat & Van Zanten (2006), and Benghabrit-Remaoun (2003), oppose it to mass education. For Algeria, Benghabrit-Remaoun explains that the democratization facilitated by the free access to higher education and the existence of university facilities (grants allocated to all students regardless of their social origin), cannot be reduced to growth; i.e. opening higher studies to the highest number possible. Still supposing that this access was actually open to young people coming from all social categories, areas and regions of the country, and that the male-female distribution was not disadvantaging the female element. Kadri (1991: 305) confirms saying that people acknowledge that because of higher enrolment numbers in every level, Algerian educational system tends to democratize. But, according to him, it was not democratisation; because, first we had to calculate the number of pass candidates to the Baccalaureate according to the total number of the population of the same age (18-20), as it is emphasized by Bourdieu & Passeron (1970):

> *Il convient en effet de distinguer le simple fait de l'accroissement des effectifs qui s'exprime dans le taux de scolarisation d'une classe d'âge et l'élargissement de la base sociale de recrutement qui manifeste un changement dans la structure des inégalités de chances scolaires attachées aux différentes catégories sociales.*

And second, Kadri regrets that there has never been a sociological study on the social origin of students enrolling in university, although students were given questionnaires related to their sociological background. So in Kadri's terms, it is misleading to use this term to refer to the

great expansion of students. De Queiroz (1995: 15) refers to it as *demographisation*, meaning that there is indeed an increase and in terms of access, the gap between social classes is narrowing but nevertheless remains important. The expansion of the educational system has more affected the pre-secondary and the secondary school than university, meaning that the inequalities were moved upwards (Flieller, 1999). This is confirmed by the fact that it is less the holder-ship of a baccalaureate which makes the difference, but more the nature of the baccalaureate one has. (Duru-Bellat & Van Zanten, 2006)

A closer study of the graph below will lead to several remarks:



Graph 5 : First Year Students from 1973/74 to 1983/84.

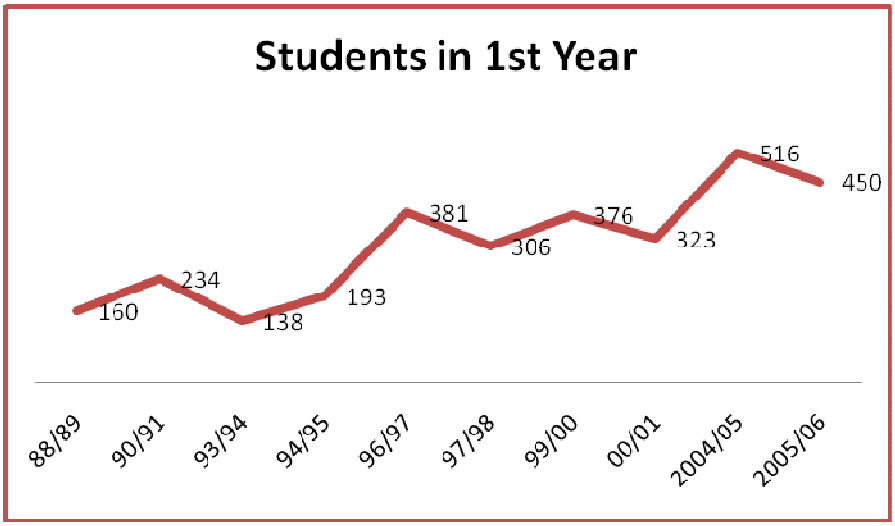
1. From its beginnings, students from all the Eastern part of Algeria enrolled in the English department. Gradually, though, departments opened in other towns.

2. We note a drop in 1976/77 and a sharper one in 1978/79. The decrease in the number of students is sometimes due to the opening of new departments and sometimes to a sudden drop in the number of baccalaureate holders. Indeed, in 1976/77 a new department is opened in Annaba and the pass rate in the Baccalaureate falls from 44% to 18% (this is the first time the rate decreases to such a percentage). As for the figures in 1978/79, a quota (numerus clausus) is established by means of two criteria: a merit in the baccalaureate exam and the mark (≥ 12) obtained in English in the baccalaureate exam (Barkat, 1980).

3. Though there are two other sharp declines from 87 to 65 in 1980/81 and to 42 students in 1981/82, there is a steady rise from the beginning of the 1980s, reaching a peak in 1982/83 (151 new students), although Sétif opened an English Department, with 76 students registered in the first year. A look at the pass rate does not indicate a special increase. We note, too, that there is a slight rise from 1983.

4. The next decline concerns the year 1983/84. This fact can be explained by the introduction of an entrance test for English. We have to point out that together with the entrance test, a system of compensation and the remedial exam (September) were introduced. In other words, it is the end of the Reform of the Higher Education. (However, we could not find the exact date of the cancellation of the entrance test).

The next decades show the following:



Graph 6 : First Year students from 1988 to 2005.

In the graph related to the 1990s and 2000s, except for 1994/95, the number of students did not stop its rise.

In 1990/91 we note a sharp increase (234) as opposed to 160, the previous year: deliberations minutes report discussions on the reintroduction of preliminary tests to 1st year students and mainly propose a date for discussions on the system nonsense[26]. This fact explains that first, the entrance test was cancelled, and second that teachers started inquiring about the logic of so many remedial exams.

We used the figures of the deliberations for years before and after the teachers' concern for remedial exams. The table below represents the rate of pass; where the first figures (bold-typed) indicate the pass rate before the remedial exams (these years have been chosen randomly):

[26] We are quoting word for word.

	1981/82	1990/91	1993/94	2000/01
1st Year	**71%**	**80% /** 98%	**80%/** 95%	**56%/** 71%
2nd Year	**57%**	**79%/** 90%	**54%/** 66%	**55%/** 68%
3rd Year	**58%**	**75% /** 100%	**33%/** 64%	**45%/** 66%
4th Year	--------[27]	**44% /** 84%	**52%/** 67%	**65%/** 95%

Table 14 : The pass rate in the Department of English

In the preceding figures, we considered only "regular students" (those who did not repeat the year), and the first percentage takes into account the June exam (synthèse). Regretfully, we could not analyze this exam alone, since teachers sit for deliberations only once these exams are over, and as such on the deliberations minutes there is no difference between students who succeeded right away, and those who sat for the "synthèse". We see that the results confirm the teachers' criticism of the system, in view of the fact that the pass rate that very year was rather higher than in 1981/82 or in the subsequent years. Nonetheless, pass rates are always high, mainly due to the system of compensation and to these remedial exams which wear teachers down, when these latter are not simply set upon by students negotiating their marks. The compensation system has been one of the discrepancies noted in the exams; Labed (2007) showed that the system in question made much harm to students. They almost relied on this system which made them least-effort learners whose aim was at getting a pass mark.

Another source of dissatisfaction on the part of lecturers is that students come to university lacking many features, as learner's strategies and autonomy, study skills and

[27] In 1981/82, there was still a three-year graduation and there was no remedial exam.

reading skills, and most significantly, interest and motivation. Students tend to favor memorization and rote-learning.

Students, too, seem to be disapproving the system. Boubekeur (1999), reporting on research concerning all disciplines carried out at the University of Constantine, notes a general dissatisfaction among students as regards the standard of teaching; even when this refers to the theoretical elements of the courses they follow, which is supposed to be the university's traditional strength. These reports suggest that the formal lecture method, memorization of notes and textbooks, and examination-oriented teaching are the norm, with students having little opportunity for discussion, questioning, or meeting professors.

Some classroom observation studies have suggested that there is far less concordance than expected among what teachers claim to be doing and what actually occurs in the classroom. For example, Ellis and Low (1985) asked about 500 teachers and 500 students on the usefulness of various teaching activities. Here is a breakdown of the results (the percentage represents the time devoted to the activities):

Teachers:

1. Students working in pair groups: 80%

2. Role play: 56%

3. Language games: 51%

4. Reading topical articles: 48%

5. Students making oral presentations: 46%

Learners:

1 .Grammatical exercises: 40%

2. Structured class discussion: 35%

3. Copying written material memorizing, drills: 25%

4. Listening activities: 20%

5. Reading books/articles: 15%

4.3. The teachers of the English Department

The teaching staff followed the same pattern described in general for university: the department started with foreign teachers, then moved gradually to the Algerianisation of its staff.

The table below shows the figures concerning the Algerian and foreign teachers in the English Department. As it was the case in the whole higher education in Algeria, the English departments started with a majority of foreigners, mostly Americans and British.

	ALGERIANS	FOREIGNERS		Total
		U.S.A./ U.K.	Other	
Assistants	**15**	**8**	**0**	**23**
Assist. Prof.	**0**	**1**	**0**	**1**
Professors	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
Total	**15**	**9**	**0**	**24**

Table 15 : The teaching staff in 1975/76[28]

(U.K.: United Kingdom)

Later, in 1980/81 until 1986/87, due to an agreement between Algeria and India and Pakistan[29], called South-South Cooperation, some Indian and Pakistani teachers were enrolled. They were enrolled most in the departments of Sétif and Batna, but because of their closing down, they were transferred to Constantine. By the year 1988/89, Algerianisation was totally reached in the department.

[28] Figures found in the minutes of the deliberations.

[29] Agreement between Algeria and India on cooperation of February, 28th 1980 (taken from the Department archives).

	ALGERIANS	FOREIGNERS		Total
		U.S./	Other	
Assistants	**7**	**4**	**1**	**12**
Assistants +[30]	**11**	**1**	**0**	**12**
Lecturers	**0**	**2**	**1**	**3**
Assist. Prof.	**0**	**2**	**0**	**2**
Professors	**0**	**0**	**1**	**1**
Total	**18**	**9**	**3**	**30**

Table 16 : The Teaching Staff in the Department of English (1979/80)

For some years, the figures we had during the 70s and 80s where the majority of teachers were not very qualified (Assistants who had only a graduation degree), are recurring. The following table displays the number of teachers and their ranks in the academic year 2005/2006. (Temp. Assistants are temporary assistants with a bachelor's degree; P.G. stands for Post Graduation; assistants are teachers with a first year in Post Graduation; lecturers have a Magister thesis or an M.A.; Assistant Professors have a doctoral thesis).

Quality	Temp. Assistants	Assistants+	Lecturers	Assist. Prof.	Professors	Total

[30] These assistants (*stagiaires*) have an M.A.; they differ from the lecturers in that these latter are tenured (*titulaires*).

Number	**52 (24 in P.G.)**	**13**	**34**	**2**	**4**	**105**

Table 17 : The Teaching Staff in 2005/06 (Source: Department of English)

4.4. The L.M.D.

Since 2004/05, a new university system is developing called the B.M.D.[31] (generally known L.M.D.), an acronym for Degree/Master/Doctorate. Initially designed in the Anglo-Saxon countries, it is spreading nowadays everywhere, and Algerian authorities decided to apply it in partial replacement of the current system. This degree changes the length of the studies, too: it reduces the degree from four to three years. The instructors want to deploy it aiming at students' mobility and recognition of the degree in every part of the country and even abroad.

Design of the studies in Algeria is articulated around three main grades:

- The license, granted after three years of study (corresponding to 180 ECTS[32]).
- Master's degree conferred after two years of study (corresponding to 120 or 300 ECTS credits earned).
- The doctorate conferred after the completion of research for at least three years and defending a thesis.

[31] Executive Decree 04-371 of November, 21st 2004 on the creation of a new bachelor degree.

[32] English abbreviation (European Credit Transfer System) for European system of transfer and accumulation of credits.

BMD System		Former System	
Name of the Degree	Number of Years	Name of the Degree	Number of Years
Doctorate	**≥3**	Doctorate	**≥5**
Master	**2**	Magister	**≥2**
Bachelor	**3**	Bachelor	**4**

Table 18 : Comparison of the Systems

This system replaces the old method where the Ministry of Higher Education defined *a priori* the headings of diplomas and channels corresponding to the distribution of materials, and courses, and a minimum hourly volume. In the new system, the universities design themselves models of diplomas, which are reviewed by experts in the ministry, before being validated by the National Commission of Authorization. The models are now reassessed every three years with a presentation by each university before a jury composed of representatives of the Ministry and the professional world.

The elements which appear in the new degree (the following is the content of the first year):

- Learning is divided in semesters;
- Modules are organized into units:
  - Basic Unit (16 hours a week): consists of all the subjects which are essential to a given discipline (in our case, the English Language):

Written Expression and Oral Expression, Grammar, Linguistics, Phonetics, and Introduction to the Literature and Civilization of the target language.

- Methodological Unit (3 hours a week): study skills (note taking, use of the dictionary, and reading for information)
- Discovery Unit (3 hours a week): specialized language (the use of English in different discourses).
- Cross-section Unit (3 hours a week): a foreign language (Spanish or German), and students are required to choose two options among three alternatives: an Introduction to the use of computers in language learning, a subject in Human and Social Sciences, and an Introduction to Arts[33].

The weekly allotment of English learning is thus twenty-five hours (all three years have the same amount of time), in contrast to the former system where the average hourly number was around fifteen.

It is too soon to give an adequate study of the system, but yet people are taking positions against, questioning the real motives behind its so hasty introduction[34]. Would, this system within the Algerian University with what characterizes it much, the number of the cohorts, succeed?

[33] In practice, students take two compulsory subjects : a Foreign Language and Introduction to the use of computers in Language Learning.

[34] Appendix IV, pp XXXVI-XXXVII.

Conclusion

Several factors concurred to the transformations of the university as described earlier, and the most characteristic one is haste:

1. Haste to recruit teachers who did not have yet the right qualifications.
2. Haste to replace qualified teachers by less qualified ones in the name of Algerianisation. It is indisputable that Algeria had to regain its identity, but not at the expense of generations of students. It would have been advisable to start gradually replacing foreign teachers by Algerian ones by ensuring first their succession in the most appropriate terms.
3. Haste to arabize teachers who were more competent when they used French in their teaching, and haste to arabize full departments or institutes where both teachers and students who were themselves not fully arabized.
4. Haste to arabize Human and Social Sciences which led to the loss of truly "human libraries". With reference only to 1996/97, the Minister of Education is quoted as saying that 1200 university lecturers had left the country (Sultana, 1999: 15; citing Miliani, M. in a personal communication).
5. Haste to open universities when the minimal conditions (human and material) were not present, and regretfully it is still continuing. There are reports on the authorities extolling their self-satisfaction as for the number of "pedagogical places", but fewer if no reports at all concern extolling the number of books bought for university libraries.

Finally, we note, too, the discrepancy between the educational system and the job market, and the soaring demography and its effects on the educational efficiency.

The forthcoming chapter deals with the main changes which took place in the Algerian educational system. It is an attempt to a full review of its aspects and characteristics from the beginnings of independence to the present day.

CHAPTER THREE

ARABISATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Introduction

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Introduction

Owing to a long period of French colonial rule during which Arabic had been relegated to a secondary status, Algeria had a long tradition of using French as the language of government and medium of instruction. Following independence, Algeria opted for a policy of arabization which aimed at raising Arabic to the status of an official language. Arabic is now the dominant language in a multilingual setting (Algerian Arabic and Berber), where modern standard Arabic is the official and national language, and French is the second language, maintaining a special status as the predominant academic language (university), particularly in science. English, which is taught as a second foreign language, has acquired a high instrumental value. Unlike countries in the Middle East, whether under a French Mandate (Syria, Lebanon), or under British Rule (Egypt, Iraq, Jordan), which faced no significant problems in their drive for arabization, Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco experienced a great deal of linguistic and cultural turmoil in the ongoing process of arabization. Unlike Tunisia, which clearly opted for bilingualism, Algeria, while in effect bilingual, was the most adamant in proclaiming its Arab identity and on insisting on total arabization as its ultimate goal. Algerians, in order to distinguish themselves from French people, were to recognize Islam with concomitant emphases on the Arabic language (Grandguillaume, 1997). Conversely to Morocco and Tunisia in which Arabic was not only taught throughout the colonial period, but shared too an equal status with French, Arabic was banned in Algeria (Moatassime, 1993).

After independence, Algeria had an urgent need to regain its Arabic and Muslim identity which had been effectively denied during colonialism. It was the language of study in

the religious school and seen as a *reflection of illiteracy and ignorance (*Mostari, 2005)—a 1930 French law deemed Arabic a foreign language! The French rule conferred the status of a language of identity on the Arabic language and the status of modernity on the French (this dichotomy Arabic = identity and French = modernity, has no explanatory relevance, but will be used even by the arabization protagonists). Mouhsine (1995) reports that there was ambivalence on the arabization views; this dichotomy has its origins in colonialism. Jerad (2004:539) adds that it led to a deadlock which fossilized languages and provided a link to political and ideological struggles.

As from 1962, one of the major reforms made in newly independent Algeria was to restore the Arabic language in education. In the *Tripoli Programme* of June 1962,

> *The Revolutionaries restated in regard to Arabic, what they did in constant manifestos before: [the role of the revolution]… is above… all to restore to Arabic—the very expression of the cultural values of our country—its dignity and its efficacy as a language of civilisation.* (Gordon, 1978:149).

Algeria could not begin to reconstruct itself without restoring the bedrock of that identity: the Arabic language, which remains the vivid symbol of its Arabic identities and Muslim values. Boumediène said (1968) in Mostari, (2004:26):

Without recovering that essential and important element which is the national language, our efforts would be vain, our personality incomplete, and our entity a body without a soul.

Ongoing and passionately led debates around the language policies are still on the agenda. The latest reform (2001) of the educational system developed by a national commission (C.N.R.S.E.) engaged by President Bouteflika, because of the consequent fierce debate, had been put off during two years. From the beginning, language planning, either political or educational, gave rise to outcries where everyone claimed monopoly on the language issue─ arabization, French-Arabic bilingualism, the English language status─, never reaching consensus (Miliani, 2003:17). This led to conflicts among Algeria's political society who was divided upon this question: on the one hand, those who favoured arabization and on the other hand those who favoured bilingualism:

1. A trend towards arabization (and hence monolingualism) which aims at placing an Arab and Muslim stamp on Algeria and to instil a Non-Western identity, claiming that bilingualism is *a source of suffering and a sign of alienation or acculturation* (Ennaji, 1991: 21). French is regarded as the language of the colonizer, and its use demonstrates neo-colonial dependence. French speakers are described as Francophiles and therefore implicated in the linguistic and cultural alienation. (Grandguillaume, 2002).

2. A trend towards bilingualism which does not reject Arabic but remains attached to the idea of maintaining the French language, since not only is the country administered in French[35] at present but French also gives Algeria access to modernisation. Thus their position is to maintain the status quo, with cautious arabization. In 1962, this was the dominant trend, but it was to lose political backing up to 1992, before regaining favour in 1999 when President Bouteflika came in power (Benrabah, 2002).

The arabization policy was continually included in a struggle against French. The arguments used in the struggle confiscated the basic values which should have been common to all Algerians. The proponents of arabization claimed to be the only real nationalists (struggling against French colonialism) and the genuine Moslems (working for the Koran). The proponents of bilingualism were seen as defenders of French language: because of this, they were caught in the trap of a guilty conscience and could not defend the suicidal character of the followed policy (Grandguillaume, 1983).

The history of arabization is one of clashes, even *a trench warfare* (Kadri, 1992 :399[36]) between these two trends and has been the subject of many publications (M. Benrabah 1999, 2002; J.P. Entellis, 1981; Charles F. Gallagher, 1968; G. Grandguillaume 1979; 1983, 1997, 2002, 2004, 2006; F. Laroussi 2003, 2004; M. Madi 1997; H. Mostari 2004, 2005 ; A.

[35] Though, we express our disagreement as for this point. Most administrations use Arabic as a means of communication.

[36] Une guerre de tranchée (the author's translation)

Moatassime 1974, 1992, 1993, 1996; R. Sebaa 1999; K. Taleb-Ibrahimi 1993, 1995, 1997, 2000). However, the real motives behind either position mirror political objectives rather than realistic planning.

1. Status of Arabization in School

1.1. From 1962 to 1975

From 1962 to 1975, following the principle that Arabic was both the national and official language, and French a language to be used temporarily and provisionally, arabization of the Algerian educational system was pursued. In 1971, the *punctual system* –a step-by step system– (Gordon, 1978: 153) was adopted, that is arabizing all subjects on a given level rather than arabizing geographically (according to regions) or vertically (all levels at the same time). The geographic solution would have led to inequalities of opportunity, it was felt, adds Gordon (op.cit. 153), the *vertical* one was impossible because of a lack of qualified teachers. The country was marked by arabization campaigns: laws, decrees, ordinances were enacted, reinforced, and applied aiming at implementing Arabic and strengthening its positions in all public fields.

Starting from 1962, seven hours a week of Arabic were introduced in all schools. The following year (1963) three more hours were added. The first grade of primary school was

arabized in 1964. Due to a lack of teachers, some low-skilled Algerian teachers (monitors) were recruited along with some teachers from the Middle East – 1000 Egyptians, 1000 Syrians—(Kadri, 1992:452). The process of arabization continued and by 1975, the primary school was fully arabized with French being taught at the fourth grade. In secondary education, the humanities section was totally arabized, together with one-third of the maths and sciences sections.

Halls (1994) adds that until 1945, some twenty Arab states, stretching from the Atlantic to the Persian Gulf, and characterized by the unifying force of Islam, looked Egypt as their educational role model. The pan-Arab cooperation was reinforced by the foundation in 1964 of the Arab League Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (ALESCO). The following aims were set out for education in Arab countries, although, Halls states (ibid: 1061), in Algeria, the stress was also on socialism:

(a) the correct understanding of Islam and inculcation and dissemination of the Islamic creed;

(b) the imbuing of the student with Islamic values, doctrines and ideas;

(c) the social, economic, and cultural development of society;

(d) the preparation of the individual to be a useful participant in the building of the society.

The following tables recapitulate the stages of arabization in schools:

1.1.1. In primary education (1973-1974)

Grade	**Status of Arabization**
1st	Totally Arabized.
2nd	Totally Arabized.
3rd	Totally Arabized; French is a foreign language.
4th	Totally Arabized; French is a foreign language.
5th	1/3 of the classes totally Arabized; French is a foreign language.
6th	1/3 of the classes totally Arabized; French is a foreign language.

Table 19 : **Status of arabization in primary school (1973-74) (Adapted from Grandguillaume, 1983: 100)**

1.1.2. In intermediate education (1973-1974)

Grade	**Status of Arabization**
1st 2nd 3rd	In each of the first three grades, 1/3 of the classes were totally Arabized, whilst the remaining 2/3 were bilingual. Scientific subjects were taught in French
4th	All subjects were taught in Arabic, except mathematics, natural sciences and geography.

Table 20 : Status of arabization in intermediate school (1973-74) (Adapted from Grandguillaume, 1983: 100)

1.1.3. In secondary education (1973-74)

Grade	Humanities streams	Mathematics and Science streams
Première	Totally Arabized.	1/3 of the classes Arabized, 2/3 bilingual. Scientific subjects were taught in French.
Seconde	Totally Arabized.	1/3 of the classes Arabized, 2/3 bilingual.
Terminales	All subjects were taught in Arabic, except mathematics and geography.	1/3 of the classes Arabized, 2/3 bilingual. Philosophy, geography and science subjects were taught in French.

Table 21 : Status of arabization in secondary school (1973/74) (Adapted from Grandguillaume, 1983 :100)

1.2. From 1976 to 2002

Increasing arabization led to concerns about standards, and in 1976, President Boumediène appointed M. Lacheraf as Minister of Education and A. Rahal as Minister of Higher Education, to call a moratorium on arabization, although this was to be of short duration, interrupted by the death of the president. As for university, in 1980 a decree introduced the total arabization of the 1st year of Social and Political Sciences, Law and Economics (before 1980, students chose the medium of their language instruction, either Arabic or French). The degrees in Arabic Literature, Philosophy and History had been arabized by 1968. In 1973, Geography, Sociology and Pedagogy were also arabized. In other subjects, 58 per cent of the students were in arabized sections. In the sciences, the policy of

arabization was only moderately applied. In 1973, only 19 per cent of all students were in arabized sections, and Medicine and Engineering continued to be taught in French. All students, however, were obliged to attend Arabic lessons, and a permanent Committee for Arabization supervised the then three universities ─ Algiers, Constantine, and Oran (Gordon, 1978). It is not until 1993, that students who had had all their schooling in Arabic enrolled in departments where the teaching language was still French. On 22 July 1991, the minister for universities announced the total arabization of higher education for the start of the academic year (following the 16 January 1990 law on the generalised use of Arabic in Algeria); another law in 1996 predicted the total arabization for July 1998, and 2000 for the university. The difficulties encountered in the process of the arabization show that this question re-emerges constantly as a political aim, taking on new contents, meanings or symbols, depending on the political and economic situation, and the various interests at stake, referred to as a *shilly-shallying*[37] by Miliani (2003:18). This cyclical reappearance indicates that this is a question whose recurrence reveals both embarrassment and lack of control, expressed in the political speeches intended to promote the idea and the nature of the means of dealing with it (Sebaa, 1999: 87).

The 1st Four-Year plan (1970) was accompanied by a series of reforms. A break with the traditional partners (France) allowed Algeria to diversify the economic partners. Parallel to economic and commercial trades, cultural exchanges evolved, resulting in a large-scale cooperation with the English-speaking countries. In the educational field, it took the form of

[37] Valse-hésitation (the author's translation)

teaching, pedagogical counsellors from the British Council, language grants. The realization of the importance of English in the technological and scientific field favoured English. The enhanced prestige of the English-speaking world was equally seen in the 1971 Reform where the Anglo-Saxon semester replaced the French annual system, with a view to providing a quick university education with few dropouts. This allowed the algerianisation of the managers, one of the priorities of the government[38]. In 1993, the introduction of a foreign language into primary school was postponed to the fourth grade. The same year, the advocates of arabization pressed for the use of English to replace French in primary schools (Kadri, 1992). However, for various reasons, only a small percentage of parents chose English, the majority favoured French as a foreign language for the fourth grade. From the 1980's to 2002, there was the total arabization of the school system; a reform engaged gave birth to the Basic School (*Ecole Fondamentale)*[39]. All subjects were taught in Arabic, French was introduced in the third grade of primary school.

1.3. From 2003 –

The latest reform (2002) planned the reintroduction of the foreign language (French) into the second grade of primary school. English would be taught in the sixth grade (intermediate school), two grades earlier than in the past. Some subjects, as Sciences and Mathematics would be partly taught in French. These are the major changes that are taking

[38] Rapport du Premier Plan Quadriennal, p 117.

[39] A thousand pilot schools were engaged in the new system from 1974, but in 1978, they were stopped by Lacheraf, as soon as he was appointed Minister of Education (Grandguillaume, 1983).

place with the new reform. It is yet too soon to have a clear idea of the positive or negative points this reform will generate.

2. Effects of the Arabization Policy on Education

2.1. Problems of the arabization

2.1.1. Hasty enforcement

Many important figures, including Mostefa Lacheraf, believed that the process of arabization must be gradual, that the modernization of Arabic depended on the stimulus of the French challenge and that "*archaism" must not be allowed to favour regressive traditional elements. (….)Algerianisation is not arabization.* (Grandguillaume, 2004: 158). By algerianisation, Lacheraf meant that Algerians speaking French had been trained to replace foreigners, just as many Algerian teachers replaced Arabic speaking teachers from Egypt, Iraq and Syria (Gordon, 1978*)*.

But their positions were inefficient: during a council of ministers in the 1960s, Ahmed Taleb-Ibrahimi, then Minister of Education, said about arabization: *It won't work but we must do it…;* this sentence was reminded by Lacheraf in 1977—who was then Ministry of Education, position that A. Taleb-Ibrahimi[40] occupied until 1970— to Ahmed Taleb-Ibrahimi

[40] Later, in 1980, he was appointed as the head of the commission in charge of arabization (Grandguillaume, 1983:129).

who was reproaching him his lack of fervour for arabization (Grandguillaume, 1995:18). The latter recognized the difficulties involved in such a process, and that a general positive atmosphere still needed to be encouraged. Lacheraf (1964) protested against quick arabization and was more in favour of a bilingualism, arguing that with the loss of Algerians' cultural identity during French colonialism, it was impossible to expect any spontaneous generation of qualified teachers, specialized in a language and culture which were excluded from free speech and basic scientific progress, *as if hundred-year-old ravages could be compensated in one, two or ten years!*(…)*There is no question of waiting but to start methodically!*[41] (Lacheraf, ibid.: 316). Mazouni (1969: 21-28)) warned his fellow Algerians that rapid arabization might prove regressive and might even alienate students from Arabic culture because of the difficulty of the language and the lack of adequate tools for teaching it. It is important to note that in 1970 the ministry of education was split into two separate ministries: the ministry of primary and secondary education (with A. Benmahmoud as minister, but in fact A. Mehri, who was at the head of the national commission of the educational reform, put his stamp on the actions) and the ministry of higher education (under the authority of S. Benyahia): this split within the educational system led to distortions in the arabization policy. Whereas it went at an increasingly fast rate in the primary and secondary levels, it was subdued in the higher level (Grandguillaume, 1983: 99). Remaoun (1997:100) adds, regarding this hasty enforcement, that the acceleration of arabization did not give the local competences the opportunity to adapt themselves; it relied on untrained staff who tended to preach morality in the pedagogical field (focused more on words than subject-matter).

[41] Comme si des ravages séculaires pouvaient être réparés en un an, ou deux, où même dix ! Il ne s'agit pas d'attendre mais de commencer méthodiquement ! (The author's translation)

Haddab (1983) claims that the problem was not that there were two few bilingual and therefore bicultural Algerians, to have any influence, but that the barriers, that separated school children into different streams made impossible to educate a sufficiently broad population to give these intellectuals a stronger social position. He goes on to say that in the struggle for arabization, led by *Arabists*, the complex relations of Arabic to Islam played and continue to play an important role, in some cases contribute to the strengthening of the process of arabization, and in other, rare, cases resist the development of that process.

Another limiting factor was the presence of Berbers who tended to prefer French to Arabic as their second language and considered it as a *more useful medium for modernity* (Gordon, 1978: 158).

It is regrettable that people expressing the limits of the arabization were not heeded; it would have saved Algerians from this *tragic* experience as expressed by Arkoun, (1956, quoted by Sebaa, 1999:88):

> *We have usually put forward some hasty, inadequate, demagogic answers, especially in the field of arabization of education and religion. Today we are suffering the tragic consequences of institutionalized ignorance, initiated and imposed by the authorities through the education system and the media, to the point of building a powerful social imagery which provides a fundamental basis for the present tensions.*

And by Grandguillaume (1998) on both languages:

> *Pourquoi les francophones n'ont-ils pas pu (ou su, ou voulu, ou osé) défendre la place de la langue française, alors qu'ils étaient en position dominante et étaient convaincus de son utilité ? Pourquoi les arabophones n'ont-ils fait qu'une importation mimétique d'une langue du Moyen-Orient, au lieu de se l'approprier vraiment, à la différence des Egyptiens, leurs modèles. (…)*

2.1.2. Lack of qualified teachers

With independence, because of the massive exodus of the colonists , Algeria requested France to provide qualified teachers for French, but France's refusal or indifference led to other countries (Egypt, particularly) seizing this opportunity to provide its staff (Bouhadiba, 2004:500). Since Algeria had few teachers able to teach Arabic as required in the decisions, it recruited foreign teachers as well as Algerians. The qualifications and traditional pattern of school and university teaching staff had to be deliberately sacrificed in order to meet the massive needs created by the system. Thirty thousand new teachers were recruited in this way; almost all the 60.000 staff involved, however, found themselves facing responsibilities which they had no training for (Skander, 1972: 6). There were three levels of recruitment for the Algerian teachers—relief teachers[42], instructors and teachers. Relief teachers (both for French and Arabic) were recruited at the level of the primary school leaving-certificate (*Certificat de Fin d'Etudes Primaires*). Instructors were engaged at the level of the certificate of intermediate

[42] Moniteurs

education (*Brevet d'Enseignement Moyen*). Teachers were trained at the Bouzaréah Teacher Training College (*Ecole Normale Supérieure*─ under the authority of higher education, which trained arabized teachers only; there was a break in the Francophone teacher training─ distinct from the Kouba Teacher Training College which was under the authority of the ministry of primary and secondary education, but in reality was under neither authority, termed as *pirate* by Lacheraf) (Remaoun, 1997:100). In the 1968/1969 school year, out of a total of 36.255 primary school teachers, 14.573 were relief teachers, 14.790 were instructors and 6.892 were teachers, according to Grandguillaume (2004). Some foreign teachers came from Europe, mainly France, and some came from the Middle East, chiefly Egypt (1.000), Syria (1.000) and Iraq, which provided large contingents of teachers for Arabic instruction, firstly in primary then later in secondary school and higher education (Kadri, 1992:452). In 1966, out of a total of 13.000 arabized primary school teachers, 3.500 (27%) were foreigners, of whom 2.000 were tutors or instructors, and only 1.500 were teachers (Kadri, ibid.). Kadri reports that there were complaints of these teachers' lack of qualifications─ some had never taught (Bouhadiba, 2004:500), their lack of commitment in their task, their rudimentary teaching methods, and the handicap their accent represented. But their accent would have been a minor problem if they demonstrated some efficiency. According to Grandguillaume (1984:154), it must be emphasized the deep cultural difference underlying the teaching practice. They believed that knowledge was something passed on, and the best way to possess it was to encourage learning parrot-fashion. Sebaa (1999) qualified these foreign teachers as *coopérants ethniques* (in Algeria all foreign staff—teachers or workers—were referred to as *coopérants techniques*) because of what was expected of them: they were persuaded to fulfil a cultural and moral mission, *which starting point and basic support would be the rehabilitation of a –or the—lost*

linguistic Paradigm (Sebaa, 2001). If in most eastern countries, a new pedagogy had been established, the fact remained that in the action of their teachers teaching in Algeria, this traditional trait was seen as strong. This trait strengthened the tendency of traditional Algerian elements who, because of the break with the East, kept an Arabic culture fossilised, both in terms of language or pedagogy. This conception, continues Grandguillaume, has few drawbacks when people are in a stable state of knowledge, but has many in times of change.

2.1.3. *Teaching methods*

Algerians gradually became a majority of teachers, and were divided into Arabic speaking and French speaking, reproducing the schema of an opposition between a modern system and an archaic one. The bilingual system shrank, due to the decisions of arabization taken by the authorities, and the break in their training in the late 80s, as mentioned previously. In some regions, because of that, there was no French teaching in the programs. During the 1980s, teaching has become mostly monolingual. This monolingualism led to an *educational conservatism* (Grandguillaume, 2006): with Arabic, memorisation became predominant, a model taken from Koranic schools. This was the conception of the educational system as established by the authorities: based on rote-learning and exact restitution of the knowledge at the expense of a rational thinking. An interesting example about how philosophy is taught, a way which does not help pupils to act and think as autonomous, free and critical persons can be seen in Lardjane (1993:56). The pedagogy advocated rejected all the other languages, be they French, Algerian Arabic or Berber. The teacher's task was seen to correct

the pupils' language (vernacular Arabic or Berber) which was supposed to be *faulty, deviant and deficient*, as mentioned in the teacher's guide of the first primary cycle (Boudellia-Greffou, 1989:35). The child is constantly forced to switch from the Arabic used at home to the Arabic used at school (Sebaa, 1999:84). This pedagogy made the pupil feel guilty for speaking his mother-tongue; according to Boudellia-Greffou, this pedagogy was based on a model aimed at deficient and mentally retarded children to whom a simplistic and a parrot-fashion learning methods were applied: the result is a weakening of the linguistic capacities of the pupils not only as learners but also as social speakers/actors (Taleb-Ibrahimi, K., 1993:66). This impoverishment of the language set up in the first years of school would be perpetuated throughout their schooling. This situation—which straightaway excluded vernacular Arabic, Berber, and French—opened the way for the increasing difference between the *social linguistic intelligence* and *educational linguistic intelligence*. This leads the way to the *replacement of the cognitive by the expressive* (Sebaa, ibid: 84).

Moreover, Boudellia-Greffou (1993: 43) raises an important question concerning the contents of textbooks: there are no texts which can kindle interest in culture and literature─they are introduced much later, in the fifth grade, and it is too late for the children who are well on their way to shape their personality.

Regarding this guilt feeling, not only children but the whole society felt it: the guilt for not mastering Standard Arabic and the guilt felt vis-à-vis the eastern countries would push the authorities to arabize at all costs. Remaoun (1993), regarding history textbooks, shows how the Arab-Islamic reference model is given precedence at the expense of the Algerian identity.

The Arab-Islamic referent focuses on the Middle-East, representing 75% of the history program on the Arab-Islamic world. According to Sebaa (1999), the arabization in Algeria was rather *orientalisation.*

Beside teaching methods, another problem was the huge number of pupils in classrooms. To this day, the double-shift system still exists; primary schools divide the allocated time into two: two classes share the same room during the day, having four-and-half-hours of teaching each. This, probably, has a long-term influence on the quality of learning, though no research has been devoted to this aspect. Grandguillaume asserts that during the first years of independence, teachers were in charge of two classes, each with an average class-size of 40 pupils. It is extremely regrettable to see that the number of pupils in a class is still high, at every level, from primary school to university.

2.2. Failure of the arabized educational system

Most researchers claim the failure of arabization as a system not only confined to the country's administrations and environment, but more importantly in education. The fact that President Boumediène called for a moratorium, as we said previously, is, according to Taleb-Ibrahimi K. (1995:270), a result of a UNESCO report on the status and the standards of education in Algeria. The educational system entered a phase of a steep decline from 1986 with the decrease of the country's financial resources: lack of means of documentation and

total arabization contributed to the collapse of the arabized education (Grandguillaume, 2002). Grandguillaume asserts further, quoting Viratelle (1970), that

> *He* [Viratelle] *feared that students were being badly trained in both Arabic and French and might be ending up without an adequate command of either*. (Grandguillaume, 2002: 158)

This opinion was shared by Entellis (1981: 197),

> *Too many young people may be emerging from secondary schools with an incomplete command of both literary Arabic and functional French*.

As well as by Taleb-Ibrahimi K. (1997: 50):

> *The Algerian school does not produce bilinguals but semilinguals without a good command of either language*.

And Miliani (2003: 25):

> *This semilinguism is one of the major causes of the loss of the young people's cultural points of reference and their linguistic codes impairment*.

Another controversy arises about the main causes of failure, for some,

> *Arabo-islamists, it is because of the elitist nature of the use of French, while others think that failure is attributed to arabization not only as a language, but also as pedagogical structure – prisoner of a theocratic conception of Islam* (Grandguillaume 2002).

Some researchers attribute the educational failure to arabization─ or more exactly to the linguistic policy adopted by the authorities, thus not only Arabic but foreign languages as well (Moatassime, 1993) ─ and the way it was carried out and this for numerous reasons, some of which are dealt with in the forthcoming paragraphs.

2.2.1. *Examination results*

The government's educational efforts since independence have indeed been impressive, at least in statistical and quantitative terms; but the educational system suffers from recurrent problems for which educational and political solutions have not been found. Miliani (2003:23) lists some of the problems:

- High percentage of failure at the baccalaureate exam and the middle school's leaving certificate (*B.E.F.*), as mentioned in the preceding chapter;
- High percentage of drop-outs and losses─ about 500.000 pupils leave school every year without any qualification, despite the compulsory character of school;
- Large number of pupils who have to repeat a year: 43% of those who sit for the baccalaureate are repeating their grade.
- Some pupils sit for the baccalaureate two or three times, even after being enrolled in university, in order to get the high mark which will allow them to chose the field they want;
- Orientation problems in university where students repeat till four times their first year; 60% of students are sent to departments against their will.

Djebari (1998) finds that the present system is rather *deleterious,* since: [it is]

- Not very scientific (only 8.65% of pupils from Maths pass)
- Not very professional (approximately 10% of pupils from technology succeed)
- Quite literary (27.51%) with a tendency towards religious instruction (+5%)
- Nearly 55% of successful baccalaureate candidates come from scientific streams.

(Though Djebari's view may seem a little confusing: he finds that the system is not scientific with reference to Maths).

2.2.2. Politicization of the language issue

Most of the researchers quoted pinpoint the politicization of the language issue, and because of this, all of them consider it as a failure on the grounds that Arabic has no real roots in Algerian reality. Algerian society has been deprived of its identity and its native languages: Algerian Arabic and Berber.

On the politization issue, Pattanayak (1994:1959) states:

> *Language is a symbol as well as an instrument. It is a repository of power. As expression of identity as well as associate of ethnicity, it is a source of conflict. Language differences reflect social tensions. When these tensions are socially or politically manipulated, conflict ensues.*

In 1963-1964, the authorities involved a group of American sociolinguists from Berkeley University in order to draw up the sociolinguistic map of Algeria. The group came up with the advice to promote the use of Algerian Arabic and Berber: languages the most used and consensual. Disregarding these recommendations, the government in position went as far as to conclude an agreement with the sociolinguists, by virtue of which the survey results would not be publicized. (Benrabah, 2002: 74).

Gordon (1978: 165) cites Maschino and M'Rabet's[43] thesis whereby they declare that arabization and islamisation were basically *smokescreens to maintain the present-counter revolutionary petite-bourgeoisie in power.*

From a political point of view, arabization is part of power and control of mechanisms of reproduction of the symbolic power[44]. (Taleb-Ibrahimi K., 1997: 57). On the symbolic power, Gallagher (1968:132) wrote about Arabic in Algeria: *to the vanquished, one of the most expressive symbols of power became the magic new language*. It is clear then, that from independence, Algerian authorities, in order to establish and maintain power exploited the language issue, and this took place first in school: it was first *délaicisée*[45] with the introduction of religious teaching and by the will to make of arabization a demagogic tool of social power (Harbi, 1994:3).

Algeria's main distinctiveness is that the conceptions of the linguistic policy, the designation of languages as well as the social debates on languages are based not on linguistic facts but on ideological viewpoints. The examination of the arabization policy in such an important area where the presence of the state is established, namely education, shows the lack of coherence and clear planning in the arabization of education as well as the lack of true will

[43] Though Gordon cites Maschino and M'Rabet , he does not refer to them in his bibliography.

[44] Sur le plan politique, l'arabization s'inscrit dans le pouvoir et le contrôle des mécanismes de reproduction du pouvoir symbolique (the author's translation).

[45] Algeria, during its first years of independence, followed the secular educational system inherited from the French colonialism.

of the state in its linguistic options. This is asserted by Kadri (1992:408) who said that authorities considered political criteria as predominant,

> [The state's emphasis was] *on the primacy of politico-ideological criteria on any criterion (pedagogical or economic, for instance).*

For Laroussi (2004), too, the choice of Arabic as a central axis of the linguistic policy was based on a linguistic ideology, and he gives the following arguments:

1) a religious nature argument: it postulates as an absolute Arabic as sacred;
2) a historic nature argument: historic legitimacy with regard to the golden age of the Arab-Islamic civilization;
3) a cultural nature argument: it is based on a sense of belonging to the Arab-Islamic cultural community;
4) an ideological nature argument: attention is focused on the political function of literary Arabic on the grounds that Arabic is a kind of cement which tightens the links between the different countries of the Arabic Nation. These countries may differ in their traditions, cultural facts, and political regimes but are unified through language.

Once the process of arabization was launched, unexpectedly, the authorities did not send their children to arabized schools, preferring bilingual and French schools. They created and maintained inequalities within the society on which they imposed monolingualism. This is referred to as *elite closure* by Myers-Scotton (1993), whereby the persons in power establish and maintain their power and privileges via linguistic choices. The society, thus, discredited—consciously or unconsciously—this kind of schooling, considered it as a regression, and concluded that they were denied the access to progress. For most Algerians, French remains the essential tool to modernity (Benrabah, 2002:77-78). French insured access to disciplines and academic specializations which were most rewarded in the economic field. This led to a long-lasting depreciation of arabized schools, which gave rise to dissatisfaction of arabized students who were passed over in favour of bilingual graduates, as asserted by Entellis (1981: 203):

> *Indeed, increased arabization of primary and secondary school curriculum without concurrent language uniformity at the higher levels has created enormous tensions and frustrations for those "arabisants"[*] unprepared to cope effectively with French-language instruction, and therefore destined to "dead-end" jobs, since nearly all openings in the public and private sectors require some level of bilingualism and, in certain fields, trilingualism.*

2.2.3. *Content and methodology of Arabic language teaching*

[*] In italics in the text.

In April 2000, people taking part in a conference on Arabic teaching, *la Conférence Nationale sur l'Enseignement de l'Arabe* (National Conference on the Teaching of Arabic), observed that at the end of nine years of study (primary and intermediate taken together), the pupil did not have a full command of Classical Arabic (Benrabah, 2002: 76), or that the pupil could not even quote a poet or recite a single verse of a poem (Djebbar, 1996). Boudellia-Greffou (1989) imputes some of the causes of educational failure to the exclusion of mother-tongue languages from the teaching sphere. This is backed up by Sebaa (2001), who affirms that the introduction of a withered academic Arabic, with no roots in Algerian reality, and whose syntactic constructions are far from the Algerian Arabic, has emphasized the exteriority.

Taleb-Ibrahimi K. (1993: 65) adopts Boudellia-Greffou's view about the aberrant methodology of language teaching in the primary school and synthesizes it into the notion of *break*:

- Break with traditional teaching methods,
- Break with the universal school objectives, and which implies special evaluation criteria,
- Break with universal conceptualisation in human sciences (particular definition of the oral and the written language, of acquisition, and the narration structure…)

- Break with the dialects, which leads the child to a break of its cognitive experience, i.e. with the acquisition strategies, the mental procedure of perception, and the mental perception itself.

All these breaks can lead to the point of linguistic dispossession and certainly to educational failure, too. These breaks are accompanied by an impoverishment of the linguistic capacities of learners (Taleb-Ibrahimi K., 1993:66). This impoverishment which characterizes the first years at school persists throughout the school system.

What she advocates as a solution is a complete renewal of Arabic language teaching. Through her experience as an Arabic lecturer at the University of Algiers, she testifies of the level as continually falling (Taleb-Ibrahimi K., 1993: 67). She further claims (footnote 25: 72) the lack of competence of students in Arabic to which she relates code-switching, not as a bilingualism phenomenon, but as a poor command of both languages, Arabic and French[46]. This code-switching has often been referred to in sociolinguistic literature as a trait of bilingualism and diglossia and is defined as a change by a speaker (or a writer) from one language to another one. Bilinguals often switch between their two languages in the middle of a conversation. The switching of words is the beginning of borrowing *which occurs when the new word becomes more or less integrated into the second language* (Spolsky, 1998: 49); in our case, words and sometimes whole sentences from French (*code-mixing*) are integrated into

[46] Though Ennaji (1988: 28) states: *Contrary to what some would claim, the use of code switching by these people is not an indication that they have not mastered the languages among which they switch.*

Algerian Arabic or Berber. The borrowing has been a true appropriation in the sense that these foreign words have been remodeled according to the phonetic, morphological, and syntactic rules of Arabic or Berber.

Beside the persistence of out-dated pedagogical methods, Taleb-Ibrahimi K. (1993:70) develops other arguments which support her judgement, such as teacher training. She explains that the programs dedicated to Arabic Literature degree suffer from old-fashioned outlines exclusively devoted to the practice of text explanation. Furthermore, except for one applied linguistics unit, there is no room for educational thinking enabling future teachers to get prepared for their future profession. As regards the expressive function of a language (in our case, Arabic), Lakhdar Barka (2003:102-103) validates this by saying that this expressive function ensures use to gain knowledge (reading documents, etc), but to construct bodies of knowledge, only a language developed in its communicative function (cognitive functions) can induce some thinking and create thought.

2.2.4. Marginalization of foreign languages

There was some talk in 1975 of Algerian administrators who favoured long-range plans to replace French with English as the nation's second language –160 Algerians were studying in the U.S.A at this time – because French was so symbolic and memory-laden for Algerians (Gordon, 1978:172, footnote 34). This is confirmed by Kaci (2001:53) who adds that the absence of historic conflict and cultural competition between English and Arabic languages

makes it, either implicitly or explicitly, an argument or an alibi in the ideological opposition with French language. When, in 1993, authorities decided to opt for English as a first foreign language to be taught in primary school, very few parents followed. According to Derradji (2002: 19) a very small percentage was enrolled in the English classes in primary schools (01.27% in 1995/96, and 01.28% in 1997/98). Derradji's survey seems a little biased─ he calculated the percentage of English learners according to the total number of pupils in the first and second cycle of the primary school instead of calculating only the number of pupils in the second cycle; Miliani's (2003) numbers seem to be closer to reality, 0.33%─ nonetheless the percentage was actually low, and even some parents withdrew their children after their enrolling; it led to a complete *fiasco* (ibid.: 21). The parents who favoured French did so because they considered French to be more useful and more familiar, being part of the Algerian cultural and linguistic setting. Through a survey, carried out by a team of researchers of the CRASC[47], *Lettres Etrangères et Enjeux Economiques en Algérie* (Braik, 2003), in three towns in the western part of Algeria (Oran, Mostaganem, and Sidi Belabbes), it was shown that the majority of parents favoured French on English (71.07% vs. 28.93%). Their analysis found that the population aged 30 and more showed a higher percentage in the choice of French. Again, the preference for French is immediately understandable when we are well aware that it was rather ideological aims that characterized the introduction of English as a so-called option but which is obviously in competition with French (Rahal, 2001).

Among the foreign languages, French continues to be in a dominant position with regard to other languages, as asserted by Taleb-Ibrahimi K. (1997:45)

[47] Centre de Recherche en Anthropologie Sociale et Culturelle.

> *French vacillates between the second language status and that of privileged foreign language, it is torn between official denial, on the one hand, and the impressive feature of symbolic power and the reality of its use, on the other hand.*

This view is equally shared by Grandguillaume (1998) and Caubet (1998:122) who both point out the ambiguous position of the authorities. Their position results in a real affection of the middle social classes for this language who prefer to educate their children in French, because of the high social success and access to modernity that come with French.

But in spite of this, French has undergone a steep decline in terms of quality, first in its teaching because of the redeployment, strongly encouraged, of the old (and perhaps the best) teachers and the poor training of the new ones; and second, the language as it is taught has been stripped of all that makes a language rich, namely its cultural dimension, and more particularly what makes its universality (Djebbar, 1996). Equally, Lakhdar-Barka (2003) claims that there was *instrumentalisation* of languages, be they foreign or native.

> *En voulant réduire une langue nationale à une langue fonctionnelle, on observe un phénomène d'instrumentalisation des langues non seulement étrangères mais aussi vrai pour l'arabe, par effet de retour. En voulant déshakespeariser l'anglais on a désalgérianisé l'arabe.*

Kaci (2001:64) blames the curriculum designers who displayed such pedagogical efforts and the many devices they used, to produce teaching methods of a language while

avoiding its cultural referents. Paradoxically, the great haste with which the authorities took to replace French with Arabic has resulted in increasing the amount of French spoken in the society at the expense of the Arabic language; when the national educational system started, the percentage of children in full time education was 12, nowadays it is around 80 (for the whole Maghreb, but can be equally applied to Algeria), thus most children know French or at least some snatches due to television satellites too (Moatassime, 1993:172). Moatassime, (1992:73) emphasises this *francophonisation* by saying that it is *a fact all the more resented because it seems paradoxical after so many years of independence*.

2.2.5. *Fossilization of the Human Sciences*

There has been a slow disappearance or fossilization of human sciences which are the subjects which most embody elements of culture and critical thinking: History, Philosophy and Literature—Arabic and non-Arabic (Djebbar, 1996). The weakening of the critical thought at school together with the dissemination of a religious teaching will have a strong influence on generations of pupils of whom many would be teachers, ensuring the reproduction of the system. (Remaoun, 1997:101) This stems from the Basic School (*Ecole Fondamentale*) where everything focused on *scientisme*[48] (Haddab, 1983: 37): precedence of

[48] Here Haddab has a reductionist view of the philosophical doctrine. Scientism is a philosophical position that exalts the methods of the natural sciences above all other modes of human inquiry. Scientism embraces only empiricism and reason to explain phenomena of any dimension, whether physical, social, cultural, or psychological. Drawing from the general empiricism of The Enlightenment, Scientism is most closely associated with the Positivism of August Comte (1798-1857) who held an extreme view of Empiricism, insisting that true

the scientific and technical culture over the literary one in school and society. This *technicist vision* (Harbi, 1994:3), has failed according to him, because of a lack of a social back up. This is confirmed by Halls (1994: 1058), who while evaluating education throughout the world and relating to developing countries, claimed its failure because *adequate resources for technical education were lacking.* What ensued was a real disaffection with the literary streams, either in secondary school or university. Pupils consider their orientation towards literature as a real burden, and their parents as a failure. As we showed earlier, there has been a reversal in the distribution of enrolment in university. Kadri (1993:76) reports that the distribution of universities in the 80's (*Carte Universitaire)* planned that Social Sciences would decrease from 30% to 8%, Exact Sciences from 10% to 7%, and Technology would increase from 20% to 68%.

Because of this, a phasing out of social and medical sciences took place, for different reasons moreover: to neutralise problematic disciplines —social sciences— and as asserted by Husèn (1997b: 876) *most regimes and administrations in power tend to perceive social science research with suspicion because of its critical nature,* and to redefine an elitist network—medical sciences.

As we see, there is a hierarchical system which promotes the scientific disciplines and demotes the literary ones. This hierarchy is seen by Kadri (1992: 392) as a *pedagogical utopia*

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knowledge of the world arises only from perceptual experience. Probably because a scientistic culture privileges scientific knowledge over all other ways of knowing that Haddab uses this term.

because it rather expressed more a method of instrumentalisation of science and technology toward an action of political domination than a transformation of culture in the sense of a real acquisition by the society. Kadri adds that the increase of technological courses build their force from a well-planned depreciation of social sciences: since 1980, the orientation of students having failed in Sciences toward Human Science courses, together with the few job opportunities offered, contributed to a long-lasting depreciation of social sciences. Another element which plays a significant role is that these scientific courses are still taught in French: no wonder these courses are socially advantaged. The French language was perceived as the most reliable guarantee of finding a place in the socio-economic world. The opening of Algeria to international market, the creation of private companies, and globalisation contribute to the emerging of new horizons: there is a great demand for foreign languages, especially French and English, and almost none for Arabic, in the labour market[49]. (An analysis of the ads in newspapers shows this new segregation; *Algérie Télécom*, a private telephone company, advertised to recruit 25 telemarketers, with the conditions that candidates should have an English or French degree).

Conclusion

Since independence, the opposition between Arabic and French in the educational system has deprived the Algerian society of a consensual educational scheme which would have prepared the Algerian society to manage bilingualism serenely. The competition between

[49] These private companies have become a major source of employment (Benramdane, 2001: 158).

Arabic and French has led to a lack of command of either language. The project developed by the national commission of reforms (C.N.R.S.E.) advocated the use of French in the teaching of scientific subjects. However, the introduction of French in the second grade of primary school is, in our point of view, inadequate. According to Helot (2002), when children join a bilingual program, it is important to acknowledge several factors about the first language: it has been acquired in the home context and its development is not finished by the time children enter school. This is not the case for Algerian pupils who get to know Arabic only when they enter school for the first time. So during the first year, children would learn Arabic; their knowledge is not so complete that they are engaged in a second (foreign) language. We lately learned that in 2006, the introduction of French was put off to Grade 3 but the reasons were not given.

The obsolete teaching methods were not used for Arabic only, but for all subjects, there is no intrinsic drawback in Arabic. As Jamal-Eddine Bencheikh stated (1977 cited by Grandguillaume, 1983: 44), if there have been many experiments, often regrettable, of arabization, the failure of each experiment cannot be interpreted as the failure of the Arabic language: the failure concerns the conditions under which this experience took place. The modernity of a school does not depend on a foreign language, but lies in the nature of its educational scheme (Kaci, 2001:56). The fact of changing the introduction of French in primary school, first, from the third grade to the fourth one, then to the second grade, does not follow the results of any survey: the same order is repeated.

Grandguillaume (1983:155), speaking of the linguistic situation in Algeria, as early as 1983, but which remains a burning issue, concluded by saying that the language issue is

neither socially nor politically clearly cut and that it would remain as such, for a long time, in the centre of the thorny problems experienced by the country.

Nevertheless, the link Algeria continues to have with the French language is unique in the world; French has an uncontested position in the country. We conclude this chapter with Sebaa's words (1999:89):

> *Without being the official language it carries officialness, without being the language of education it remains a language for the transmission of knowledge, without being the language of identity it continues to shape the collective imagination in various ways and through several channels, and without being the language of universality it remains the language of university.*

"Textbook evaluation" is the aim of the following chapter: the evaluation is seen in the whole context of education. Language program, curriculum, and syllabus are put into practice through the use of teaching materials such as textbooks. These latter are considered as instruments to access the target language. They are means of dealing with grammar, syntax, phonetics, and cultural matters. They are essential because they function as stimulus to promote learning.

CHAPTER FOUR

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Introduction

An educational system is a large and multifaceted organization which involves the co-ordination of many components: personnel, students, parents, curriculum, and learning materials directed to a common purpose. None of the factors involved in the system is static. The size of the child population may grow or shrink and ideas on educational goals or curriculum may change. The preparation of curricula, syllabuses, and pedagogical materials, and the education of language teachers cannot be done at short notice. A combination of language program and educational planning can very properly be applied to language pedagogy.

Language teaching is a complex undertaking. It is an enterprise that is shaped by views of the nature of language, of teaching and learning a language specifically, of teaching and learning in general, and by the sociocultural settings in which the enterprise takes place. Applied linguistics has contributed research—and practice—based ideas that have helped to shape these views, and promoted understanding of the diversity and commonalities of the settings. One product of applied linguistics has been attempts to crystallize the theoretical views of language, education, and language education into prescribed teaching materials and strategies, or methods. The abundance of methods derived from different theoretical standpoints.

1. Language Program Evaluation

1.1. Historical background

Beretta (1992a) gives a historical account of language evaluation: first, Keating's large scale evaluation (1963) investigating the usefulness of language laboratories in the teaching of French (Beretta, ibid.: 7). Second, the Colorado Project (Scherer and Wertheimer, 1964) in which a comparison of the audio-lingual method and cognitive-code teaching in the teaching of German was assessed. Finally, the Pennsylvania Project (Smith, 1970) in which the researchers wanted to show the superiority of the Audio-Lingual Method. The major influence on evaluation until this time (1960s) was Ralph Tyler's book *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* (Beretta, ibid.: 13). A common evaluation paradigm in the 1960s and 1970s was to take a suitable set of groups of learners, to match them with a control group of learners, to administer a treatment to the experimental group and then to compare the results of the experiment. This kind of evaluation proved to be inappropriate, especially the Tylerian[50] type of evaluation which revealed to be inadequate in terms of the demands made of it. Beretta gives a detailed account of the problems encountered by the aforementioned researches:

- The scales comprised too many subjects and entailed problems such as the weak control over variables and events (Smith, Scherer &Wertheimer),
- Treatments of the approaches to be compared were vaguely described and vaguely monitored (Scherer &Wertheimer),
- The kind of treatment the experimental subjects received (Keating)

[50] Tyler's model was based on the use of four objectives: things that the teacher is to do; course content; generalized patterns of behavior; and kinds of behavior the learners will be able to exhibit after instruction.(Nunan, 1988)

- The results were difficult to interpret,
- The criterion-measures were not program-fair,
- The difficulties in identifying the causal links between methods and learning outcomes, and methods and classroom practices,
- The research turned out to be a waste of time and money.

More recently the evaluation of the Bangalore Project, also known as the Communicational Teaching Project (CTP), ran from 1979 to 1984 (Prabhu, 1987, as cited by Beretta, 1992b: 251). It was based on the acquisition of grammar and proved also to be disappointing. Nunan (1988:44) explains the criticism made to this project by saying that *no guidance is provided on the selection of problems and tasks, nor how these might relate to the real-world language needs of the learners.*

But this was the infancy of evaluation of programs. According to Beretta, evaluation has emerged now as a distinct area of inquiry, and would become increasingly serious and professional. In addition, those were the first attempts at research made, and it is too easy to criticize them, now that we have the necessary hindsight.

1.2. Definition of Evaluation

Lynch (1996:2) provides us with the following definition of evaluation while being wary of the ambiguity attached to this term in relation to assessment and testing:

> *Evaluation is defined here as the systematic attempt to gather information in order to make judgments or decisions. As such, evaluative information can be both qualitative and quantitative*

in form, and can be gathered through different methods such as observation or the administration of pencil-and-paper tests.

Rea-Dickins (1994:72) gives a sample of definitions gathered among some authors:

> *Educational evaluation is the process of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives* (Stufflebeam *et al*., 1971:43).
>
> *Evaluation is the process of conceiving, obtaining and communicating information for the guidance of educational decision making, with regard to a "specified program".* (McDonald, 1973: 1-2)
>
> *Evaluation is the process of marshalling information and arguments which enable interested individuals and groups to participate in the critical debate about a specific programme.* (Kemmis, 1986)
>
> *Educational evaluation is a systematic description of educational objects and/or an assessment of their merit or worth.* (Hopkins, 1989:14)
>
> *Evaluation is the principled and systematic collection of information for purposes of decision making.* (Rea-Dickins and Germaine, 1992)

From this panel of definitions, we can identify some key parameters. Evaluation as a concept has evolved from a narrow perspective value embodying judgment and success into one which is concerned with a process, designed to collect information to feed into decision-making on matters of policy and practice. It is systematic, principled, and an integral part of curriculum planning and implementation.

1.3. Guidelines

Alderson (1992), Rea-Dickins (1994) and Lynch (1996) suggest that planning a program evaluation involves working out answers to a number of questions.

Questions may be concerning the purpose of the evaluation, audience, evaluator, content, method and timing (Alderson, 1992: 274-288).

- ***Why is the evaluation required*****?** For instance, whether a program has achieved its aims, what effect a program had had; the objective may be to compare approaches, methodologies, or textbooks; to identify areas for improvement in ongoing programs, etc.
- ***Who is the evaluation for*****?** Stakeholders, sponsors, i.e., those who are financing the evaluation (according to Alderson, any evaluation is financed, directly or indirectly) have to determine the nature of the evaluation.
- ***Who is the evaluator*****?** Is it an evaluator from the inside or the outside? Is it a team of evaluators? Although, most of the time, it is simply not acceptable that an outsider be asked to evaluate a program (because of some sensitivities), Alderson recommends that evaluations should be made both from an outsider (objectivity) and an insider (knowledge of the program).
- ***What is the content of the evaluation*****?** The content an evaluation can focus on wide ranges :

> *from the learning outcomes of the programme, in terms of the knowledge or behavior of the learners, to attitudes to the*

language, its speakers and culture; from attitudes to aspects of the programme itself, to general aptitude for further study. […] (:281)

What were the outcomes of the program? What impact did the program have on the context it was intended to influence? How is it evaluated? "How" depends on "what" is to be evaluated. This is the key issue in the planning of an evaluation. Evaluation is not synonymous with testing: although it has been proved that tests cannot tell everything we need to know about language, the only way to identify learning outcomes is through testing. It is suggested by Alderson that it is wise to gather data from different sources using different methods (*triangulation)*. One crucial method of evaluation in the planning phase is document analysis where the evaluator would analyze and discuss as much documentation related to the program being evaluated as possible.

- ***When to evaluate*?** Although evaluation is typically identified as the last element in the cycle, Alderson recommends for purposes of development that the evaluation come at the same time as the program or project is being evaluated. However, the nature of the evaluation may state the point in time: whether it is a formative evaluation (during the lifetime of the program) or a summative one (at the end of the program). The timescale of the evaluation depends on the nature of the evaluation, but a major recommendation is the longer the better.

Lynch (1996: 1-11) proposed a seven-step procedure:

- *Audience and goals,*
- *Context Inventory,*
- *Preliminary Thematic Framework,*
- *Data Collection Design/System,*
- *Data Collection,*
- *Data Analysis,*
- *Evaluation Report*.

As for Rea-Dickins (1994: 75-80), she identified key parameters which involve asking a series of structured questions: *What is to be evaluated? By whom? When? How? Who is to provide for the data? How is the evaluation to be managed and the findings used?*

2. The Curriculum

2.1. Definition of Curriculum

Issues of curriculum and curriculum change have been of interest to educators, philosophers, and social critics. Formal studies on curriculum issues go back to 1918 when Bobbitt published *The Curriculum* (Pratt & Short, 1994: 1320). Curriculum has evolved much from that period, often being at the centre of polemics surrounding its political debate, both inside and outside the school community. Being as such, many definitions have been proposed. Pratt & Short (op.cit:1320) define it as *a plan for a sustained process of teaching and learning.* Allwright (1981:9) relates curriculum to the *fostering* of *learning processes*. Others, as Clarke (1989: 133-134)) gives a much broader definition including the *learner's*

cognitive, emotional, and pragmatic needs. In fact, because of widespread reliance on textbooks as a basic teaching resource, textbooks often constitute the *de facto* content of the curriculum, thus giving publishers a powerful role in curriculum development.

The primary focus of a curriculum is on what is to be taught and when, leaving to the teaching profession decisions as to how this should be done. In practice, however, there is no clear distinction between curriculum content and methodology (Nunan, 1988) ─ how a topic is taught often determines what is taught. For this reason, and for others, there is need to distinguish the official or planned curriculum - the formally approved program of study - from the *de facto* or lived (sometimes called hidden) curriculum ─ the "lessons" that are actually learned.

Defining the term *curriculum* is problematic, but for current purposes, the working definition adopted by Marsh and Willis (1995) is used. According to them a curriculum is *an interrelated set of plans and experiences that a student undertakes under the guidance of the school* (Marsh & Willis, 1995: 10). Marsh and Willis distinguish between the *planned* or *intended* curriculum, which is the product of design and development by various agencies, such as educational bureaus at the state level, or educational publishers; the *enacted* curriculum, which refers to the educational content and activities that are provided in a classroom; and the *experienced* curriculum, which is what individual learners actually gain from the process.

2.2. Curriculum Development

The terms *curriculum development*, and *curriculum design* are used more or less interchangeably to refer to the processes and decisions involved in specifying a curriculum plan. Pratt & Short (op.cit.) identify the elements usually regarded as important in the process of curriculum development: *objectives of the instruction, the characteristics of the learners, assessment of learning, instructional content and strategies, and instructional resources* (: 1322). Lewy (1977, cited by Van Bruggen: 1274) suggested a six-phase curriculum development sequence representing the linear rationalistic approach to planning:

a) *Decision about general aims and the school structure;*
b) *Development work, including definition of learning objectives, writing program outlines, selecting topics for instruction, preparing instructional materials;*
c) *Tryout-monitoring the teaching in try-out classes, observing classroom processes, and if necessary modifying materials;*
d) *Field trial —determining optimal conditions for the program;*
e) *Implementation—in-service training for teachers, links with supervisors, the examination system, and pre-service teacher training institutions; and*
f) *Quality control— examining the quality of implemental curricula and a continual monitoring of the program.*

Yoloye (1986, cited by Van Bruggen, 1994: 1273.) suggested another model that reduces the scope of the evaluation and thus accelerates the process of curriculum production. Nevertheless, there are difficulties in bridging the gap between theoretical and normative

descriptions of curriculum development on the one hand, and the practice on the other. Quite often there is a lack of sufficient time, financial and human resources. The pressure on curriculum centers (where they exist) to produce curricula quickly and inexpensively for the benefit of schools and governments is often considerable.

2.3. Curriculum Evaluation

According to Bloom (1956), evaluation is the highest, most complex, and valuable level of learning. Indeed, we do not just evaluate to make value judgments, but also to draw conclusions—we evaluate to learn lessons which may inform future action. Curriculum evaluation, for example, might involve examining the impact of the curriculum on student performance, and revising/readjusting the curriculum accordingly. It might also involve assessing the process by which the curriculum was developed, the quality of the product itself without measuring its impact, or the use of the product with respect to various purposes. There are many ways to assess the curriculum.

We evaluate the curriculum in order to:

1. Examine its impact—on student results, public satisfaction, employment opportunities, economic development, etc, and to take action accordingly.
2. Update its content and design according to recent social, technological, economic or scientific changes.
3. Update its content and design according to recent advances in educational research and educational paradigms.
4. Re-assess learning objectives, for example to develop professional learning skills.

5. Attract funding,
6. Make international comparisons, and
7. Report back to a donor.

As for the Algerian context, an evaluation of the educational system was undertaken by a national commission (C.N.R.S.E.)[51] in 2001. We suppose that the grounds of the evaluation are the four former points developed earlier. The former system, which lasted more than twenty years, had to be updated and eventually changed. Of the three last points, the comparison to international standards is the most plausible, given that the financial aspects come within the Ministry of Education.

3. The Syllabus

3.1. Definition

A syllabus is an expression of opinion on the nature of language and learning; it acts as a guide for both teacher and learner by providing some goals to be attained. Hutchinson and Waters (1987:80) define syllabus as follows:

> *At its simplest level a syllabus can be described as a statement of what is to be learnt. It reflects of language and linguistic performance.*

[51] We dealt with this issue in Chapter Two and Three of our research, and more will be said in Chapter Four and Five.

This is a rather traditional interpretation of syllabus focusing as it does on outcomes rather than process. However, a syllabus can also be seen as a *summary of the content to which learners will be exposed* (Yalden, 1987: 87). It is seen as an approximation of what will be taught and that it cannot accurately predict what will be learnt.

Next, we will discuss the various types of approaches available to course designers and the language assumptions they make. It was Wilkins (1976) who first drew attention to the distinction of the synthetic approach from the analytic approach (Nunan, 1988:27)

3.2. Product-oriented Syllabi

Also known as the synthetic approach, this kind of syllabus focuses on knowledge and skills which learners have gained from their instruction (Nunan, 1988).

3.2.1. *The Structural Approach*

Historically, the most prevalent of syllabus type is perhaps the grammatical syllabus in which the selection and grading of the content is based on the complexity and simplicity of grammatical items. The learner is expected to master each structural step and add it to his/her grammar collection. As such the focus is on the outcomes or the product. One problem facing the syllabus designer pursuing a grammatical order to sequencing input is that the ties connecting the structural items maybe rather feeble. A more fundamental criticism is that the

grammatical syllabus focuses on only one aspect of language, namely grammar, whereas in truth there are many more aspects to language.

3.2.2. The Situational Approach

Here, the principal organizing characteristic is a list of situations which reflects the way language and behavior are used every day outside the classroom. Thus, by linking structural theory to situations the learner is able to induce the meaning from a relevant context.

One advantage of the situational approach is that motivation will be heightened since it is *learner- rather than subject-centered* (Wilkins, 1976: 16). However, a situational syllabus will be limited for students whose needs were not encompassed by the situations in the syllabus. This dissatisfaction led Wilkins to describe notional and communicative categories, which had a significant impact on syllabus design.

3.2.3. The Notional/Functional Approach

Wilkins' criticism of structural and situational approaches lies in the fact that they answer only the *'how'* or *'when'* and *'where'* of language (Brumfit and Johnson, 1979:84). Instead, he enquires *what it is they communicate through language* (op.cit.:18). Thus, the starting point for a syllabus is the communicative purpose and conceptual meaning of language i.e. notions and functions, as opposed to grammatical items and situational elements which remain but are relegated to a subsidiary role.

In order to establish objectives, the needs of the learners will have to be analyzed by the various types of communication in which the learner has to confront. Consequently, needs

analysis has an association with notional-functional syllabuses. Although needs analysis implies a focus on the learner, critics of this approach (Nunan, 1988,:37) suggest that a new list has replaced the old one. Where once structural/situational items were used a new list consisting of notions and functions has become the main focus in a syllabus. White (1988:77) claims that *language functions do not usually occur in isolation* and there are also difficulties of selecting and grading function and form. Clearly, the task of deciding whether a given function (i.e. apologizing), is either simpler or more difficult than another (i.e. requesting), makes the task harder to approach.

An alternative path would be to adopt process-oriented principles, which assume that language can be learnt experientially as opposed to the step-by-step procedure of the synthetic approach.

3.3. Process-Oriented Syllabus

Process-Oriented Syllabuses, or the analytical approach, developed as a result of a sense of failure in product-oriented courses to enhance communicative language skills. It is a process rather than a product. That is, focus is not on what the student will have accomplished on completion of the program, but on the specification of learning tasks and activities that s/he will undertake during the course.

3.3.1. Procedural Approaches

3.3.1.1. Competency-Based Approach

Competencies consist of a description of the essential skills, knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors required for effective performance of a real-world task or activity. In this respect, Docking notes that:

> *CBLT* [Competency-Based Language Teaching] *is designed not around the notion of subject knowledge but around the notion of competency. The focus moves from what students know about language to what they can do with it. The focus on competencies or learning outcomes underpins the curriculum framework and syllabus specification, teaching strategies and assessment*. (Docking, 1994: 16)

According to Nunan (2001) competency-based training developed as an alternative to the use of objectives in program planning, despite the many similarities which exist between them. There are similarities in both approaches in:

1. Focal points on what learners should be able to do at the end of a course,
2. The accomplishment of specified standards rather than with an individual's realization in relation to a group.

The major difference is that Competence-Based Language Teaching is criterion-referenced, whereas the Objectives Approach is norm-referenced.

Within this approach (Nunan, ibid. :59), a learner

- *Achieves purpose of exchange and provides all essential information accurately,*
- *Uses appropriate staging, for example, opening and closing strategies,*
- *Provides and requests information as required,*
- *Explains circumstances, causes, consequences, and proposes solutions as required,*
- *Sustains dialogue, for example, using feed-back, turn taking,*
- *Uses grammatical forms and vocabulary appropriate to topic and register; grammatical errors do not interfere with meaning,*
- *Speaks with pronunciation/stress/intonation that does not impede intelligibility,*
- *Is able to interpret gestures and other paralinguistic features* (Adult Migrant Education Service, 1993, cited by Nunan, 2001: 59).

The competency-based approach has had a major influence on syllabuses, and was used in the U.S., as well as in U.K., Australia, and New Zealand. It first emerged in the United States in the 1980s and was widely adopted in vocationally oriented education and adult ESL program. By the 1990s it became the state-of-the-art approach in curriculum development. In Algeria, the new textbooks and programs of English are based upon this approach.

3.3.1.2. Task-Based Approach

Here, the question concerning *what* becomes subordinate to the question concerning *how*. The focus shifts from the linguistic element to the pedagogical, with an emphasis on learning or learner. Within such a framework the selection, ordering and grading of content is no longer wholly significant for the syllabus designer.

Arranging the program around tasks such as information—and opinion-gap activities, it was hoped that the learner would perceive the language subconsciously while consciously concentrating on solving the meaning behind the tasks.

A task-based approach assumes that speaking a language is a skill best perfected through practice and interaction, and uses tasks and activities to encourage learners to use the language communicatively in order to achieve a purpose. Tasks must be relevant to the real world language needs of the student. That is, the underlying learning theory of task based and communicative language teaching seems to suggest that activities in which language is employed to complete meaningful tasks enhance learning.

The development of process and task-based syllabuses represented a change of focus rather than a revolution in syllabus design (Nunan, 1988).

3.3.2. Learner-Led Syllabuses

The notion of basing an approach on how learners learn was proposed by Breen (1987). Here the emphasis lies with the learners, who, it is hoped, will be involved in the implementation of the syllabus design as far as that is practically possible. By being fully aware of the course they are studying, it is believed that their interest and motivation will increase, coupled with the positive effect of nurturing the skills required to learn.

However, as suggested earlier, a predetermined syllabus provides support and guidance for the teacher and should not be so easily dismissed. Critics have suggested that a learner-led syllabus seems radical and utopian in that it will be difficult to track, as the direction of the syllabus will be largely the responsibility of the learners. Moreover, without the mainstay of a course book, the learning process may become aimless.

This leads to the final syllabus design to be examined: the proportional approach as propounded by Yalden (1987).

3.3.3. The Proportional Approach

The proportional syllabus basically attempts to develop an *overall competence* (Yalden, 1987: 97). It consists of a number of elements with theme playing a linking role through the units. This theme is designated by the learners. It is expected initially that form will be of central value, but later, the focus will turn towards interactional components ; the syllabus is designed to be dynamic, not static, with ample opportunity for feedback and flexibility (ibid:100).

The shift from form to interaction can occur at any time and is not limited to a particular stratum of learner ability. As Yalden (ibid: 87) observes, it is important for a syllabus to indicate explicitly what will be taught, *not what will be learned*.

This practical approach, with its focus on flexibility and spiral method of language sequencing leading to the recycling of language, seems relevant for learners who lack exposure to the target language beyond the classroom.

Algerian learners who face this kind of situation where the foreign language is restricted to the classroom setting should be taught through the proportional approach. In the chapter where we will analyze the secondary school textbooks, we would find whether this approach has been put forward.

4. Teaching Materials Evaluation

4.1. Definition of Teaching Materials

Materials are resources for whatever procedures are used in specific classrooms. In one sense they provide a backbone for classroom activity but in themselves they cannot dictate a particular methodology. What they do is to offer learning opportunities. When change is called for in the type of learning opportunity, it is often the materials that are used to herald the change. Materials provide the actual *syllabus* of the class they are intended for, specify the bulk of the *learning and teaching activities* used, delimit *learner and teacher roles* through instrumental texts both in the student's and in the teacher's book, dictate *techniques* to be used, mainly in the teacher's guide, regulate the *patterns of interaction*, and even supply the means for evaluation of learning, as defined by Dendrinos (1992:29-30).

4.2. The textbook

4.2.1. Definition

A textbook, according to Richards & Schmidt (2002) *is a book on a specific subject used as a teaching/learning guide* (:550). For English as second or foreign language learning, textbooks are usually part of a graded series covering multiple skills as listening, speaking, reading, writing and grammar. The term "textbook" is used in its broad sense of an organized and pre-packaged set of teaching/learning material. It is commonly referred to as course book. We shall use the terms interchangeably.

4.2.2. Role of a textbook in the EFL classroom

Textbooks are generally viewed as a tool in realizing the goals which have already been set regarding learners' needs, thus they are inevitably components of a course. However, their roles should not be overemphasized. The role of a textbook in language teaching and learning has been stated by Cunningsworth (1995:7) as:

- A resource for presentation material (spoken/written)
- A source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction.
- A reference source
- A syllabus
- A resource for self-directed learning or self-access work.

Moreover, it provides less experienced teachers with support (Richards, 1998). Beyond this, it reflects the major issues concerning the current language program (ibid.). It has a dynamic interaction with the overall goals of a language teaching program deriving from an analysis of language learners in a particular learning environment (Mc Donough and Shaw, 1993).

A path of textbook production is shown here (Jolly and Bolitho, 1998) where the needs of teachers and learners should be identified and explored first, and be contextually and

pedagogically fulfilled. After materials being printed out, evaluation just starts the way, followed by a cycle of adaptation.

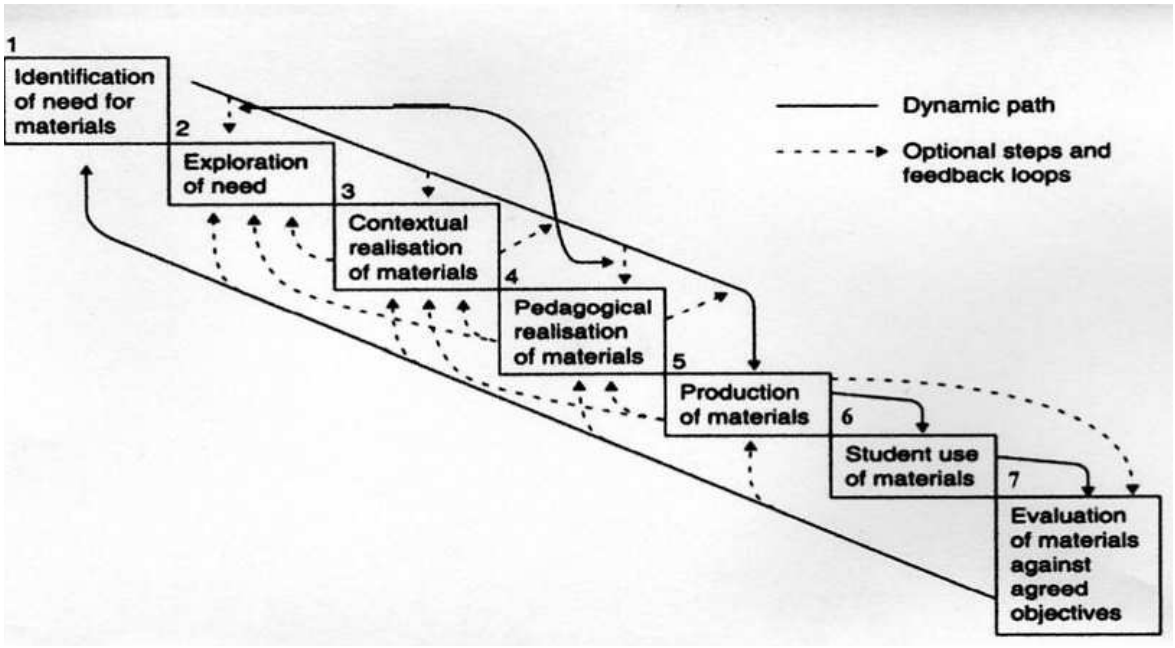


Figure 1 : A Path through the Production of New or Adapted material (Jolly & Bolitho, 1998: 98).

English language instruction has many important components but the essential constituents to many ESL/EFL classrooms and programs are the textbooks and the materials that are often used by the language instructors. As Hutchinson and Torres (1994:315) suggest:

> *The textbook is an almost universal element of* [English language] *teaching; millions of copies are sold every year, and numerous aid projects have been set up to produce them in* [many] *countries…. No teaching-learning situation, it seems, is complete until it has its relevant textbook.*

Other theorists such as Sheldon (1988: 237) agree with this statement and suggest that they not only *represent the visible heart of any ELT program* but also offer considerable

advantages—for both the student and the teacher—when they are being used in the ESL/EFL classrooms. Haycroft (1998), for example, suggests that one of the primary advantages of using textbooks is that they are psychologically essential for students since their progress and measurement can be judged concretely when they use them. Second, as Sheldon (*op.cit.*) has pointed out, students often harbor expectations about using a textbook in their particular language classroom and program and believe that published materials have more credibility than teacher-generated materials. Third, as O'Neill (1982) has indicated, textbooks are generally sensitive to students' needs, even if they are not designed specifically for them; they are efficient in terms of time and money, and they can and should allow for adaptation and improvisation. Fourth, textbooks yield a respectable return on investment, are relatively inexpensive and involve low preparation time; whereas teacher-generated materials can be time, cost and quality defective. In this way, they can reduce potential occupational over-load and allow teachers the opportunity to spend their time undertaking some worthwhile pursuits (O'Neill, 1982; Sheldon, 1988). A fifth advantage identified by Cunningsworth (1995) is the potential which textbooks have for serving several additional roles in the ELT curriculum. He argues that there are effective resources for self-directed learning, an effective resource for presentation material, a source of ideas and activities, a reference source for students, a syllabus where they reflect pre-determined learning objectives, and support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence. Although some theorists have alluded to the inherent danger of the inexperienced teacher who may use the textbook as a pedagogic crutch, such an over-reliance may actually have the opposite effect of saving students from a teacher's deficiencies (O'Neill, 1982; Williams, 1983; Kitao & Kitao, 1997). Finally, Hutchinson and Torres (1994) have pointed out that textbooks may have a pivotal role

in innovation. They suggest that textbooks can support teachers through potentially disturbing and threatening change processes, demonstrate new and/or untried methodologies, introduce change gradually, and create scaffolding upon which teachers can build a more creative methodology of their own.

While many of the aforementioned theorists are quick to point out the extensive benefits of using ESL/EFL textbooks, there are many other researchers who do not necessarily accept this view and retain some well-founded reservations on the subject. Allwright (1981), for instance, has written a scathing commentary on the use of books in the ELT classroom. He suggests that textbooks are too inflexible and generally reflect the pedagogic, psychological and linguistic preferences and biases of their authors.

Subsequently, the educational methodology that a textbook promotes will influence the classroom setting by indirectly imposing external language objectives and learning constituents on students as well as potentially incongruent instructional paradigms on the teachers who use them. In this fashion, therefore, textbooks essentially determine and control the methods, processes and procedures of language teaching and learning. Moreover, the pedagogic principles that are often displayed in many textbooks may also be conflicting, contradictory or even out-dated.

More recent authors have criticized textbooks for their inherent social and cultural biases (Alptekin, 1993; Alptekin & Alptekin, 1984; Prodromou, 1992). Researchers such as Florent and Walter (1989) have demonstrated that many EFL/ESL textbooks still contain rampant examples of gender bias, and sexism. Findings such as these have led researchers to

believe that the continuing prevalence of sexism and gender stereotypes in many EFL/ESL textbooks may reflect the unequal power relationships that still exist between the sexes in many cultures, the prolonged marginalization of females, and the misrepresentations of writers with social attitudes that are incongruent with the present-day realities of the target language culture.

Some of the aforementioned authors (Prodromou, 1988; Alptekin & Alptekin, 1984; and Alptekin, 1993) have focused on the use of the target language culture as a vehicle for teaching the language in textbooks and suggest that it is not really possible to teach a language without embedding it in its cultural base. They argue that such a process inevitably forces learners to express themselves within a culture of which they have scarcely any experience and this may result in alienation, stereotyping, or even reluctance or resistance to learning. Phillipson (1992) is also wary of the complex relationship between language textbooks and the target language culture but he sees the promotion of 'Western' (British) global textbooks as government-backed enterprises with both an economic as well as an ideological agenda. Gray (2000), on the other hand, has defended the socio-cultural components of many textbooks. He suggests that English language textbooks are actually ambassadorial cultural artifacts and that students should not only critically engage their textbooks but also view them as more than mere linguistic objects. In this way, he argues, learners will improve their language skills by using their textbooks as useful instruments for provoking discussion, cultural debate, and a two-way flow of information. Clearly there is no consensus on this issue at this particular time and this would seem to warrant some degree of caution when using these types of books in certain teaching and learning contexts. Kramsch (1993) maintains that if language *is seen as*

social practice, culture becomes the very core of language teaching (: 8). She argues further that the ultimate goal of cultural learning is to help learners see their culture in relation to others so as to promote cross-cultural understanding.

In Algeria, the problem of culturally-biased textbooks, in the sense that foreign culture is presented in a way that may upset the learners, does not arise. English and other languages (Arabic and French) are taught as a purely instrumental tool, nothing more than *a linguistic means to certain ends* (Kisserli[52], 1991:38). Perhaps because of the country's history of French colonialism, where the French language was forced upon them, authorities tend to be suspicious of the issue of linguistic imperialism.

Some proponents of authentic classroom language models have argued that the problems with many textbooks are not necessarily the fact that they are culturally or socially biased but that they are actually too contrived and artificial in their presentation of the target language. They argue that it is crucial to introduce learners to the fundamental characteristics of authentic real-life examples of both spoken and written discourse. They have demonstrated that the language presented to students in textbooks is a poor representation of the real thing, far away from the real, informal kind of English which is used very much more than any other during a normal speaking lifetime (Gilmore, 2007). Along with this, Gilmore continues, authors criticize the lack of pragmatic information and the lack of contextualization. Morrow (1977) criticised their use on the grounds that they are in effect rendered immediately unauthentic when brought in to the 'unreal' setting of the classroom.

[52] Kisserli is an inspector of English and was a textbook designer. He is the author of *New Lines* (1981). More will be developed in Chapter Five.

A final reason for disappointment and skepticism with many ELT textbooks is the fact that they are often regarded as the […] *tainted end-product of an author's or a publisher's desire for quick profit* (Sheldon, 1988:239). Too many textbooks are often marketed with grand artificial claims by their authors and publishers, yet these same books tend to contain serious theoretical problems, design flaws, and practical shortcomings, and moreover, *do not admit the winds of change from research, methodological experimentation, or classroom feedback* (ibid.). They also present disjointed material that is either too limited or too generalized in a superficial and flashy manner and the vast array of […] *single edition, now defunct* [text]*books produced during the past ten years testifies to the market consequences of teachers' verdicts on such practices* (ibid.).

4.2.3. Justification for Textbook Evaluation

Whether one believes that textbooks are too inflexible and biased to be used directly as instructional material or that they actually help teaching and learning, there can be no denying the fact that textbooks still maintain enormous popularity and are most definitely here to stay. It is important to remember, however, that since the 1970s there has been a movement to make learners the center of language instruction and it is probably best to view textbooks as resources in achieving aims and objectives that have already been set in terms of learner needs. Moreover, they should not necessarily determine the aims themselves (components of teaching and learning) or become the aims but they should always be at the service of the teachers and learners (Brown, 1995). Consequently, we must make every effort to establish and apply a wide variety of relevant and contextually appropriate criteria for the evaluation of

the textbooks that we use in our language classrooms. We should also ensure *that careful selection is made, and that the materials selected closely reflect* [the needs of the learners and] *the aims, methods, and values of the teaching program.*" (Cunningsworth, 1995:7).

Sheldon (1988) has offered several other reasons for textbook evaluation. He suggests that the selection of an ELT textbook often signals an important administrative and educational decision in which there is considerable professional, financial, or even political investment. A thorough evaluation, therefore, would enable the managerial and teaching staff of a specific institution or organization to discriminate between all of the available textbooks on the market.

Moreover, it would provide for a sense of familiarity with a book's content thus assisting educators in identifying the particular strengths and weaknesses in textbooks already in use. This would go a long way in ultimately assisting teachers with making optimum use of a book's strong points and recognizing the shortcomings of certain exercises, tasks, and entire texts.

One additional reason for textbook evaluation is the fact that it can be very useful in teacher development and professional growth. Cunningsworth (1995) and Ellis (1997) suggest that textbook evaluation helps teachers move beyond impressionistic assessments and it helps them to acquire useful, accurate, systematic, and contextual insights into the overall nature of textbook material. Textbook evaluation, therefore, can potentially be a particularly worthwhile means of conducting action research as well as a form of professional empowerment and improvement. Similarly, textbook evaluation can also be a valuable component of teacher

training programs for it serves the dual purpose of making student and teachers aware of important features to look for in textbooks while familiarizing them with a wide range of published language instruction materials.

4.3. Textbook Evaluation

Researchers have advocated a variety of approaches to textbook selection (Morrow, 1977; Williams, 1983; Cunningsworth, 1984; Breen and Candlin, 1987; Sheldon, 1988; Skierso, 1991; Chambers, 1997; Garinger, 2002). Whereas some have proposed a model (Morrow, Cunningsworth, Breen and Candlin), others have suggested a checklist (Williams, Sheldon). Although Sheldon suggests that no general list of criteria can ever really be applied to all teaching and learning contexts without considerable modification, most of these standardized evaluation checklists contain similar components that can be used as helpful starting points for ELT practitioners in a wide variety of situations.

Whatever form they take, be it in framework, checklist, model, or evaluation sheet, they all ask the right and essential questions concerning the issue of assessing a textbook. These questions serve as guidance for material evaluators when they scrutinize a particular textbook they are using or on the way to use.

4.3.1. Models and Checklists

The first model is that of Morrow (1977) who advises four simple and direct criteria to be considered:

1. "*What* is my material about?"

2. "*Why* was my material produced? "
3. "*Who* was my material produced for?"
4. "*How* was my material produced? i.e. is the language in an appropriate *mode"* (written, spoken, etc.)"?

The second model is more detailed and student-centered in nature and emanates from the work of Sheldon (1988) who presents common-core factors: the *rationale* factor considers the needs analysis, examining all student background information (level, learning preferences and culture). *Layout/graphics* addresses appearance and instructions for self-study. *Selection/grading* considers the depth to which the language is taught. *Physical characteristics* looks at the space on the material for note-taking. *Sufficiency* asks the teacher to consider the quantity of material. *Cultural bias* assesses its suitability for students' backgrounds and expectations. *Stimulus/practice/revision* asks if the material is *interactive*, allowing the students to use the language enough for eventual storage. *Flexibility* fundamentally considers whether the material is demanding too much of the teacher for preparation and the students for homework. Finally, *guidance* investigates the clarity and depth of the instructions. Of note in this model is the inclusion of cultural bias which was clearly, on reflection, overlooked in the pre 9/11 materials design process (Zughoul, 2003).

The third model is that of Breen and Candlin (1987: 13-26) who provide a more structured model in terms of its procedure in two phases, looking firstly at the materials and secondly focusing on the learner.

Phase 1 considers:

I. *What the aims and content of the materials are.*
II. *What they require learners to do.*
III. *What they require you, as a teacher, to do.*
IV. *What function they have as a classroom resource.*

Phase 2 then investigates:

I. Learner needs;
II. Learner approaches to language learning;
III. The teaching/learning processes in the classroom.

Phase 1 criteria offer extra dimensions and depth over Morrow and Sheldon. They (Breen and Candlin) consider what is potentially *missing* in the material and […] *the mental operations or steps which the learner has to undertake to be successful* (1987:15). Of particular interest though is their evaluation of how the teacher makes use of student input in the materials.

Phase 2 uniquely asks the teacher to question whether the materials can cater for the students *long-term goals*, suggesting that guidance should be offered somehow through the materials as to post-course study. Although Sheldon considers the learners' background learning preferences, he questions *is there a clear specification of the target age range, culture, assumed background, probable preferences, and educational expectations,* (ibid: 243), Breen and Candlin go further advocating:

> [W]*e need to be sure that the materials we use are open enough to accommodate both our own and our learners' preferences on appropriate procedures.* (ibid. : 24)

For a fourth model, Cunningsworth (1984: 15-20) considers more linguistic factors of the materials in terms of *language content*: *form* (phonology, vocabulary, grammar, discourse features), *functions* (e.g. obligations), *appropriateness* (i.e. where the language is suited for the situation), *varieties* (i.e. dialect, style, register and the medium of communication) and *language skills* (receptive, productive, integrated or translations). These were all valid criteria and were thought to complement the macro features of Morrow (1977), the detail and focus of the learner of Sheldon (1988), and the procedural considerations of Breen and Candlin (1987).

Later, Cunningsworth (1995) proposes four criteria for evaluating coursebooks:

1. They should correspond to learners' needs. They should match the aims and objectives of the language learning program.
2. They should reflect the uses (present and future) which learners will make of the language. Textbooks must be chosen that will help equip students to use language effectively for their own purposes.
3. They should take account of students' needs and should facilitate their learning processes without dogmatically imposing a rigid method.

4. They should have a clear role as a support for learning. Like teachers, they mediate between the target language and the learner.

The language content		The language skills	
Item	Example	Item	Example
Grammar	*-what grammar items are included? Do they correspond to students' needs?* *-how balanced is the treatment of form and use?*	**All four skills**	*-is practice of all four skills included? If so, is it balanced?* *-do the presentation and practice activities include the integration of skills in realistic context?*
Vocabulary	*-how much vocabulary is taught?* *-is there any principled basis for vocabulary selection?*	**Listening**	*-is the listening material set in a meaningful context?* *-are there pre-listening tasks, questions, etc.*
Phonology	*-is the phonemic alphabet used?* *-is the pronunciation work built on to other types of work, such as listening practice*	**Speaking**	*-how much emphasis is there on spoken English?* *-are there any listening strategies, e.g. debating?*
Discourse	*-does the coursebook deal with any aspects of discourse?* *-do the examples of spoken and written discourse presented by the material provide good model for the learners?*	**Reading**	*-is there a focus on the development of reading skills and strategies?* *-is there emphasis for reading for pleasure and for intellectual satisfaction?*
Appropriacy	*-is there any attempt to match language style to social situation?* *-does the coursebook identify situations of language use?*	**Writing**	*-is paragraphing taught adequately?* *-is there appropriate progression and variety of tasks?*

Table 22: Checklist for an Ideal Textbook (Adapted from Cunningsworth, 1995)

Tomlinson (2003:5-20) further specified several learning needs that materials should meet by following the compiling principles, which most teachers agree, contribute to successful

learning and those recommended by most researchers specialized in the field of second or foreign language learning. Thus materials should:

1. Achieve impact through novelty, variety, attractive presentation, and appealing content;
2. Help learners to feel at ease;
3. Help learners to feel confident;
4. Be perceived by learners as relevant and useful—if they have been taught;
5. Require and facilitate learner's self-investment;
6. Expose the learner to language in authentic use;
7. Draw learners' attention to linguistic features of the input;
8. Provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes;
9. Take into account that the positive effects of instruction are often delayed;
10. Take into account that learners differ in learning styles;
11. Take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes;
12. Permit a silent period at the beginning of instruction;
13. Maximize learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic, and emotional involvement which stimulates both right and left brain activities;
14. Not rely too much on controlled practice;
15. Provide opportunities for outcome feedback.

A counter-argument to the textbook evaluation schemes we have dealt with so far is Ellis' position regarding them as *prescriptive*. What he advocates is rather *retrospective*

evaluation, designed to examine materials that have been actually used (Ellis, 1997: 36). Such an evaluation provides the teachers with the information on whether the textbooks they are (have been) using, are worthwhile being used again and which activities work or do not work. He concedes that retrospective evaluation is a *daunting prospect* (ibid.: 37) and time-consuming for teachers. In this regard, he developed a micro-evaluation of tasks based on Alderson's (1992) guidelines for planning a program evaluation[53]. He followed literally Alderson's questions (purpose, audience, etc.) to which he matched choices concerning tasks. For instance beside the question "purpose", Ellis asks questions related to a task whether it has met its objectives, or whether the task is evaluated with a view to discovering how it can be improved (:38).

4.3.2. The textbook Contents

Littlejohn and Windeatt (1989: 157) find it useful to focus on six main areas found in textbooks. In addition to their *general or subject knowledge* offered in the content of the materials, they considered Cook's (1983) *real content* valuable. Likewise, they supplemented two other categories to Cook's list: *learning itself* and *specialist content* (ibid).

[53] We have dealt with this question above (1.3. Guidelines)

1. General or subject knowledge

1.1 Another academic subject
1.2 Student-Contributed Content
1.3 Language itself
1.4 Literature
1.5 Culture
1.6 Interesting facts

Cook (1983)

1.7 Learning itself (integrate learning to learn to learning English)

1.8 Specialist Content (learners have a reasonable background knowledge plus an unusual slant to it which push learners to work with both the language and the content).

2. Views of what knowledge is and how it is acquired.

Why the EFL materials content seems *bland and contentless* is according to Littlejohn and Windeatt the result of the boundaries held between subjects and the relative weighting given to subjects. The organization of the materials themselves, the kinds of activities and tasks found within them, would contribute towards forming the pupils' perception of the nature of school knowledge and how this knowledge is arrived at.

3. Views of the nature of language learning refer to the perception that learners have of the activities they are involved in: interesting/boring; easy/difficult; enjoyable/or not enjoyable. This depends on what they are required to do in each subsection.

> *One useful way to get a picture of what view of language learning a set of materials may project is to read through the sub-section headings in each unit and to look closely at the kind of things which learners are required to do.*(ibid: 162)

4. Roles in the classroom: the construction of textbooks is an attempt to bring about the certain kinds of classroom instruction and teacher/learner interaction: drills, for example, are clear indication that the learner is considered passive. Language teaching materials mirror what education is and how it should be carried out: in order to develop learner's autonomy, textbooks have to project it.

5. Opportunities for the development of cognitive abilities. In order to achieve this, language teaching materials should contain activities that require the learner to consider a number of factors at the same time, and should move away from the reproductive and mechanical tasks.

6. Values and attitudes: to what extent do the learners espouse the values and attitudes expressed in their textbooks? Some studies on sexism claimed a direct relationship between them, where girls were seen as *stupid, dependent, whining, and fearful* and boys *as active and aggressive* (Porecca,1984; Nilsen, 1977; cited by Littlejohn & Windeatt: 172). What social values and attitudes are promoted by the language materials?

4.3.3. Readability

Davies (1995) proposes that the texts be described in terms of difficulty and readability. According to Johnson & Johnson (1987), readability is concerned with the factors that affect pupils' in reading and understanding a text. These factors include:

- The legibility of the print and illustrations,
- The interest and motivation of the reader,
- The reading level of the text in relation to the reading ability of the reader.

Generally concerns about legibility should focus on artwork, modern textbook printing is of such quality. Interest and motivation can be strongly affected by factors such as:

- The attractiveness of illustrations,
- The relevance of the material to the reader
- The extent to which the reader is involved.

Teachers are constantly assessing the suitability of written materials for their students. However, subjective assessment has shown to be unreliable (Johnson & Johnson, 1987). Objective measures are now available. They are formulas or graphs (Flesch, Flesch-Kinkaid, Smog, Fry, etc.) which are based on research evidence. A readability formula predicts the reading level for the text. When comparing tests it is important to use the average of more than one formula.

According to Klare (1974-1975: 97), *sentence complexity is probably the real causal factor in difficulty*. The two simple variables of word length and sentence length are good indicators of reading difficulty: the higher their letter, syllable and word count, the greater the demands sentences make upon readers. A computer is an ideal tool for measuring these

variables, which merely *predict* difficulty; shortening words or sentences *per se* cannot guarantee better readability.

Readability formulas were first developed in the 1920s in the United States. From the earliest efforts to recent studies, readability tests have been designed as mathematical equations which correlate measurable elements of writing - such as the average number of syllables in words or number of words in sentences in the text (Klare, 1976).

The publication in 1921 of *The Teacher's Word Book* by Thorndike provided a means for measuring the difficulty of words and permitted the development of mathematical formula. Thorndike tabulated words according to the frequency of their use in general literature. Later other word lists and reading lessons were adopted to measure word difficulty. It was assumed that words that were encountered frequently by readers were less difficult to understand than words that were appeared rarely. Familiarity breeds understanding.

More recent formulas were devised by Flesch (1948), Kinkaid (1975, 1981), McLaughlin (1969, and 1974), McLaughlin & Harry (1968), Gunning (1952), whose test was called *Fog Index*. All these formulas base their calculations on two variables:

1. Semantic difficulty as measured by word length, word familiarity, or word frequency,
2. Syntactic difficulty as measured by sentence length—the average number of words per sentence.

As a consequence, the results tend to measure similar factors.

This is a description of each formula:

A. SMOG Grading (McLaughlin, 1969:639)

McLaughlin (1969) recommends to choose three passages, one in or near the beginning of a textbook, a second in the middle, and a last one at the end.

1. Count 10 consecutive sentences near the beginning of the text to be assessed, 10 in the middle and 10 near the end.

2. In the 30 selected sentences count every word of three or more syllables.

3. Estimate the square root of the number of polysyllabic words counted.

4. Add 3 to the approximate square root. This gives the SMOG Grade, which is the reading grade that a person must have reached if he is to understand fully the text assessed.

$$\sqrt{total\ complex\ words \times \left(\frac{30}{total\ sentences}\right)} + 3$$

McLaughlin then gives the equivalence of each score in terms of educational level. The following table shows this equivalence:

Smog Grade	Educational Level
0-6	Low-literate
7	Junior high school
8	Junior high school
9	Some high school
10	Some high school
11	Some high school
12	High school graduate
13-15	Some college
16	University degree
17-18	Post-graduate studies
19	Post-graduate studies

Table 23: Table of Correspondence (McLaughlin, 1969: 639)

B. Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level (Flesch, 1948; Kinkaid, 1975)

Readability measures are primarily based on factors such as the number of words in the sentences and the number of letters or syllables per word (i.e., as a reflection of word frequency).

Two of the most commonly used measures are the Flesch Reading Ease formula and the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level.

In the Flesch Reading Ease test, higher scores indicate that the material is easier to read; lower marks indicate harder-to-read passages. Flesch's formula works like this: Take a sample of the prose you wish to assess. Determine the average number of syllables per hundred words, and the average number of words per sentence. Multiply the mean sentence length by 1.015 and the mean word length by 0.846. Add the two products together, and subtract the sum from 206.835. The result of all this numerology is a figure which, to the nearest whole number, is claimed to correspond to the school grade level which a reader must have attained if he is to understand the prose you have sampled (McLaughlin, 1974:368).

206.835 – 1.015 (total words / total sentences) – 84.6 (total syllables / total words) where total syllables/total words = average number of syllables per word (ASW) and total words/total sentences = average sentence length (ASL).

As an indication, *Reader's Digest* has a readability index of about 65, *Time Magazine* about 52; a score of 70.0—80.0 is considered of average difficulty.

Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level formula translates the 0—100 scores into grade level. It means the number of years of education required to understand the text:

(9.39 x ASL)+ (11.8 x ASW) – 15.59 = a number that corresponds with a grade level.

C. Fry Reading Estimate (Fry, 1968, 1977)

This formula was devised by Fry (1968), who later (1977) proposed a graph showing the average sentence length, and the average number of syllables. In order to measure Fry Reading

Estimate, three passages of one hundred words must be selected, then we count first the average number of sentences in each:

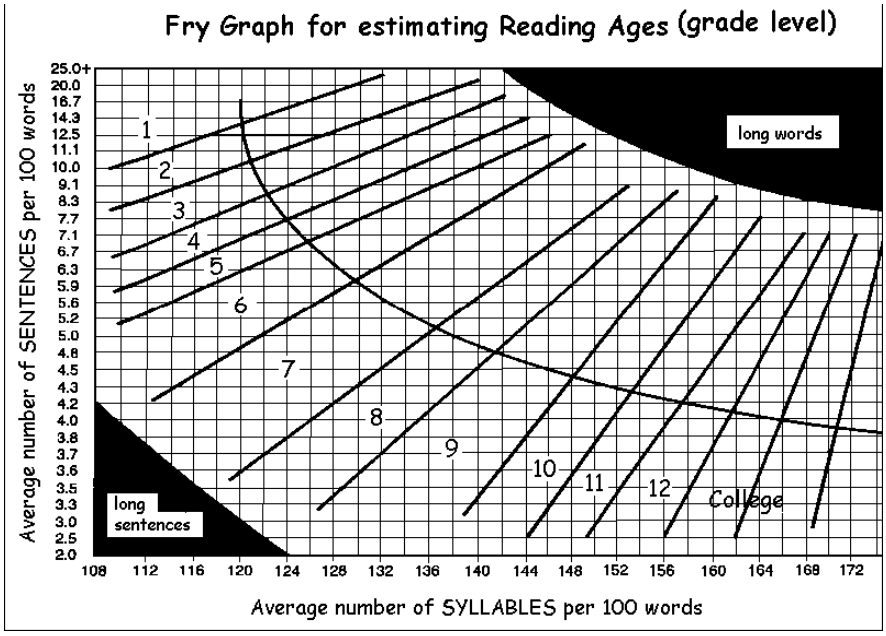
y= Sentence 1 +Sentence 2 +Sentence 3 = /3 = average number of sentences in 100 words.

Second, we count the number of syllables (B) in the three texts:

x= number of syllables for each text = Syllables 1+ Syllables 2 +Syllables 3 = divide by 3

"y" scores swing between 2.0 and 25.0 and "x" scores between 108 and 172.

Then use the Fry graph (below) to determine the reading age, in years. This test is suitable for all ages, from infant to upper secondary. The curve represents normal texts. Points below the curve imply longer than average sentence lengths. Points above the curve represent text with a more difficult vocabulary.



Graph 7: Fry Graph (1977)

Readability formulas have their staunch defenders, who argue that they are fast and economical to implement (Klare, 1974-1975; Fry, 1989). Their critics complain that they merely consider a text's surface characteristics and ignore its rhetorical organization. More seriously, they lack an underlying theory of reading or text comprehension and neglect a text's interaction with its readers, their interests, aims, experience and linguistic competence. However, beyond the point of economy and rapidity, the readability formulas help to consider the difficulty or the ease of the text even if they do not give a full picture of the contents.

4.3.4. Illustrations

Another germane component of textbook contents is illustrations. Mayer (2000) categorizes each visual in an instructional material as belonging to one of the following categories:

1) *Decorative* illustrations are aimed to interest or entertain the reader but do not improve the instructional message of the text. A picture depicting a group of students sitting and smiling in the classroom for a lesson on science and technology can be considered as a decorative illustration.
2) *Representational* illustrations portray a single element at a time and provide the exact visual description of the material being taught. Thus representational illustrations answer the question 'What is it like?' A picture of the monitor with the heading "monitor" provided along with the text explaining monitor is a representational illustration.

3) *Organizational* illustrations demonstrate relations among elements, such as maps or charts showing the main steps of the instructional design process or the main parts of a tutorial. They answer the question 'How are they organized, sequenced, or branched?'
4) Finally, *explanative* illustrations explain how a system works, such as frames to explain how the hard disk stores information. They answer the question 'How does it work?'

4.3.5. Matching the Textbook to the Curriculum

Prior to selecting a textbook, educators should thoroughly examine the program curriculum. If the goals and curriculum of the program are clear and well defined, the parallels with certain textbooks may become obvious. For example, if one of the goals of the program is to give students an opportunity to interact with authentic texts, then books that use articles written for native English speakers would be appropriate. If the program focuses on developing reading fluency, books designed to support the development of reading skills would be appropriate.

At this point, another decision needs to be made: whether to choose a textbook series or to use individual texts for each course. Either choice presents advantages and disadvantages: a series has the advantage of having one approach and contents for across levels guaranteeing a progression in the skills. However, this regularity may turn to monotony and could cause a loss of interest on the part of the learner. The other choice enables more precise matching with the objectives and varied content and design.

The following question is about the correlation between the textbook objectives and the curriculum ones (Garinger, 2004).

Exercises:

(1) Are the exercises balanced in their format, containing both controlled and free practice? Controlled exercises refer to those that guide students to a single correct answer such as a fill-in-the-blank grammar activity, whereas free practice involves exercises in which the answers are limited only by the students' creativity and knowledge.

This would include open-ended discussion questions. At times, students will require more guidance with an activity, especially when practicing a structure or function for the first time. For this purpose, controlled exercises are effective. However, students should also be given the chance to extend their experience with the language, and free exercises allow this opportunity.

(2) Are the exercises progressive as the students move through the textbook?

Exercises should build on and reinforce what students have already learned and should progress from simple—both linguistically and cognitively—to more complex and demanding. A textbook should require more from students as their language skills develop so they are continually stimulated and challenged.

(3) Are the exercises varied and challenging?

Keeping students motivated and interested as they work through a textbook is much easier if the students see something new in each chapter. Familiarity and routine can be comforting, but too much familiarity can lead to disinterest and boredom. The textbook should fulfill its role as a stimulus for communication and not be simply an organizational tool for the teacher.

Byrd (2001) supplies the following questions on the textbook:

1. *Fits curriculum/ goals*
2. *Has appropriate linguistic content (what language is being taught)*
3. *Has appropriate thematic content (what topics are used in each unit)*
4. *Fits the pedagogical philosophy of the programme.*

4.4. Teachers' Guides

4.4.1. Definition

Teachers' guides are an important part of materials package intended for teachers (usually less experienced ones, or whose English is not yet completely proficient). The detailed resources, guidance, suggestions, and instructions make them a crucial tool to the

successful use of textbooks, and teachers using the course must understand the guides and relate them to the textbooks if they want their teaching to be productive (Cunningsworth & Kusel, 1991).

4.4.2. Teachers' Guides Roles

As asserted by Cunningsworth & Kusel (op.cit.), teachers' guides (TGs) have been a neglected area in the literature. Writers on the subject of materials evaluation (cited previously) either make a brief reference to them (Williams, 1983), or ignore them completely. Coleman (1985, cited by Cunningsworth & Kusel: 128) provided insights into what is involved in the process of TG evaluation: assumptions about shared attitudes towards language, language learning and methodology—and assumptions about teachers' attitudes towards educational issues and their ability and willingness to handle ambiguity, open-endedness and incompleteness in TGs.

4.4.3. Teachers' Guide Evaluation

Cunningsworth & Kusel (1991) propose a checklist evaluation for TGs as it was done for textbooks. Coleman's model consisted of ten questions grouped into five sections which concentrated on: assumptions about the nature of language and learning; material content; implementation evaluation; and presentation. The evaluation tool developed by Cunningsworth & Kusel is more detailed in the questions it asks, with a total of 32 questions for investigation, grouped into 12 sections, labeled, for instance, *Objectives and content*,

Correction and testing, Presentation and use. These sections were further divided according to *global* and *detailed* criteria. The *global appraisal* is an expansion of Coleman's first section (assumptions about the nature of language and learning), and the *detailed evaluation* is a compilation of the remaining four.

Global appraisal:

1. *Some relevant criteria*
2. *Information about the nature of language and of the nature of the language-learning process*
3. *Developing teachers' awareness of theory*

Detailed Evaluation:

4. *Objectives and content*
5. *Cultural loading*
6. *Procedural guidance*
7. *Advice about the unpredictable*
8. *Correction and testing*
9. *Motivation*
10. *Presentation and use*
11. *TGs not in English*
12. *Lesson evaluation*

The 32 questions are developed within the criteria aforementioned. For instance— concerning the *Objectives and Content* criterion (number 4) — Cunningsworth & Kusel

question the specification and formulation of the objectives, and the content and organization of each unit. They ask essentially whether the grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, skills, etc. are fully explained and guided. Another important issue they raise is on the language used in the TG: whether it is written in English or in the languages of the country where the coursebooks are used. When TGs are written in the native language of their users there may be some disadvantages such as the *loss of experience in pedagogic metalanguage in English* (ibid.: 137).

However, Gearing (1999:123) finds some shortcomings to their evaluation checklist such as items which are duplicated within the questions, a number of essential questions have been left out, such as the *technical* aspects in Williams' (1983) textbook evaluation[54]. She further regrets both in Coleman's and Cunningsworth & Kusel's model the lack of accessibility to less experienced teachers, hence the title of her article.

She proposes a four-section checklist along with 25 closed questions (as opposed to Cunningsworth & Kusel's open-ended ones). Her questions relate to the author's assumptions about the teachers knowledge and experience in lesson planning, implementation and evaluation, teacher development and to technical points about the TG. Provision is made for teachers to weight and judge the questions (the scales are from 1 to 3—from least to most important).

[54] Williams' technical aspects: [the textbook] *is up-to-date in the technical aspects of textbook production and design; shows quality in editing and publishing (cover, typeface, illustrations); is durable, not too expensive; and has authenticity in language and style of writing*. (Williams, 1983: 255)

Conclusion

Textbooks or coursebooks as Sheldon (1988:237) states *represent for both students and teachers the visible heart of any ELT programme.* The selection of any particular one signals an important educational decision in which there is considerable professional, financial and even political involvement. Whether the coursebook is freely chosen by the teacher, imposed by a higher authority or possibly teacher-made, whether teachers carry out intuitive evaluation of their teaching materials, one way in which evaluation can be made more manageable is through checklists—be they the ones we provided or others. As Sheldon (1988:245) observes

> *It is clear that coursebook assessment is fundamentally a subjective, rule-of-thumb activity, and that no neat formula, grid or system will ever provide a definite yardstick.*

Most of the researches described have drawn the attention to learners' needs when evaluating textbooks. Such an issue can never be too over-emphasized; thus what topics that can motivate learners' interests and what kind of skills/strategies training can fit learners' needs are essential dimensions in compiling and evaluating a textbook—be it communicative or not.

Most authors we mentioned earlier all agree on a point: textbook evaluation and TGs evaluation should be an integrated part of the teachers' pre-service training or even part of their in-service training. The same textbook may be evaluated differently by teachers, when these latter have different criteria. The salient features to bear in mind in evaluating a textbook

is that it responds to the curriculum, syllabus objectives, on the one hand, and teachers and students needs and preferences on the other.

Beyond this discussion of teaching materials, looms the larger issue of teacher development and teacher responsibility; materials is only one more element within the larger concept of teachers taking responsibility of what happens in their classes. If we are to be reflective practitioners in the field of ELT, we need to consider all aspects of our teaching. Textbook is here only to serve as a support, what matters is what actually goes on in the classroom. As Allwright (1981:16) aptly says:

> *The most important point for me is that materials should be related to the conception of the whole language teaching and learning as the cooperative management of language learning.*

This chapter has been an attempt to highlight concepts referring to research contributions on textbook evaluation. It will serve as a theoretical framework for the coming chapter, in which we shall proceed through the application of the researchers' theories to the analysis of the Algerian textbooks used in the Secondary Cycle. The Algerian educational system has gone through three different periods where changes occurred in the programs, curricula, syllabuses, and textbooks. Thus the following chapter will present the description of each period through the analysis of the curricula, syllabuses, and textbooks. The theoretical framework presented here will be enlightening as for the pertinence of the theories advocated with regard to the Algerian situation.

This chapter has served, too, to the conclusion of the whole theoretical part of the thesis as well as an opening toward the practical side of the work.

CHAPTER FIVE

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Introduction

The Algerian school system consists of thirteen years grouped in there main cycles:

- The Primary Cycle which is divided into two sub-levels, each lasting three years. There is only one national exam at the end of the sixth year, unjustifiably called The Sixth Grade Exam[55]. Otherwise pupils pass from one class to another on the basis of their yearly evaluation (this evaluation is based on three three-month examinations). The New reform has not affected this cycle in the number of grades.
- The Intermediate Cycle, consisting of three years, at the end of which pupils are examined nationally in order to pass into the following cycle, and get their certificate (B.E.F)[56]. As in the Primary Cycle, pupils pass from one grade to another. From 2003, this cycle consists of four years (1ère Année Moyenne to 4ème Année Moyenne), at the end of which a national exam (B.E.M.)[57] is held.

[55] Examen de 6ème. It is still so called because during colonization and even after, the primary cycle consisted of five years, at the end of which a national exam was held in order for the pupils to pass to the 6th grade. The French system had a reverse order: its first grade was called "12ème" (or CP—Cours préparatoire), next grade being "10ème" and so forth till "Première" and "Terminales" which were the last grades in school. This exam was removed during the "Fundamental System" but reintroduced within the same system in the 1989/1990 academic year.

[56] Brevet d'Enseignement Fondamental

[57] Brevet d'Enseignement Moyen (equivalent to the BEF)

- The Secondary Cycle which lasts three years, at the end of which pupils sit for a national exam , the Baccalaureate[58], which gives access to university. Otherwise, pupils pass from a grade to another as in the Primary and Intermediate Cycles.

1. English in the Curriculum

English as a subject has had a different status in the period before and after independence. During French colonization, English was taught as a first foreign language, sharing this status with Arabic or more exactly Algerian Arabic, and introduced in the first grade of the Intermediate Cycle. Once pupils reached university (if they reached it), they would have spent eight years studying English. During the first years of the Independence, English was still taught as a first foreign language, but no longer in the first but the third year of the Intermediate Cycle. At the end of the Secondary Cycle, pupils would have studied English for five years (two years in the Intermediate Cycle and three years in the secondary cycle), as it was still the case until the New Reform in 2004. But the huge difference is that English is no longer considered the first foreign language but the second. This has been the case except for the period where English was introduced in the Primary Cycle, replacing French[59]. With the New Reform, nothing is being said on the place of English as a first foreign language, French in fact regains its original position, as the privileged first foreign language. Nowadays, English

[58] Baccalauréat

[59] This issue has been discussed in Chapter Three

is now taught from Grade One in the Intermediate Cycle[60]. By the time they reach the final grade of the Secondary Cycle, pupils will have studied English for seven years, similarly to the pre and pre post-Independence pupils.

The details are shown in the table below:

	– 1962	1962 – 1975	1975 – 1993	1993 – 2004	1993 – 2003	2003 –
English FL1	Intermediate Cycle (4 years) + Secondary Cycle (3 years)				Primary Cycle (3 years) + Intermediate Cycle (3 years) + Secondary cycle (3 years)	
English FL2		Intermediate Cycle (2 years) + Secondary Cycle (3 years)	Intermediate Cycle (2 years) + Secondary Cycle (3 years)	Intermediate Cycle (2 years) + Secondary Cycle (3 years)		Intermediate Cycle (4 years) + Secondary Cycle (3 years)
Total	**7 years**	**5 years**	**5 years**	**5 years**	**9 years**	**7 years**

Table 24: Status of English at School. (English as a 1st Foreign Language or as a 2nd Foreign Language).

1.1. The period from 1962 to 1970

During this first period of the post-Independence, English in Algerian schools was taught as English in French schools. Hayane (1989:45) points out the prestigious image this language holds in Algeria, even by governmental authorities, who never quite equated it with the language of colonialists and imperialists, in contrast to French. This is strange enough when we know the status of English throughout the world, as stated by Phillipson (1992: 10)

[60] 1ère Année Moyenne

English is in fact an essential cornerstone of the global capitalist system. Or as written by Fishman (1987: 8):

> *The relative unrelatedness of English to ideological issues in much of the Third World today must not be viewed as a phenomenon that requires no further qualification. Westernization, modernization, and the spread of international youth culture, popular technology and consumerism are all ideologically encumbered and have ideological as well as behavioral and econo-technical consequences.*

This view expressed in 1987 is in contrast to Fishman's earlier position (1977), as reported by Phillipson, where he *propagated the idea of the purportedly neutral and tool-like image of English* (Phillipson, 1992:10). Phillipson denounces, whether rightly or not, the British Councils control over ELT in third world countries and the continuing relation of dependence and support these countries have with local British councils *in matters of material aid, the training of personnel, the framing of syllabi, and pedagogical methods* (Phillipson, 1997: 205). Phillipson was himself member of the British Council from 1964 to 1973, and had his former post in Algeria. A member of the British Council was behind the opening of an English Department in 1964 at the University of Algiers[61]; we wonder whether it was Phillipson. The aim of these details is not to denounce the linguistic imperialism of English, but to emphasize that no language teaching is neutral, be it French or English, in contrast to what the authorities thought in 1993 when they introduced English in replacement of French.

[61] Kadri, A. (personal communication)

English, thereby gained ground on the other foreign languages—Spanish, Italian, German and Russian—which were less and less taught until they have stopped being taught at all, not for lack of demand but at the authorities instigation. During the 1962/1969 period, English was still considered a *second language*[62]. Perhaps textbook designers then did not mean second language as it is defined today, i.e.

> *A language which is not a native language in a country but it is widely used as a medium of communication (e.g. in education and in government) and which is usually used alongside another language or languages* (Richards et al., 1992:143).

It is worth mentioning that the curriculum was set to pupils in both countries: France and Algeria. The English Curriculum, set by the French Ministry of Education (1969) gives instructions on the way English (or any other foreign language) is to be taught, following which methods, including which content, and clarifying the latter (Hayane, ibid.: 55). Consequently the English curriculum had to adapt to progress made in linguistic theory as far as foreign/second language teaching was concerned (the French Ministry of Education[63], ibid.:2). Emphasis was put during the first two years on the *acquisition of phonetic and structural automatic reflexes* (ibid.). While teaching the four skills, the FME insisted on giving pupils a cultural objective in the teaching of English. This objective is reached through acquaintance with the British life and thought, and is taught mainly in the Secondary Cycle.

[62] Our emphasis.

[63] Henceforth FME

The titles of the Secondary Cycle textbooks suggest this objective: *L'Anglais par la Littérature* [64](English through Literature) for the two fist years of the Secondary Cycle. These books authored by Richard and Hall (1960/1961/1962/1963) were often referred to as *Richard and Hall Method*. Hayane (1989) reports the lack of confidence the Algerian authorities had in these textbooks. According to him, the level was too high for the pupils. The textbooks were originally designed to suit French pupils, and consisted of four manuals. But since in Algeria, the pupils started studying English two years after their French counterparts, it was thought that a-two-year program could not meet Algerian pupils' needs, and this because of the compilation made of the four textbooks into two. On that ground, and may be some others, the authorities prompted the design of an Algerian textbook.

Grade	Title	Authors	Year of publication	Number of pages
4ème	*L'Anglais, Langue Seconde*	Richard & Hall	1960	224
3ème	*L'Anglais, Langue Seconde*	Richard & Hall	1961	238
2nde	*L'Anglais par la Littérature*	Richard & Hall	1962	272
1eres	*L'Anglais par la Littérature*	Richard & Hall	1963	270

Table 25: English Textbooks 1962/1970. Adapted from Hayane (1989)

[64] All the textbooks of that period had as a sub-title "English as a second language"

1.2. Period from 1970 to 1980

From 1970, many changes took place in the educational system. As we saw in Chapter Three, the Ministry of Education was split into two ministries: the Ministry of Education (Primary and Secondary Cycles) and the Ministry of Higher Education. A national supervisor and some regional inspectors of English were appointed for the first time. From 1971, beginners in English had learnt at school as much French as Arabic (Hayane, 1989: 155). The first objective of the new textbook designers aimed at improving the standards in English as well as meeting the pupils' needs. For that purpose, they promoted the structural method. Three textbooks designed by Alexander (1967a, 1967b) were provided for the Secondary cycle: *Practice and Progress*, *Developing Skills*, and *Fluency in English*. But the latter was never used as it was considered too much difficult for the learners. Instead, *Practice and Progress* was used for the first two grades (Seconde and Premières[65]), and *Developing Skills* for the third grade (Terminales).

In 1968, there were 431 language teachers, of whom 68 Algerians and 363 foreigners (mostly French). It means that 82% knew no Arabic (ibid: 48). Hayane means to say that on these grounds a revision of pupils' needs in terms of the language they know was required. But it seems to us that at the time, students were much more competent in French (considered as the first language) than Arabic which was rather *the* foreign language. Whatever the reason,

[65] Later they were referred to as 1AS, 2AS, 3AS (1ère, 2ème and 3ème Année secondaire)

it is true that authorities wanted a change in the curriculum and this is supported by Guesbaoui's (1986) report of that situation.

The structural method was promoted under the influence of "cooperants"[66]. But for the authorities the structural method had a three-fold advantage: first, to get rid of French as an intermediate language in the teaching of English; second, the English teaching would no longer be the preserve of French or French-speaking cooperation; and third, this method would enable Algerian teachers to be trained quickly: for want of anything better, it was limited to the initiation to the programs and textbooks, and to methodological *formulas* (Guesbaoui, 1986). Alexander (1967: 12), in his preface, declared:

> [The textbook's aim is to] *provide the teacher with coordinated and graded material which will enable him to conduct each lesson with a minimum of preparation.*

The structural method would favor the oral side of the language by intensive drills, memorization, reading aloud, exercises of intonation and pronunciation, and other verbal tasks which would give learners the opportunity to *practice* the language and so to *progress*, as the textbook is entitled. At the time, there was no policy determined as to the English language learning: it was a subject among others, the aim of which was to prepare pupils for the baccalaureate exam (Guesbaoui, ibid.: 45). She noted some discrepancies between what was taught in classrooms and what was evaluated in the Baccalaureate examination.

[66] Foreign persons (mostly French) who came in Algeria to work, for some, in lieu of military service.

So during all that period, the structural method was greeted as a panacea only to be dismissed a few years and a lot of money later as an ignis fatuus.

The new Algerian[67] textbooks were designed to the third and fourth grade of the Intermediate Cycle (4ème and 3ème): *Success with English* (Broughton, 1968), where two main characters, Martin and Jillian are teenagers whose adventures provide a backdrop to the language teaching. In 1970, these textbooks were used by both grades. Another change occurred for the third grade of the Secondary Cycle (Terminales) textbook. It was no longer Richard and Hall method, but Alexander's *Developing Skills*. Strangely enough, pupils were using *Success with English* in the Intermediate Cycle, then went back to *Richard and Hall* textbooks during the first two grades of the Secondary Cycle, then dropped this method to use *Developing Skills* (Hayane, 1985). What was the use then to start a new method only to dismiss it two years after, and then returning to it in the end? We shall see later in the same chapter that the English language teaching had a lot of incongruities. The Ministry explained that this "complex" situation would end with the introduction of Algerian textbooks (ibid.: 219). In 1974, Richard and Hall method was definitely replaced by Alexander's *Practice and Progress* in the two first secondary grades.

In 1975, the first really Algerian textbook was published: *Andy in Algeria*. It is the result of the experience of *Success with English* method. The Algerian textbook is a more precise adaptation of the method and techniques in use since 1969, to the particular situation of English teaching in Algeria (Hayane, op.cit.: 283). Prior to the publication of the textbook, a

[67] These textbooks were not so Algerian, since they were written by a foreigner to all foreign language learners, not specifically Algerian.

survey was carried out and questionnaires were distributed among teachers and pupils regarding *Success with English.* The outcomes were, according to Hayane (ibid.: 171), quite unmanageable, because the anonymous report eliminated most teachers during the questionnaire analysis, on the grounds that they were inexperienced – 60 % were novices. The objective of the survey was to set up recommendations based on teachers' opinions with a view to designing an Algerian textbook. It emerges from the survey that there were too many contradictions (teachers finding progression logical but at the same time not fully satisfied with it), lack of clarity on the part of teachers (confusing concepts) and some inconsistencies (the number of words in *Success With English*—900—was considered satisfactory, but at the same time teachers recommend a 800-word textbook to cater for pupils' needs) (Hayane, ibid.: 171-175). Pupils and teachers were not in agreement on the analysis of contents: most pupils found texts to be interesting whereas 70% of teachers found them inappropriate (teachers wanted texts less foreign-culturally oriented). Pupils would have liked to read about Algerian teen-agers visiting England, and emphasis on such topics as sports, songs, games and jokes. No other survey has been made since that one[68], and it is to be regretted that the experts did not take into account the pupils preferences (ibid.: 176).

Grade	Title	Authors	Year of publication	Number of pages
4ème	*Success with English 1*	Broughton	1968	303

[68] With the exception too of *New Lines,* as it is stated in the introduction (Kisserli, 1981:5).

	Andy in Algeria	Ministry of Education	1975	-
3ème	*Success with English 2*	Broughton	1968	303
	Madjid in England	Ministry of Education	1976	-
2nde	*Practice and Progress 1*	Alexander	1967	232
1eres	*Practice and Progress 2*	Alexander	1967	232
Terminales	*Developing Skills*	Alexander	1967	145

Table 26: English Textbooks 1970/ 1980. Adapted from Hayane (1989)

1.3. Period from 1980 to 2002

This period can, at least as regards English, be split into two: from 1976 to 1993, and from 1993 to 2003. As we saw in chapter three, a major change took place with the 1976 ordinance which came to be applied during the 1980/1981 academic year. The whole school system was reviewed, which implemented the *Fundamental* or *Basic School*. As for English, a new textbook *New Lines 1* was published, intended for the 1st Secondary Cycle, and would be used for all streams. The textbook consisted of 18 units, each unit supposed to be dealt with in 6 hours. The allocation of time a week for literary and scientific streams was naturally different: four for the former, and three for the latter. And naturally, neither stream would actually finish the program. There was a major drawback concerning this textbook because literary streams used it in the first grade and finished it in the beginning of the second grade. Teachers had no other choice than to go back to Alexander's *Practice and Progress*, despite its so controversial method (Guesbaoui, 1986: 55). It was only in 1985 that *New Lines 2* specifically designed to

the second graders in the Secondary Cycle was available. This textbook did not last long as we can see in Table 4, in 1988 a new one was designed – *Midlines*. In 1995, some changes were brought to the syllabus, and *The New Midlines* is a compilation of three textbooks: *New Lines*, *Midlines*, and *New Skills*. The authors (Achour & Salmi, 1997: 4) explain in the introduction that:

> *The ideal thing would of course be to design a brand-new course that meets the demands of this new syllabus* [the 1995 syllabus]. *But as that requires a great deal of work and as time is running* [out], *it was thought useful to produce this tool while teams are set up to devise a more useful document for the future.*

Grade	Title	Authors	Year of publication	Number of pages	Teacher's Guide
3 A.M.[69]	*Spring One*	Belkaid et al.	1984	182	✓
4 A.M.	*Spring Two*	Belkaid et al.	1985	235	✓
1 A.S.[70]	*New Lines 1*	Kisserli	1981	277	✓
	My New Book of	Bereski	1998	160	✓

[69] A.M. stands for Année Moyenne with reference to the Middle School.

[70] A.S. stands for Année Secondaire with reference to the High School.

	English				
2 A.S.	*New Lines 2*	Kisserli	1985	160	✓
	Midlines	Menasseri et al.	1988	-	✓

Table 27 : English Textbooks 1980/2003

Kara (2002) interviewed an inspector, Achour, whose name appears in two textbooks – *New Midlines* and *Spot-light on English 1*[71]—who declares that after *New Midlines* was designed, his team were asked to draw up syllabuses from the textbook (Kara, ibid.: 531). He further affirms that under the injunction of the ministry, English had to be considered as a means of communication, deprived of culture and civilization contexts (this will be developed later in the chapter).

It is worth mentioning that unlike other subjects, English was the only one subject which syllabuses and textbooks were changed so many times. We could possibly think that teachers and supervisors noted some inconsistencies in the English curriculum. This was pointed out by Guesbaoui (1986: 45) on the lack of correlation between what was taught at school and what was evaluated during the national exam:

Skill	**Time Allocation**	**Evaluation**
Listening	60%	0%
Speaking	5%	0%
Reading	20%	40%
Writing	15%	60%

Table 28: Contradictions in the English Curriculum. (Guesbaoui, 1986:50)

[71] *The New Midlines* is the textbook used in 1st Secondary Grade, and *Spot Light on English* is the textbook currently used in 1st Grade in Intermediate School.

As we said earlier, a new change occurred concerning the introduction of English as a first foreign language (EFL1) in the primary cycle from 1993[72]. EFL1 is granted five hours a week (in addition to one hour devoted to help slow learners). The 4e AF syllabus specifies a content and methodology it claims to be task-based. As we will see in the table below, the EFL1 textbooks had the same author from one year to another, and textbooks were published year after year. Although no thorough analysis of these textbooks has been carried out, it is evident on first blush that the designers had not taken the actual situation in schools into consideration. We recall well the situation, when EFL1 was introduced in primary school: there was no preparation of either teachers or materials. Teachers were not trained (most were even novices) to deal with such young pupils, and were introduced to the materials at the beginning of the school year. Even the supervisors lacked long-term vision. It seemed that the curriculum was drawn from the textbooks (Kara, 2002: 530). The supervisors promoted in-service training, and seminars were held throughout the year. The textbooks were not accompanied by teacher's guides, what was mentioned was only the syllabus and the content (ibid: 523).

[72] This issue has been developed in Chapter Three.

Grade	Title	Author	Year	Supplementary Material	Teacher's Guide
4e AF	*My Book of English 1*	Bereski	1993	Workbook (pupils)	-
5e AF	*My Book of English 2*	Bereski	1994	Workbook (pupils)	-
6e AF	*My Book of English 3*	Bereski	1995	Workbook (pupils)	-
7e AF	*My Book of English 4*	Bereski	1996	Workbook (pupils)	-
8e AF	*My Book of English 5*	Bereski	1997	Workbook (pupils)	-
9e AF	*My Book of English 6*	Bereski	1998	Workbook (pupils)	-
1e AS	*My Book of English 7*	Bereski	1999	Workbook (pupils)	-
2e AS	*My Book of English 8*	Bereski	2000	Workbook (pupils)	-
3e AS	*My Book of English 9*	Bereski	2001	Workbook (pupils)	-

Table 29: EFL1 textbooks.

1.4. Period from 2003 —

In 1996, Algerian authorities decided to make new reforms in the content of the 1976 ordinance. A Higher Council for Education was appointed, charged with the reorganization and reorientation of the Algerian educational system. The national commission in charge of the reform (CNRSE[73]) was assigned to work on the revision of the programs. This commission, often referred to as *Benzaghou Reform*, under the name of the person at its head,

[73] This is dealt with in the chapter "Arabization of the Educational System" (Chapter Three).

made amendments to the teaching of foreign languages (as far as we are concerned). French thereby would be taught starting from the second grade in the primary school, and English from the seventh grade of the middle school. To this end, new textbooks have been designed. Details concerning them are shown in the following table:

Cycle	**Grade**	**Title of the Textbook**	**Author**	**Year of Publication**	**Number of Pages**
INTERMEDIATE	Seven	*Spot-light on English* (1)	Merazga L. et al.	2004	189
	Eight	*Spot-light on English* (2)	Merazga L. et al.	2004	125
	Nine	*Spot-light on English* (3)	Arab, S.A. et al.	2005	188
	Ten	*On the Move*	Arab, S.A. & Riche B.	2006	192
SECONDARY	First	*At the Crossroads*	Arab, S.A. et al.	2005	155
	Second	*Getting Through*	Riche B. et al.	2006	208

	Third	_____	_____	____	___

Table 30: The New English textbooks.

The textbook of the 3rd Grade of the secondary school was not available when we were writing this chapter.

As for the status of English as FL1, it was no more dealt with. It was abortive, but generations of pupils were sacrificed, once again. In 2001/2002 there were still pupils enrolled in EFL1, in primary school; this means that these pupils will reach university in 2010/2011. But by the time they reach the intermediate school (probably around 2004/2005), they would fall precisely in the new reform which is changing all the system. What has come of these pupils?

We note that textbooks designers are not the same along the program: Merazga et al. started the series *Spot-light 1* and *2* (2004), and then Arab et al.(2005, 2006) took over since these latter designed all the textbooks from grade Nine in the Intermediate Cycle to grade Two in the Secondary Cycle. What could be the reasons which led to these changes? The foreword addressed to the teacher in *Spot-light 3* states that the textbook is built in the same format as *Spot-light 2*, the approach is competency-based and the method it follows is learner-centered. But some innovations have been introduced: the textbook is centered on projects, a Reading Writing section (focus on authentic texts), and a cultural component (a whole file is devoted to culture where Great Britain and the United States of America feature). A superficial look we had tells us that these new textbooks have the advantage of being colorful, full of pictures,

where each file (exit the units) is highlighted, exercises are various and varied, and culture is given its own right. Grammar exercises are highly recreational; authentic texts are used (Advertising, for example); a glossary (English/Arabic) is supplied at the end of the book (*Spot-light 1*). A significant change has taken place since Spring One and Two (Belkaid et al, 1984, 1985) from which most pupils remember characters as Mr Aouinet (the plumber), Mr Nedjar (the carpenter) and Mr Bennai (the architect)[74].

However nothing is said on the authors of the textbooks, we read that one person is the head of the project, and then there follows a list of contributors consisting of names only: are they teachers? Supervisors? If they are teachers or supervisors, which cycle do they teach, supervise? What are their academic qualifications? These questions are not only raised concerning these specific textbooks but all the ones designed by Algerians. The only indication mentioned is *Head of Project.*

Another point we noted is the year of publication of two textbooks: *On the Move* (10th Grade, Intermediate Cycle) and *At the Crossroads* (1st Grade, Secondary Cycle), both by the same author. The former was designed in 2006 and the latter in 2005. It means that the higher one was designed before the lower one; will this have positive or negative consequences?

[74] These are Arabic terms transcribed in Latin script.

2. The English Curriculum

Secondary school curricula and teaching methodologies are formally developed by the Ministry. Discipline-based commissions work on curricula proposals. These commissions include teachers selected throughout the country on the basis of competence in curricula matters. The final decision regarding the scope and contents of a particular curriculum remains, however, with the Ministry of Education. Once approved these curricula are nation-wide and compulsory: local or regional variations are not permitted. The implementation of curriculum is controlled by a body of inspectors. The proposals made are usually accompanied by proposals for textbooks to go together with the syllabus. All textbooks are developed by the National Pedagogic Institute (I.P.N.) (Djeflat, 1992).

All the periods referred to earlier share the same characteristics as for the time allocated to the study of English at every grade of every cycle. It is worth mentioning at this stage that any pupil enrolled in any stream can claim rights to be enrolled in an English department, despite her/his time of exposure to English learning.

Education	STREAMS		Weekly Time Allocation		
			1st Grade	2nd Grade	3rd Grade
GENERAL	LITERARY	Arabic language and literature	3	3	3
		Human and Islamic Sciences	3	3	3
		Arabic and Foreign Languages	3	4	4
	SCIENTIFIC	Natural Sciences	2	3	3
		Technology	2	2	2
		Exact Sciences	2	2	2
TECHNI	MANAGEMENT	Economy & Management	2	3	3
	TECHNICAL	Mechanics	2	2	2
		Electronics	2	2	2
		Chemistry	2	2	2
		Civil Engineering	2	2	2

Table 31: Time allocation of English in the Secondary Cycle (Former Program).

According to the curriculum, the pupils at Secondary Cycle are supposed to have attended at least 200 hours of English (4 hours/week in 8 A.F. and 5 hours/week in 9 A.F.); this supposes that an academic year counts 21 weeks of learning, which means it is rather insufficient. An academic year consists of more weeks because we did not include weeks

devoted to examinations. In the past, pupils were evaluated three times in a term: two exams are on continuous evaluation format (*devoir surveillé)*, and one exam related to the program of the whole term (*composition*). In the new system, a first difference appears at the number of continuous evaluations: two for the main subjects (Mathematics, Arabic, Natural Sciences and Physics) and the other subjects (thus English) are evaluated once. There is also one exam per term. The second difference is the week(s) dedicated to.

As for the curriculum, the existing references show neither the philosophical approach, nor the method advocated. The curriculum consists of listings of points to be covered and objectives to be achieved. We preferred to deal with this aspect when we introduce the textbooks of the new program. The new curriculum states in the introduction how things have evolved and makes many references to the previous curriculum. Furthermore, there is no curriculum as such, since authorities decided to change them, and textbook designers were urged to prepare syllabuses and textbooks while new programs were being conceived.

As the following table shows, there have been changes too in the time allocation of English:

Education	STREAMS		Weekly Time Allocation		
			1st Grade	2nd Grade	3rd Grade
GENERAL	LITERARY	Arabic language and literature	4	4	4
		Arabic and Foreign Languages	4	5	4
	SCIENTIFIC	Natural Sciences	3	3	3
		Technology	3	3	3
		Exact Sciences	3	3	3
TECHNI	MANAGEMENT	Economy & Management	3	3	3
	TECHNICAL	Mechanics	3	3	3
		Electronics	3	3	3
		Chemistry	3	3	3
		Civil Engineering	3	3	3

Table 32: Time allocation of English in the Secondary Cycle (New Program).

3. The English textbooks

English textbooks in Algeria have the following features:

- No competition: unlike foreign countries, Algerian textbooks suffer no competition since they are specially designated by the Ministry of Education

and designed by a special commission, consisting of teachers, and inspectors of English. All school institutions in the country require students to have the books. In the past, it was up to the institutions to supply them. But now, textbooks are often available in the marketplace, even though they may suffer from time to time from shortages. As for the cost, it is generally decided at the level of the Ministry, and all things being equal, textbooks are relatively affordable.

- Uniformity: all textbooks, regarding all streams and disciplines are used in every school. Once the textbook has been accepted it is used until a new reform in education removes it. The textbooks we are assessing have been used for almost twenty years, until the 2002 Reform changed them. The new textbooks are being published. The new secondary textbook, concerning the 1st secondary grade in high schools was released for the 2006 school year. The one designed for the 3rd grade is not published yet. Heads of schools and teachers are obliged to adhere to the weekly allocation of time and the curriculum objectives for languages, laid down nationally by government.
- Home-produced textbooks: the textbooks adopted are all produced in Algeria.
- Prescription: any pupil coming to school must have her/his textbook. A lack of presentation is grounds for a three-day suspension from school.

We shall analyze the textbooks in terms of the following parameters:

1. The textbook Content

- General presentation
- Units Organization
- Texts: General information, Readability (three measures will be applied: Smog index, Fry Readability Estimate, and Flesch Reading ease and Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level), and finally we will apply Littlejohn & Windeatt's (1989) *General or Subject Knowledge* (Another Academic Subject, Student-Contributed Content , Language Itself, Literature , Culture, Interesting Facts , Leaning Itself, and Specialist Content).
- Subject matter
    1. Variety of topics appropriate to the interests of the learners.
    2. Does the content serve as a window into learning about the target language culture (American, British, etc.)? (Skierso, 1991, Kramsch, 1993)
    3. Is the subject matter presented either topically or functionally in a logical, organized manner? (Byrd, 2001, Skierso, 1991, and Daoud & Celce-Murcia, 1979)
    4. Are the reading selections authentic pieces of language? (Sheldon, 1988; Alderson, 1992)

- Vocabulary and structures
    1. Reasonable load
    2. Gradation from simple to complex items
    3. Reinforcement
    4. Appropriateness of grammar points and their sequence

5. Linguistic items introduced in meaningful situations to facilitate understanding and to ensure assimilation and consolidation. (Cunningsworth, 1995)

- Tasks[75]

1. Do the exercises develop comprehension and text knowledge of main ideas, details and sequence of ideas? (Sheldon, 1988)
2. Do the tasks facilitate students' use of grammar rules by creating situations in which these rules are needed? (Byrd, 2001;Skierso, 1991; Daoud & Celce-Murcia, 1979)
3. Do the exercises provide practice in different types of written work (sentence completion, spelling and dictation, guided composition)
4. Do the exercises promote critical thinking? (Skierso, 1991) Critical thinking is an expanded use of the mind to meet new challenges which occur when a person must interpret, analyze or manipulate information, because a question to be answered or a problem to be solved cannot be resolved through the routine application of previously learned knowledge.

- Balance of skills.

1. Is practice of all four skills included? If so, is it balanced?

[75] We use tasks to refer to any activity or exercise, *the smallest unit of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language.*(Nunan, 1989: 5)

2. Do the presentation and practice tasks include the integration of skills in realistic context? (Cunningsworth, 1995)

- Illustrations

1. Are the illustrations simple enough and close enough to the text that they add to its meaning rather than detracting from it? (Byrd, 2001)
2. Is the text attractive (Category of illustrations)? (Mayer, 2000)

2. Fit between the textbook and the curriculum (Byrd, 2001)

1. Fits curriculum/goals
2. Has appropriate linguistic content (what language is being taught)
3. Has appropriate thematic content (what topics are used in each unit)
4. Fits the pedagogical and philosophy of the programme.

For reasons stated earlier, we will deal with this aspect once we have introduced the "new textbooks".

Regretfully, we could not include the analysis of the English FL 1 textbooks for their lack of availability.

3.1. *My New Book of English* (1998)

3.1.1. General Presentation

Level of Proficiency: 1 A.S. —1st Grade in Secondary Cycle (third year of English as FL2)

Number of Pages: 160.

In the *Introduction*, the author—Bereski—explains that the new textbook was designed in response to the *slimming down* of the syllabuses of the three grades of the Secondary Cycle. This change in the syllabus occurred because it was felt that *teachers and students alike were faced with the delicate and time-consuming job of finding material that could fit the new syllabuses*. He does not claim that the textbook is self-sufficient since he exhorts teachers to supplement materials whenever necessary, provided that they are authentic.

The textbook contains different sections as *How Much Do You Remember*, *Grammar Section*, *Simplified Version* (refers to texts appearing in either original version, or a simplified one), *Tasks* (they are eclectic, not adhering to a specific approach), and *Be Our Guide* (intended for reading), *Keys* (they serve to motivate the learners).

He further gives recommendations to the teachers, *Individualize Your Teaching* (encourages teachers to make learners autonomous, and to communicate with them), and *Adapt the Textbook* (to suit learner's interests and needs). As it has been noted by the Inspector of English of Constantine, there is a contradiction in what preceded in so far as the authorities advise to supplement the materials but prescribe the use of the textbook. Many teachers, according to the inspector, were undecided, because it meant among other things to pay for the photocopies out of their own pockets.

3.1.3. Unit Organization

The textbook consists of:

- *Acknowledgements* — for the reproduction of extracts (p 3),

- *Introduction* (p 8),
- 16 units (pp 10-88),
- *Rhymes*— three poems (p 9),
- *How Much Do You Remember* section (pp 15-31).
- *The Light Side* which contains tasks on proverbs, a game, and riddles.
- *Songs* (pp 93-99) — eleven songs,
- *Fairy Tales* (100-119— four fairy tales making up the reading section,
- *Grammar points* (pp 120-137) — adverbs, comparatives, irregular adjectives, conditionals, etc.
- *Appendix 1* (pp 138-145) —the official syllabus for different streams—,*Appendix 2* (p 146-147) —a list of tasks (146), and *Appendix 3 — Keys to exercises* (pp 148-158)
- *List of Irregular Verbs* (pp 159-160).

The units are detailed in the following table:

Units	Number of Pages
1. Introduce Yourself and Your friends	3
2. My New School	2
3. The British Isles[76]*	5
4. Djeha's Stories	5
5. From Morocco to Spain by Car	5
6. Be Our Guide	4
7. Nescafe	6
8. Superstitions	6
9. Pilgrimage to Mecca	4
10. Telephone Call*	4
11. Camping out in Rainy Weather	4
12. Marriage can make a Dimwit Brainier	3
13. I Want to Do a Ton	3
14. Rules for Teachers	4
15. Regulations for Residents*	3
16. A Teacher's Contract from the 1920's	3
TOTAL	**64**

Table 33: Units (*My New Book of English*)

3.1.4. Texts

The texts we chose to put under the scope of the readability measures are the following:

[76] The titles followed by an asterisk (*) are part of our analysis.

- Text 1: *The British Isles*, Unit 3, p. 32. [If you look ... Cardiff. The capital of]. No source indicated.
- Text 2: *The Telephone Call*, Unit 10, p. 67. [We were spending…she couldn't trace him]. Extract from W.S. Maugham, *A Writer's Note.* Pages not indicated.
- Text 3: *Regulations for Residents*, Unit 15, p. 83. [Bourne Hall … be displayed]. No source indicated.

3.1.4.1. Readability Scoring

A. Smog Index

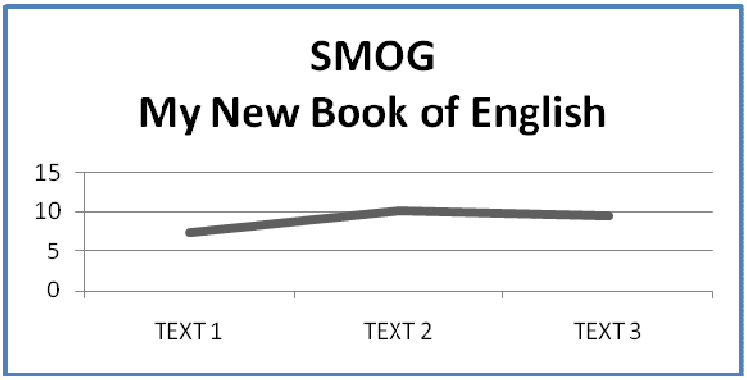
Text 1: **7.33**
Text 2: **10.07**
Text 3: **9.42**

SMOG *MNBE*[77]= **8.94**

Smog Index is calculated according to the number of syllables, and the average sentence length, the result of which is $\sqrt{X} + 3$.

This score is according to McLaughlin equivalent to "Junior high school", and corresponding to 13/14 year-students.

[77] MNBE stands for My New Book of English.



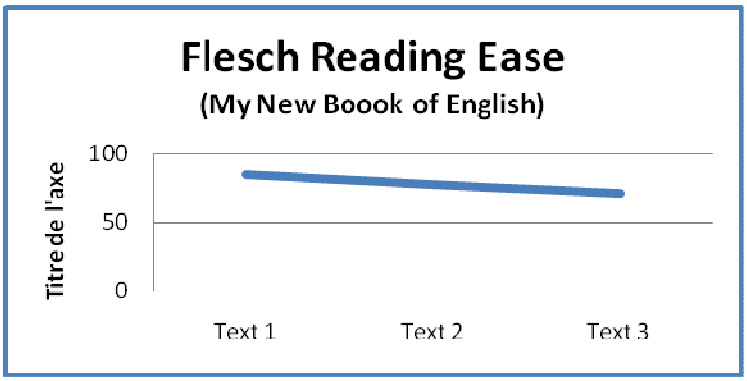
Graph 8 : Smog Index (*My New Book of English*)

Graph 8 shows that the level of difficulty starts from the simpler to the more complex, which is the normal process according to McLaughlin.

B. Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level

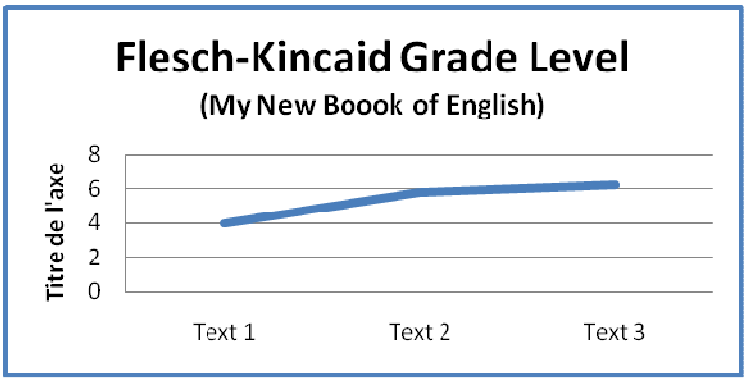
Text 1: **85.4 / 4.0**
Text 2: **77.8 / 7.8**
Text 3: **71.1 / 6.2**
} **FRE & FGL** MNBE: **78.1 / 6**

This score means that the texts are intended to 6th Graders, and the level of the text is considered "average", meaning that it is rather high a level for foreign learners. Graph 9 indicates a gradual slope, which indicates that the textbook is moving from the simpler to the more complex text.



Graph 9: Flesch Reading Ease (*My New Book of English*)

Graph 10 below, however, does not show such continuity, indicating that Text 2 should be at the end of the textbook.



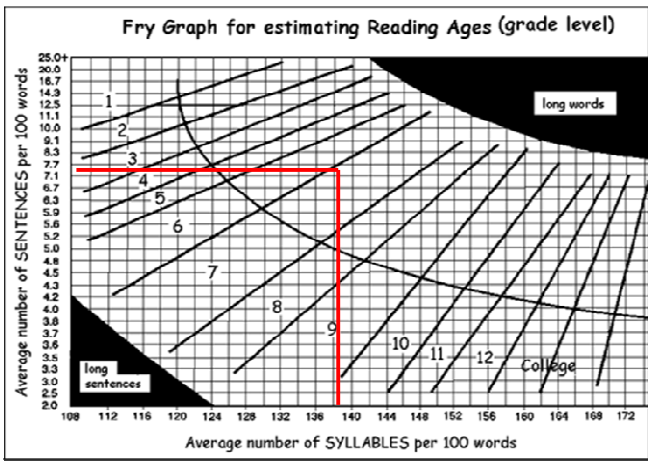
Graph 10 : Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level (*My New Book of English*)

C. Fry Readability Estimate

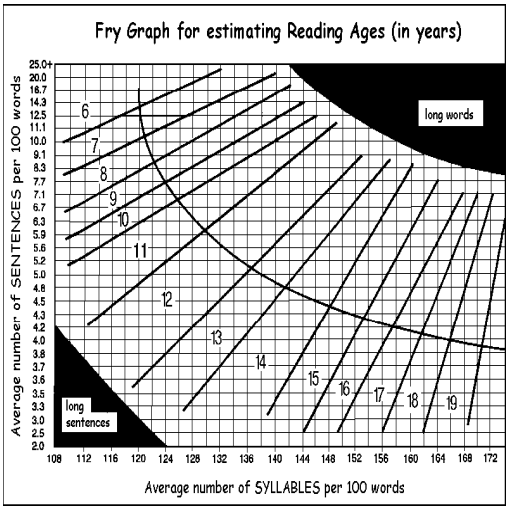
Text 1
Text 2 } **Fry** MNBE: **138.33 / 7.33**
Text 3

The grade reading level is calculated by the average number of sentences and the average number of syllables. These averages are plotted onto Fry's Graph; the intersection determines the reading level of the content. So 138.8 is the average number of syllables, and 7.33 is the average number of sentences.

As Graph 11 shows the content tends to consist of longer words than the normal and situates the Grade at 7.



Graph 11: Fry's Graph (Grade) ***(My New English Book)***



Graph 11': Fry Graph (Age)(My New ***English Book)***

Graph 11 indicates that the reading age is 12, which means either that the text is too easy for the age of secondary schools learners (between 15 and 16), or that the level is too high for this grade.

There are some cautions to bring to the use of the readability formulas:

- We see that there are some discrepancies between the different formulas. These formulas are poor indicators when analyzed in themselves. We should consider them only in their correlation with comprehension texts. What is important is not how the formulas agree or disagree on a particular text, but their degree of consistency in predicting difficulty over a range of graded texts (DuBay, 2004: 56).
- We are also aware that these formulas are designed for first language analysis, but we get an idea of the average level of a native speaker of English as compared to a foreign learner of English on the one hand, and get an idea as well as for the graduating difficulty, on the other.

- To compare readability levels of the different texts, we used the readability evaluation. However, these indices do not take into account student's background knowledge, strategy-use, text structure, and FL proficiency, all of which influence the comprehensibility of a text. Consequently, we caution that these ratings may reflect only linguistic-based characteristics of the text.

3.1.3.2. Subject Knowledge

The content will be analyzed in terms of:

- Another Academic Subject (AAS)
- Student-Contributed Content (SCC)
- Language Itself (LI)
- Literature (Lit)
- Culture (Cult)
- Interesting Facts (IF)
- Learning Itself (LgI)
- Specialist Content (SpC)

Topics	AAS	SCC	LI	Lit	Cult	IF	LgI	SpC
The British Isles					++	+		
Djeha's Stories					+			
From Morocco to Spain by Car						+		
Be Our Guide			+		++	+		
Nescafe					+	+		
Superstitions					++	+		
Pilgrimage to Mecca					+	+		
Telephone Call				++				
Camping out in Rainy Weather						+		
Marriage can make a Dimwit Brainier						+		
I Want to Do a Ton								
Rules for Teachers						+		
Regulations for Residents						+		
A Teacher's Contract from the 1920's						+		
TOTAL	0	0	1	1	6	11	0	0
%	0%	0%	7%	7%	42%	78%	0%	0%

Table 34: Subject Knowledge of the topics (*My New Book of English*)

3.1.3.3. Subject Matter

There is indeed a variety of topics, which interest may vary from one text to another. However we wonder whether they would gain the students' interest. 60% of the texts have no sources; the remaining 40% are extracts from literary sources (*Telephone Call*, extracted from *A Writer's Note* by Somerset Maugham; *Camping out in Rainy Weather*, an extract from Jerome K. Jerome's *Three Men and a Boat*). The others are newspapers articles: "Superstitions, Marriage can make a Dimwit Brainier, and I want to do a Ton". "Be Our Guide" is the only authentic text but does not have its authentic appearance. Most texts (9 out of 14) present a simplified version, then the original version (the texts in question are underlined in Table 34). We question the usefulness of presenting both versions, on the one hand and the usefulness of the simplified version, on the other hand. Through the years texts have been intentionally simplified, modified, adapted, edited, adjusted or revised in order to make material more comprehensible, and simultaneously, to prepare learners to read unsimplified original works. The belief that simplification helps reading comprehension, however, has not been proven consistently (Young, 1999). What she recommends is that instructors add preparatory phase before reading an authentic text, thus addressing the lack of background knowledge related to cultural phenomena.

As for culture, we find there is no real content which may serve as a window about the target language culture.

At the end of the textbook are proverbs, songs, and pieces for extensive reading—fairy tales. We really question whether students aged 15 and 16 would be motivated by stories (or

their translation) which they read when they were children (Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves, Little Red Riding Hood, Snow White and Rose Red, and The Little Match Girl).

Finally, there is neither logical organization of topics nor a connection between them.

The questions related to the texts: the exercises do not develop comprehension and do not test knowledge of main ideas, details, and sequence of ideas. There is no exercise related to the promotion of critical thinking.

Illustrations which are the first appealing aspect of a textbook are rather rare and blurred, and do not add meaning to the text they accompany. There are 10 pictures[78], all of them were *decorative*; one illustration in Unit 3 (From Spain to Morocco) shows the picture of a train despite the topic of the text which is on a tunnel under the sea.

3.1.3.4. Type of Tasks

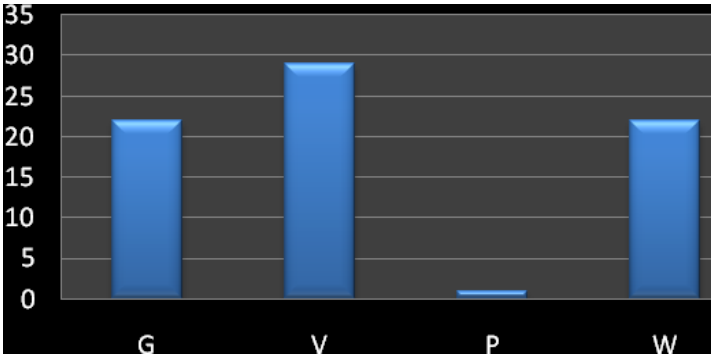
The following is the amount of tasks devoted to Grammar, Vocabulary, Phonology and Writing. We show the details in the following table:

[78] We did not include a table representing the illustrations since they were all of one single category.

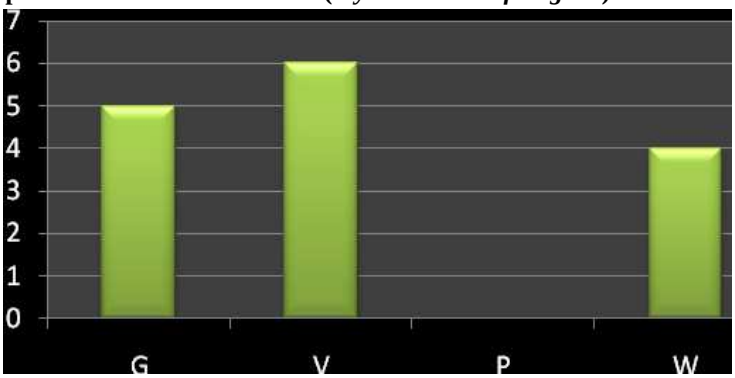
Unit	Grammar	Vocabulary	Phonology	Writing	Total
The British Isles	1	2	0	1	4
Djeha's Stories	2	2	0	3	7
From Spain to Morocco	1	3	0	2	6
Be Our Guide	3	3	1	3	10
Superstitions	2	2	0	3	7
Pilgrimage to Mecca	2	2	0	1	5
A Telephone Call	1	2	0	2	5
Camping out in rainy….	0	2	0	1	3
Marriage can make …	1	3	0	1	5
I want to do a Ton	2	2	0	2	6
Rules for Teachers	2	2	0	1	5
Regulations for Residents	3	2	0	1	6
A Teacher's Contract	2	2	0	1	5
Total	22	29	1	22	74

Table 35: Distribution of Tasks (*My New Book of English*)

The following graphs are based on the previous table (cf. 35):



Graph 12: Distribution of Tasks (*My New Book of English*)

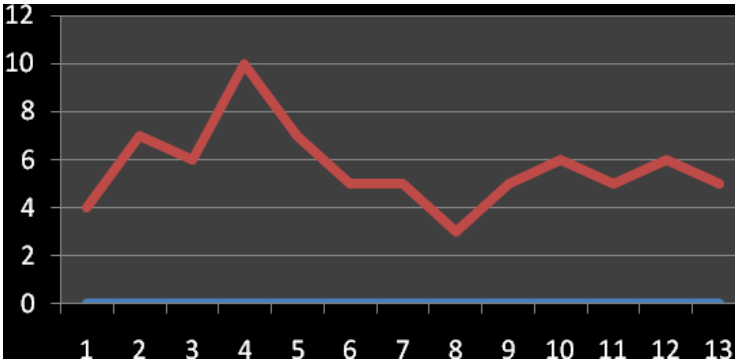


Graph 13: Distribution of Tasks (Unit 4, 11, and 16)

The two graphs, Graph 12 on the whole book, and Graph 13 on the three units we studied, do not show a great variability in the amount of tasks. For this reason, we shall use three units instead of the whole book in the analysis of the next textbooks.

Graph 12 shows that is a more than reasonable load of vocabulary, Grammar, and Writing. But exercises on phonology are scarce, only one out of 74 tasks. Grammar points seem not to serve any purpose: the tasks are not related to the texts, and situations are not created in which the rules are needed. Vocabulary lacks reinforcement. As for writing, a great number of exercises are devoted to it, their aims being both creative (guided composition) and reproductive (sentence completion).

Graph 14 below shows the variation of tasks according to the different units.



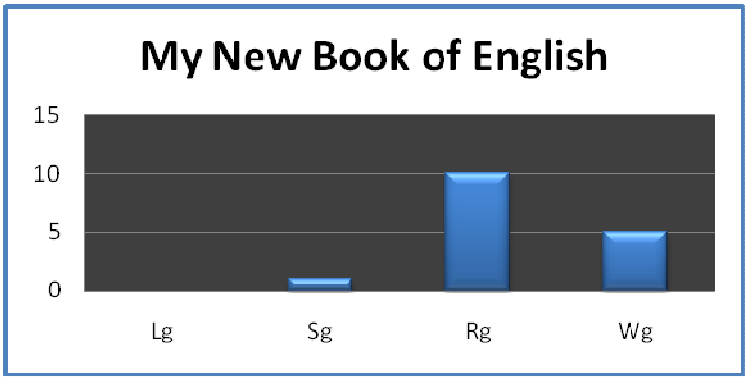
Graph 14: Variation in the number of Tasks per unit. (*My New Book of English*)

3.1.3.5. The Four Skills

The following table shows how the four skills are distributed in *My New Book of English*:

Unit	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
4	0	1	3	1
11	0	0	4	1
16	0	0	3	3
Total	**0**	**1**	**10**	**5**
%	0%	6%	63%	41%

Table 36: Balance of Skills (*My New Book of English*)



Graph 15: Balance of Skills (*My New Book of English*)

We note a lack of balance between the four skills. The Graph shows clearly that a larger emphasis is given to reading, and a little less to writing. As we saw previously in the distribution of tasks, the oral/aural skills are completely missing.

3.2. *The New Midlines* (1997)

Level of Proficiency: 2 A.S.—2nd Grade in Secondary Cycle (Fourth year of English as FL2;

Number of Pages: 301

3.2.1. General Presentation

In the *Introduction*, the authors (Achour & Salmi) explain that the new book was designed after the 1995 syllabus. The present book is a compilation of three existing textbooks, *New Lines* (Kisserli, 1981), *New Skills* (Menasseri et al, 1988), and *Midlines* (Menasseri et al, 1988). *New Lines* and *New Skills* (Technological steams) were designed to 1 A.S. (First Grade in Secondary Cycle), and *Midlines* to 2 A.S.(Second Grade in Secondary Cycle). *The New Midlines* is intended for all streams. The authors give instructions on how to

deal with the book: each stream is given a certain number of units, the literary stream having the greatest number—eleven. The textbook claims to be communicative, although the structural components remain important. The units are designed functionally.

3.2.2. Unit Organization

The book has 301 pages and includes:

- *Acknowledgements*,
- *Introduction* (p 4),
- a table of contents (pp 5-6),
- a note addressed to the pupil (p.7),
- 16 units (pp 9-210),
- A bulk of additional texts for Economy and Management (pp 211-220),
- The teacher's manual (pp 221-301); it consists in giving recommendations to the teachers, as well as the general aims and language points of the units.

The units are detailed in the following table:

Unit	Functions	Titles of the texts	Number of Pages
1	Describing past places*	*Kalâa in 1880*	10
2	Planning future Tasks	*Cycling through Africa*	8
3	Narrating	*Killer Oil*	7
4	Describing job requirements	*Job Hunting*	10
5	Questioning	*Where have you been before*	19
6	Describing/Expressing/Reasons and consequences	*Blackfoot Indians Today*	10
7	Narrating/ Talking about someone's life	*Louis Pasteur*	10
8	Describing/Comparing/Contrasting	*The Solar System*	9
9	Describing/Instructing/Warning/Prohibiting*	*Scout's Life*	14
10	Instructing /Giving advice	*Electrical Hazards*	21
11	Describing parts and the whole	_ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _	10
12	Making predictions	*Water Resources*	13
13	Describing/Making suppositions	*The Arctic: An Open Sea?*	10
14	Describing functions and use	*The Derrick: Oil Extraction*	12
15	Narrating /Reporting*	*Crash in Tokyo Bay*	7
16	Giving advice	Dialogue	7
Total			177

Table 37: Units (*The New Midlines*)

3.2.3. Texts

The texts we chose from *The New Midlines* to be analyzed are:

- Text 1: *Kalâa in 1880*, Unit 1, p. 11 [In 1880 … figs and lemon]. No source indicated.
- Text 2: *Scout's Life*, Unit 9, p. 107 [Before building… and the like]. Text adapted from *Boy Scout Handbook* by William Hillcourt.
- Text 3: *Crash in Tokyo Bay*, Unit 15, p.197 [As the Japan Airlines … suspended from his duties]. Article from Newsweek, February 22nd, 1982.

3.2.3.1. Readability Scoring

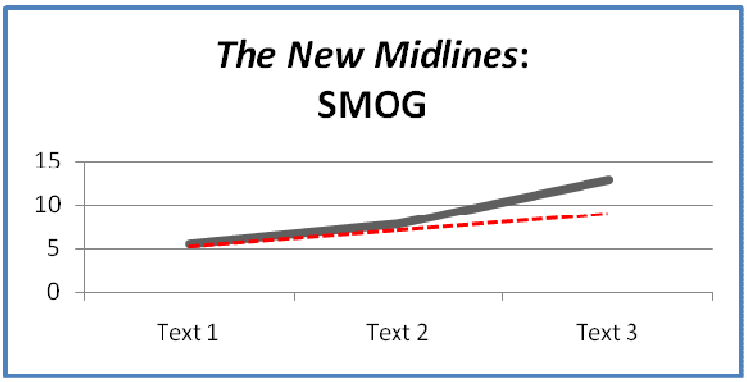
A. **Smog**

Text 1: **5.45**
Text 2: **7.74**
Text 3: **12.75**

SMOG *The New Midlines*: **8.64**

As for Smog measure, we note that the texts are pretty easy, and that there is continuity between the level of the texts, increasing from simpler to more complex. This score corresponds to McLaughlin's "Junior School". But if we look more closely, we shall see that the arrow changes the steady direction between Text 2 and Text 3, meaning that there is a great difference in the level of difficulty between Text 2 and Text 3. On average, reading *The*

New Midlines textbook is equivalent to reading *Reader's Digest* according to McLaughlin's grade.



Graph 16: Smog Index (*The New Midlines*)

The dotted line in red shows the normal path the texts should have gone.

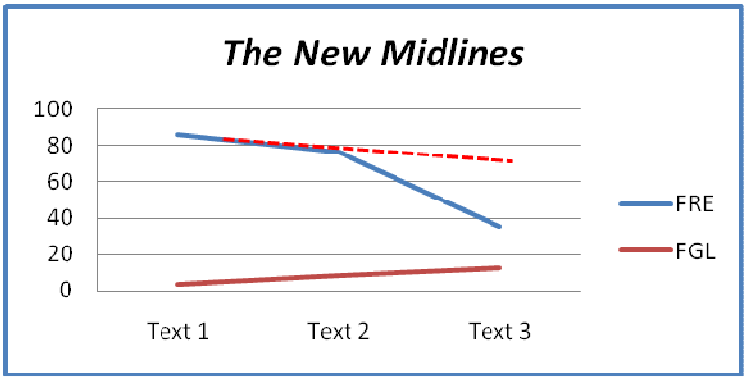
B. **Flesch Reading Ease / Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level**

Text 1: **86.1 / 3.7**

Text 2:**76.5 / 8.8**

Text 3: **34.8 / 12.7**

FRE / FGL *New Midlines*: **65.8 / 8.4**

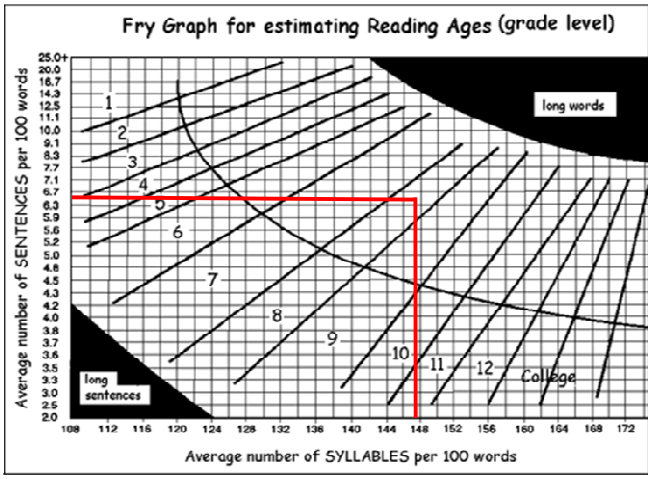


Graph 17: Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level (*The New Midlines*)

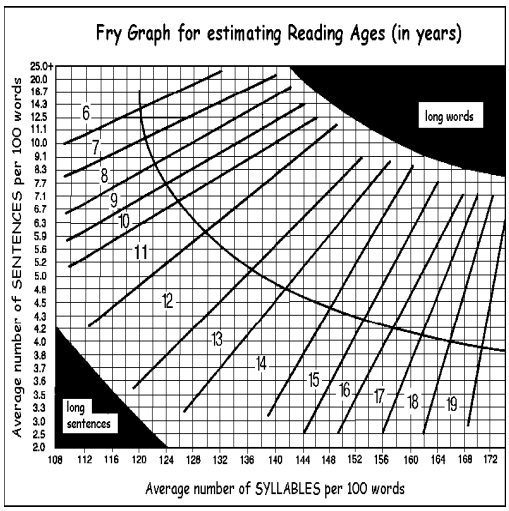
As in Smog, the blue arrow representing FRE shows a great contrast. Otherwise, Text 1 with a score of 86.1, meaning that it is average, moves to a much more difficult text.

C . **Fry Readability Estimate**

Text 1
Text 2 } **FRY** *New Midlines*: **147.3 / 6.6**
Text 3



Graph 18: Fry Graph (Grade Level) (*The New Midlines*).



Graph 18': Fry Graph (Ages) (*The New Midlines*)

Graphs 18 and 18' show that *The New Midlines* tends to include longer words than normal, and situates the grade Level at 8 and the age at 13, thus as in My New Book of English, the texts are either too difficult for the grade or too easy for the learners' age.

3.2.3.2. Subject Knowledge

We will analyze the Subject Knowledge with the following parameters:

- Another Academic Subject (AAS)
- Student-Contributed Content (SCC)
- Language Itself (LI)
- Literature (Lit)
- Culture (Cult)
- Interesting Facts (IF)
- Learning Itself (LgI)
- Specialist Content (SpC)

Topics	AAS	SCC	LI	Lit	Cult	IF	LgI	SpC
Ancient cities					+[79]	+		
Cycling through Africa					+	+		
Oil	+					+		
Job Hunting						+		
Work experience					+	+		
Blackfoot Indians Today					++	+		
Biographies					+	+		
The Solar System	+				+	+		
Scout's Life					+	+		
Accidents						+		
Parts and the whole	+				+			
Experiments	+					+		
The Arctic	+					+		
The Derrick: Oil Extraction	+							+
News					+	+		
Dialogues						+		+
TOTAL	6	0	0	0	9	14	0	2
	37%	0%	0%	0%	56%	87%	0%	12%

Table 38: Subject Knowledge of the topics (*The New Midlines*)

[79] A single plus (+) indicates "General Culture" or "Native Culture", a double one (++) indicates the "Target Culture".

3.2.3.3. Subject Matter

The textbook displays a great variety of topics, in view of the fact it is intended for different streams. However, we note that literary streams have not been very lucky: few texts would interest them. It is clear that the texts are included to support the functions, as the title of the topics indicates. Unlike *My New Book of English*, the present textbook indicates the sources, though not always (books, newspaper and magazines articles, or texts adapted for EFL contexts). There are some authentic texts, but do not appear as such.

As for culture, we find there is no real content which may serve as a window about the target language culture, except for *Sitting Bull*.

Finally, it is difficult to assign logical organization of topics to the textbook since it was not designed for these purposes. The authors give instructions for that purpose on the number of units and the Unit Number to be studied by each stream.

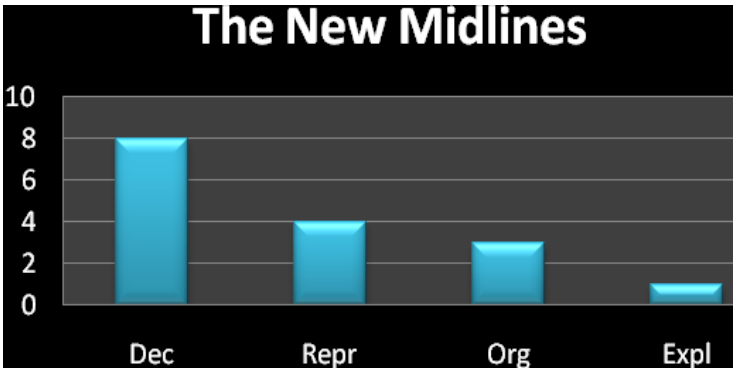
The questions related to the texts: the exercises do not develop comprehension and do not test knowledge of main ideas, details, and sequence of ideas. There is no exercise related to the promotion of critical thinking.

There are many illustrations, but are black and white, which do not attract pupils. The following table shows the category of illustrations, *decorative, representational, organizational or explanative* (Mayer, 2000):

Unit	Decorative	Representational	Organizational	Explanative
1			+	
2			+	
3	+			
4	+			
5	+			
6	+			
7		+		
8		+		
9	+			
10	+			
11		+		
12		+		
13			+	
14				+
15	+			
16	+			
Total	**8**	**4**	**3**	**1**

Table 39: Category of Illustrations (*The New Midlines*)

Graph 19 shows the distribution of illustrations according to the category:



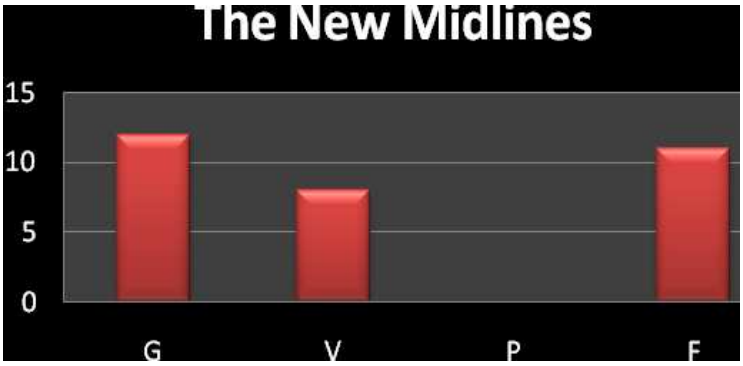
Graph 19: Category of Illustrations (*The New Midlines*)

3.2.3.4. Type of Tasks

The following is the amount of tasks devoted to Grammar, Vocabulary, Phonology and Writing. We show the details in the following table:

Unit	Grammar	Vocabulary	Phonology	Functions
1	6	4	0	2
9	2	3	0	6
15	4	1	0	3
TOTAL	**12**	**8**	**0**	**11**

Table 40: Type of Tasks (*The New Midlines*)



Graph 20: Type of Tasks (*The New Midlines*)

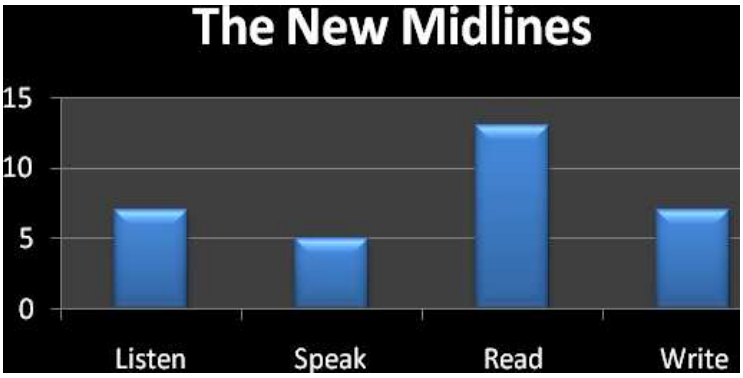
The number of tasks devoted to Grammar and Functions is very high, as stated by the authors. As in *My New Book of English*, Phonology is not given any place in this textbook. There are some rare items in the book (Unit 10 p 125, Unit 11 p144, p 147, p 148, etc.) for which phonetic transcriptions are given, but no task as such is devoted to it.

3.1.3.5. The Four Skills

As Table 41 and Graph 21 show, Reading takes the lion share, with 41% of the tasks. Listening and Writing are equally distributed (22%), and Speaking looks like a poor relation (15%). The authors exhort teachers to put emphasis on the communicative aspect of the textbook and *insist on the structural aspect since it is the backbone of any serious mastery of a language* (Achour & Salmi, 19: 4).

Unit	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
1	2	1	6	2
9	1	2	4	3
15	4	2	3	2
TOTAL	**7**	**5**	**13**	**7**
%	22%	15%	41%	22%

Table 41: Balance of Skills (*The New Midlines*)



Graph 21: Balance of Skills (*The New Midlines*)

3.3. *Comet* (1997)

Level of Proficiency: 3 A.S. — 3rd Grade in Secondary Cycle (Fifth year of English as FL2). Number of Pages: 143.

3.3.1. General Presentation

In the *Introduction*, the authors (Benzian et al) explain that the new book was designed after the *slimming down* of the syllabuses. The present book is a compilation of three

existing textbooks, *New Lines* (Kisserli, 1981), *New Skills* (Menasseri et al, 1988), and *Midlines* (Menasseri et al, 1988) and *Modern World* and *Think It Over*. New Lines and New Skills (Technological steams) were designed for 1 A.S. (First Grade in Secondary Cycle), Midlines to 2 A.S. (Second Grade in Secondary Cycle); Modern World (Science and Technology) was designed for 3 A.S. (Third Grade). Comet is intended for all streams. The authors give instructions on how to deal with the book: each stream is given a certain number of units, the literary stream having the greatest number—seven. The textbook claims to be communicative, its title are in fact an acronym for Communicative English Teaching course book. The units are designed topically. The textbook aims at preparing *the pre-university student with material which received a great deal up-dating in view of* the final Baccalaureate exam.

3.3.2. Unit Organization

In the *Introduction*, the authors provide advice intended for teachers concerning the use of the book: for the pre-listening, listening, and post-listening, teachers should write the mentioned tasks on the board in order to enable students to listen with their books closed. The authors state the time allocation per unit and per stream (12 or 13). A special emphasis is put on Reading: a compilation of passages appears at the end. It also includes:

- 11 Units (pp 8-111),
- Reading passages (112-133),
- A list of proverbs (pp 134-138), and
- A list of irregular verbs.

Unit	Titles of the units	Number of Pages
1	Modern Life in English-Speaking Countries*	7
2	Inventions and Discoveries	8
3	English in the World Today	8
4	Humor and Leisure	9
5	Trade and Development	10
6	Computing*	9
7	Media	11
8	Automation	9
9	Human Rights and Racial Problems	10
10	Business Correspondence	11
11	Great Challenges to Mankind*	12
	Total	104

Table 42: Units (*Comet*)

The units are structured according to the following:

1. Pre-listening (warm-up),
2. Listening (giving the main idea),
3. Post-listening (Class discussion),
4. Pre-Reading (guessing),
5. Reading (the same text used for the listening activity),
6. Post-Reading (questions around the text),
7. Writing,
8. Get Ready (section devoted to the preparation of the student to the exam),

9. Time for Song,
10. Reading for Leisure.

3.3.3. Texts

The texts we chose from *Comet* to be analyzed are:

- Text 1: *Speaker's Corner,* Unit 1, p. 9 [Situated at … world revolutions] Adapted from *Modern English International.*
- Text 2: *Computers*, Unit 6, p. 52 [Computers … processed]. The source is not mentioned.
- Text 3: *What the Future Might Hold for Use: Pollution,* Unit 11, p. 103. [Of the many … processed]. Adapted from *Topic English,* by J. Harrison, N.L. Morgan, and J.J. Percil.

3.3.3.1. Readability Scores

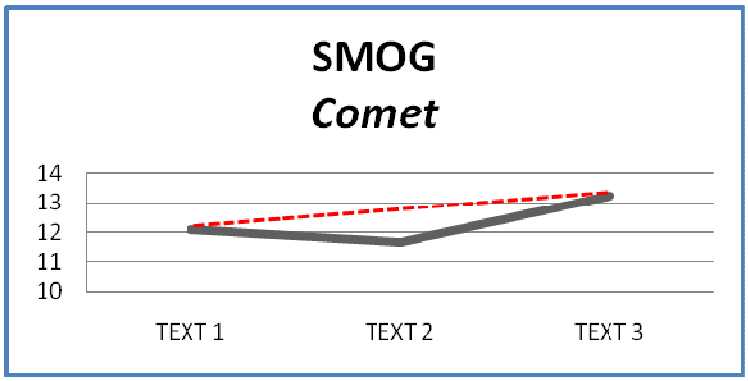
A. **Smog**

Text 1: 12.08
Text 2: 11.66
Text 3: 13.25

SMOG *Comet* = **12.57**

This score is according to McLaughlin equivalent to "high school" or "high school graduate". He relates the reading of these texts to reading *Time Magazine* or *New York Times.*

Graph 22 shows the text difficulty starts at a certain level, then decreases a little (showing a less difficult text) then increases again (moving to a more difficult text). This graph shows that the distribution is quite abnormal: there should have been an increase.

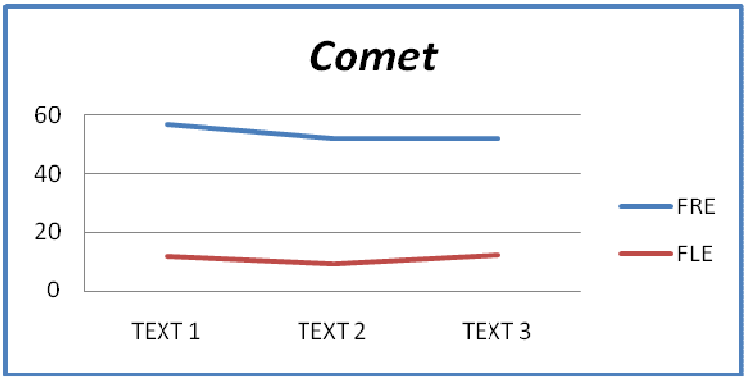


Graph 22 : Smog Index (*Comet*)

The dotted line in red shows the normal path the texts should have gone.

B. Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level

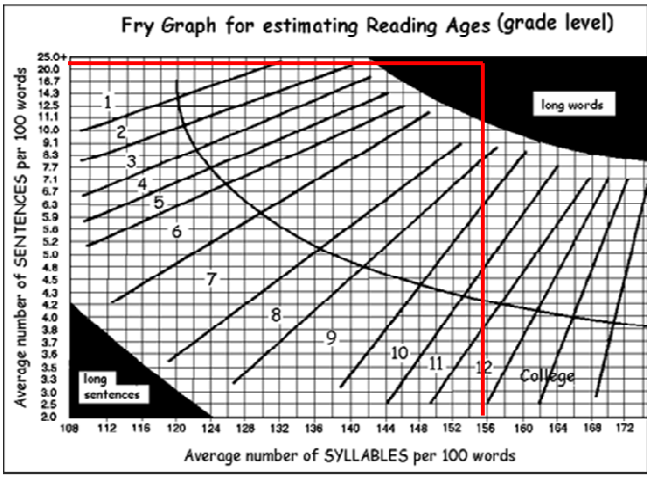
Text 1: 56.7 / 11.4
Text 2: 52.0 / 9.1
Text 3: 52.2 / 11.9
} FRE & FGL *Comet* = **53.6 / 10.8**



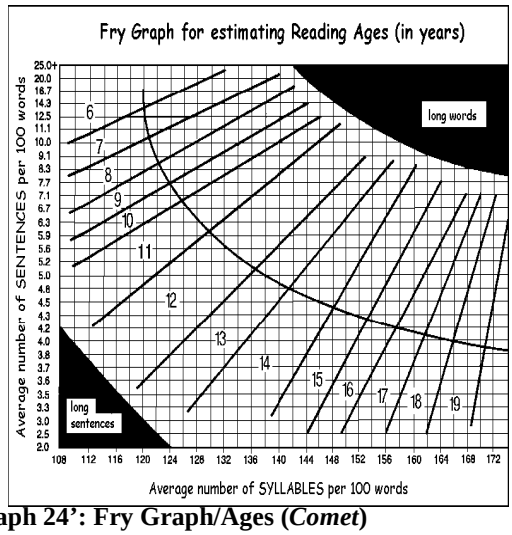
Graph 23 : Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level (*Comet*)

C. **Fry Readability Estimate**

Text 1:
Text 2: } Fry Comet: **155.6 / 20.6**
Text 3:



Graph 24: Fry Graph/Grade Level (*Comet*)



Graph 24': Fry Graph/Ages (*Comet*)

Graph 24 and Graph 24' show that the text difficulty is high: it is the grade level and the age of English native speakers.

All three scores concord to say that the texts are rather difficult even if the ages correspond.

3.3.3.2. Subject Knowledge

We will analyze the Subject Knowledge with the following parameters:

- Another Academic Subject (AAS)
- Student-Contributed Content (SCC)
- Language Itself (LI)
- Literature (Lit)
- Culture (Cult)
- Interesting Facts (IF)
- Learning Itself (LgI)
- Specialist Content (SpC)

Topics	AAS	SCC	LI	Lit	Cult	IF	LgI	SpC
Speaker's Corner					++[80]	+		
Transportations					+			
The English Language	+		+		+	+		
Shakespeare's house				+	++	+		
Market Research					+			+
Computers	+				+			
Communication	+				+			+
Robots	+				+	+		
Human Rights					+	+		+
Business			+					
Pollution					+	+		
TOTAL	4	0	2	1	10	6	0	3
%	36%	0%	18%	9%	90%	54%	0%	27%

Table 43: Subject Knowledge of the topics (*Comet*)

3.3.3.3. Subject Matter

The textbook displays a great variety of topics, in view of the fact it is intended for different streams. However, we note that again literary streams do not have much choice as

[80] A single plus (+) indicates "General Culture" or "Native Culture", a double one (++) indicates the "Target Culture".

regards the topics. The present textbook indicates the sources of most texts (books, encyclopedia, newspapers and magazines articles, or texts adapted for EFL contexts). There are some authentic texts, but do not appear as such.

As for culture, we find there is no real content which may serve as a window about the target language culture. There is a funny playlet, in Unit 4, aptly entitled *Humour and Leisure*, on two tourists visiting Shakespeare's house.

Finally, it is difficult to assign logical organization of topics to the textbook since it was designed for all streams.

The questions related to the texts: the exercises do develop comprehension and test knowledge of main ideas, details, and sequence of ideas. There is no exercise related to the promotion of critical thinking.

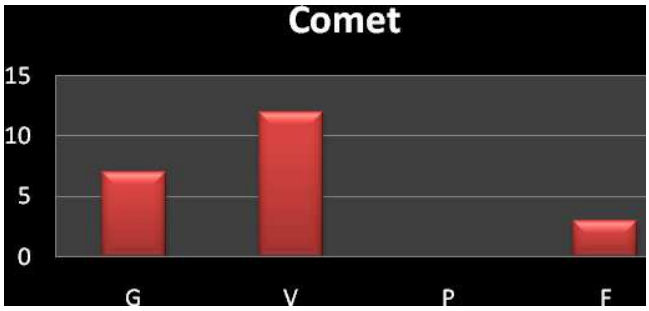
There are no illustrations at all.

3.3.3.4. Type of Tasks

The following is the amount of tasks devoted to Grammar, Vocabulary, Phonology and Functions. We show the details in the following table:

Unit	Grammar	Vocabulary	Phonology	Functions
1	1	3	0	1
6	3	5	0	1
11	3	4	0	1
TOTAL	**7**	**12**	**0**	**3**

Table 44: Type of Tasks (*Comet*)



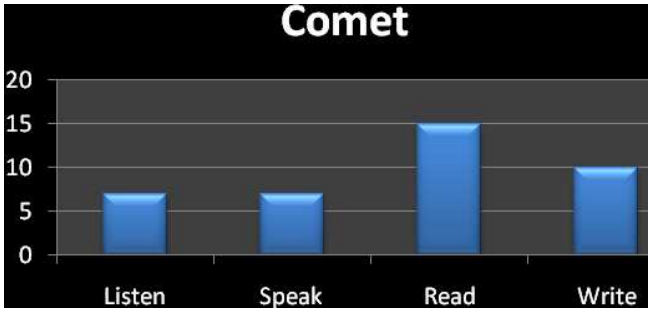
Graph 25 : Type of Tasks (*Comet*)

3.3.3.5. The Four Skills

As Table 45 and Graph 26 show Reading takes the lion share, with 38% of the tasks. Listening and Speaking are equally distributed (18%), and Writing a weak percentage (15%).

Unit	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
1	3	3	4	2
6	2	2	4	3
11	2	3	7	5
TOTAL	**7**	**7**	**15**	**10**
%	18%	18%	38%	26%

Table 45: Balance of Skills (*Comet*)



Graph 26 : Balance of Skills (*Comet*)

Surveying the content of the previous textbooks (*My New Book of English*, *The New Midlines*, and *Comet)*, one is reminded of Freire's (1970) comment which suggests that, in literacy materials at least, man is seen as something which needs to be 'filled'. Certainly the view of knowledge presented in the aforementioned teaching materials, with their emphasis on

rules, patterns and definite statements of meaning, seems to rest on what Popper (1972: 61-2, quoted by Littlejohn & Windeatt, 1989: 161) has called *a bucket theory of knowledge.*

> *Our mind is a bucket which is originally empty, or more or less so, and into this bucket material enters through our senses . . . and accumulates and becomes digested . . . The important thesis of the bucket theory is that ... Knowledge is conceived of as information consisting of things, or thing-like entities in our bucket ... Knowledge is, first of all,* [in][81] *us: it consists of information which is in us and which we have managed to absorb.*

For the cultural aspect, we felt what Edward Said, the Palestinian scholar—when he was invited to advise the English Department of a national university in one of the Gulf states—found that the English literature being studied was anachronistic, and that English has been reduced to *the level of a technical language almost totally striped of expressive and aesthetic characteristics, but also denuded of any critical or self-conscious dimension* (Said, 1990:3, quoted by Phillipson, 1992: 15). We hardly resist making an analogy with the cultural content of the textbooks we analyzed. As FL teachers, we teach and students learn foreign culture, whether or not we include it overtly in the curriculum. This point was made by McLeod (1976:212) some years ago saying that *by teaching a language...one is inevitably already teaching culture implicitly.* Language codes cannot be taught in isolation because processes of sociocultural transmission are bound to be at work on many levels, e.g. the contents of language exercises, the cultural discourse of textbooks (Kramsch, 1988), and the

[81] In italics in the text.

teacher's attitudes towards the target culture. We wonder how authors could design foreign language books without referring to foreign language culture, even if the authorities required them to do so.

3.4. Comparison between the Textbooks and the Baccalaureate Exam

In order to see whether the textbook meets the Baccalaureate exam requirements as far as the exam is concerned; we analyzed first the texts of the exam[82], in terms of the available parameters: readability, the amount and variety of tasks. We could not include all the readability parameters, since there is only one text. There was no ground for the comparison of the balance of skills, since it proved to be the same within all streams, whether for English as a second foreign language (FL2) or English as a first foreign language (EFL1):

Skills	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Total
Number	**0**	**0**	**6**	**7**	**13**
%	**%**	**%**	**60%**	**40%**	**100%**

Table 46: Balance of Skills EFL 2 (Baccalaureate Exam/All streams)

Skills	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Total
Number	**0**	**0**	**6**	**7**	**13**

[82] The exams are found in the appendices section (Appendix VI, p. XLIII, onward)

%	%	%	46%	54%	100%

Table 47: Balance of Skills EFL 1 (Baccalaureate Exam /All streams[83])

As a means of comparison for the balance of skills in EFL2 exam and *Comet*:

Skills	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Total
Exam	%	%	60%	40%	100%
Comet	18%	18%	39%	25%	100%

Table 48: Comparison in the Balance of Skills: Exam/*Comet* (EFL 2)

Unlike Guesbaoui[84] (1986:45) who considered that there were discrepancies, between what was taught and what was evaluated (referring to baccalaureate exams in the 1980s), we consider the balance of skills in the exam appropriate, on the following grounds:

1. The exams are written and not oral: should we emphasize the written form at the expense of the spoken form only because there is no evaluation of the oral skill in the Baccalaureate exam?
2. There seems to be an adequate balance of skills: Reading is given prominence in both the exam and the textbook, and

[83] Although Scientific Streams showed a slight difference: both Reading, and Writing: 50%

[84] Cf. page 209, in the present chapter.

3. It depends on the final objective of the English teaching: are pupils taught English in order to learn it or to get prepared for the final exam?

All exams are built on the same pattern:

I. Reading Comprehension

II. Mastery of Language

III. Written Expression.

These are the results of the comparison.

3.4.1. English as the Second Foreign Language (FL2)

3.4.1.1. Foreign Languages and Literature

Time allotment: 3 hours

Title of the text: No title,

Topic: Gandhi.

Source: Not mentioned

A. Readability

I. Smog: **8.1**

II. Flesch Reading Ease: **85.1 /** Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level: **4.2**

B. Tasks

a. Reading Comprehension (7 points)

I. Indirect quotations

II. Scanning exercise

III. Questions on the reading comprehension (answers are given, pupils write the related questions)
IV. Intensive reading
V. Anaphoric referents
VI. General idea of the text (multiple-choice)
VII. Synonyms

b. Language Production (Mastery of language) (7 points)

I. Punctuation
II. Derivations
III. Reported/Direct speech, Active/Passive voice.
IV. Sentence connectors (connectors are given)
V. Gap-filling paragraph (in relation to the topic)
VI. Reordering (one sentence)
VII. Phonology

c. Written Expression—choice between two tasks (6 points):

I. Composition (outline given)
II. Summary.

3.4.1.2. Arabic Literature and Islamic Sciences, and Human Sciences

Time allotment: 2 hours

Title of the text: *Human Population Growth*

Source: Not mentioned

A. Readability

I. Smog: **13.7**

II. Flesch Reading Ease: **28.6 /** Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level: **13.64**

B. Tasks

a. Reading Comprehension

VIII. Choosing a title

IX. True or false statements

X. Questions on the reading comprehension

XI. Synonyms

XII. Antonyms

b. Language Production (Mastery of language)

VIII. Punctuation

IX. Derivations

X. Tense

XI. Reported/Direct speech, Active/Passive voice.

XII. Gap-filling

XIII. Phonology

c. Written Expression—choice between two tasks:

III. Dialogue completion

IV. Summary, essay, etc.

Grammar	Vocabulary	Phonology	Functions	Total
6	5	1	0	12

Table 49: Tasks (Literary Streams—EFL2)

3.4.1.3. Natural Sciences, Exact Sciences and Technology

Time allotment: 2 hours

Title of the text: No title

Topic: Holidays in America

Source: Not mentioned

A. Readability

I. Smog: **13.25**

II. Flesch Reading Ease: **46.0 /** Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level: **11.1**

B. Tasks

a. Reading Comprehension
   I. Choosing a title
   II. Scanning
   III. Skimming
   IV. Questions on the reading comprehension (answers are given, pupils write the related questions)
   V. Synonyms

b. Language Production (Mastery of language)
   I. Punctuation
   II. Derivations
   III. Sentence correction
   IV. Connectors
   V. Deleting unnecessary words
   VI. Phonology

c. Written Expression—choice between two tasks:

I. Composition (outline given)

II. Composition (argumentative)

Grammar	Vocabulary	Phonology	Functions	Total
6	5	1	0	12

Table 50: Tasks (Scientific Streams—EFL2)

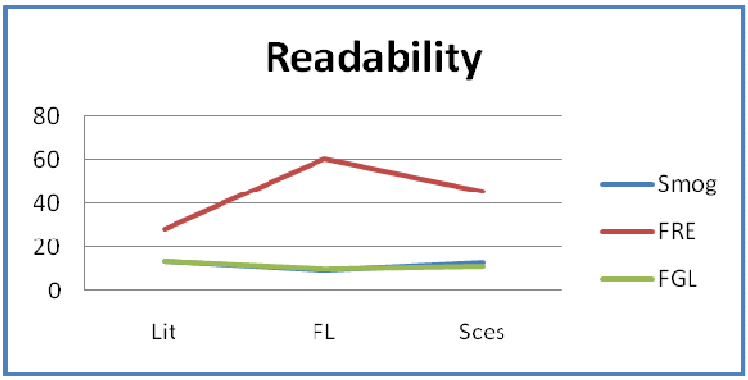
3.4.1.4. Comparison between the three exams

A. Readability

EFL 2	SMOG	Flesch Reading Ease	Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level
Literary	13.7	28.6	13.64
Foreign Ls	8.1	85.1	4.2
Scientific	13.2	46.0	11.1

Table 51 : Comparison in Readability (Literary/ Scientific Streams—FL 2)

Smog **Literary,** and Smog **Sciences,** as the following graph shows, are not much different: the former being slightly higher than the latter. Such a difference is actually understandable: English is much more important for the literary streams. But we are really perplexed as for the readability scores of Foreign Languages: they are the lowest. The world is turned upside down!



Graph 27: Comparison in Readability (Literary/Foreign Languages/Scientific Streams—EFL 2)

As for Flesch Reading Ease, the difference appears to be of importance, given that a score of 28.6 is considered as a rather difficult text. However Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level for all streams seems to be at the same level.

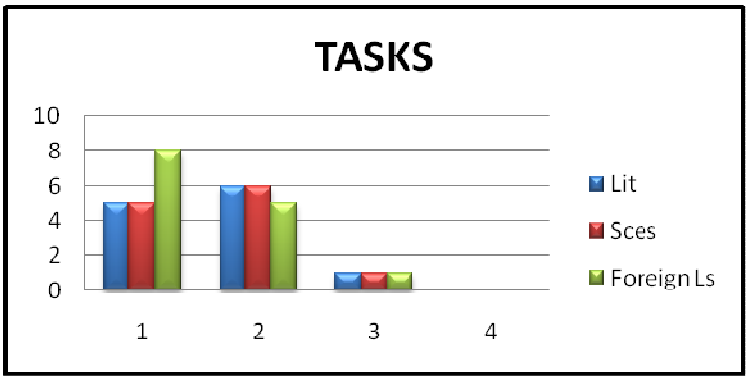
B. Tasks

There are no differences between the Scientific and Literary exams in terms of the number of tasks, and their nature. As for the Foreign Languages exam, it is all natural that they differ both in the number and the nature:

Stream	Grammar	Vocabulary	Phonology	Functions	Total
Literary	6	5	1	0	12
Scientific	6	5	1	0	12
Foreign Ls	8	5	1	0	14

Table 52: Comparison in tasks (Literary/ Foreign Languages/Scientific Streams—FL2)

The results are given in a graph:



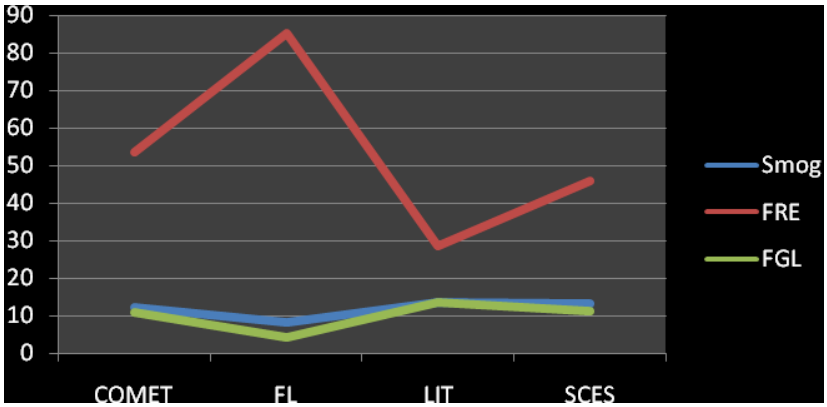
Graph 28: Comparison in Tasks (Literary / Foreign Languages/Scientific Streams—FL2)

3.4.1.5. Comparison between exams and *Comet*

This stage involves the comparison in terms of readability and tasks between the textbook of the 3rd Grade in the Secondary Cycle (*Comet*) and the exams (foreign languages, literary and scientific).

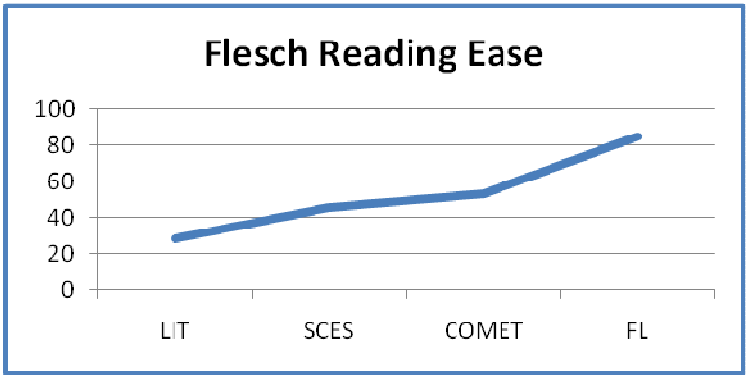
	Comet	Literary	Foreign Languages	Scientific
SMOG	**12.3**	**13.7**	**8.1**	**13.2**
Flesch Reading Ease	**53.6**	**28.6**	**85.1**	**46.6**
Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level	**10.8**	**13.6**	**4.2**	**11.1**

Table 53: Recapitulation of the Readability Scores (*Comet* and Exams)



Graph 29: Recapitulation of the Readability Scores (Textbooks and Exam)

As in the previous comparisons, the FL stream shows an incomprehensible score. The following graph (designed purposefully starting from the easiest to the most difficult) shows discrepancies as for the textbook meeting the exams requirements.



Graph 30: Comparison in Readability (Textbooks and Exams)

We wished we found the results the pupils got during this exam, as Guesbaoui (1986: 53, citing Bereski, 1985) did, though only for one center (in the Western/Centre part of Algeria) which brought together 8 Wilayate: Mascara, Tiaret, Tissemsilt, Naama, El Bayad, Saida, Chlef and Ain Defla.

Streams	0 to 5/20	5,5 to 8/20	8.5 to 9.5	≥10/20
Literary	52%	33.4%	8%	6.6%
Sciences	53.3%	31.9%	7.5%	7.3%

Table 54 : Marks obtained in the Baccalaureate Exam in 1985[85]. Adapted from Guesbaoui, 1986: 53)

[85] "Foreign Languages" as a stream did not exist at the time.

3.4.2. English as the First Foreign Language (FL1)

Although we did not have textbooks of English as a first foreign language (EFL1), we nonetheless analyzed the content of the exams, using the same parameters, namely, the readability, the amount and variety of tasks. Our aim was to compare these results to the results of exams of English FL2. In EFL1, Literary and Foreign Languages streams share the same exam.

3.4.2.1. Foreign Languages and Arabic Literature

Time allotment: 3 hours

Title of the text: *Uthonghati*

Source: *The Christian Science Monitor*, January 1986.

A. Readability

I. Smog: **10.75**

II. Flesch Reading Ease: **61.3 /** Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level: **8.7**

B. Tasks

Tasks are built on the same pattern as in the EFL2 exam.

Grammar	Vocabulary	Phonology	Functions	Total
6	5	1	0	12

Table 55: Tasks (Literary Streams—FL1)

3.4.2.2. Other streams (Scientific)

Time allotment: 2 hours

Title of the text: No title

Source: *The Leadership Challenge*, by Jim Kouges & Barry Posner Jossey Bass Publishers, San Francisco, 1995[86].

A. Readability

I. Smog: **10.75**

II. Flesch Reading Ease: **55.1 /** Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level: **9.6**

B. Tasks

Grammar	Vocabulary	Phonology	Functions	Total
6	5	0	1	11

Table 56: Tasks (Scientific Streams—FL1)

3.4.2.3. Comparison

A. Readability

[86] We reproduce the title, the authors and publishers as they are written in the examination sheet.

The difference lies in the Flesch score, showing another discrepancy: the text in the scientific streams is more difficult than in the literary streams.

EFL 1	SMOG	Flesch Reading Ease	Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level
Literary	10.75	61.3	8.7
Scientific	10.75	55.1	9.6

Table 57: Comparison: Readability in Literary and Scientific Streams

B. Tasks

As in English FL2, we do not note any major difference in the amount of tasks and their variety.

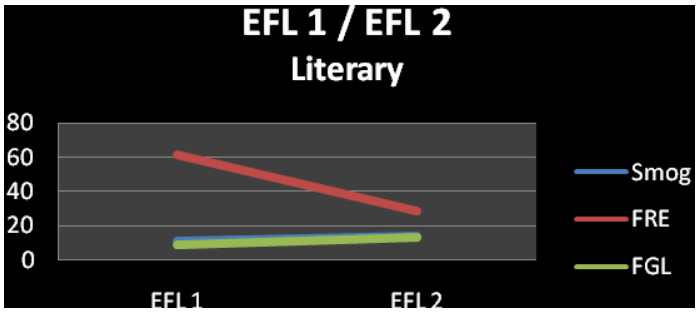
3.4.3. Comparison between exams in English as FL2 and English as FL1

We compared exams in English as FL2 and FL1 and the different streams and obtained the following results:

Literary	SMOG	Flesch Reading Ease	Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level
EFL 1	10.75	61.3	8.7
EFL 2	13.7	28.6	13.6
Foreign Ls	SMOG	Flesch Reading Ease	Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level
EFL 1	10.75	61.3	8.7
EFL 2	9.9	60.6	9.8
Scientific	SMOG	Flesch Reading Ease	Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level
EFL 1	10.75	55.1	9.6
EFL 2	13.2	46.6	11.1

Table 58: Comparison between exams in EFL1 / EFL2 (All Streams)

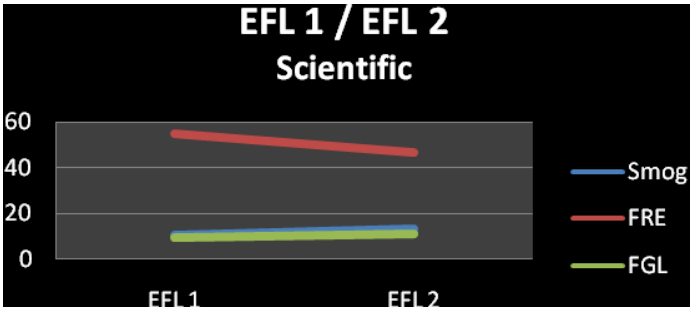
The table shows clearly the discrepancies on the three readability scores: a text intended for students who studied English for five years before the exam, is much more difficult than the text intended for students who have nine years of English behind them, whatever the stream. These results put on a graph give the following:



Graph 31: Comparison between exams in EFL1 / EFL2 (Literary Streams)

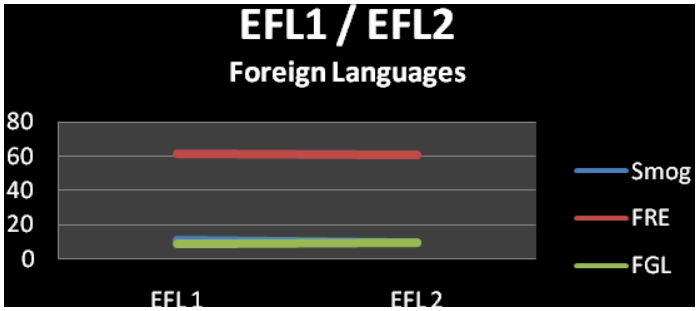
The Smog and the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level lines rise, indicating increasing difficulty. In the same way, the Flesch Reading Ease declines considerably.

As for the scientific streams, the same results are found, indicative of greater difficulty on the part of English FL2 exam falling in that category.



Graph 32: Comparison between exams in EFL1 / EFL2 (Scientific Streams)

In Foreign Languages exams, the scores are similar; however, the same discrepancy appears for these streams: it is inconceivable for such different learners.



Graph 33: Comparison between exams in EFL1 / EFL2 (Foreign Languages Streams)

3.5. *At the Crossroads* (1 A.S.)

3.5.1. General Presentation

Level of Proficiency: 1 A.S.—1st Grade in Secondary Cycle (Fifth year of English as FL2)

Number of pages: 155.

In the section *To the Teacher*, the author (Arab) explains that the textbook is designed to comply with the 2005 curriculum, thus applying the new programs in which English is taught as a second foreign language (FL2) from the first grade (1 A.M.[87]) of Intermediate Cycle. The authors assume that students are then familiar with the competency-based teaching and the learner-centered approach. The textbook is intended for all streams, though one unit (*Once Upon a Time)* is specifically meant for the literary stream. It consists of five units distributed on the basis of 20 hours per unit and is organized topically.

At the Crossroads is composed of:

[87] 1ére Année Moyenne

- Contents (p. II),
- Map of the book (pp III-VII)
- A note to the teacher (pp VIII-IX)
- A note to the pupil (pp X-XI)
- Phonetic symbols (pp XII-XIII)
- 5 units (pp 2-155)
- Scripts for listening (pp i-ix).

3.5.2. Unit Organization

Each unit consists of four sequences and includes three sections:

1. Sequence 1: listening and speaking,
2. Sequence 2: reading and writing (These two sequences are of the same pattern, they aim at producing oral and written discourse),
3. Sequence 3: developing skills. (The students combine the four skills in problem-situations),
4. Stop And Consider (a language reference section, exercises based on the implementation of grammar rules),
5. Sequence 4: consolidation and extension (afford a combination of knowledge and know-how),
6. Project Workshop (guidelines for the realization of a project, students are expected to re-invest functions and skills acquired earlier),
7. Check your Progress (self-evaluation section).

We detail the units in the following table:

Unit	Titles of the Topics	Number of Pages
1	*Getting Through*	32
2	*Once Upon a Time**	30
3	*Our Findings Show**	30
4	*Eureka!*	30
5	*Back to Nature**	30
Total		152

Table 59: Units (*At the Crossroads*)

3.5.3. Texts

We chose three texts from textbook in order to analyze them:

- Text 1: *Okonkwo*, Unit 2, p. 41 [Okonkwo… he worked daily]. Adapted from Achebe C., *Things Fall Apart*.
- Text 2: *Computer Use*, Unit 3, p. 71 [This report… they used]. *The Times*, Saturday 13 September 2004.
- Text 3: *Chemical at War against Man*, Unit 5, p. 133. [In the modern world… increasing numbers]. Adapted from Thacker, P., *Popular Science*, p. 35, July 2001).

3.5.3.1. Readability Scoring

A. Smog Index

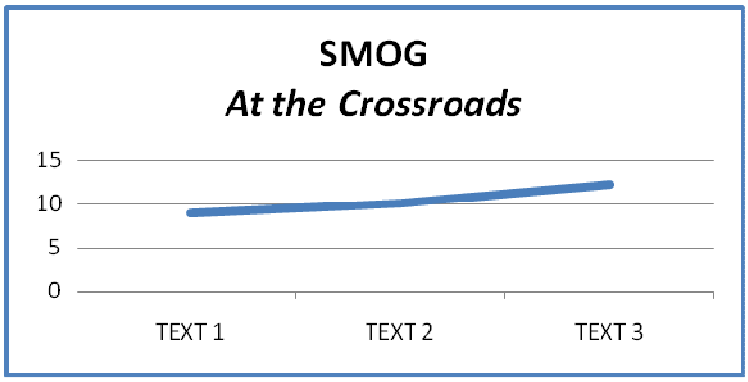
Text 1: **9.0**

Text 2: **10.7**

Text 3: **12.26**

SMOG *At the Crossroads*: 10.6

The different scores from Text 1 to Text 3 indicate that difficulty is rising from simpler to more complex. Smog score indicates that 10.6 corresponds to McLaughlin's "some High School" and that the age is 15. Reading *At the Crossroads* is equivalent to reading *Newsweek*.



Graph 34: Smog (*At the Crossroads*)

B. Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level:

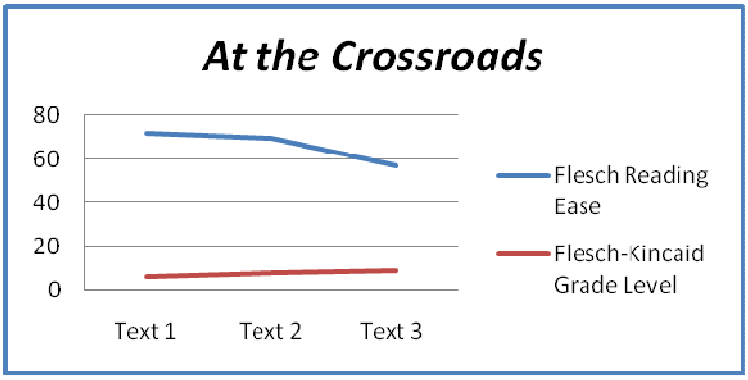
Text 1: 71.8 / 5.8

Text 2: 69.6 / 7.8

Text 3: 26.2 / 12.8

FRE& FGL *At the Crossroads*: 55.86 / 8.8

As in Smog, the arrow of Flesch Reading Ease shows that we are moving from a simpler to a more complex level of difficulty, from average to difficult.



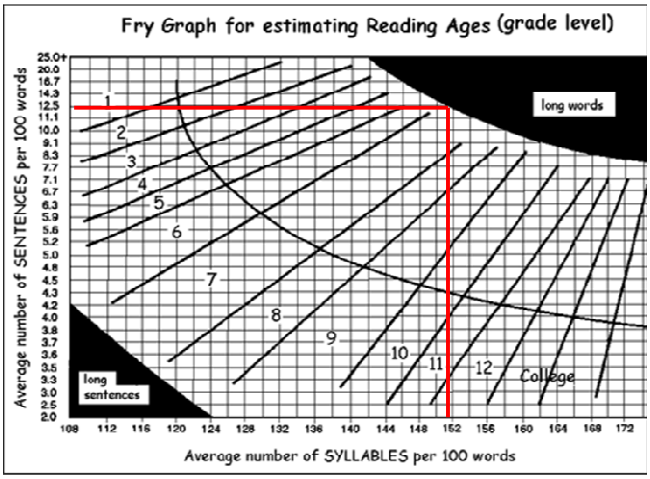
Graph 35: Flesch Reading Ease & Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level (*At the Crossroads*)

C. Fry Readability Estimate

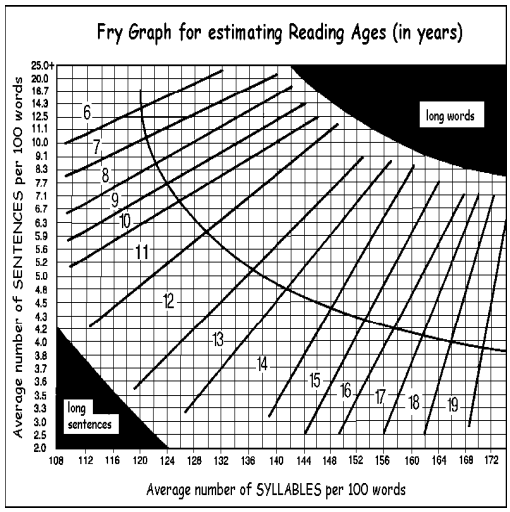
Text 1
Text 2
Text 3

Fry *At the Crossroads*: **151.3 / 12.8**

The point of coordination indicates that sentences are longer and use more words than normal.



Graph 36 : Graph (Grade) (*At the Crossroads)*



Graph 36': Fry Graph (Age) (*At the Crossroads*)

3.5.3.2. Subject Knowledge

The content will be analyzed in terms of:

- Another Academic Subject (AAS)
- Student-Contributed Content (SCC)
- Language Itself (LI)
- Literature (Lit)
- Culture (Cult)
- Interesting Facts (IF)
- Learning Itself (LgI)
- Specialist Content (SpC)

Unit	Titles of the topics	AAS	SCC	LI	Lit	Cult	IF	LgI	SpC
1	*Getting Through*		+	+		+	+		+
2	*Once Upon a Time*			+	+	++			
3	*Our Findings Show*		+	+		++	+	+	+
4	*Eureka!*		+			+		+	+
5	*Back to Nature*		+	+		+	+	+	+
Total		0	4	4	1	5	3	3	4
%		**0%**	**80%**	**80%**	**20%**	**100%**	**60%**	**60%**	**80%**

Table 60: Subject Knowledge of the topics (*At the Crossroads*)

3.5.3.3. Subject Matter

The textbook contains a great variety of topics, even if it is intended to interest all streams. Most texts have their sources indicated (Books, newspapers, encyclopedia). Some of them show authenticity, and appear as such (for example, a mail box). As far as culture is concerned, we find lots of facts, pictures, and allusions to both foreign and home culture.

Illustrations are numerous and colorful: they consist most of the time of pictures rather than photos. They are four categories: *decorative, representational, organizational, and explanative*.

Unit	Decorative	Representational	Organizational	Explanative	Total
1	3	4	0	0	7
3	6	3	3	0	12
5	6	6	0	0	12
TOTAL	**15**	**13**	**3**	**0**	**31**

Table 61: Illustrations (*At the Crossroads*)

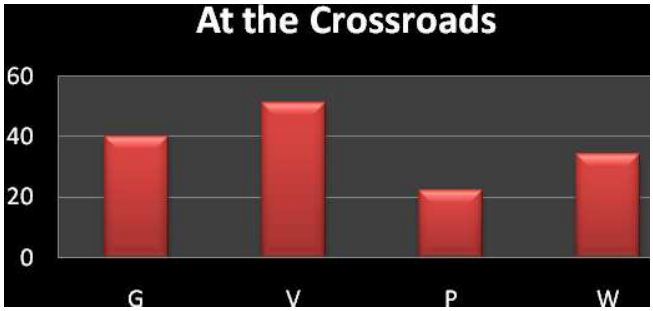
Even if most of pictures are decorative, it is worth mentioning that it is the first time we find a so much illustrated English textbook.

3.5.3.4. Type of Tasks

We shall see in the table and Graph below that, as in the "old" textbooks, vocabulary is still allocated a great deal of time. But unlike other textbooks, the present one displays a certain number of tasks regarding all aspects.

Unit	Grammar	Vocabulary	Phonology	Functions
1	11	17	9	12
3	9	20	6	8
5	20	14	7	14
TOTAL	**40**	**51**	**22**	**34**

Table 62: Type of Tasks (*At the Crossroads*)



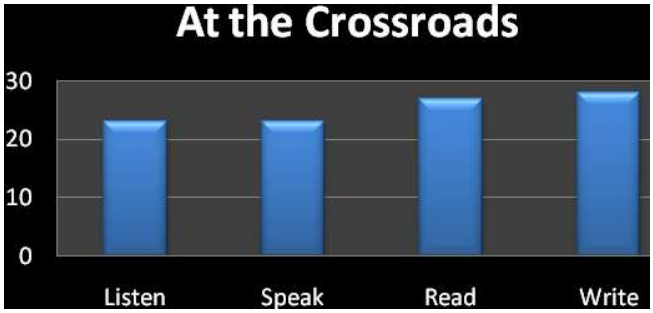
Graph 37: Type of Tasks (*At the Crossroads*)

3.5.3.5. The Four Skills

As mentioned in the *To the Teacher* section, *At the Crossroads* is a multi-skills syllabus and therefore covers and integrates both productive (speaking and writing) and receptive skills (listening and reading). However, it does place a larger emphasis on reading and writing.

Unit	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
1	9	10	10	10
3	7	6	7	8
5	7	7	10	10
TOTAL	**23**	**23**	**27**	**28**
%	**22%**	**22%**	**27%**	**29%**

Table 63: Balance of Skills (*At the Crossroads*)



Graph 38: Balance of Skills (*At the Crossroads*)

3.6. *Getting Through* (2 A.S.)

3.6.1. General Presentation

Level of Proficiency: 1 A.S.—2nd Grade in Secondary Cycle (Sixth year of English as FL2).

Number of pages: 208.

Getting through, as the authors (Riche et al) state in the *To the Teacher* section, complies with the 2005 curriculum designed by the Ministry of education. It follows the same procedures used in *At the Crossroads*, and relies on the competency-based approach. It is not mentioned whereas the textbook is designed for all streams, but the great variety of topics leads us to assume that it is. The authors advise teachers to use the textbook as a resource book from which they can choose tasks and drop others depending on their schemes and their students' abilities. It consists of eight units, meant to be completed in 15 hours, each; the units are organized topically. The students are, as in every textbook of this series, to prepare projects after every unit. One new feature to be introduced is the portfolio. A portfolio is

generally defined as a well-organized, goal-driven documentation of someone's professional growth and achieved competence in the task of teaching or any other related profession. However, in the context of the textbook in question, the designers see it as *a useful means of monitoring the progress made by each student* (Riche et al., 2006: VI). This portfolio consists of supplementary tasks done at home or in class, and corrected by teachers.

Getting through consists of:

- Contents (pp. II-III),
- A note to the pupil (pp IV-V),
- A note to the teacher (pp VII-VII),
- Outline of the book (pp VIII-XIII),
- 8 units (pp 14-178),
- Scripts for listening (pp 179-186),
- Grammar Reference (pp187-207), and
- Acknowledgements (p208).

3.6.2. Unit Organization

Each unit consists of five main parts:

1. Part 1: *Discovering Language* (constituents of the language)
2. Part 2: *Developing Skills* (students build basic language skills and intellectual skills)
3. Part 3: *Putting Things Together* (project itself)
4. Part 4: *Where Do We Go From Here?* (self-assessment)

5. Part 5: *Exploring Matters Further* (extensive reading, acquisition of Vocabulary and consolidation of Grammar)

The authors add that the first two parts (Discovering Language and Developing Skills) are the main core of the teaching/learning process, and consider the other parts its benchmarks.

The units are detailed below:

Unit	Titles of the Topics	Number of Pages
1	*Signs of the Time*	22
2	*Make Peace**	22
3	*Waste Not, Want not*	20
4	*Budding Scientist**	20
5	*News and Tales*	20
6	*No Man is an Island*	19
7	*Science or Fiction*	21
8	*Business is Business**	20
Total		162

Table 64: Units (*Getting Through*).

It is worth mentioning that the units contain sections entitled *Tip Box* which consist of different aspects:

- "Study Skills": reading strategies (scanning and skimming); listening strategies (general idea and specific information), note-taking, and dictionary use.

- Techniques in Writing: topic sentence, supporting sentence, etc.; different types of paragraphs (argumentative, comparative, etc.)
- Grammar and vocabulary assistance (some short advice on how to deal with a certain problem)
- Literature assistance (definition of certain styles, for example a "lament")

All these aim at developing the learners' autonomy.

3.6.3. Texts

The texts we analyzed in this textbook were:

- Text 1: *Martin Luther King, the Man of Peace*, Unit 2, p. 48. [Black Americans can do … former slaves] Newspaper article, no source mentioned.
- Text 2: *A Bag of Tricks*, Unit 4, p. 95. [The first arithmetic … have been used as tricks] Excerpt from *Adventures Ahead*, Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc. 1962, p. 16.
- Text 3: *American Women at Work*, Unit 8, p. 170. [Most American women … staying at home]. No source indicated.

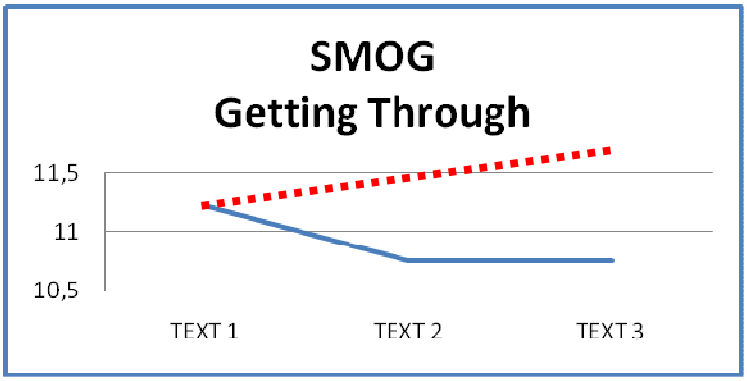
3.6.3.1. Readability Scores

A. **Smog Index**

Text 1: **11.22**
Text 2: **10.75**
Text 3: **10.75**

} **SMOG** *Getting Through*= **10.9**

This score is according to McLaughlin equivalent to “some high school”, and corresponding to 15 year-students. Reading this text is equivalent to reading *Newsweek.*



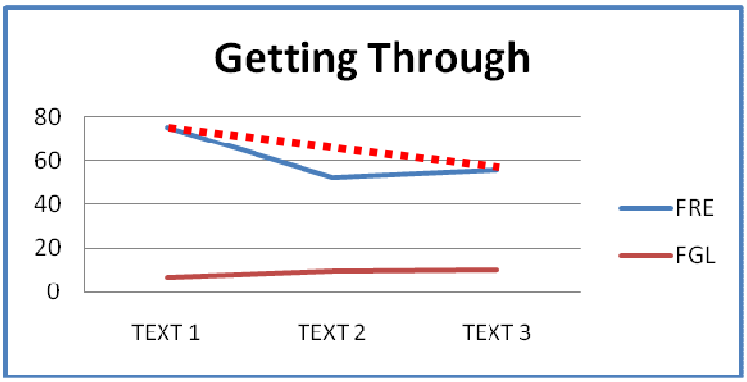
Graph 39: Smog Index (*Getting Through*)

Graph 39 indicates a steady line after Text 2 (the solid line). The dashed line, which we added, indicates the normal path Text 2 should have gone, from simpler to more difficult texts.

B. Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level:

Text 1: **75.1 / 6.8**
Text 2: **52.3 / 9.5**
Text 3: **55.9 / 10.3**
} **FRE & FGL** *Getting Through*: **61.1 / 8.86**

As in Smog Index, Flesch Reading Ease shows that there is an irregular trend; but, the two scores contradict here: Smog index indicates a move towards easier texts, whereas Flesch Indices show a move toward more difficulty. Normally the line should have continued its decrease, but here it rises after Text 2, meaning that the level of difficulty is getting simpler. The same is indicated by Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level.



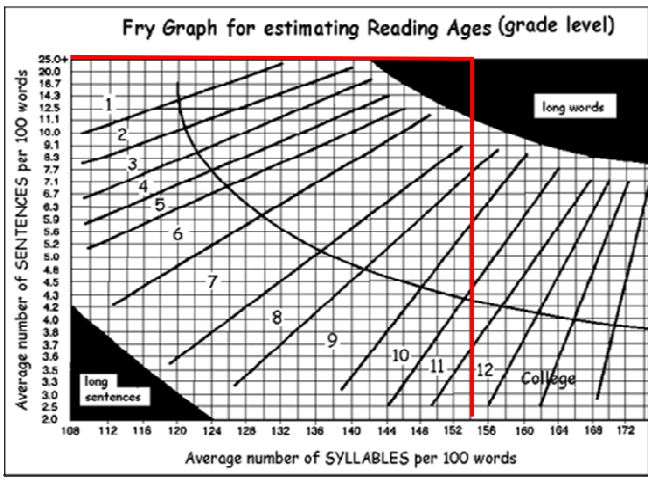
Graph 40: **Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level (*Getting Through*)**

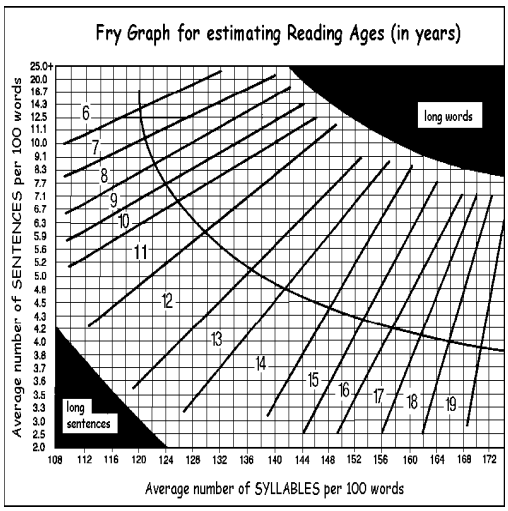
The dashed line shows what level the texts should have taken: here it means that Text 2 is too much difficult according to the other texts.

C. Fry Readability Estimate

Text 1:
Text 2:
Text 3:

Fry Getting Through: **155.6 / 20.6**





Graph 41: Fry Graph/Grade Level (*Getting Through*) **Graph 41': Fry Graph/Ages (*Getting Through*)**

Fry Graphs (Graph 41) show that:

- The level of difficulty goes beyond the limits of the average length of sentences, meaning that sentences consist of very long words (more difficult than shorter words).
- The Grade Level indicates 12, which is rather high as far as foreign learners are concerned.
- However, the age is more or less corresponding to *Getting Through* learners'(16/17 years).

3.6.3.2. Subject Knowledge

The following parameters were used to analyze the subject knowledge:

- Another Academic Subject (AAS)
- Student-Contributed Content (SCC)
- Language Itself (LI)
- Literature (Lit)
- Culture (Cult)
- Interesting Facts (IF)
- Learning Itself (LgI)
- Specialist Content (SpC)

	Topics	AAS	SCC	LI	Lit	Cult	IF	LgI	SpC
1	*Life Styles*		+			+	+		
2	*Peace and Conflict Resolution*			**+**		**+**	**+**	**+**	
3	*Water Resources*	+	+	+		+	+	+	+
4	*Science and Experiments*	+	+			+	+	+	+
5	*Literature and the Media*	+	+		+	+	+	+	
6	*Disaster and Solidarity*		+	+		+	+	+	
7	*Technology and the Arts*	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
8	*Management and Efficiency*	+		+	+	+	+	+	+
	TOTAL	**5**	**6**	**5**	**3**	**8**	**8**	**7**	**3**
	%	63%	75%	63%	37%	100%	100%	88%	37%

Table 65: Subject Knowledge of the topics (*Getting Through*)

3.6.3.3. Subject Matter

The topics contained in *Getting Through* are rich and varied. Most sources are cited, and most texts are authentic, and appear as such. Culture, and particularly general culture, is present throughout the book. At this stage, we would like to recall some questions we wanted to answer concerning exercises, but we could not find answers to in the previous textbooks.

The analysis of *Getting Through* proved to be fruitful concerning these points, since the answer is positive to three of them.

These are:

1. Do the exercises develop comprehension and text knowledge of main ideas, details and sequence of ideas? (Sheldon, 1988). For example, in Unit 2 page 39, the authors referring to a text, in this case on the United Nations Organization, require students to answer questions on comprehension (the main UNO Tasks, the other United Nations agencies, etc.). In another text we analyzed (Text 3, on *American Women at Work*), page 171, Unit 8, exercise 4, students are required to infer the main ideas from this very text.

2. Do the Tasks facilitate students' use of grammar rules by creating situations in which these rules are needed? (Byrd, 2001; Skierso, 1991; Daoud & Celce-Murcia, 1979). For example, page 39, in a section "Grammar Desk" in Unit 2, the authors referring to a text, in this case on the United Nations Organization, require students to answer questions and make them infer the meaning of modals and the tenses related to them (can, could, was/were able to, will be able to, etc.). Further on, page 40, students are asked to match the modals with their functions (suggestion, ability, request, warning, etc.).
3. Do the exercises provide practice in different types of written work (sentence completion, spelling and dictation, guided composition). Page 41, in a sentence completion exercise, students are asked to provide the words in blanks to complete a poem denouncing prejudices). Another poem (a lament) is subject to the same task page 148.

4. Do the exercises promote critical thinking? (Skierso, 1991). We did not find exercises related to this fourth point. The only exercises related to texts are questions of comprehension, as in all other textbooks, be they from the old or new programs.

Unit	Decorative	Representational	Organizational	Explanative
2	8	0	0	0
4	4	1	0	4
8	2	1	5	0
TOTAL	**14**	**2**	**5**	**4**

Table 66: Illustrations (*Getting Through*)

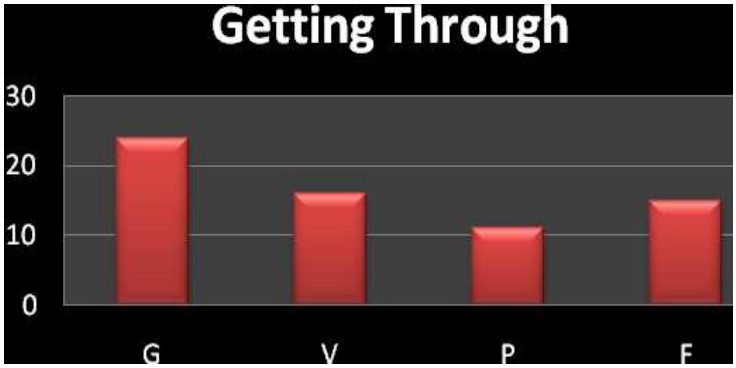
Illustrations (pictures) are very present, too (cf. Table 66).

3.6.3.4. Type of Tasks

Unit	Grammar	Vocabulary	Phonology	Functions
2	8	5	6	4
4	8	5	3	5
8	8	6	2	6
TOTAL	**24**	**16**	**11**	**15**

Table 67: Distribution of Tasks (*Getting Through*)

We see that Grammar takes the lion's share with regard to the number of tasks devoted to it, as it is shown in the graph below:



Graph 42: Distribution of Tasks (*Getting Through*)

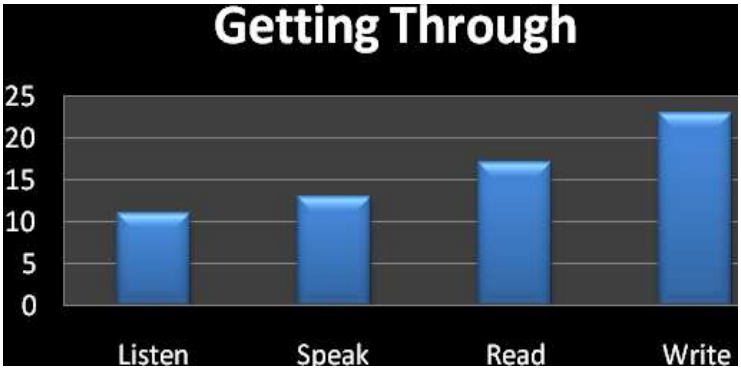
3.6.3.5. The Four Skills

This is how the four skills are distributed in the textbook:

Unit	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
1	4	5	4	8
4	3	5	7	5
8	4	3	6	10
TOTAL	**11**	**13**	**17**	**23**
%	**17%**	**20%**	**27%**	**36%**

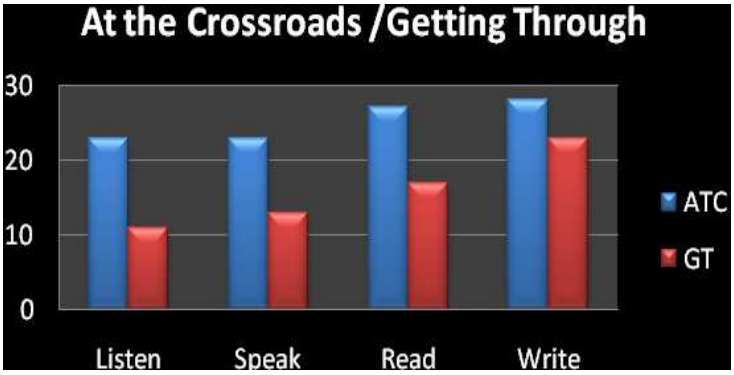
Table 68: Balance of Skills (*Getting Through*)

We see here that Writing Skills is given a greater amount than the other skills.



Graph 43: Balance of Skills (*Getting Through*)

We note that in comparison with the textbook of the lower grade (*At the Crossroads*), the present textbook shows tendencies toward favoring Writing Skills. This is possibly due to the forthcoming year where learners would get prepared for the final exam: the Baccalaureate.



Graph 44: Comparison in the Balance of Skills (*At the Crossroads/ Getting Through*)

ATC: At the Crossroads / GT: Getting Through

3.7. Fit between the Curriculum and the textbook

As we said earlier, the curriculum we found does not give such a detailed account on the approach, method, etc. This document (Ministry of Education, 2005) clarifies the content and the objectives of the new program. It defines terms such as competency-based method, learning to learn, learner autonomy, functional and affective knowledge, tasks. While helping pupils to give meaning to their learning, the competency-based method provides them with intellectual competences and enables them to develop varied processes necessary to the assimilation and use of this knowledge. It enables the pupils too to be aware of the resources that they develop and teaches them to reinvest in the learning acquired at school in view of problem-situations met outside school. Consequently, the document explains that this new approach drives new roles, and new learning strategies.

The following table presents the most important points:

Teacher's role		
Previously	**Now**	**What has changed**
- knowledge provider - omnipresent in class - decided everything - authoritative	- Guide / helper - Counselor - Facilitator - Co-learner - seeks pupils' participation	- Attitude less authoritative - Open to discussion, and negotiation - takes into account pupil's anxieties and interests

	- teaches individually (when necessary) - develops learning autonomy	

Table 69 : Teacher's Role. (Ministry of Education, 2005: 10)

As far as the approaches and the learner's role are concerned:

Learner's Role		
Current Approach	**New Approach**	**What has changed**
- knowledge recipient - teacher dependent - applies models Motivation based on marking, examination, and parental pressure.	- The learner wants to know what s/he learns - Is responsible for her/his learning - learns better through action - s/he builds her/his own strategies - defines her/himself the processes s/he will make use of when working - strengthens skills into problem-solving	- s/he learns due to and through action - increases her/his intellectual potential - improves her/his memorization process - has a positive attitude toward learning

Table 70 : Learner's Role. (Ministry of Education, 2005: 12)

As for skills, the document insists on the integration of the four skills. It stresses the importance of including learning English within learning.

Since our area of predilection was the study of texts, we picked up the details relative to them from the document. This is what it says:

It is important to select texts with a view to determine the meaningful units, i.e. notions and functions to keep for each kind of text. The selection of texts is done according to the following principles:

1. Link with the previous classes (intermediate cycle)
2. Use as many functions and notions likely to appear in a given type of text. This organization favors recycling and consolidation.
3. Respect learners' interests and needs.
4. Consider language as a means of communication by advocating its use in the appropriate contexts through the presentation of tasks which would respond to a need of authentic or near authentic communication.
5. Emphasis on comprehension in relation to production by emphasizing listening and reading and avoiding monotonous and recurrent exercises. (Ministry of Education, 2005: 21-22)

4. Comparative Summary

This section is meant to be a kind of recapitulation of the most important aspects analyzed in the textbooks, and aims at comparing the textbooks in terms of their inputs. While doing this comparison, we were fully aware that such a comparison cannot be made, since the textbooks consider different situations and thereby different levels. Nonetheless, we maintained the comparison, in order to see if the new curriculum would be in adequacy with the university curriculum.

4.1. Readability of Texts

Textbook	SMOG	FRY	Flesch Reading Ease	Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level
My New Book of English				
TEXT 1	7.33	138.3	85.4	4.0
TEXT 2	10.07	7.33	77.8	5.8
TEXT 3	9.42		71.1	6.2
New Midlines				
TEXT 1	5.45	147.3	86.1	3.7
TEXT 2	7.74	6.6	76.5	8.8
TEXT 3	12.75		34.8	12.7
Comet				
TEXT 1	12.08	155.6	56.7	11.4

TEXT 2	11.66	20.4	52.0	9.1
TEXT 3	13.25		52.2	11.9

Table 71: Readability Scores (The Former Textbooks)

When we look at the Smog Index, we note that the old textbooks lack continuity and progression. It is quite understandable when we know in which conditions these textbooks were designed. For instance, Smog of Text 3 in *My New Book of English* is 9.42, and Smog of Text 1 in *The New Midlines* is 5.45, which is much too low. We should have expected here a score around 8 or 9 to be in concordance with the previous textbook. However, there is continuity between Text 3 (*The New Midlines*) and Text 1 (*Comet*) where Smog is respectively 12.75 and 12.08. As for Fry, if there is certain continuity in the first score, the second score on the other hand indicates different grades, and the variation between them is too big. As for Flesch Reading Ease, the scores obtained in *Comet* indicate that there is not progression in the level of difficulty; the score is the same throughout the textbook: 5.3, on average.

Textbook	**SMOG**	**FRY**	**Flesch Reading Ease**	**Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level**
At the Crossroads				
TEXT 1	9.0	151.3	71.8	5.8
TEXT 2	10.7	12.8	69.6	7.8
TEXT 3	12.26		57.1	8.9
Getting Through				
TEXT 1	11.22	155.6	75.1	6.8
TEXT 2	10.75	20.6	52.3	9.5

TEXT 3	10.75		55.9	10.3

Table 72: Readability Scores (The New Textbooks)

There are some discrepancies concerning the new textbooks, too. First, Smog Index of *Getting Through* (GT) is lower than *At The Crossroads*' (ATC) Smog score: all three texts (GT) have a lower score than Text 3 (ATC). This shows a lack of continuity between the two textbooks. The same is indicated by Flesch score. Second, Fry score displays different grades: 12.8 (ATC) and 20.6 (GT), indicating a too big variation.

The following table concerns the comparison of the former and new textbooks; with their respective scores (we calculated the mean score for each). As expected, there is a great difference between them. The difference is marked particularly on the level of grades: Flesh-Kinkaid Grade Level (FGL) and Fry (second score). It seems they are not designed to the same age range observed in the learners. The second difference concerns the texts themselves which appear to be more difficult than the texts in the old textbooks. We are aware that the levels differ (for the new textbooks, learners have more years of English), however, the difficulty remains high. McLaughlin (1987) warns against the cognitive overload in SL or FL reading: cognitive overload can lead SL/FL readers to experience frustration and lose interest in SL/FL reading because it becomes too time-consuming and too laborious.

SCORES	Former Textbooks	New Textbooks
SMOG	8.79	10.75
FRE / FGL	71.9 / 7.2	58.8 / 8.8
FRY	142.8/ 6.9	153.4 / 16.8

Table 73: Comparison of the Readability Scores (Former and New Textbooks)

4.2. Subject Knowledge

- *My New Book of English* and *The New Midlines* consist each of 16 units. *At the Crossroads* and *Getting Through* consist respectively of 5 and 8 units. So we could not compare them in the total number related to each aspect, but in the percentage allocated to it. We differentiated between them in terms of "Former Textbooks" (Former Tbks) and "New Textbooks" (New Tbks). (AAS: Another Academic Subject; SCC: Student-Contributed Knowledge; LI: Language Itself; Lit: Literature; Cult: Culture;

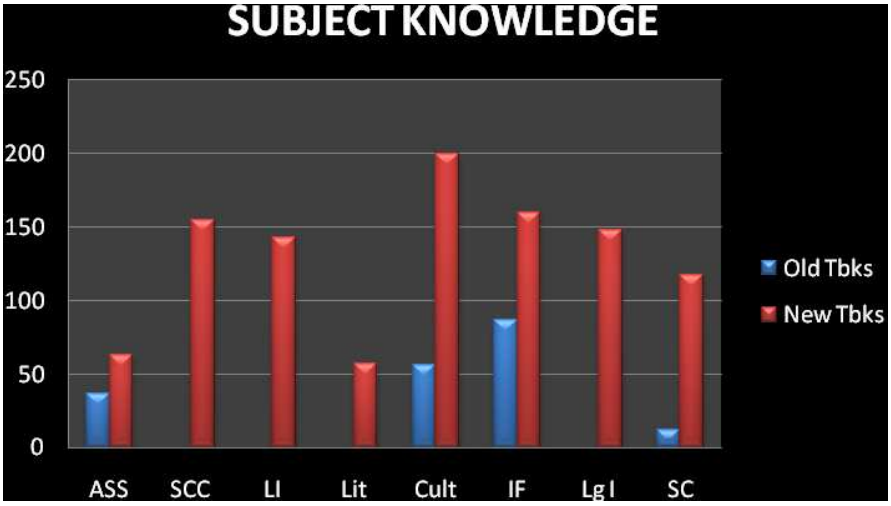
  IF: Interesting Facts; LgI: Learning Itself; SpC: Specialist Content).

Textbooks	AAS	SCC	LI	Lit	Cult	IF	LgI	SpC
My New Book of English	0%	0%	7%	7%	42%	78%	0%	0%
The New Midlines	37%	0%	0%	0%	56%	87%	0%	12%
Total %	**18.5**	**0**	**3.5**	**3.5**	**49**	**82.5**	**0**	**6**
At the Crossroads	0%	80%	80%	20%	100%	60%	60%	80%
Getting Through	63%	75%	63%	37%	100%	100%	88%	37%

Total %	**31.5**	**77.5**	**143**	**71.5**	**100**	**80**	**74**	**58.5**

Table 74: Comparison of the Subject Knowledge (Former Textbooks / New Textbooks)

Graph 45 shows clearly the differences:



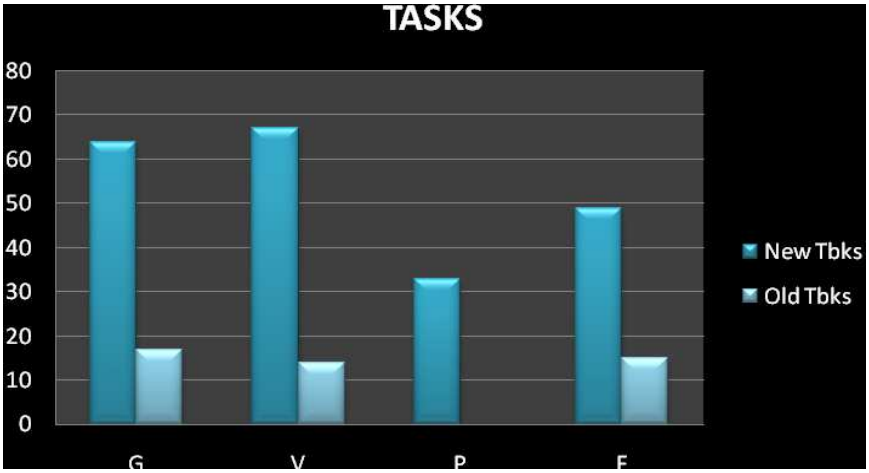
Graph 45 : Comparison of the Subject Knowledge (Former Textbooks / New Textbooks)

4.3. Tasks

We then compared the number of tasks dealt in both the old textbooks and the new ones. We reached the same conclusions as in the Subject Knowledge section.

Textbooks	Grammar	Vocabulary	Phonology	Functions
My New Book of English	5	6	0	4
The New Midlines	12	8	0	11
TOTAL	**17**	**14**	**0**	**15**
At The Crossroads	40	51	22	34
Getting Through	24	16	11	15
TOTAL	**64**	**67**	**33**	**49**

Table 75: Comparison of Tasks (Former Textbooks / New Textbooks)



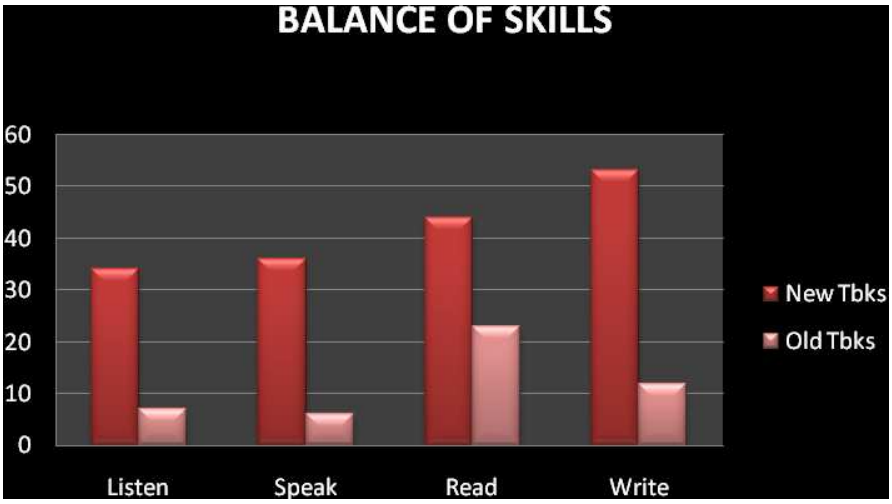
Graph 46 : Comparison of Tasks (Former Textbooks / New Textbooks)

4.4. Balance of Skills

Textbooks	L	S	R	W
My New Book of E.	0	1	10	5
The New Midlines	7	5	13	7
TOTAL	**7**	**6**	**23**	**12**
At The Crossroads	23	23	27	28
Getting Through	11	13	17	23
TOTAL	**34**	**36**	**44**	**53**

Table 76: Comparison of Balance of Skills (Former Textbooks / New Textbooks)

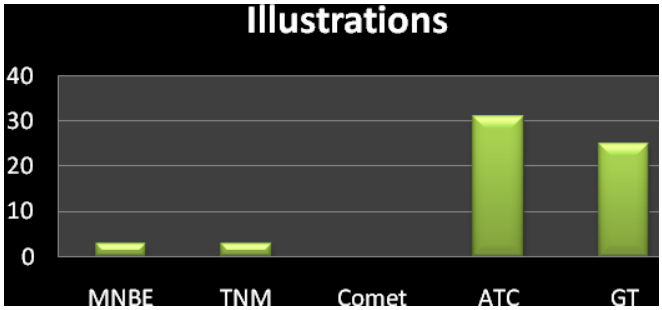
(L: Listening; S: Speaking; R: Reading; W: Writing)



Graph 47: Comparison of Balance of Skills (Former Textbooks / New Textbooks)

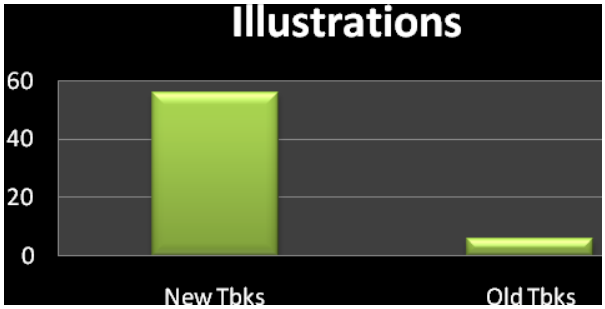
4.5. Illustrations

We said earlier in this chapter that illustrations are regarded as main components of textbooks. We remind that *Comet* had no illustrations at all. *My New Book of English* had only ten (decorative) pictures throughout the book. *The New Midlines* contains 16 visuals in total. As for the "new" textbooks, we could not count the total number, there are so many. However, we counted them per unit analyzed, as it has been done in the other textbooks. The graph below displays the results of the analysis in terms of illustrations:



Graph 48: Illustrations in the Textbooks (Former Textbooks / New Textbooks)
[*My New Book of English* (MNBE) / *The New Midlines* (TNM)/ *At the Crossroads* (ATC)/ *Getting Through* (GT)]

The other graph (Graph 49) displays the results of the comparison between the old textbooks (Former Tbks) and the new ones (New Tbks).



Graph 49: Comparison of Illustrations (Former Textbooks / New Textbooks)

Conclusion

The analyses we have undertaken in this chapter have enabled us to situate some of the shortcomings we believe are behind the problems encountered by learners. On this basis we came to the following conclusions:

- The process of textbook design and renewal, as well as the syllabus design and renewal, are not based on objective considerations. In addition, we note a lack of coordination and cooperation between teams of textbook designers and the result is a non-coherent series (as far as the former textbooks are concerned). The new textbooks, although having the same team of designers, appear to suffer from some limitations on the difficulty of texts, the length of the textbooks, and the cognitive overload, notably. Given the time allocation of English in the secondary school we wonder whether teachers could have time to finish the programs.

- In terms of the content of the texts, we noted particularly the lack of foreign culture in the textbooks. Moreover, the texts do not show much variety and interest as the new textbooks contents. However, in both programs, technical and scientific texts are given preponderance on purely literary and cultural texts. We wonder why these aspects of foreign language learning are banished, or if by bad luck they appear, they are "relegated to literary streams", as stated by the textbooks designers. The lack of illustrations is a serious drawback as regards the age of the learner and the nature of the subject.

- As regards language skills, we note that there is no balance in terms of distribution. The new textbooks, however, do seem to have a balance between the different skills.

- In relation to language systems, we note that there is no balance in terms of distribution of tasks which are devoted to them. The number of tasks is not high, neither. Unlike the old textbooks, the new ones display a great variety of tasks, though we note here too their overload.

Finally, in relation with all these points we may assert that the textbooks—the former ones, since these were the textbooks which our panel of students experienced—do not match the learners' requirements and needs in terms of contents, tasks, and balance of skills.

Lying at the heart of this chapter is a concern for our first hypothesis which is that whether the university and the school curricula are in adequacy. The following chapter will confirm or invalidate our hypothesis.

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Introduction

We put forward the hypothesis that performance in English had declined. This experiment aims to test this hypothesis. Our original plan was to seek ten to fifteen-year old papers—written expression and grammar exams, for instance—in the archives of the English Department and to compare them to more recent ones. Regrettably, the Department, due to a lack of space, does not keep such old records. We then turned to our Magister Thesis (Lakehal-Ayat, 1997), in which students were submitted to a proficiency test in order to correlate their performance with their socio-cultural background.

In 1997, we put forward the hypothesis that students from a higher socio-cultural background perform better: the results of our study indicated that the socio-cultural background played the most important role in predicting proficiency in foreign language learning in the university context. Of the variables belonging to the socio-cultural background, it was the educational level of the mother, and the fact that she had an occupation, together with the student's habit of reading in French that emerged as the sub-factors that best differentiated the students.

This is the same test we used to test students in order to know whether, according to our hypothesis, the standards had dropped. This proficiency test will enable us to differentiate between two populations of learners: those we had tested in 1996, and the ones we tested in 2006. While turning to 1996 tests, we decided to use the same sociological questionnaire, too. The fact of associating the questionnaire and the proficiency test ensures that the two

populations are receiving the same treatment. However, we did not use all the questions we had asked in 1996, the objectives of the study differ: first, the 1996 questionnaire aimed at making correlations with the socio-cultural background, whereas 2006 questionnaire's aim is to relate the proficiency to what students know of the structure of English, and to the comparison of their scores to 1996's students. Despite the fact that the original test had its weaknesses, there was some justification in retaining it in the form it had in 1996. On the other hand, the student questionnaires administered along with the test were modified and adapted to new contexts. Indeed, the very philosophy of the present approach is to provide indications about students' performance and attempt comparisons.

1. ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1.1. Choice of the Sample

The first testing took place in May 1996 on students of the first year of English. The second took place in September 2006[88] on students of the first year of English too. The two experiences were carried out on the same pattern. The analysis of 2006 and 1996 questionnaire will be given at the same time; more emphasis will be on the differences between the two populations.

[88] We intended to submit students to our test in June 2006, but a national teachers' strike prevented this. We did it in September after the fall exams.

The number of students enrolled in 2006 was 400[89]. We chose randomly 120 students, but only 81 gave back fully answered papers. The other papers were really lacking important items, so we chose not to take them in consideration. We considered this number to be representative since in terms of percentage it is 20%, i.e. 1/5 of the population, a standard proportion required in Human and Social Sciences. In 1996, our population amounted to 61 students, equally representing 20% of the total (300 students). We insisted during the session on two points: the first is that students answer as truthfully as possible; and second, that the papers were anonymous—we showed them that there was no space left for writing their names—and we were firm on that point. It took the students an average of 30 minutes to fill in the questionnaire. We insisted on the fact that we wanted them to answer as sincerely as possible, and during the session we did everything to ensure test-takers were at ease and not stressed.

A variable of crucial importance—the repetition of the year—led to the elimination of the students being tested: our aim was to test first year students, i.e. who enrolled for the first time in the English department; repetitive students would have biased our study.

1.2. Choice of the Variables

1.2.1. Streams

Question 4**:** Baccalaureate: Year of Achievement: 20….. Stream:

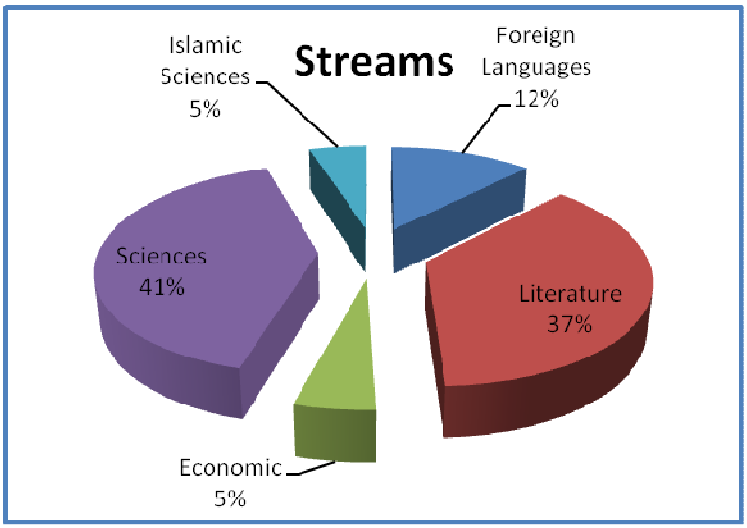
[89] In fact, at the beginning of the academic year 2005/2006, there were 450 students enrolled. But by the end, there remained 400.

For some years now, students enrolling in the English department come from different streams; English is no longer the preserve of literary streams. (Foreign Ls: Foreign Languages; Islamic Sces: Islamic Sciences)

Stream	Foreign Ls	Sciences	Literature	Islamic Sces	Economy	Total
Number of Students	10	33	30	4	4	81
%	12%	41%	37%	5%	5%	100%

Table 77: Streams (2006)

The following graph displays the different categories:



Graph 50: Streams

We note that scientific streams represent the bulk of the student body, even if the literary streams remain well represented. On the other hand, the Foreign Languages stream, which is the most qualified to enroll, is rather low (only 10). As we said in Chapter Five, the

most qualified to enroll are the least represented. More and more "scientific" students enroll in the Department.

In 1996, this feature was not included in our questionnaire because it was not as important as it is nowadays. It seems that though there were "scientific" students enrolled in the English department, this fact had not reached the same proportions.

1.2.2. Scales of Occupations

Question 6 A: Your father's profession:

As in 1996[90], we classified the professions according to the Algerian socio-professional scale. The following professional categories were encountered in the students' parents.

01. Liberal occupations (Medicine doctors, lawyers, chemists and entrepreneurs).

02. High-ranking occupations—public sector (medicine doctors, veterinarians, architects, engineers with university degrees, magistrates, and university teachers).

03. Middle-ranking occupations—public sector:

- In the field of education (teachers and directors of secondary schools).
- In the field of administration (directors of administrations).

04. Employees in the administration (employees in public administration, public services, army, teachers and directors of middle and primary schools).

05. Workmen (team leaders, sea-men, factory workmen and cooks).

[90] The late Pr. Adel Faouzi (lecturer in the Department of Sociology and former director of Insaniyat—a sociological/ anthropological journal) helped us in the design of the socio-professional scale and the questionnaire.

06. Handicraftsmen, small tradesmen and small farmers.

09. Retired people.

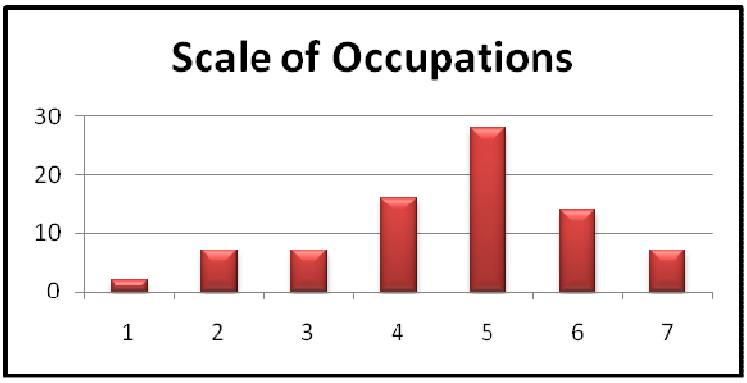
10. Unemployed people.

In 1996, we withdrew the category “Retired People” on the grounds that it did not help to find out the cultural background. In 2006, too, students were required to supply the original profession.

The following table represents the number and percentage of students according to the father’s socio-professional scale.

Scale	**01**	**02**	**03**	**04**	**05**	**06**	**10**	Total
Number of students	2	7	7	16	28	14	7	81
Percentage	2%	9%	9%	20%	**35%**	17%	8%	100%

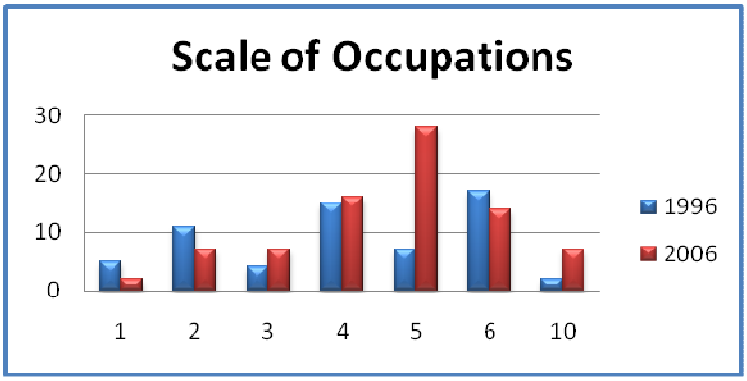
Table 78: Scale of Occupations (2006)



Graph 51: Scale of Occupations (2006)

We note that Scale 05 (workmen) represents the largest proportion of students.

Graph 52, below, summarizes the differences between the two groups. In 1996, Scale 06 (handicraftsmen, small trades and small farmers) represented the largest proportion. We note, however, that Scale 01, 02, and 03 were better represented with a percentage of 31% as opposed to 2006s percentage of 20. This means that democratization has really taken place, at least in relation to the English Department.



Graph 52: Scale of Occupations (1996/2006)

1.2.3. Educational Level of the Father

Question 5 (A): Parents' highest level of education:

(A) Father

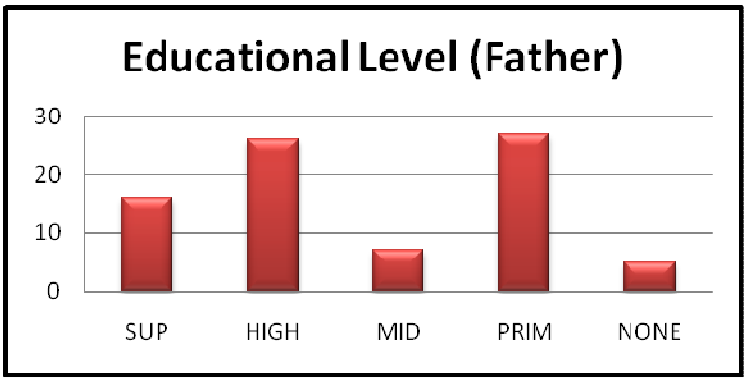
1. Primary education O
2. Middle education O
3. Secondary education O
4. University education O

The educational level was divided into five categories: superior for parents who hold a university degree; high relates to the secondary cycle; middle, to the intermediate cycle; primary relates to the primary cycle, and finally none means the parents did not have education at all.

Level	Sup	High	Mid	Prim	None	Total
Number of students	16	26	7	27	5	81
Percentage	20%	**32%**	9%	**33%**	6%	100%

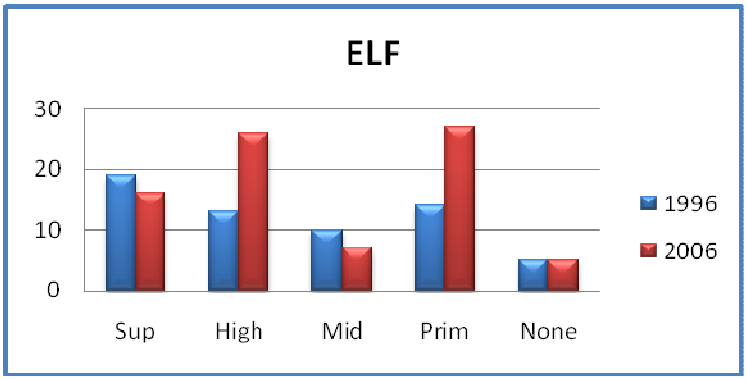
Table 79: Educational Level of the Father (2006)

We see here that two levels emerge: “high” (32%) and “primary” (33%).



Graph 53: Educational Level of the Father (2006)

Whereas in 1996 the “Superior” level is the best represented (32%).



Graph 54: Educational Level of the Father (1996/2006)

1.2.4. **Educational Level of the Mother**

Question 5 (A):

<u>Parents' highest level of education:</u>

(B) Mother

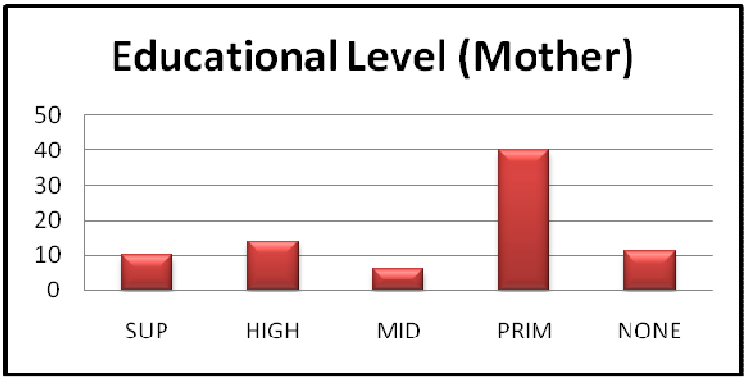
1. Primary education O
2. Middle education O
3. Secondary education O
4. University education O

The same categories were applied to know the educational level of the mother (ELM):

Level	Sup	High	Mid	Prim	None	Total
Number of students	10	14	6	40	11	81
Percentage	14%	17%	7%	**51%**	11%	100%

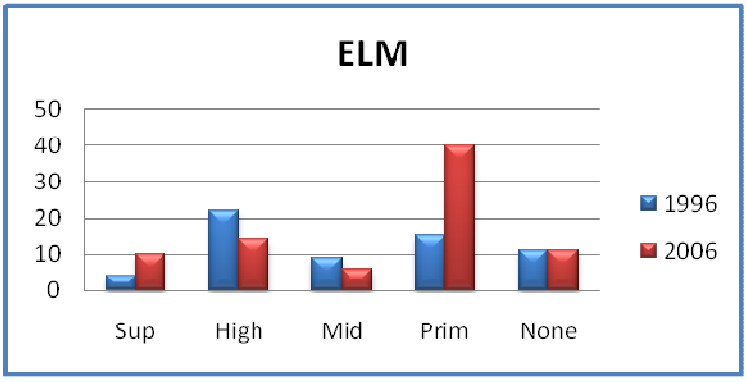
Table 80: Educational Level of the Mother (2006)

Concerning the mother, the largest category is the primary school level (half the population). If we merge it with the “none” category, we reach a very high percentage (62%), more important than the level of the father (39%— Primary: 33% and None: 6%).



Graph 55: Educational Level of the Mother (2006)

As for 1996, the “high” level is the largest proportion (36% in 1996 vs. 17% in 2006)



Graph 56: Educational Level of the Mother (1996/2006)

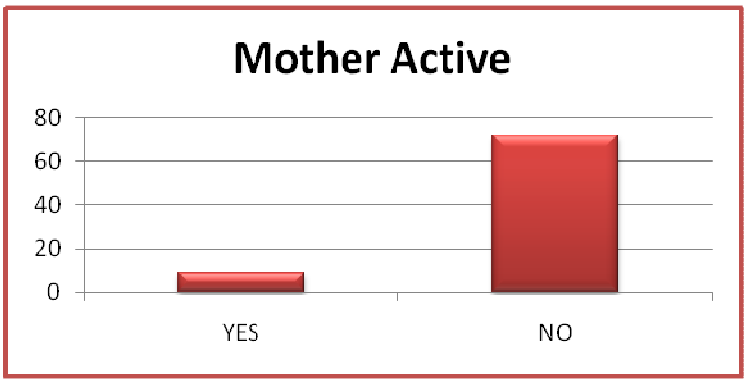
1.2.5. **Mother Active**

Question 6 B.: <u>Your mother’s profession:</u>

In 1996, scores which made the difference had three variables: the educational level of the mother, the fact she had a profession, and Reading. This is why we invited students to answer the question. The number of mothers having a profession is not important, as Table 81 and Graph 57 show.

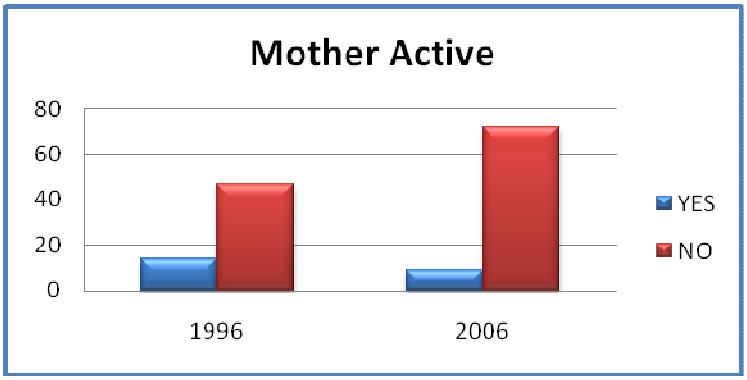
Mother Active	Yes	No	Total
Number of students	9	72	81
Percentage	11%	**89%**	100%

Table 81: Mother Active (2006)



Graph 57: Mother Active (2006)

It was also the case in 1996, where only a small proportion of mothers work, however in terms of number and percentage, it was more important. (In 1996 14 students' mothers were active─ representing 23%).



Graph 58: Mother Active (1996/2006)

1.2.6. **Geographical Environment**

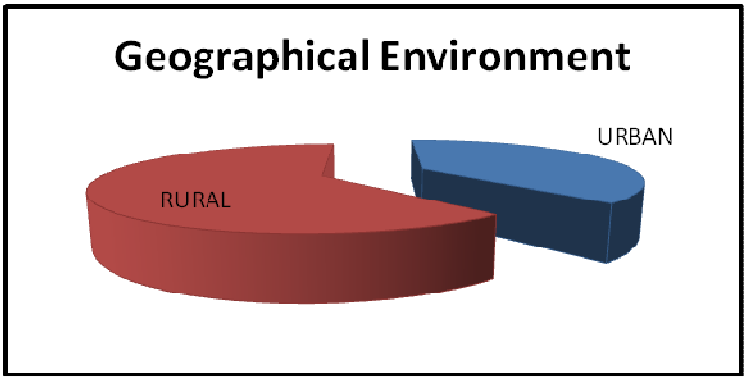
Question 3: What is your place of residence?

Our main concern through this question was to know the geographical environment students live in. As we see, 62% come from a rural one. The number of students coming from the Wilaya of Constantine was 35 (43%). It will be interesting to correlate these students with their scores to see whether they reach a higher one. As we found out in Chapter Five, students from the Wilaya[91] of Constantine did not use *My New Book of English* but continued using *New Lines*.

Geographical Environment	Urban	Rural	Total
Number of students	31	50	81
Percentage	38%	**62%**	100%

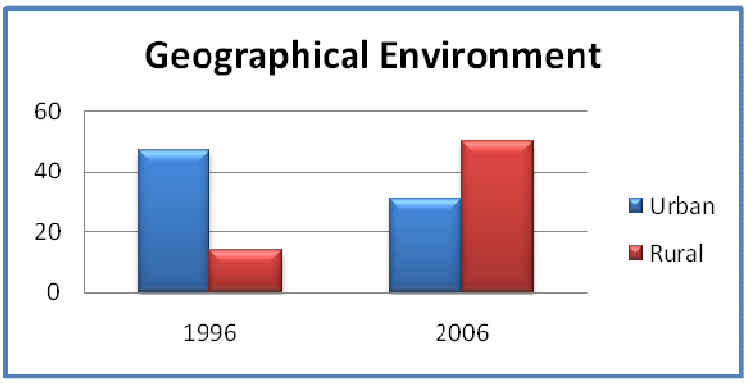
Table 82: Geographical Environment

[91] A Wilaya is an Algerian territorial division.



Graph 59: Geographical Environment (2006)

As we can see in Graph 60 the ratio is reversed: in 1996, there were more students coming from urban areas (82%) than from rural areas (18%). It confirms what Guerid[92] (2001:34) stated about the new student composition.



Graph 60: Geographical Environment (1996/2006)

1.2.7. **Age and Sex**

Question 1: Gender: O Male O Female

[92] This was dealt with in Chapter 2.

Question 2**:** What is your birthday: Year: 19____

The average age is 20. As for sex, we already noted in 1996, that there are far fewer males than females (8 male students, representing 13%). The same is found in 2006, with exactly the same percentage: 13% of male vs. 87% of female students). It reinforces the tendency that girls are more interested in languages or that languages are less prestigious in 2006. An interesting feature is emerging nowadays, in 1996 we encountered only one, is that more and more students (male and female) are enrolled in the English department preparing at the same time two degrees, the other being in scientific fields. In 1996, one male student was preparing computer sciences, and English. In 2006, we encountered four students, two males and two females (Medicine, Pharmacy, Computer Sciences, and Architecture).

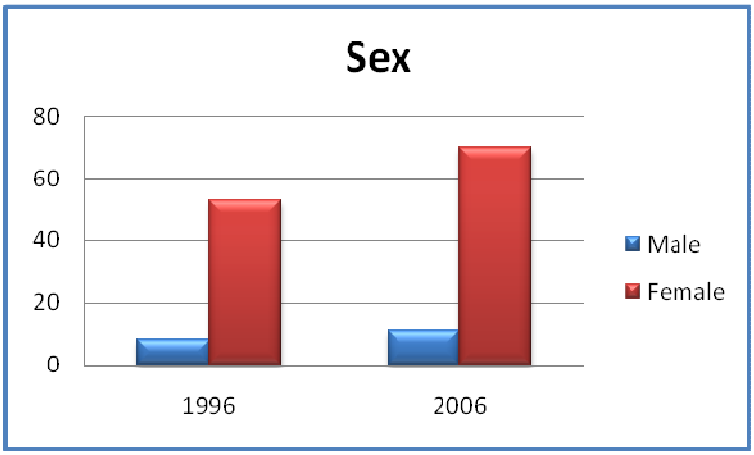
Age	18	19	20	21	22	> 22	Total
Number of students	11	24	25	10	6	5	81
Percentage	14%	30%	31%	12%	7%	6%	100%

Table 83: Age of Students (2006)

19-year old students mark the bulk of the age in the sample.

Sex	Female	Male	Total
Number of students	70	11	81
Percentage	87%	13%	100%

Table 84: Sex of the students (2006)



Graph 61: Sex of the Students (1996/2006)

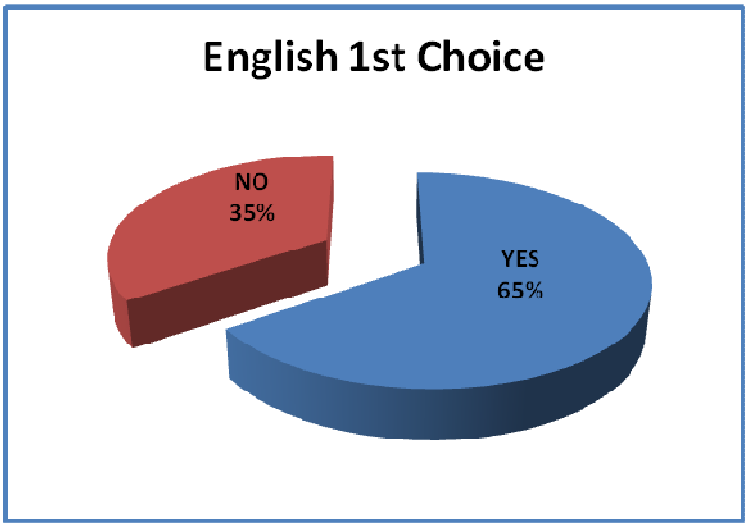
1.2.8. **English as the First Choice**

Question 4 B: Was English your 1st choice?

Since 1990, orientations are computerized, based on the marks students obtained in their baccalaureate. Students are required to indicate their preferred subject choices, on a paper delivered by the university administration. On this paper, choices are included ranking from 1 to 10 which the students fill in according to her/his wishes. We aimed through this question at finding out whether students were motivated to study English, by indicating that English was their first choice. We observe that one third (35%) of students did not choose to study English; this fact alone may be a cause of lack of interest and motivation. Paradoxically, this question is not included in the 1996 questionnaire, despite the same administration restrictions, thus we could not know whereas in 1996 students chose English straightaway. Due to this, there is no comparison available for this variable.

English 1st Choice	Number of Students	Percentage
Yes	53	**65%**
No	28	35%
Total	81	100%

Table 85: English as the First Choice (2006)



Graph 62: English as the First Choice (2006)

1.2.9. English as the First Foreign Language

Question 9: <u>When did your start learning English?</u>

Primary School 0 Middle School 0

As we saw in Chapter Five, since 1993, students have studied English as a first foreign language (FL1). This variable would be very important in the result of the proficiency test. Students belonging to this category are expected to score higher than the others. As for 1996, it is obvious that no question was related to English as FL1.

English	Number of Students	Percentage
FL 2	69	86%
FL 1	12	14%
Total	81	100%

Table 86: English FL1 (2006)

We wanted then to know which stream (question 4 B) they came from: most are from scientific streams.

Stream	Foreign Ls	Sciences	Literature	Islamic Sces	Economy	Total
Number of Students	0	**6**	3	0	2	11

Table 87: Streams of FL1 Students. (2006)

1.2.10.**Attitude and Motivation**

Question 11: Do you like the English language?

O Very much O Rather like it O Indifferent O Not very much O Not at all

We were expecting a better percentage of students' positive attitude toward the English language, but in view of what preceded (English as a 1st Choice), this is quite understandable.

Attitude Target Language	Positive	Intermediate	Negative	Total
Number of students	64	5	12	81
Percentage	**79%**	7%	14%	100%

Table 88: Attitude and Motivation towards English (2006)

Question 12: Do you like the English speaking countries culture?

O Very much O Rather like it O Indifferent O Not very much O Not at all

Attitude Target Culture	Positive	Intermediate	Negative	Total
Number of students	45	10	26	81
Percentage	55%	13%	32%	100%

Table 89: Attitude towards English-speaking countries Culture (2006)

It is strange to find that those students who had a negative attitude towards target culture were among the ones who showed great motivation and positive attitudes towards the English language. Generally speaking, the attraction one may have to a foreign culture incites her to learn its (their) language(s). Otherwise, students' negative attitude may be due to the political events taking place in Palestine and the Middle East, which students relate to the USA. In all of these landmarks (Palestine conflict, Iraq's war, the After World Trade Center) of modern Arabs history, the role of foreigners, and most importantly the U.S.A., has been seen by Algerians, whether rightly or not, as both prominent and hostile to their culture. English is

perceived as the language of power, progress, and prestige and at the same time the language of intervention in the Arab culture and political affairs.

Question 13: How important is it for you to know English?

O Very important O Not at all important O Rather important

It is clear from the table below, that students make a difference between the English language and its culture.

Importance of English	Very important	Rather important	Not important	Total
Number of students	77	2	2	81
Percentage	**95%**	2.5%	2.5%	100%

Table 90: Importance of knowing English (2006)

In 1996, on the other hand, we obtained 100% of positive attitudes both for the language and the culture. We wonder, given some of the landmarks mentioned earlier (except for the After World Trade Center), how the 1996 students had not reacted in a similar way as those in 2006.

1.3. **Students' Prior Learning**

Through these questions, we aimed at knowing the sequence and organization of English classes. Naturally, these answers are to be treated with caution, since they express the feeling students have of them. Some classroom observation studies have suggested that there is far less concordance than expected among what teachers claim to be doing and what actually occurs in the classroom.

This part of the questionnaire was not treated by 1996 students, our objectives were not similar. The graphs represent proportions of answers to the questions.

Question 14: During the English classes, how often were the following used? Mark with an 'X' the option that best matches your situation.

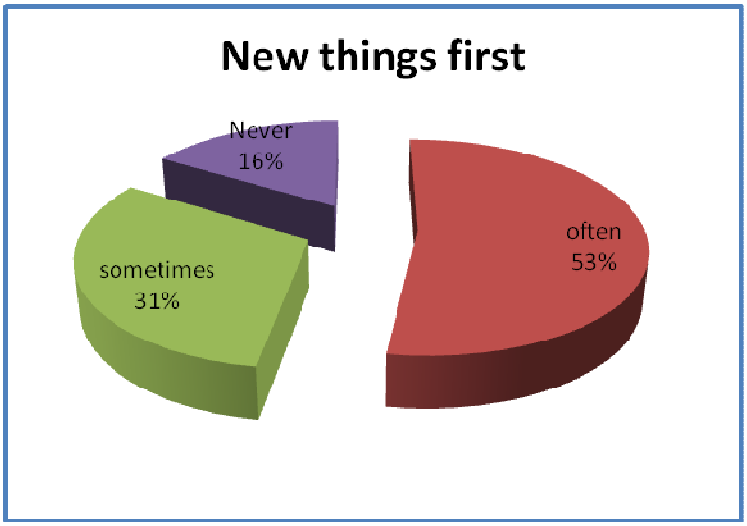
Often Sometimes Never

1.3.1. **The English Classroom (Organization)**

1.3.1.1. ***New Things First***

Question 14 A.: On starting a lesson your teacher first explained the new concepts/words/grammar in it and then she/he organised appropriate activities in order to put this into practice.

Generally speaking, teachers start courses by explaining new concepts, grammar or vocabulary points, and then they organize appropriate tasks. We obtained the answers displayed in the graph below:

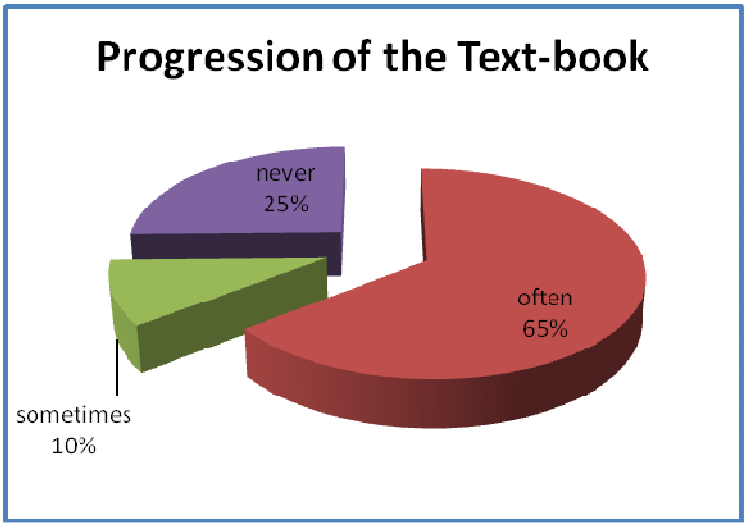


Graph 63: New Things First (2006)

1.3.1.2. *Progression of the Textbook*

Question 14 B.: <u>She/he followed the progression of the textbook.</u>

Our question aims at knowing whether teachers followed the progression of the textbook as designed by the authors.



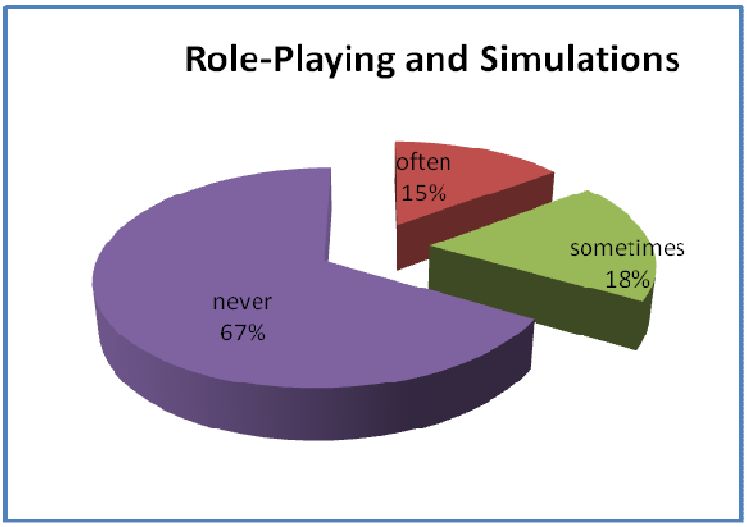
Graph 64: Progression of the Textbook (2006)

The answer *often* makes up the bulk of the answers. *Sometimes* and *never* make up only 35% of the total answers.

1.3.1.3. *Role-Playing and Simulations*

Question 14 C.: S/he used role-plays and simulations to create almost authentic communicative situations in the classroom.

We saw in the textbooks that there were no activities devoted to role-playing and simulations. However, as we see in the graph below, a certain number of teachers (33%) improvise and incite the students to perform.



Graph 65: Role-Plays and Simulations (2006)

1.3.1.4. *Encouragement to Communicate*

Question 14 D.: Did she/he encourage the pupils to communicate in English when they speak about their own learning, school work and other personal matters?

In Chapter Five, we dealt with the balance of skills in textbooks, and saw that very few activities were devoted to Listening and Speaking. We remind below the percentages:

Textbook	*My New Book of English*			*The New Midlines*			*Comet*	
Skills	Listening	Speaking		Listening	Speaking		Listening	Speaking
Percentage	**0%**	**6%**		**22%**	**15%**		**18%**	**18%**

Table 91: Balance of Skills in the Secondary School Textbooks.

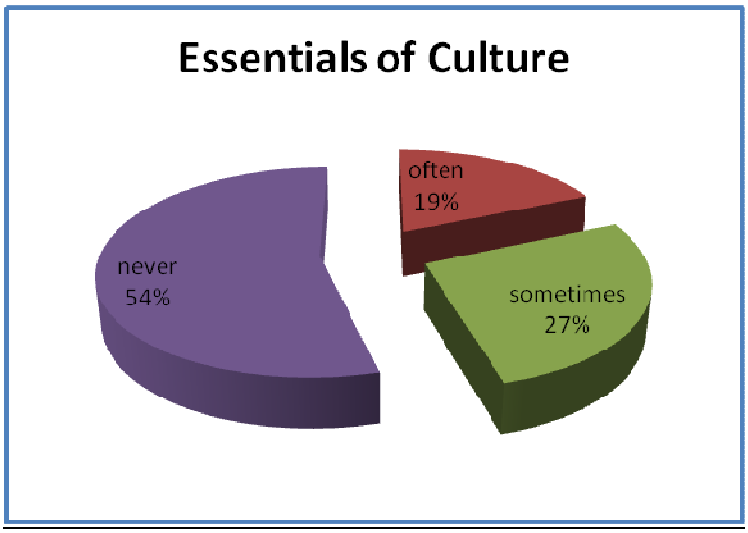
Contrarily to what one might think, some teachers—they are not so many, according to students —nonetheless, devote some activities to practice communication, and thus listening and speaking. The answer *often* is present in 57% of the students' answers.

Graph 66: Encouragement to Communicate (2006)

1.3.1.5. *Essentials of Culture*

Question 14 E.: Did s/he teach the pupils the essentials of the socio-cultural context of the countries where English is spoken?

We saw in Chapter Five that the textbooks lacked the integration of foreign culture. However, depending on teachers, such aspect may be introduced, explained, and given its own right. We see in the graph below that almost half the teachers do so. We expected a larger proportion because, as we said in the previous chapter, language cannot be isolated from its culture.



Graph 67: Essentials of Culture (2006)

1.3.2. **The English Classroom (Resources)**

Question 15: Which of the following resources were used in your English classes?

Audio-cassettes Newspapers/ Magazines Books

(How often?)

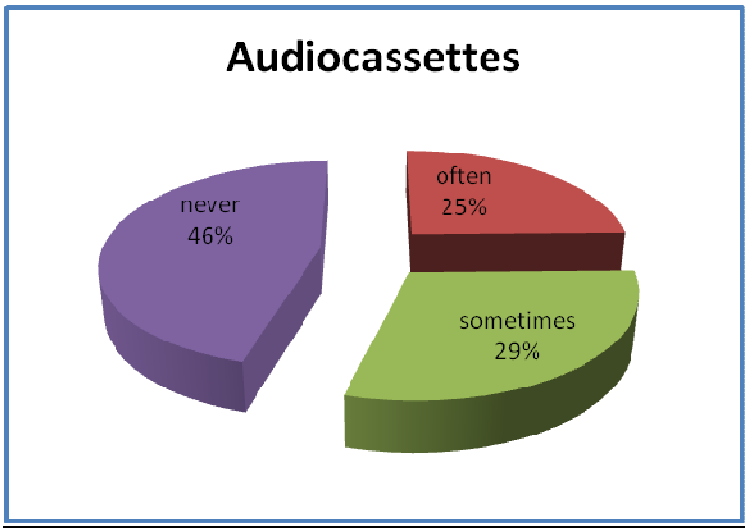
often sometimes never

Through these questions, our objectives were to know whether students were immersed in the language they were studying, by dint of some resources, such as audio-cassettes, newspapers and magazines, and books. We see in the following graphs that these resources are subject to variation.

1.3.2.1. *Audiocassettes*

Question 15 A:

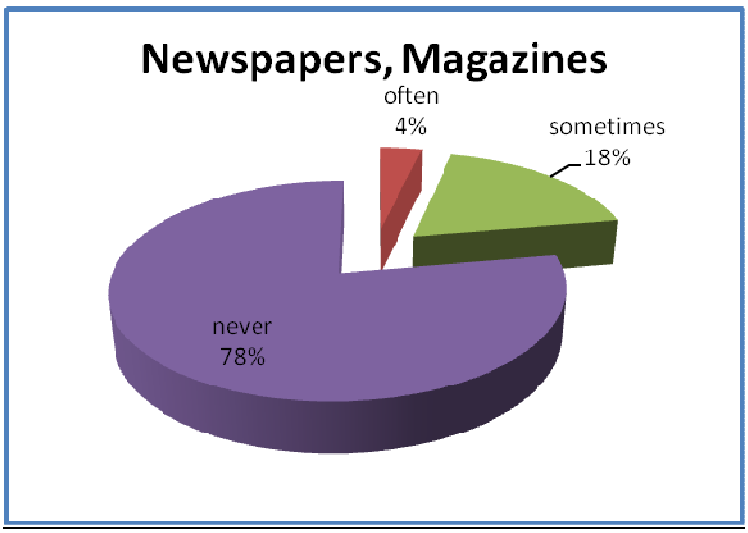
In this question, we wanted to know whether students were exposed to the listening to native speakers, even though, texts devoted to listening were performed by their teachers themselves: half the teachers do so.



Graph 68: Use of Audio-Cassettes in Class. (2006)

1.3.2.2. *Newspapers and Magazines*

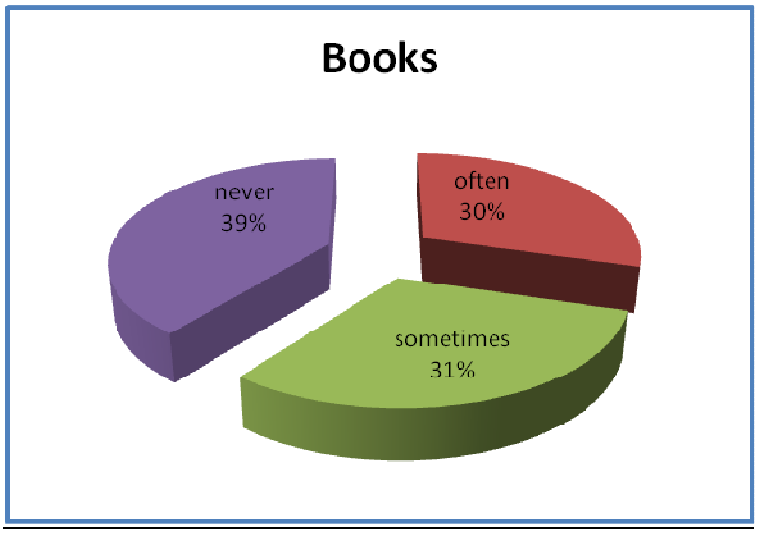
We saw that most texts provided in the textbooks were not authentic. We made the hypothesis that teachers themselves would fill in this gap. Regretfully, only 22% of teachers provide students with newspapers and magazines, though in their defence foreign press is rare in Algeria, particularly the British and American one.



Graph 69: Use of Newspapers and Magazines in Class. (2006)

1.3.2.3. *Books for Extensive Reading*

The texts in the textbooks were in majority ininteresting, at least for Literary and Foreign Languages students, as we saw in Chapter Five. Graph 70 shows that most teachers supplied students with books to gain their interest.



Graph 70: Use of Books for Extensive Reading (2006)

2. Administration of the Tests

Unlike 1996, this study was carried out in once for all testing; there was no pre-testing and no pilot study. The main reason for this rough and ready way of conducting a research was our limited objectives. The first objective was the comparison of the two scores (2006 and 1996 students). One way to ensure that the two populations receive the same treatment is to attempt to present them with the same test, and under the same conditions, the main distinction is that there are 10 years in terms of cohort difference. A second objective we had is that unlike in 1996, we did not want to make a proficient test and to correlate it to the socio-cultural background of the learners; our aim was to compare the two populations in order to find out whether the standards are falling.

The test-taking lasted 45 minutes on average. Before starting the session, we introduced the aim and objectives of the study, insisting on the following points:

1. That the papers were anonymous, and thus test-takers would not be recognized,

2. The papers were not going to be marked, and they were by no means compromising their future,

3. That, however, we wanted them to work seriously on the questions, as if they were sitting for an exam. We made them aware of the importance of their help to our study.

The specification content of the tests we administered to the students were quite straightforward due to the availability of the University 1st Year syllabus which lists the grammar points to be taught. The testing of grammar is one of the mainstays of language testing. While such tests test the ability to either recognize or produce correct grammar and usage, they do not test the ability to use the language to express meaning. However, it can be argued that a basic knowledge of grammar underlies the ability to use language to express meaning, and so grammar tests do have an important part to play in language programs (Rea-Dickins, 1997).

The first grammar test had a multiple choice format which consisted of fifteen partial sentences that had to be completed with one word or phrase chosen among four options. The second grammar test was an editing task test (sentence correction test): the students were given fifteen sentences containing a number of errors of grammar. The grammar items were of the same type of those in the first test and the students had to identify the incorrect item. In order to make the tests reliable and valid, we included a Cloze test to measure the students'

ability to understand the English Structure as well. Researchers as Fotos (1991), Bachman (1985, 1990), Stubbs & Tucker (1974), Oller (1979), Alderson (1979), and Skehan (1988, 1989) have demonstrated the concurrent validity of various cloze tests forms, and also evidence in support of their predictive validity or the degree to which the learner's cloze test scores can predict linguistic performance on tests administered subsequently.

2.1. **The Structure Test**

The format of the structure test was a multiple choice question which consisted of verb tense, form of adjective, subordinate clause, passive voice, preposition and prepositional phrase, article form, etc. All these grammatical items were tested. Their classification as it appears on the students' test is as follows:

1. Simple past tense.
2. Subject-verb agreement (plural form).
3. Present perfect progressive.
4. Preposition.
5. Comparative.
6. Countable.
7. Simple present tense (third person singular).
8. Adjective.
9. Preposition and prepositional phrase.
10. Article.
11. Subject-verb agreement (singular form).
12. Subordinate clause.
13. Preposition and prepositional phrase.
14. Passive voice.
15. Present perfect.

2.1.1. Results and Analysis

These are the results we obtained: (C.A.: Correct answers)

Item Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Number of C.A.	58	42	29	60	48	64	63
Item Facility	**.71**	**.51**	**.35**	**.74**	**.59**	**.79**	**.77**

Item Number	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Number of C.A.	29	20	4	42	55	72	62	62
Item Facility	**.35**	**.24**	**.04**	**.51**	**.67**	**.88**	**.73**	**.73**

Table 92: Rate of Correct Answers (Sentence Structure Test)

The item analysis showed that for the sentence structure test, items 3, 8, 9, and 10 have the lowest rate, their Item Facility (IF) was under .50, and items 2 and 11 are slightly above. The grammar points related are Present Perfect Progressive, Adjective, Preposition and Prepositional Phrase, Article, namely, *have been examining* (item 3), *worthy* (item 8), *despite* (item 9), and to a greater degree *a* (item 10). The others were Subject-verb agreement (plural form) and Subject-Verb agreement (singular form) respectively, *attracts* (item 2) and *retrieves* (item 11). The items in questions were:

Item 3: *For years experts* _____ *the effect…*

(a) *are examining* (b) *had been examined*

(c) *have been examining* (d) *having been examined*

Item 8: *Art tends to be* _____ *more after …*

(a) *price* (b) *worthy*

(c) *worth* (d) *value*

Item 9: _____ *the light rain, the base-ball...*

(a) *Despite of* (b) *although of*

(c) *in spite* (d) *despite*

Item 10*: California,* _____ *more populous state than any …*

(a) *a* (b) *it is a*

(c) *that a* (d) *is a*

Item 2: *Florida's long coastline and warm weather* _____ *swimmers….*

(a) *attracts* (b) *attract*

(c) *they attract* (d) *is attracted by*

Item 11: *Either the goal-keeper or one of the players* _____*the ball from the goal.*

(a) *retrieving* (b) *retrieval*

(c) *retrieves* (d) *retrieve*

After analyzing the errors, we used the distribution of frequency to classify the errors from the most frequent to the least frequent. Table 93 shows the results:

Order Error	Errors	Percentage
1	Article	95%
2	Preposition and prepositional phrase	75%
3a	Adjective	64%
3b	Present perfect progressive	64%
5a	Subject-verb agreement (plural form)	48%
5b	Subject-verb agreement (singular form)	48%
7	Comparative	41%
8	Subordinate clause	32%
9	Simple past tense	28%
10	Preposition	26%
11	Countable	24%
12a	Passive voice	23%
12b	Present perfect	23%
14	Simple present tense (3rd person singular)	22%
15	Preposition and prepositional phrase	11%

Table 93: Order of Errors (Sentence Structure Test)

2.1.2. Comparison in Sentence Structure Test

2.1. 2.1. In 2006

The following table shows the distribution of answers:

Item	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	Omission	Total
Item 3	19	**29**	**28**	0	5	81
Item 8	3	**29**	10	**35**	4	81
Item 9	**43**	10	6	**19**	3	81
Item 10	**5**	5	4	**67**	0	81
Item 2	**27**	**42**	2	10	0	81
Item 11	13	0	**42**	**21**	5	81

Table 94: Distribution of Answers (Sentence Structure Test) (2006)
The correct answer is bold-typed. The most frequent incorrect answer is red.

2.1.2.2. In 1996

The following table shows the distribution of answers:

Item	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	Omission	Total
Item 3	13	**23**	**20**	2	3	61
Item 8	8	**24**	8	**19**	2	61
Item 9	**23**	**23**	5	**18**	2	61
Item 10	**18**	3	11	**29**	0	61

Table 95: Distribution of Answers (Sentence Structure Test) (1996)

The correct answer is bold-typed. The most frequent incorrect answer is red.

2.1.2.3. Comparison

The table below shows the most incorrect answers common to both groups: what is surprising is that not only both groups had a high rate of incorrect answers, but also had the same incorrect ones.

Item	2006	1996	Wrong answer
Item 3	Answer **(b)** 29	Answer **(b)** 23	For years experts *had been examined
Item 8	Answer **(d)** 35	Answer **(d)** 19	(art tends to be) *value
Item 9	Answer **(a)** 43	Answer **(a)** 23	*Despite of
Item 10	Answer **(d)** 67	Answer **(d)** 29	*it is a

Table 96: Comparison (Sentence Structure Test)

2.2. The Sentence Correction Test

The Sentence Correction Test consisted of fifteen items based on the same grammar points as the Structure Test, but the order was modified, giving:

16. Preposition and prepositional phrase.
17. Article.
18. Preposition
19. Countable.
20. Simple present tense (third person singular).
21. Adjective.
22. Comparative.
23. Passive voice.

24. Subordinate clause.
25. Present perfect.
26. Preposition and prepositional phrase.
27. Subject-verb agreement (plural form).
28. Present perfect progressive.
29. Subject-verb agreement (singular form).
30. Simple past tense.

2.2.1. Results and Analysis

Item Number	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Number of C.A.	**15**	**43**	**35**	**38**	**51**	**24**	**41**
Item Facility	**.18**	**.53**	**.43**	**.46**	**.62**	**.30**	**.50**

Item Number	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
Number of C.A.	**46**	**53**	**52**	**58**	**48**	**61**	**55**	**29**
Item Facility	**.56**	**.65**	**.64**	**.71**	**.59**	**.75**	**.67**	**.35**

Table 97: Rate of Correct Answers (Sentence Correction Test) C.A.: correct answers

The item analysis for the Sentence Correction Test shows that the most difficult items were (by order of difficulty) 16, 21, 30, 18, and 19. The grammar point related to these items are: Preposition and Prepositional Phrase *because of* (item 16), Adjective *mysterious* (item 21), Simple Past Tense *changed* (item 30), Preposition *at which* (item 18), and Countable *a few* (Item 19).

Item 16: *Benjamin Franklin … <u>because</u> its predatory nature*.

Item 21: *Harold Pinter's… attacked by mystery forces.*

Item 30: *Cartographers did not make… the area changes ... correctly.*

Item 18: *The legal age which a person…*

Item 19: *A little drivers realize …*

The order of errors was distributed as:

Order Error	**Item #**	Errors	Percentage
1	16	Preposition and prepositional phrase	81%
2	21	Adjective	70%
3	18	Preposition	57%
4a	19	Simple past tense	64%
4b	30	Countable	64%
6	22	Comparative	49%
7	17	Article	47%
8	23	Passive voice	43%
9	27	Subject-verb agreement (plural form)	41%
10	20	Simple present tense (3rd person singular)	37%
11a	24	Subordinate clause	35%
11b	25	Present perfect	35%
13	29	Subject-verb agreement (singular form)	32%
14	26	Preposition and prepositional phrase	28%

15	28	Present perfect progressive	25%

Table 98: Order of Errors (Sentence Correction Test) (2006)

2.2.2. Comparison in Sentence Correction Test

2.2.2.1. In 2006

The following table shows the distribution of answers:

Item	A	B	C	D	Omission	Total
Item 16	18	17	**15**	**27**	4	81
Item 21	17	**24**	5	**24**	11	81
Item 18	**35**	16	13	14	3	81
Item 19	**38**	12	**18**	6	7	81
Item 30	**29**	**33**	9	6	4	81
Item 11	13	0	**42**	**21**	5	81

Table 99: Distribution of Answers (Sentence Correction Test) (2006)

The correct answer is bold-typed. The most frequent incorrect answer is red.

2.2.2.2. In 1996

Students in 1996 had only one answer where the IF was low, and once again the same item 2006 students had difficulty with, Item 21; likewise, the most frequent incorrect answer is the same (B).

Item	A	B	C	D	Omission	Total

Item 21	12	**13**	1	**19**	16	61

Table 100: Distribution of Answers (Sentence Correction Test) (1996)

Otherwise all answers had an IF above .54 (item 30).

2.2.2.3. Comparison

We saw in Table 98 (Order of Errors) that the top five errors were 16, 21, 18, 19, and 30.We see that for 1996, the top five errors are similar, though in a different order. The other items had an IF above .67.

Item Number	21	30	16	19	18
Number of C.A.	**19**	**33**	**37**	**40**	**41**
Item Facility	**.31**	**.54**	**.60**	**.65**	**.67**

Table 101: Item Facility (Sentence Correction Test/1996)

2.3. The Cloze Test

The passage was taken from TOEFL tests books (Sharpe, 1995: 143) designed for foreign learners. Following Alderson's (1979) advice, we had paid particular attention to the selection of cloze passages. The text we selected was on a general topic, requiring neither specialized nor background knowledge (Clapham, 2000) and formed coherent self-contained units of discourse; it equally suited all the students taking part in the experiment. The deleted items covered a variety of syntactic and cohesive functions and were adequately cued in the text. Rational deletion cloze tests were prepared, with an average deletion rate every 11th word. This procedure resulted in 22 blanks (14 function words and 8 content words). Chapelle & Abraham (1990) found that function words were easier than content words both in the fixed ratio and rational deletion cloze. Special care was taken to ensure that the text was standardized with respect to length and difficulty level. The length of the texts was 254 words; the average sentence length, 25.2. The Flesch Reading Estimate, Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level and Smog readability indices were 48.7, 11.1, and 14.2 respectively.

We applied both the exact-word and the acceptable-word procedure whenever possible. Brown (1980) found the acceptable word scoring method to be more reliable and valid).

The following results were obtained:

2.3.1. Results and Analysis

(C.A.: correct answers)

Item Number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Number of C.A.	**31**	**22**	**14**	**14**	**30**	**14**	**39**
Item Facility	**.38**	**.27**	**.17**	**.17**	**.37**	**.17**	**.48**

Item Number	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Number of C.A.	**18**	**78**	**64**	**61**	**47**	**9**	**51**	**23**
Item Facility	**.22**	**.96**	**.79**	**.75**	**.58**	**.11**	**.62**	**.28**

Item Number	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Number of C.A.	**60**	**11**	**70**	**44**	**45**	**22**	**22**
Item Facility	**.74**	**.13**	**.86**	**.54**	**.55**	**.27**	**.27**

Table 102: Rate of Correct Answers (Cloze Test/2006)

The items where the IF is the lowest are three function words and one content word,(items 3, 4, 13 and 8) namely <u>*to*</u>, <u>*and*</u>, <u>*school*</u>, and <u>*as*</u>. This is how it appeared in the text:

> *… Seeking better farm land, they went by covered wagon to Missouri in 1869, then on* <u>*to*</u> (3) *Kansas the next year, returning in Wisconsin in 1871,* <u>*and*</u> (4) *travelling on to Minnesota….*
>
> *…… From age thirteen to sixteen, she attended* <u>*school*</u> (8) *more regularly, although she never graduated…*
>
> *… Serving* <u>*as*</u> (13) *agent and editor …etc.*

The exact-word procedure was applied to items 3 and 13, whereas the acceptable-word procedure was used for items 4 and 8: words such as *then* were judged as acceptable in place of *and*; and for item 8 responses such as *classes* instead of *school* were accepted. The distribution of responses for these items is as follows:

- Item 3: the incorrect responses included answers such as *the* instead of *to*, for which we labeled response (b) in the table and which were surprisingly widespread in students' sheets. The correct answer is (a).
- Item 4: the most distributed (incorrect) answer was *she* instead of *and* which appears as (b) in the table. Another very frequent incorrect answer was *they* (10)
- Item 8: the most discordant answers appeared at this point; we got responses such as *to be*, *the*, *to*, *a*, *with*, *it*, *for*, *to*, *with* etc. We could not keep a "perfect" incorrect answer.
- Item 13: this item had the lowest rate, only nine students answered correctly. The others, though making great efforts, were unable to find the correct answer; the most frequent incorrect answers were articles (27) and prepositions (19), shown in the table as (b).

But there were other items, too, where students had difficulty. These words were three content words and two function words. These are detailed below by order of difficulty:

- Item 17: the most frequent answer was *are, was, were, is* (b) in Table 8. Its number reached 43. The other answers were *had, had been, had being.*

  … they have remained popular…
- Item 6: answers included words such as *condition, travelling, voyage,* etc. the number of omission was high: 34.

  Because of this constant moving …

- Item 2: *she, he* were the most frequent.

  Seeking better farm land, <u>they</u> went …

- Item 21: *programme, show,* and *in.* As far as the two first words are concerned, the students' answers are semantically acceptable, but what for "in"?

  … a weekly television <u>series</u> …

- Item 22: surprisingly, the most frequent answer was *serie,* or was it a case of cheating because most students, who answered here *serie*, did not in the previous item.

  … based on the <u>stories</u> from the Wilder books.

2.3.2. Comparison in the Cloze Test

2.3.2.1. <u>In 2006</u>

Item	(a)	(b)	Other	Omission	Total
Item 3	**14**	29	18	20	81
Item 4	**14**	38	25	4	81
Item 8	**18**	///	///	14	81
Item 13	**9**	27/ 19	17	9	81
Item 17	**11**	43	17	10	81
Item 6	**14**	30	3	34	81
Item 2	**22**	48	8	3	81
Item 21	**22**	31	19	9	81
Item 22	**22**	28	6	25	81

Table 103: Most frequent incorrect answers (Cloze Test) (2006) (The correct answers are boldfaced)

2.3.2.2. In 1996

The difficult items were three function words and one content word, namely *to*, *and*, *school*, and *as*, as in 2006. The same procedure was applied, the exact-word for 3 and 13, and the acceptable-word for items 4 and 8: we had also words such as *then* in place of *and*; and for item 8, *classes* instead of *school*. Oller (1979) found that in cloze tests, learners even when they fail to find the appropriate item, always guess its grammatical function.

- Item 3: Exactly the same range of incorrect answers. *The* instead of *to*, this is (b) in the table below. The correct answer is (a).
- Item 4: Similar to 2006: the most distributed answer was *she* instead of *and* which appears as (b) in the table.
- Item 8: the most discordant answers appeared at this point, too; we got responses such as *to be*, *the*, *to*, *a*, *with*, *studying*, *graduation*, etc. Unlike 2006 answers, we could keep one answer which was *to be* as (b) in the table.
- Item 13: it was very interesting to discover the students' answer to this item because most of them, first, guessed only a function word would fit (which would "be grist for Oller's mill") and they ranged from *with, for, both, by* to *her* and *the*. Second, because the wide range of answers showed that the students had made an effort to guess the item. So we labeled (b) the answer *her* and *the*. Only 17 students obtained the correct answer.

Item	(a)	(b)	Other	Omission	Total
Item 3	**8**	37(the)	11	5	61

Item 4	**15**	20(she)	21	5	61
Item 8	**8**	12(to be)	30	11	61
Item 13	**17**	20(her, the)	21	3	61

Table 104: Most frequent incorrect answers (Cloze Test) (1996)

A last point concerns the students of English as FL1. We said in the beginning that we wanted to know how they scored. It is natural that we expected them to score higher since they had nine years of English when they reached the university whereas those who studied English as FL2 had only five.

Student's Number	Part One	Part Two	Part Three	Whole Test	Rank
3	8	9	14	31	22nd
15	6	10	7	23	50th
30	**10**	**14**	**17**	**41**	4th
36	6	9	8	23	51st
38	8	10	6	24	47th
52	9	12	11	32	20th
61	7	13	11	31	25th
72	**11**	**12**	**16**	**39**	7th
76	**12**	**11**	**14**	**37**	11th
77	12	12	12	36	12th
79	5	6	5	16	76th

Table 105: Scores of EFL1 students (the best scores are bold-typed)

These are the most surprising results so far: how can we explain the fact that students who have less time of exposure to English score better? Is it as we supposed in Chapter three, a politician issue which has not been backed up by pedagogical considerations, and as such, things were not ready to ensure achievement? In the light of the results obtained by the students, we assume that it was the case.

2.4. Overall Comparison

2.4.1. Correlation between scores and students' background

In 1996, we correlated the characteristics of students having the highest scores:

Highest scores: ≥ 40 and Lowest scores: ≤ 30

	HIGHEST SCORES n= 12		LOWEST SCORES n= 13	
Educational Level Father	High: **6**	None: **1**	High: **0**	None: **3**
Scale of Occupations	01/02 : **5**	06/10 : **1**	01/02: **1**	06/10: **7**
Educational Level Mother	High: **3**	None: **1**	High: **0**	None: **4**
Mother Active	Yes: **5**		Yes: **0**	

Table 106: Characteristics of the students (the highest scores and the lowest scores) (1996)

We proceeded to the same correlations with 2006 students, but we added the variable "English First Choice".

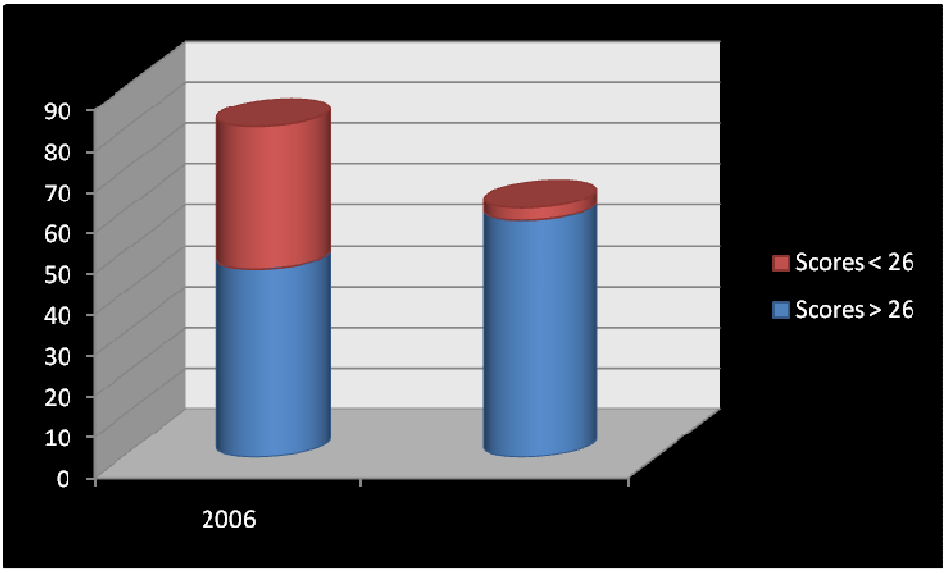
Highest Scores: ≥ 36 and Lowest scores: ≤ 19.

	HIGHEST SCORES n= 11		LOWEST SCORES n= 16	
Educational Level Father	High: **3**	None: **2**	High: **0**	None: **0**
Scale of Occupations	01/03 : **4**	04/10 : **7**	01/02: **0**	06/10: **12**
Educational Level Mother	High: **3**	None: **2**	High: **2**	None:**3**
Mother Active	Yes: **4**		Yes: **0**	
English First Choice	Yes:**6**	No:**5**	Yes:**7**	No:**9**

Table 107: Characteristics of the students (the highest scores and the lowest scores (2006)

As in 1996, one of the variables which proved to be highly discriminative was the variable "Mother Active". The total of students whose mother works is 9, when 4 of these students have the highest score, it means that the success rate in 2006 according to this variable is 44% (in 1996 the percentage was 78%). Buchmann (2002) found that the mother's reading habits reduce the likelihood of grade repetition, net of other family background factors. Thus, the role of the mother in education is essential. The variable "English as a first choice", however, does not discriminate: the percentages are equally divided among either the highest or the lowest scores.

The number of students in 2006 having a lower score than 26 (the mean) is much higher than the 1996 students, as the following graph shows:



Graph 71: Comparison of scores (2006/1996)

2.4.2. Scores and Streams

Since students in the department come from different streams, we wanted to know which stream scores better. There are 33 students in Sciences, 30 in Literature, and 10 in Foreign Languages, the other streams revealed to be not representative in both scores (highest and lowest). The percentage is based on the total number of students belonging to the stream. The Literature stream is the stream the least represented in the category of highest scores. Foreign Languages stream is the best represented, which seems quite natural. The time allocated to the different streams is shown in the following table:

Stream	Sciences	Literature	Foreign Languages
Number of Hours/week	2/3/3	3/3/3	3/4/4

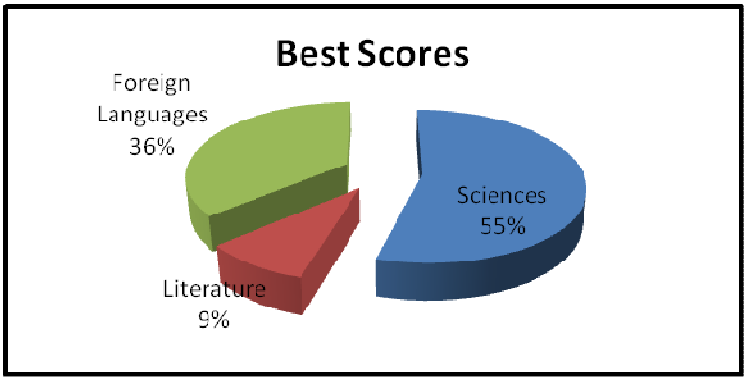
Table 108: Time allocated to English in Secondary schools.

The results are on Table 109 and Graph 72 below:

Stream	Sciences		Literature		Foreign Languages		Total	
	Best scores	Total Number	Best scores	Total Number	Best scores	Total Number	Best scores	Total Number
Number of students	**6**	33	**1**	30	**4**	10	**11**	81
Percentage	19%		4%		40%		13.5%	100%

Table 109: Correlation Best Scores /Streams

In the graph below, the numbers represent percentages according to the number of students having the best scores.



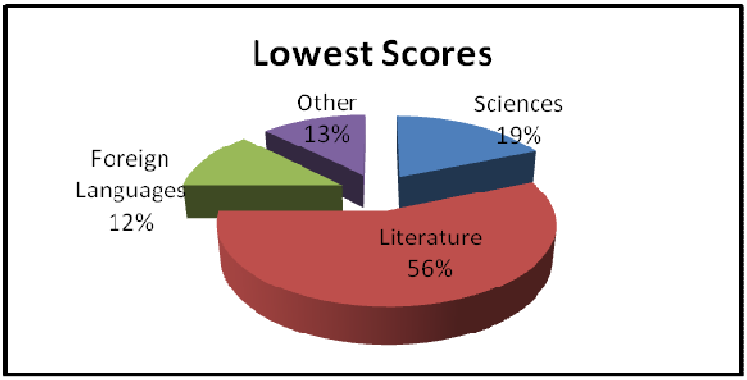
Graph 72: Correlation between the Best Scores and the Streams

We applied the same correlation to the students having the lowest scores. As in the previous correlation, Literature students have the highest representation among the lowest scores, Foreign Languages students are regrettably quite represented too.

Stream	Sciences	Literature	Foreign Languages	Total
Number of students	3	9	2	14
Percentage	22%	64%	14%	100%

Table 110: Correlation Lowest Scores /Streams

We said earlier that the most qualified streams were the least represented, referring to the foreign languages streams' enrollment in the English department. The next most qualified for the enrollment are the Literature streams. However, they appear to be the least qualified, with regard to their scores. This observation ties up with what we said in Chapter Two: all in all, that Algerian pupils are turned towards scientific streams, which offer more job opportunities and social prestige. This fact resulted in huge rushes toward this specialty, and the disaffection and downright vacuum for the literary streams. The idealization of the scientific streams is even palpable in the English textbooks: we saw in Chapter Five, the great amount of technical and scientific texts and topics. It emerges from this that even textbook designers feel guilty to deal with literature and literary culture, and when by an unfortunate accident a purely literary text is inserted, they hasten to signal that the text is intended for literary streams only. This disaffection for this important aspect of foreign language learning is quite perplexing. Moreover, pupils who enroll in the literary streams in secondary schools are regarded as non-eligible for scientific ones: in general, the most skilled students are sent to scientific streams. In other words, pupils go to literary streams, because they have no choice but accept. It explains why so many scientific students choose English, not because they fail to enroll elsewhere (though some do) but because they are motivated to learn it, far removed from these unfounded considerations.



Graph 73: Correlation between the Lowest Scores and the Streams

2.4.3. Mean Score

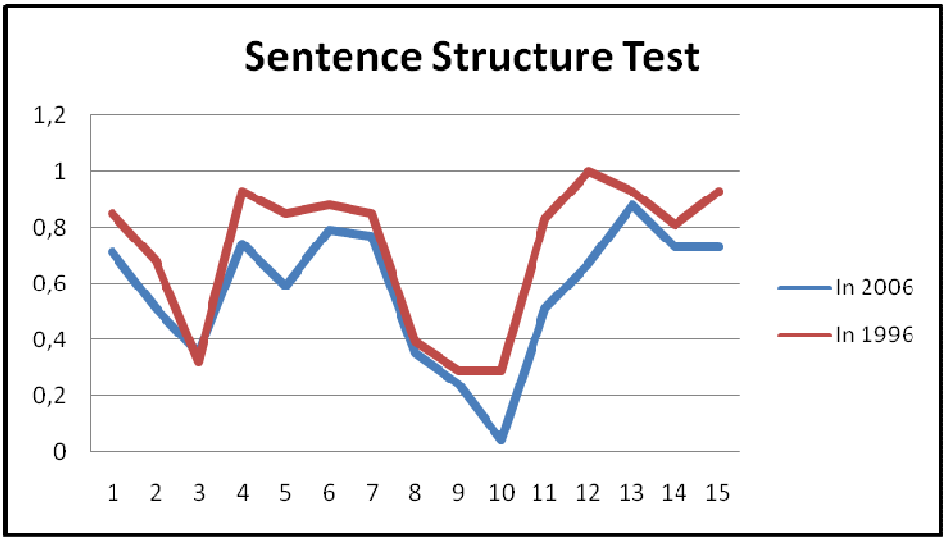
In a final stage, we calculated the mean score of each test for each group of students.

	2006	1996
TEST ONE	**8.7**	**10.9**
TEST TWO	**8**	**10.6**
TEST THREE	**9.5**	**13**
WHOLE TEST	**26. 4**	**34.6**

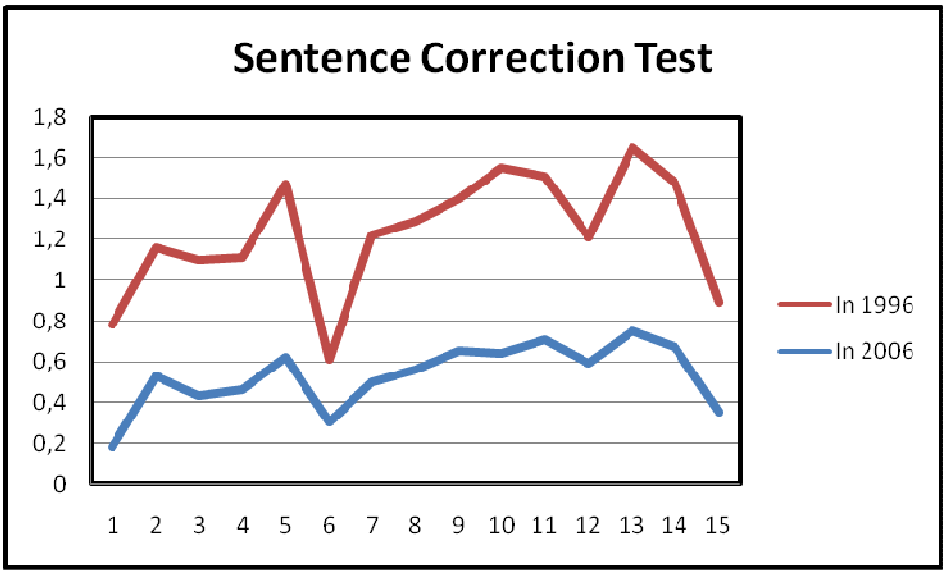
Table 111: Mean Score (2006/1996)

It is unquestionable that students of 1996 scored better in our test than those of 2006. However, as we saw previously, and as we see it clearly in the following graph, it is

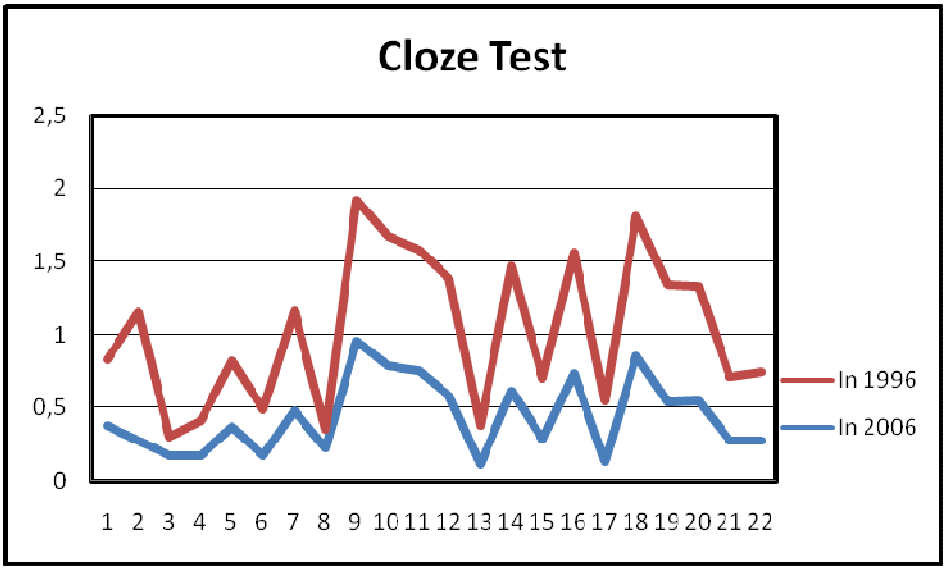
extraordinary and at the same time enlightening to see that students at ten years difference share so many features, either of easiness or difficulty. The curves in the three graphs are almost parallel.



Graph 74: Comparison 2006/1996 (Sentence Structure Test)



Graph 75: Comparison 2006/1996 (Sentence Correction Test)



Graph 76: Comparison 2006/1996 (Cloze Test)

These parallel lines observed in the three graphs suggest that there might be a problem of interference with students' first language (in this case Arabic).

The grammar that learners construct is often called their *interlanguage* (Selinker, 1972 [1974]) (i.e., a language located somewhere on a continuum between their mother tongue and the target language) or *transitional competence* (Corder**,** 1967 [1974]) (i.e., a competence which is in a state of transition, as it develops in the direction of the target language). However it does not generally become identical with the target language, as some non-target features become fossilized in the learner's grammar. Selinker (1974: 36) coined the term fossilization to refer to this phenomenon—non-target forms become fixed in the interlanguage. In this theory (variously called the *creative construction hypothesis* or *interlanguage theory*), it is usually

claimed that many of these innate mechanisms are specific to language learning rather than of a general cognitive nature, since the input does not contain enough evidence for general cognitive mechanisms to work on. The input acts primarily as a “trigger” to activate the mechanisms.

Interlingual transfer (i.e. transfer from the mother tongue or any other previously learned language) in foreign language learning is a major cognitive strategy that learners fall back on when their linguistic means falls short of achieving their communicative ends (Odlin, 1989). Needless to say, the mother tongue is an additional source for hypothesis formation that the first language learner does not have. The influence of the mother tongue and the pervasiveness of interlingual transfer are indisputable, especially in learning situations where students' exposure to the foreign language is confined to a few hours per week of formal classroom instruction. Thus, interlingual transfer is a strategy that is readily available to the learners to compensate for the inadequacies when attempting to communicate in the foreign language.

Deviations resulting from interlingual transfer have been recorded at all linguistic levels (ibid.). The analysis of the errors made by students in the tests enables us to suppose that students were operating a transfer from their L1 in education, a negative one in this case. There exist writing difficulties which are mainly due to differences between English and Arabic. We saw earlier that students had most difficulties (in Part One and Part Two of our test) with the article, prepositions and prepositional phrases, adjectives, the present perfect progressive and the simple past (cf. Table 93 and Table 98).

This is confirmed by Halimah (2001) who states that the writing difficulties of Arab learners are mainly due to morphological and syntactic differences between English and

Arabic in such areas as punctuation, proper use of tenses, relativization, word order, phrasal verbs, etc. Most of these studies conclude that these writing difficulties could be overcome by making learners aware of differences between English and Arabic, that is, by applying the contrastive analysis approach to the teaching and learning of writing. However, other researchers (Rababha, 2003) have pointed out that the difficulties faced by Arab EFL writers are much more complex and beyond sentential boundaries (i.e. mechanical, lexical and syntactic problems).

Kaplan (1966) attributes these difficulties to the rhetorical differences between Arabic and English. In other words, Arab EFL writers organize their prose differently from the way English native speakers do.

3. English in the Baccalaureate Exams

Together with the tests submitted to 2006 students, we wanted to correlate different Baccalaureate exams, following the same parameters we used for the comparison between textbooks and 2005 exam (readability and tasks). We found the 1980 and 1985 exams in Guesbaoui's thesis (1986). We have to mention, however, that the 1985 exam was intended for scientific streams. We, nonetheless, proceeded to its analysis in order to have a full picture of the English exams in 1985. The exams of 1995 and 2005 were found on the internet site of the Algerian Ministry of Education.

3.1. The texts

3.1.1. *1980*

Title of the Text: *A Kenyan Boy's Education*
Source: not mentioned.

Readability

I. Smog : **11.9**

II. Flesch Reading Ease/ Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level : **62.3 / 10.8**

3.1.2. 1985

Title of the Text: *The discovery of Penicillin*
Source: not mentioned.

Readability

I. Smog : **9.9**

II. Flesch Reading Ease/ Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level : **69.4 / 8.3**

3.1.3. 1995

In 1995, there were as many exams as streams, i.e. seven. Because of the impossibility to treat them all, we chose the most appropriate streams in relation to English: Foreign Languages and Literature.

Title of the Text: No title
Topic: Hitchcock
Source: not mentioned

Readability

I. Smog: **9.3**
II. Flesch Reading Ease / Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level: **60.6 / 9.8**

3.1.4. 2005

In 2005, there were streams of which exams were designed. We chose to treat as for 1995, the Foreign Languages and Literature stream.

Title of the text: No title
Topic: Gandhi
Source: *Mr Gandhi, An Autobiography, or the Story of my Experiment with Truth*.
(But neither the date nor the place of publication is mentioned).

Readability

I. Smog : **8.1**
II. Flesch Reading Ease/ Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level : **85.1 / 4.2**

3. 1.5. Comparison

Readability

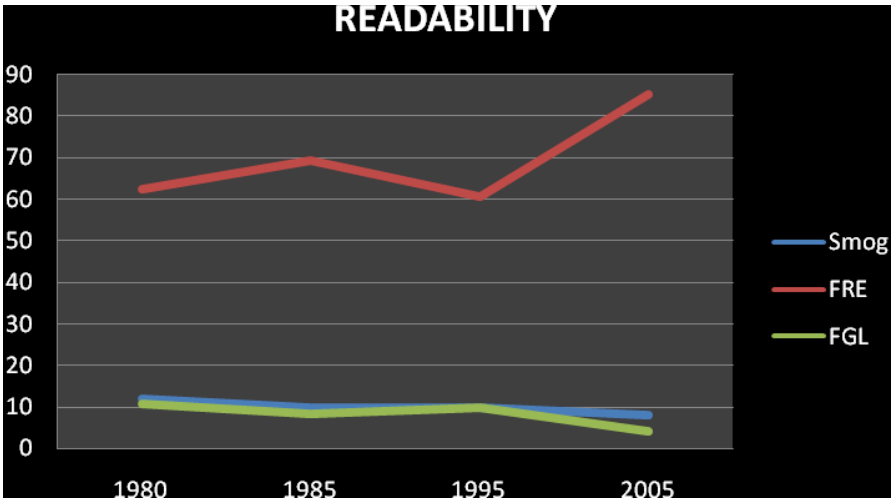
As the table shows, there is a great variation in the scores, where the easiest exam seems to be the one in 2005, of which the Grade level (Flesch-Kinkaid) indicates a text which is far too easy (it can be read by 4th graders, even though pupils taking the exam are foreign

learners). The most difficult text is then the one of 1995 (Flesch Reading Ease is the lowest: 60.6), though 1980 and 1985 Flesch scores are very near (respectively, 62.3 and 69.4).

Year	SMOG	Flesch Reading Ease	Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level
1980	11.9	62.3	10.8
1985	9.9	69.4	8.3
1995	9.9	60.6	9.8
2005	8.1	85.1	4.2

Table 112: Readability Scores (Exams: 1980/1985/1995/2005)

The following graph which is a recapitulation of the readability scores of the exams clearly shows that for 2005, Smog score is hardly below the others. But for Flesch Reading Ease it is too far above, indicating an easier text.



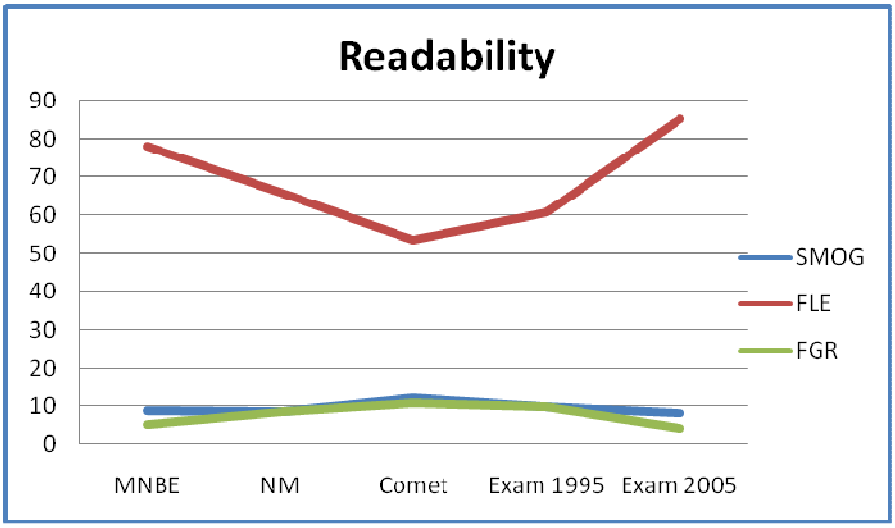
Graph 77: Comparison of the Exams: Readability (1980, 1985, 1995, 2005)

As for the comparison of exams (1995 and 2005, since they used the same textbooks) to textbooks, the results are displayed in the following table:

Textbook	SMOG	Flesch Reading Ease	Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level
My New Book of English	8.9	78.1	5.3
New Midlines	8.6	65.8	8.4
Comet	12.3	53.6	10.8
Exam	**SMOG**	**Flesch Reading Ease**	**Flesch-Kinkaid Grade Level**
1995	9.3	60.6	9.8
2005	8.1	85.1	4.2

Table 113: Table of Recapitulation of Scores (Textbooks /1995, 2005 Exams).

We note that first both exams' scores are below the final textbook (*Comet*), and second that 2005 is far below the textbook of the 1st grade (*My New Book of English*). The following graph shows better how the Flesch line declines from *My New Book of English* to *Comet* which is the normal curve (from easy to more difficult), but the same line shows a striking rise in 1995, and more particularly in 2005.



Graph 78: Comparison in Readability between Textbooks and Exams

3.2. Tasks

3.2.1. 1980

All tasks have a multiple-choice format. Total score / 100 points

a. Reading Comprehension : (30 points)

I. Scanning / intensive reading (8 questions)

II. Understanding: inference from the text (8 questions).

b. Mastery of the language (70 points)

I. Grammar and Vocabulary (15 points)

a. Grammar: Phrasal verbs (4 questions)

b. Vocabulary Sentence completion (sentence structure test) (10 questions)

II. Grammar (25 points)

a. Correct tense (10 forms)

b. Reported speech / Comparatives/ Neither/ Reported Speech/ Conditionals/ Connectors/Clauses/

c. Written Expression (30 points)

Topic 1: narrative;

Topic 2: argumentative.

3.2.2. 1985

The format of the questions is no longer multiple-choice, based more on recognition than production. It seems that changes in evaluation went hand in hand with changes in the teaching methods: with the introduction of the functional approach during the 1980s, evaluation tended to focus on integrative tests, as opposed to the previous discrete-point tests (Guesbaoui, 1986: 48).

Total score / 40 points

a. Reading Comprehension : (11 points)

I. Scanning (5 questions)

II. Intensive reading (3 questions)

b. Mastery of the language (19 points)

I. Cloze Test (8 points)

II. a. Paragraph writing (re-ordering sentences) (11 points)

b. Dialogue Completion

c. Written Expression (10 points)

Topic 1: narrative;

Topic 2: argumentative

3.2.3. 1995

Total score / 20 points

a. Reading Comprehension (7 points)
   I. Scanning (3 questions)
   II. Intensive Reading (4 questions)

b. Mastery of the Language (7 points)
   I. Vocabulary (Synonyms)
   II. Vocabulary (Antonyms)
   III. Grammar: Reported speech / Passive voice
   IV. Grammar: Correct tense (Gerund, Future Perfect, and Simple Past).
   V. Cloze Test
   VI. Dialogue Completion

c. Written Expression (6 points)
   Topic 1: Cause/Effect.
   Topic 2: Narrative

3.2.4. 2005

a. Reading Comprehension (7 points)
   I. Indirect quotations
   II. Scanning exercise
   III. Questions on the reading comprehension (answers are given, pupils write the related questions)
   IV. Intensive reading

V. Anaphoric referents

VI. Skimming (multiple-choice format)

VII. Synonyms

b. Language Production (Mastery of language) (7 points)

I. Punctuation

II. Derivations

III. Reported/Direct speech, Active/Passive voice.

IV. Sentence connectors (connectors are given)

V. Gap-filling paragraph (in relation to the topic)

VI. Reordering (one sentence)

VII. Phonology

c. Written Expression—choice between two tasks (6 points):

Topic 1: Composition (outline given)

Topic 2: Summary.

3.2.5. Comparison

3.2.5.1. Scores

This is how the points are distributed in all the four exams:

Part	1980	1985	1995	2005
Reading Comprehension	30	11	7	7
Mastery of language	40	19	6	6
Written Expression	30	10	7	7
Total	100	40	20	20

Table 114: Distribution of Points

In 1980 and 1985, the total scores were respectively, 100 and 40. In order to make comparisons, we inverted the scores into percentages.

Part	1980	1985	1995	2005
Reading Comprehension	30%	27.5%	35%	35%
Mastery of language	40%	47.5%	30%	30%
Written Expression	30%	25%	35%	35%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

Table 115: Distribution of Points (Percentages)

Thus we note there is no major change in the proportion granted to Reading Comprehension and Written Expression except in the 1985 exam, where Reading Comprehension is slightly more important than Written Expression. However, the section "Mastery of Language" takes the lion's share in 1985, where it represents almost half the total score. In 1980, too, this section is the most important according to the others. But in 1995 and 2005 exams, preponderance was given to Reading Comprehension and Written Expression.

We then conclude that success in the English exams in 1980 and 1985 depended largely on language proficiency, and more particularly on grammar and vocabulary. In terms of skills, success depended on productive rather than receptive skills, particularly for 1985 exams.

3.2.5.2. Variety

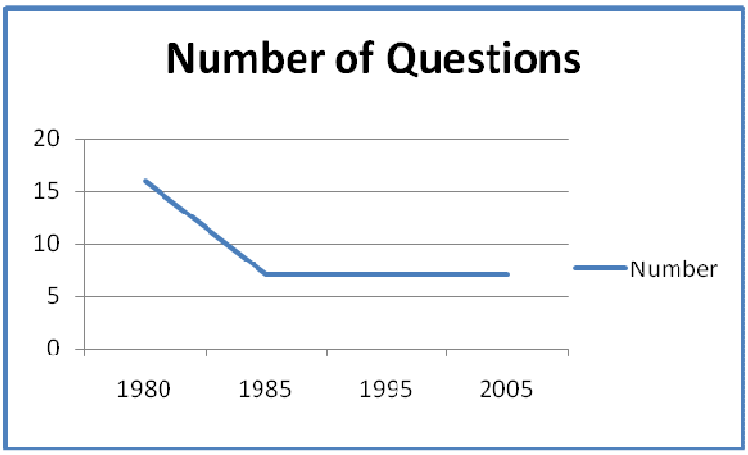
The second step of comparison concerned the variety of tasks.

3.2.5.2.1. Reading Comprehension

	1980	1985	1995	2005
Number of Questions	16	7	7	7
Scanning	8	3	3	4
Intensive Reading	8	4	4	3

Table 116: Variety of Tasks (Reading Comprehension)

The results of the number of questions are displayed in the graph:



Graph 79 : Number of Questions in the Baccalaureate Exams

After a sharp decline, from 1985 the number of questions remained constant (seven). As for the type of questions there is a certain balance after 1980. As we noted in the textbooks

(former programs) used by the students, and this at least marks a fit between textbooks and exams, questions related to the texts are most of the time *textually explicit* (Alderson, 1986). Textually explicit questions are those questions where both the question information and correct answer are found in the same sentence. Along with this, *script-based questions* (or *scriptally* implicit questions) (Alderson & Banerjee, 2002) which require students to integrate text information with their background knowledge are the rare type. Another equivalent term used by researchers is higher-order/lower-order questions (Bloom, 1956).

3.2.5.2.2. Mastery of Language

We could not include the exam of 1985 because its tasks evolved around writing and not as the other exams around particular vocabulary and/ or grammar points.

A. Vocabulary

1980: Sentence completion: 10 questions.

For example, *We had* _____ *seen the flame when we heard the explosion*

(a) hard (b) harder (c) hardly (d) lately

1995: Synonyms and antonyms: 6 words or expressions.

For example, find in the text a synonym to *succeed in* (§ 3)

2005: Synonyms: the aim is to match 4 words with their synonyms:

For example:

(a) reached (1) allowed

(b) was permitted (2) arrived at

B. Grammar

1980:

1. Phrasal verbs : 4 questions, multiple choice.

For example: *They lost the battle but refused to give in.*

(a) to surrender (b) to leave (c) to give away (d) to get in

2. Variety of grammar points: Reported speech / Comparatives/ Neither/ Direct Speech/ Conditionals/ Connectors/Clauses: 15 questions

For example: *I expected them to remove the furniture before Sunday*

Answer: I expected the furniture ……..

1995:

1. Reported speech and Passive Voice: 3 sentences

Correct form of tense: Gerund, Future Perfect, and Simple Past: 3 sentences

For example: *By the year 2050, the population (to double) perhaps.*

2. Cloze Test: the topic is on “good manners”.

2005:

Variety of grammatical tasks:

1. Punctuation: Quotation

2. Derivations: find nouns from verbs

For example, *(a) to free*

3. Active Voice, Reported Speech

4. Sentence connectors (given with the sentence)

For example: *Black people were powerless. They struggled for their rights. (Although)*

5. Cloze Test: Unlike 1995, here words are given (8), from which 4 words are to be used.

6. Reordering: 1 sentence (though we see that the sentence lacks one word)

The words are: */for/ activities/ and / was / to / Gandhi / sent / his / ideas*

Summary:

In terms of Vocabulary and Grammar, the exam in 1980 counts the greatest and most varied questions. It is the only one which displays such a wide range of tasks. As for 1995 and 2005, the exams appear to be very limited in terms of vocabulary: students are asked to find synonyms or antonyms. Concerning Grammar, the questions are more varied though they

involve the same points: Reported and Direct Speech and Active/ Passive Voice. While the 2005 exam appears to be more varied, the grammatical points covered are basic.

C. Written Expression

In all the exams, students are given the choice between two topics which are of course related to the text. There are different types of discourse: narrative, argumentative, etc.

1980:

Topic One: narrative (*Problems you had during your studies*)

Topic Two: argumentative (*Positive influence of TV programs on education*)

1985:

Topic One: paragraph developed by examples (*The world of discoveries and inventions*)

Topic Two: argumentative (*Not all doctors tell their patients the whole truth about their disease*)

1995:

Topic One: cause / effect (*People go less and less to the cinema*). Students are given notes to follow.

Topic Two: narrative (*A happy event in the childhood*)

2005:

Topic One: narrative (*Mahatma Gandhi's biography*). Students are given notes to follow.

Topic Two: summary of the text used in Reading Comprehension.

Through the years, we have witnessed a change in the type of writing proposed to the students during the exams. Until 1995, the types of discourse were argumentative, developed in terms of cause and effect relationship, through examples, and narrative. In 2005, the first three types of discourse are no longer on the agenda, only the summary survives. However, changes started as early as 1995, where we see that even though the first topic is on "cause/effect" relationship, it is *reproductive* (Nunan, 2001: 62), in the sense that the student is reproducing language following a model. The same is seen in 2005 exam. Students have to follow the notes given by the exam designers, leaving less and less place to the student's imagination or critical thinking; even though in 1995, there was still a little room for imagination.

4. Discussion

Recent and less recent publications in Algeria attest that the level of students does not comply with teachers' expectations and that standards are declining. The originality of our research is that despite the much discredited standards referred to in literature[93], little research in Algeria has been really, and concretely devoted to this issue. For De Queiroz (1995), concerning French standards in schools and universities, this question is as old as school itself.

[93] Cf. Chapter 3 (Arabization of the educational system).

In 1989, in France, Baudelot & Establet proposed to refute this thesis by showing that standards are on the contrary on the up. To this end, they used two parameters: first, the university degrees awarded in France from 1969 to 1998, and second, the scores obtained by two generations of conscripts (1967 and 1982) to general tests devised by the army. For the first parameter, because of the inflation of diplomas, they naturally found that the number of people leaving university with a diploma was getting higher through the years. As for the second parameter, they found that the mean score in 1967 was 10 and in 1982 it was 13.5. However, Leger (1992) found some disparities in their conclusions founded on a higher number of baccalaureate holders in 1982. Baudelot & Establet‘s conclusion somehow diverges from their main thesis: the results are on the up but gaps between pupils are getting wider, i.e., privileged pupils obtain better results, and thus it is due to their performance that better results were obtained. In the U.S.A., debates on the efficiency of education have never ceased. In 1966, the *Coleman Report*[94] on education showed that factors external to schools affected pupils' achievement. Later, in 1972, education was badly shaken by the publication of Jencks' et al book *Inequality.* In 1983, the publication of *A Nation at Risk* by a group of researchers in education expressed a merciless diagnosis of the crisis in education in the U.S.A (Baudelot et al, 2004). The educational systems are evaluated periodically throughout the world. The overall reasons are linked to educational failure. According to De Queiroz (1995), since access to school has been made accessible to more people[95], questions on the standards and on failure have been and still are on the agenda.

[94] This issue has been discussed in Chapter One.

[95] We saw in Chapter 2, that democratization proved to be a wrong term for the expansion of schools.

As for Algeria, we saw previously that there was a mass failure in the baccalaureate results. The last evaluation (2000) led to a complete and total overhaul of the educational system. The works undertaken by the commission (CNRSE) highlighted incredible statistics on university failure and decline (Benramdane, 2007, forthcoming title). One of the major points questioned by the reform was whether the university and high school curricula were adequately linked. This is the very question we raised in advancing our hypothesis.

5. Adequacy of High School and University Curricula

Our main point of investigation in the process of comparison of the two curricula will be on Grammar and Written Expression. The test was primarily built on the grammatical items relating to the knowledge of the students of the English structure and their performance in it.

5.1. The High School Curriculum

As we analyzed the different textbooks used in high school in Chapter 5, several features emerged:

1. There should be a balance among the skills, and their design should follow an increasing path. It has been mentioned that the textbooks lacked such a balance, and that the most preferred skill was reading because of the final exam ultimate goal. Research has demonstrated that that the skills should no longer be looked at as separate entities that target separate aims. Owing to the multitude of sub-skills they are made of and which are in connection with other various cognitive realms, the skills are, nowadays, assumed to be constituting a whole where every part is linked to the other

one and cannot stand on its own. We saw, too, that the new textbooks are responding quite well to this scheme.

2. The selection and grading of the linguistic items should be in conformity with the spirit of consolidating the evolving knowledge of the learners. They must suit the learners and respect them in terms of contributing to their gradual involvement in their learning process as well as allowing them to recycle their acquisitions. Moreover, it was found that the tasks or activities were not varied enough to sustain learner's interest. One minimal aspect of learning, which is the use of dictionary, is not covered at all in the textbook. The grammatical points as noted in the textbooks follow a curious pattern: the present tense (as a teaching point) is present everywhere (in the three textbooks), the conditional tense is taught before the future, etc. This recurring pattern which should have helped learners to memorise grammar once and for all, in fact will turn out to be a disservice to them. It is useless to insist on grammar points as it was done in the three textbooks, when ways of teaching them is unsuitable: rules lack contexts. Tenses should themselves be given a special treatment, when we know that Arabic─ the Algerian learner's first language in education─ does not display so many tenses as French or English. In addition, the textbook designers appear too ambitious at times and less ambitious at others: some tasks seem to be very difficult while others are of such simplicity─ they could be tackled by pupils from lower grades.

3. As it has been observed in Chapter 5, texts are not meeting the learners' expectations, needs, and interest. We would have expected texts by which learners

would be stimulated. In a nutshell, contents should really motivate learning, and push learners to be eager to open their books. As it has been shown in the readability scores, they are at times too difficult, and at other times too easy; this path should have been gradually of increased difficulty; texts are sometimes authentic (though their appearance is not), but most of the time unauthentic. Questions related to texts rely too much on the reproductive style: learners had to look back to the texts in order to answer; the learning experience eventually favours routine. The creative style was seldom stimulated. This kind of learning leads to fossilisation: it not only prevents the fostering of learners but also leads students to disregard the language in question. A group of secondary school, interviewed by Benhabrit-Remaoun (1998), said they never revise their English lessons on the grounds that foreign languages were a gift: we either possess it or not! (This characteristic—not reviewing lectures—is equally observed in many students at the university). The discourse analysis of texts leads us to conclude that learners are not presented with the different writing varieties: the only style advocated was narration. Discursive styles as argumentation, for instance, appear in neither the textbooks nor the English examinations in the baccalaureate. Students in most Algerian schools are used to what is referred to in French as "Explication de Texte" techniques through which a passage is exploited from the grammatical and lexical point of view. No attempt to help students develop reading strategies is made. The methodology adopted is teacher-centered. Regular testing, which is an integral part of the Algerian system of education, is modeled on this approach, and therefore students are indirectly forced to learn, not for the sake of learning, but rather to secure

passing marks. It is clear that within such an educational framework, the learner is a passive recipient of knowledge.

4. Time allocation of English in high schools: we saw in the previous chapter that time allocation for English in the different streams is not given its own right: literature streams should have more exposure than the scientific streams. The new programs, however, have adjusted the number of hours devoted to English.

5.2. The University Curriculum

5.2.1. Grammar in the University Syllabus

The Grammar syllabus, as we mentioned earlier when we presented the items used in the proficiency test consists of different features, ranging from articles, prepositions, adjectives, adverbs to the various English tenses. In the original program, these points were not taught: grammar consisted in relative, subordinate, and restrictive and non restrictive clauses, sentence patterns, conditional and subordinate moods; modals (should, ought to, might, dare, etc.) were introduced, too. Changes occurred gradually which made teachers orient grammar towards first the most basic rules, leaving the points described previously to a later stage, stage which never took place. Grammar is taught during the first two years and since most of the time they were not yet mastered, teachers had to deal with them again.

5.2.2. Written Expression in the University Syllabus

We taught Grammar and Written expression in the late 70s and then again in the early 90s. So it is according to these two experiences that we are now dealing with the issue. In the 1980s, in written expression modules, students were taught analysis and synthesis, summaries, note-taking from books, book reviews, etc. Whereas, nowadays, writing concentrates on teaching students techniques: from the sentence to the paragraph, and from the paragraph to the essay. The students in the 80s did not need this, they were already equipped with the writing techniques, and they needed only some refinements and a deeper knowledge of styles. In the 1990s and even in the 2000s, students were and are still taught the different discursive styles: how to argue, exemplify, compare and contrast, describe, etc.

The causes of the difficulties students encounter both in Grammar and Written expression are, according to our point of view, the lack of reading, the lack of writing habits, and lack of knowledge background. However, these shortcomings are not to be related to English, which is the third language students learn, but have their grounds in Arabic, first. Theoretically, Algerian students are supposed to be literate in their L1 (Arabic) and L2 (French) even before taking English as a foreign language. However, previous research on Arabic (Taleb-Ibrahimi, 1995) and on French (Miliani, 1998) has shown that they do have problems with reading and writing. It is this "problems heritage" that students bring with them to English.

- Lack of reading: lack of reading competence is an answer that has a unanimous support among university teachers[96]. Alderson (1984) investigated the question of whether reading in a

[96] Cf. Appendix IV page XXXIV.

FL is a reading problem or a language problem. The former is referred to in the literature as the *Threshold Hypothesis* and posits that *in order to read in a second language, a level of second language linguistic ability must first be achieved* (Bernhardt and Kamil, 1995:17). The latter, however, is termed the *Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis* and posits that *reading performance in a second language is largely shared with reading ability in a first language* (ibid.: 17). Alderson (*op.cit*.) has looked into both hypotheses in previous research and has come to a tentative finding claiming that reading in a foreign language is both a language and a reading problem, but it is more a language problem for FL learners with low linguistic proficiency. However, he points out that further methodological measures need to be taken; particularly providing the missing information of controlling the same individuals reading ability in L1 and L2, and the L2 or FL proficiency. Taking this missing information into account, Carrell (1991) investigates the same question starting with the premises of an equation stipulating that:

L2 Reading = L1 Reading + L2 Language Proficiency

She has confirmed her equation as she writes that:

> *... both first language reading ability and second language proficiency have significant effects on second language reading ability* (ibid., :167).

Researchers generally distinguish between two types of question, lower-order and higher-order questions (or textually implicit/ explicit). The distinction is made with regard to the mental operations involved in answering either of the two types. Higher-order questions are thought provoking, whereas lower-order ones remain on surface-level understanding (Bloom, 1956). In conjunction with the lack of critical thinking, reading assessment in both

the textbooks and the baccalaureate exams predominantly favored the lower-order questions. Algerian learners are not trained well enough to tackle comprehension levels beyond the literal / lower-order level.

Research has proved that there exists a close relationship between reading and writing.

- Lack of writing habits[97]: Krashen (1984) argues that the reading exposure, which is not assigned reading, indirectly increases the competence in aspects of literacy as it enhances reading comprehension, builds vocabulary, improves writing style, and develops grammatical competence. He backs up his view with empirical studies which support the role of different types of reading in the aforementioned aspects. Smith (1983) holds the same point of view when he writes that ... *it could be only through reading that writers learn all the intangibles that they know* (1983: 558). Hafiz and Tudor (1989) take Krashen's (1989) premises as a starting point in a research they carried out on three groups of learners. These premises posit that extensive reading for pleasure is considered to be the main source of acquiring, rather than learning, the skills of writing. The two researchers then validate these premises and have found that their experimental group significantly outperformed their two control group peers after a three-month interval, particularly in writing. This is due to (1) their exposure to lexical and structural patterns and (2) the positive attitude they have developed towards the target language as established by reading for pleasure.

We can say that on the one hand, students in the secondary school system may not have adequate prerequisites for performing well in writing; and on the second hand, that they may even leave university with writing / composing related problems.

[97] Cf. Appendix IV page XXXIV.

- Lack of background knowledge: pupils in their relation to Arabic textbooks and books are deprived of culture (Taleb-Ibrahimi, K., 2000). So when they encounter English or any other language, they are not equipped with necessary knowledge to comprehend the cultural contexts of foreign languages, which we saw earlier in textbook analysis, finally lack. It is essential that cultural components receive their share of attention either in English or Arabic. The Inspector of English of the Wilaya of Constantine from whom we picked up much information, and to whom we told our concern about the lack of culture answered : "Why should we expect English courses to explain who was Shakespeare, Twain, Achebe, or Hemingway?" She meant that in the past, pupils had a general culture[98] which allowed them to know various writers and their books, and when they entered English classes, they were already equipped with knowledge of foreign culture (s).

Finally, it turns out that Arabic is not playing this structuring function: the cognitive and language operations and their linguistic verbalization—analysis, synthesis, criticism, demonstration, generalization, reformulation, extrapolation, etc. — are absent in the Arabic courses (Benramdane, 2007, forthcoming title).

On the basis of the overall remarks, we can conclude that there must be a change to be operated at the level of the syllabuses and textbooks of English. A change has already taken place with the new reform, and we have noted that the new programs together with the new textbooks, though suffering some limitations, appear to promise a better future to English. However, our concern so far was over the teaching/learning of English but the greatest and essential change which should take place is with Arabic.

[98] Cf. Appendix IV page XXXV.

Conclusion

Through the results, we can come up with the conclusion that as regards the investigation work done, the standards have actually declined. Even so, such an assertion must be backed up by some factors which have shaped the university:

- The dethronement of English from a privileged first foreign language to a second one, in intermediate and high schools,

- The population which enrolls in the English Department: we saw earlier that the largest proportion is represented by the Sciences streams, closely followed by the Literature streams; whereas Foreign Languages, though the most qualified represent only a small proportion,

- The gap between the university and the high school curricula,

- The interlingual transfer: arabized students naturally refer to Arabic (L1in education) in the learning of English. The analysis of the errors made by students in test enables us to suppose that students were operating a transfer from their first language in education, a negative one in this case. There exist writing difficulties and differences between English and Arabic,

- The lack of interest for English on the part of students, particularly those from Arabic Literature and Sciences streams, whose primary concern when they were in high schools was either Arabic literature and culture for literary streams or sciences and mathematics for scientific streams,

- The discrepancies observed in the time allocation distributed to the different streams: Literature and Sciences are given three hours a week, whereas Foreign Languages are given four, though English as a university discipline is open to everyone, (cf. table 117):

Stream	Sciences	Literature	Foreign Languages
Number of Hours/week	**2/3/3**	**3/3/3**	**3/4/4**

Table 117 : Time allocated to English in Secondary schools (Former programs). (1st Year/ 2nd Year/ 3rd Year)

Time allocation has been adjusted in the new programs to fit foreign language learning requirements:

Stream	Sciences	Literature	Foreign Languages
Number of Hours/week	**3/3/3**	**4/4/4**	**4/5/4**

Table 118 : Time Allocation to English in Secondary Schools (New Programs) (1st Year/ 2nd Year/ 3rd Year)

However, we maintain that such an allocation for Literature streams is still below the requirements.

- When students reach university they lack linguistic competence (reading, writing, and oral) and cultural awareness of the foreign language, because of factors such as the textbooks not responding to their needs, level, and interest,

- The students do not meet their teachers' expectations, particularly in terms of autonomy and responsibility, and study skills,

- When students enroll in the English Department, English is not necessarily their first choice; thus some of them may lack motivation.

To these features, we may add the specific university context which does no comply with the general norms, as for example, the learning conditions and library facilities. These are some of the features which combined with each other contribute to the decline of standards.

Overall, the results we obtained through our investigation confirmed our hypotheses which are:

1. Would secondary school terminal education in English match university curricula as it would appear that students enroll in the English department without the required overall language ability?
2. Would high school textbooks meet the students' requirements and needs in terms of contents, tasks, and balance of skills?

It would seem that because of the above state of affairs, the standards in English at university are declining.

The results we came to with our field investigation allow us to confirm our hypotheses.

Pedagogical Recommendations

This study has investigated the scoring of linguistic proficiency. It has thereby revealed that the students' weaknesses can in fact be traced back to both language problems and reading problems. Thus, it is desirable to train students in the use of effective strategies that allow them to overcome linguistic problems. It is equally desirable to introduce some higher order questions, mainly from early stages of language learning. Algerian students, in particular, need adequate and systematic training to tackle reading materials.

Teachers, together with textbook designers, should opt for developing learners' abilities to read critically. Some teachers of English (on the basis of textbooks) still favor the supremacy of a text over what it can be used for. Teachers who adopt this model make their students not only stick to the reading text but also believe, though implicitly, in an absolute meaning of a text. These are teachers who often fail to ask higher order questions. On the contrary, teachers who do ask such questions prepare their students to play their role as active negotiators of meaning.

It is also important that syllabus designers and materials writers integrate the rhetorically-oriented aspects of writing and make various aspects of writing their main focus in materials written for EFL students in general.

One of the implications of this study is that there should be co-ordination between University English teachers and those of secondary schools so that learning takes place between the needs of the school students and those of University students.

Scientific stream students should be taught English the same way literature streams students are, especially when these students do not necessarily go on to higher scientific studies (the relatively high proportion of these students in the English department testifies this assumption). Clapham (2000) argues that EAP (English for Academic Purposes) testing, based on the assumption that students will be advantaged by taking tests in their subject area where they have background knowledge, is not necessarily justified and she later concludes that subject-specific reading tests should be replaced by tests of academic aptitude and grammatical knowledge.

The study needs to be replicated in some years in order to see whether the new programs are really aiming at improving the standards of both the secondary school and the university students.

Among the shortcomings we observed in the analysis of the Algerian textbooks, greater priority in change should be given to:

- Topic coverage: textbook contents should cover teenage life and interests; controversial and argumentative issues, up-dated information, contextualized materials with educational values that are relevant to sociocultural aspects of teenagers. In a word, they should attract the students' attention in the sense that they want to read them.

- There must be more activities which encourage collaborative learning, natural and experiential interactions that help young people to think critically and personalize.
- Sources of text used in the textbooks should be mentioned in order to push learners to look for the books in question and read them. We should provide learners with everything that arouses interest in reading, particularly since it has been proved in this research (and many others) that the backbone of success in language learning (whether first, second, or foreign) takes its roots from reading.

At the end of a program, we need to evaluate whether our objectives have been achieved. The program must be evaluated internally to test whether it taught what it set out to teach. It must equally well be evaluated externally to get the learner's feedback. Here we check whether the program was useful in that it met the learner's needs, and whether it improved the learner's language proficiency. Both the learner's and the teacher's feedback are significant for they can lead to remedial work and, therefore, to the improvement of the teaching program.

Clearly formulated objectives that are known to both teacher and learner will facilitate the EFL teaching/learning task. To this effect, the EFL objectives must be constantly revised and improved, especially after the evaluation of the teaching program.

- Adequate teacher training must be organized to produce competent teachers who will ensure competent class teaching. Further training must be introduced to enable the teacher to develop their teaching skills in the light of recent ideas and methods in ELT.

- The ELT officials must help the teacher to have access to the necessary information about the new developments in the contributory disciplines. Moreover, the teacher must basically show great interest in the learner.

Any model of ELT cannot succeed unless it is consistent with the educational planning which specifies the ELT objectives and the way the teaching programs can be implemented. There should be a certain harmony between the ELT objectives and the system of exams. There is undoubtedly no ideal model or program of ELT, but we do believe that if the essential conditions for success are met, i.e., if we have willing learners, well-trained and devoted teachers, and assistance from the educational authorities, higher learning achievement can be obtained.

The last suggestion has to do with the outcomes of research which should not go unnoticed in the teaching performance. Unless Algerian teachers and designers of English textbooks take into account the findings of research studies conducted in Algeria, and elsewhere, the effectiveness of their teaching and outcomes will be severely compromised.

Conclusion

We started this thesis with an overview of various issues in relation to education and the interplay between the philosophical, psychological and sociological foundations and language teaching. We saw that language teaching (whether first or foreign) is closely linked and influenced by the evolution of educational theories. There have been attempts to crystallize the theoretical views of language, education, and language education into prescribed teaching materials and strategies, or methods. The abundance of methods derived from different theoretical standpoints. Linguistic and language pedagogy have been swept by crusades in which one teaching and/or testing approach or goal is argued to be inherently superior to all others, to the exclusion of all others. It emerged from this chapter (Chapter One) that most new approaches are rediscoveries of old methods, as it has been shown with the new technologies used in language teaching, for example. Thus methods, programs, curricula, syllabuses, and textbooks are shaped by the educational theories. We attempted to show, subsequently, the application of these to the local contexts of education: the structure of the Algerian university which took its roots in the colonizing France but which moved from the status of a colonized to an independent country and as such developed its own view of education and gave it an Algerian personality (Chapter Two). However, the educational system did not develop without difficulty: difficulties mainly related to the language of education, Arabic; arabization did not prove to be efficient, French is still much present in the

educational scene (Chapter Two). The theoretical part laid the ground for the practical details presented in the two last chapters.

We, then, moved to the analysis of the textbooks used in English in the Algerian educational system. Our further step consisted in gathering data on students enrolled in the Department of English Language to whom we submitted questionnaires and tests in order to compare them to their counterparts from 1996. The results we obtained from these chapters have provided the background from which we proposed a set of pedagogical implications. The analysis of textbooks together with the field work we carried out enabled us to draw conclusions in the direction of our hypotheses.

Lying at the heart of our research was a concern for a discontent on the part of university teachers with the standards of students entering the English department. To address this problem, we have sought to put forward the following hypotheses:

1. Would secondary school terminal education in English match university curricula as it would appear that students enroll in the English department without the required overall language ability?
2. Would high school textbooks meet the students' requirements and needs in terms of contents, tasks, and balance of skills?

It would seem that because of this state of affairs, the standards in English at university are declining.

In Chapter Five, we have come to the conclusion that the process of textbook design and renewal, as well as the syllabus design and renewal, are not based on objective

considerations. In terms of the content of the texts, we noted particularly the lack of foreign culture in the textbooks. In relation to language systems, we noted that there was no balance in terms of distribution of tasks which are devoted to them. Furthermore, the questions relating to texts showed to be of the reproductive type preventing the development of creativity within learners either in the reading or the writing processes.

Through our investigation (Chapter Six), we were able to put to test our main concern of the present research: the standards of students enrolling in the English Department. It turned out that our concern was really grounded despite the many limitations our experiment may have entailed. The students enrolled in 2005 making up the population of our research proved to score less than their 1996 counterparts. The comparative study (scores in each of the tests, the item facility, and the overall comparison) showed consistent gaps between the two samples: both groups of students found easiness or difficulty in the same items, even though the 1996 students scored much better. The analysis of the errors made by students in the tests enabled us to suppose that students were operating a transfer from their native language, a negative one in this case, and to suggest that fossilization has taken place in their learning process. The error analysis should be taken into consideration in the design of the syllabuses.

In addition to these results, the present study has also indicated that the new programs and textbooks, beside the fact that there was no preparatory pilot study to their implementation, require some adjustments, especially in terms of cognitive overload.

The weaknesses of Algerian learners of English in general and the students of the English department more specifically can be attributed to various factors: lack of pertinent information on the part of school graduates when they join university; gap in the school and

the English department curricula, lack of the target language environment (newspapers or magazines related to students' interests) and the learners' lack of motivation. The continuing dissatisfaction with the performance of students in English courses suggest meager development of productive skills, a low input of the receptive skills, lack of background knowledge and inadequate learning strategies at university level.

The size of the class does have an impact on the effect of learning and teaching. The average number of students in classes is between 35 and 40[99], both in high schools and university. The circumstantial factors like class size and limited teaching hours not only negatively affect students' learning but have also an impact on the usage of a well-designed textbook. Large class size is an urgent problem that needs to be solved by educational authorities.

Finally, as some researchers in different fields have emphasized, English is not the only discipline where change should take place. As Djebbar (1996) states, the first change to be brought concerns the teaching of Arabic and its modernization in terms of contents and culture. We saw in Chapter Five and Chapter Six that students reach university deprived of what represents the core requirement of foreign language: reading, writing, and background knowledge and thus culture. This picture is to be broadened to every language learning, from Arabic, through French, to English. As Lacheraf pertinently remarked:

> *When books begin to play their part … and circulate like blood through the veins, and when the school strikes tirelessly at ignorance and lingering superstitions, then*

[99] In 2006/07, it was found that groups in the first year of English were made up of 50 students.

> *the society can aspire to the upper forms of culture… schooling education all out literacy work, giving people some idea however elementary, of the modern world and in particular, its underlying spirit –these are some of the paths that lead more surely to culture.* (Lacheraf, quoted by Skander[100], 1972).

Reading is of paramount importance in any language learning. The Algerian learners, because of the design of the educational programs which have until now disregarded the cultural contents of textbooks (be they in first, second, or foreign language), prove to be poor learners, mostly because of a lack of reading (Lakehal-Ayat, 1997) and an inadequate knowledge of vocabulary (Laraba, 2007).

In addition to these issues, there remain a large number unresolved regarding the effects of instruction and classroom interactions on learners. If one conclusion is to be drawn from the research is that much more research remains to be conducted to determine how language learning may improve in the classroom. Through our study, we tried to take into consideration the curriculum and the textbook, but there exists a hidden curriculum that ought to be given total substance (being more important than the curriculum itself), in a classroom observation, for instance. L.M.D. programs, curricula and syllabuses were conceived in order to better respond to the students' needs and to fill in the lack of correspondence between the secondary and the tertiary cycles. However, upstream, some adjustments were implemented too. In 2010, students who followed the renewed system would be candidates to university. Would there be a complete match or would we witness another conflict?

[100] Skander fails to mention the references in relation to Lacheraf.

Our research remains open to any further development that would deal with the evaluation of the new programs along with the replication of the experiment in the forthcoming years.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRES AND TESTS

IS THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM WEAKENING?

An Investigation of the High School Curricula and their Adequacy with the University Curricula

FIRST YEAR STUDENTS OF ENGLISH

SURVEY CARRIED OUT BY K. LAKEHAL-AYAT

N° _____

DATE: _____

1. **Gender:** O Male O Female
2. **What is your birthday**: Year: 19____
3. **What is your place of residence?**
4. (A) **Baccalaureate: Year of Achievement**: 20…….. (B) Stream:

   (A) Year of your 1st enrolment at university: 20…… Did you repeat a year?

   (B) Was English your 1st choice?

   (C)If no, what was your 1st choice?

5. **Parents' highest level of education:**

	(A) Father	**(B) Mother**
1. Primary education	O	O
2. Middle education	O	O
3. Secondary education	O	O
4. University education	O	O

6. **(A)Your father's profession:**

   (B) Your mother's profession:

7. **When did your start learning English?** Primary School 0 Middle School 0

8. **Did you learn any other foreign language than English? If so, specify.**

   O Yes O No O Other language: _____

9. **Do you like the English language?**

O Very much O Rather like it O Indifferent O Not very much O Not at all

10. **Do you like the English speaking countries culture?**

O Very much O Rather like it O Indifferent O Not very much O Not at all

11. How important is it for you to know English?

O Very important O Less important

O Not at all important O Rather important

12. During the English classes, how often were the following used? Mark with an '**X**' the option that best matches your situation.	Often	Sometimes	Never
A. On starting a lesson your teacher first explained the new concepts/words/grammar in it and then she/he organised appropriate activities in order to put this into practice.			
B. She/he followed the progression of the textbook.			
C. She/he used role-plays and simulations to create almost authentic communicative situations in the classroom.			
D. Did she/he encourage the pupils to communicate in English when they speak about their own learning, school work and other personal matters?			
E. Did she/he teach the pupils the essentials of the socio-cultural context of the countries where English is spoken?			

13. Which of the following resources were used in your English classes? How often?

	Often	**sometimes**	**never**
a. Audio cassettes	O	O	O
b. Video cassettes	O	O	O
c. Newspapers, magazines, Comics	O	O	O
d. Books for extensive reading	O	O	O

14. Do you feel satisfied with the handouts given by your teachers?

Yes O **No** O

15. **Would you prefer a textbook format?** Remember a textbook is a book that you have in your possession throughout the year.

Yes O **No** O

16. **Would you like to add any comment?**

LANGUAGE TEST

PART A

DIRECTIONS: *QUESTIONS 1-15 ARE PARTIAL SENTENCES. BELOW EACH SENTENCE, YOU WILL SEE FOUR WORDS OR PHRASES, MARKED (a), (b), (c), OR (d). SELECT* THE *ONE WORD OR PHRASE THAT BEST COMPLETES THE SENTENCE, THEN UNDERLINE IT.*

EXAMPLE:

Drying flowers is the best way _____ them.

(a) to preserve
(b) by preserving
(c) preserve
(d) preserved

Correct answer: (a)

NOW BEGIN THE TEST:

1. Jean Fragonard was a French artist _____portraits of children.

(a) whose paintings
(b) who has painted
(c) who painted
(d) whose painted

2. Florida's long coastline and warm weather _____swimmers to its sandy shores.

(a) attracts
(b) attract
(c) they attract
(d) is attracted by

3. For years experts _____the effect of preparatory courses on test scores.

(a) are examining
(b) had been examined
(c) have been examining
(d) having been examined

4. Language dialects in the inner cities are different _____ those in the suburbs or the countryside.

(a) than
(b) of
(c) from
(d) on

5. The divorce rate is _____ in the United States than in almost any country.

(a) high
(b) very high
(c) the highest
(d) higher

6. Only _____ birds inhabit the Arctic region year round.

(a) fewer
(b) fewer than
(c) as few as
(d) a few

7. Refrigeration _____ food spoilage by keeping temperatures near or below freezing.

(a) prevention
(b) prevents
(c) it prevents
(d) is prevented

8. Arts tend to be _____ more after the death of the artist, but most literary works tend to decrease in value when the writer dies.

(a) price
(b) worthy
(c) worth
(d) value

9. _____ the light rain, the base-ball game will not be cancelled.

(a) Despite of
(b) Although of
(c) In spite
(d) Despite

10. California, which _____more populous state than any other of its Western neighbours, has greater representation in the House.

(a) a
(b) it is a
(c) that a
(d) is a

11. Either the goal-keeper or one of the players _____the ball from the goal.

(a) retrieving
(b) retrieval
(c) retrieves
(d) retrieve

12. When consumers cannot have everything they want, they have to choose most _____.

(a) they want what
(b) what they want
(c) they want it
(d) that they want

13. The final step in a research process is to draw conclusions based _____ _____ of the results.

(a) of the analysis
(b) on the analysis
(c) the analysis
(d) in the analysis

14. Museums of natural history _____ by special interest groups created for that purpose.

(a) owned and operated
(b) they own and operate
(c) owning and operating
(d) are owned and operated

15. City planners in St Paul _____ models for building compact towns and cities.

(a) proposing
(b) have proposed
(c) proposition
(d) proposal

PART B

DIRECTIONS: IN QUESTIONS 16-30, EVERY SENTENCE HAS FOUR WORDS OR PHRASES THAT ARE UNDERLINED. THE FOUR UNDERLINED PORTIONS OF EACH SENTENCE ARE MARKED **A, B, C,** AND **D**. *IDENTIFY THE ONE WORD OR PHRASE THAT SHOULD BE CHANGED IN ORDER FOR THE SENTENCE TO BE CORRECT THEN. PUT A CROSS BESIDE THE LETTER THAT CORRESPONDS TO THE ANSWER YOU HAVE SELECTED.*

Example:

Christopher Columbus has sailed from Europe in 1492 and discovered a new land he thought to be India.
+ A B C D

(Correct answer A)

NOW BEGIN THE TEST

16. Benjamin Franklin strongly objected to the eagle's being chosen as the national bird because its predatory nature.
A B C D

17. On October 19, 1781, Cornwallis surrendered his army to General Washington, a gesture that signalled end of the Revolutionary War.
A B C D

18. The legal age which a person is considered to be an adult is usually 18.
A B C D

19. A little drivers realise how many individual parts are necessary to assemble a car.
A B C D

20. The Saudi Arabian economy depend largely on the petroleum industry and the oil production.
A B C D

21. Harold Pinter's plays show ordinary people being threatened or attacked by mystery forces.
A B C D

22. Edith Roosevelt was (A) a devoted mother of five (B) children (C), as well (D) a gracious hostess.

23. Technology is define (A) as the tools (B), skills, and methods that are (C) necessary to produce (D) goods.

24. Veterinary Medicine (A) is the branch of medical (B) science where (C) deals with the diseases (D) of animals.

25. Fingerprints were been (A) employed to identify (B) criminals (C), amnesia victims, and unknown (D) dead.

26. Special education is intended help (A) both (B) the handicapped and the gifted children to reach (C) their (D) learning potentials.

27. The plant leaf (A) has vascular tissues just as (B) the stem (C) and the root does (D).

28. Before he retired last April (A), Mr Thompson is working (B) as a foreign student advisor for thirty years (C) at (D) the Community College.

29. Beef and dairy is major (A) sources of income in (B) Louisiana, which has (C) a mild (D) climate.

.

30. Cartographers did not make an accurate map because the political situation in the area changes (A) so (B) rapidly that they were not able to (C) draw the boundaries correctly (D).

PART C

DIRECTIONS: *IN THE FOLLOWING PASSAGE SOME WORDS HAVE BEEN DELETED. FIRST, READ THE PASSAGE, THEN TRY TO GUESS WHAT THE DELETED WORDS ARE. FINALLY WRITE THE WORD YOU HAVE SELECTED IN THE SPACE PROVIDED.*

At the age of sixty-five, Laura Mary Wilder began writing a series of novels for young people based on her early experiences on the American frontier. Born in the state of Wisconsin in 1867, she (1) _____ her family were pioneers. Seeking better farm land, (2) _____ went by covered wagon to Missouri in 1869, then on (3) __Kansas the next year, returning to Wisconsin in 1871, (4) _____ travelling on to Minnesota and Iowa before settling permanently (5) _____ South Dakota in 1879. Because of this constant (6)_____ , Wilder's early education took place at irregular intervals in a succession (7) _____ one-room schools. From age thirteen to sixteen, she attended (8) _____ more regularly, although she never graduated.

At the age (9) _____ eighteen, she married Almonzo James Wilder. They bought a (10)____farm in the Ozarks, where they remained for the rest (11) _____ their lives. Their only daughter, Rose, who had become (12) _____ nationally known journalist, encouraged her mother to write. Serving (13) _____ agent and editor, Rose negotiated with Harper's to publish (14) _____ mother's first book, *Little House in the Woods*. Seven (15) _____ books followed, each narrating her early life on (16) _____ plains. Written from the viewpoint of a child, they (17) _____remained popular with young readers from many nations. Twenty (18) ___after her death in 1957, more than 20 millions (19) _____ had been sold, and they had been (20) _____ into fourteen languages. In 1974, a weekly television (21) _

_____ *Little House on the Prairie*, was produced, based on the (22) _____ from the Wilder books.

Thank you!

APPENDIX II

CORRECT ANSWERS TO THE LANGUAGE TESTS

PART A

1. Jean Fragonard was a French artist who has painted portraits of children.
2. Florida's long coastline and warm weather attract swimmers to its sandy shores.
3. For years have been examining experts the effect of preparatory courses on test scores.
4. Language dialects in the inner cities are different from those in the suburbs or the countryside.
5. The divorce rate is higher in the United States than in almost any country.
6. Only a few birds inhabit the Arctic region year round.
7. Refrigeration prevents food spoilage by keeping temperatures near or below freezing.
8. Arts tend to be worthy more after the death of the artist, but most literary works tend to decrease in value when the writer dies.
9. Despite the light rain, the base-ball game will not be cancelled.
10. California, a more populous state than any other of its Western neighbours, has greater representation in the House.
11. Either the goal-keeper or one of the players retrieves the ball from the goal.
12. When consumers cannot have everything they want, they have to choose most what they want.
13. The final step in a research process is to draw conclusions based on the analysis of the results.
14. Museums of natural history are owned and operated by special interest groups created for that purpose.
15. City planners in St Paul have proposed models for building compact towns and cities.

PART B

16. Benjamin Franklin strongly objected to the eagle's being chosen as the national bird because of its predatory nature.
17. On October 19, 1781, Cornwallis surrendered his army to General Washington, a gesture that signalled the end of the Revolutionary War.
18. The legal age at which a person is considered to be an adult is usually 18.
19. A few drivers realise how many individual parts are necessary to assemble a car.

20. The Saudi Arabian economy depends largely on the petroleum industry and the oil production.

21. Harold Pinter's plays show ordinary people being threatened or attacked by mysterious forces.

22. Edith Roosevelt was a devoted mother of five children, as well as a gracious hostess.

23. Technology is defined as the tools, skills, and methods that are necessary to produce goods.

24. Veterinary Medicine is the branch of medical science which deals with the diseases of animals.

25. Fingerprints have been employed to identify criminals, amnesia victims, and unknown dead.

26. Special education is intended to help both the handicapped and the gifted children to reach their learning potentials.

27. The plant leaf has vascular tissues just as the stem and the root do.

28. Before he retired last April, Mr Thompson was working as a foreign student advisor for thirty years at the Community College.

29. Beef and dairy are major sources of income in Louisiana, which has a mild climate.

30. Cartographers did not make an accurate map because the political situation in the area changed so rapidly that they were not able to draw the boundaries correctly.

PART C

DIRECTIONS: *IN THE FOLLOWING PASSAGE SOME WORDS HAVE BEEN DELETED. FIRST, READ THE PASSAGE, THEN TRY TO GUESS WHAT THE DELETED WORDS ARE. FINALLY WRITE THE WORD YOU HAVE SELECTED IN THE SPACE PROVIDED.*

At the age of sixty-five, Laura Mary Wilder began writing a series of novels for young people based on her early experiences on the American frontier. Born in the state of

Wisconsin in 1867, she (1) **and** her family were pioneers. Seeking better farm land, (2)**they** _____ went by covered wagon to Missouri in 1869, then on (3) **to** Kansas the next year, returning to Wisconsin in 1871, (4) **then** travelling on to Minnesota and Iowa before settling permanently (5) **in** South Dakota in 1879. Because of this constant (6) **move**, Wilder's early education took place at irregular intervals in a succession (7) **of** one-room schools. From age thirteen to sixteen, she attended (8) **school** more regularly, although she never graduated.

At the age (9) **of** eighteen, she married Almonzo James Wilder. They bought a (10)**small** farm in the Ozarks, where they remained for the rest (11) **of** their lives. Their only daughter, Rose, who had become (12) **a** nationally known journalist, encouraged her mother to write. Serving (13) **as** agent and editor, Rose negotiated with Harper's to publish (14) **her** mother's first book, *Little House in the Woods*. Seven (15) **more** books followed, each narrating her early life on (16) **the** plains. Written from the viewpoint of a child, they (17) **have** remained popular with young readers from many nations. Twenty (18) **years** _____after her death in 1957, more than 20 millions (19) **copies** had been sold, and they had been (20) **translated** into fourteen languages. In 1974, a weekly television (21) **series** *Little House on the Prairie*, was produced, based on the (22) **stories** from the Wilder books.

APPENDIX III

COMPARATIVE SCORES

2006			1996		
PART A			**PART A**		
ITEM 1			ITEM 1		
correct answers	58	72%	correct answers	52	85%
incorrect answers	23	28%	incorrect answers	9	15%
	81	100%		61	100%
ITEM 2			ITEM 2		
correct answers	42	52%	correct answers	42	69%
incorrect answers	39	48%	incorrect answers	19	31%
	81	100%		61	100%
ITEM 3			ITEM 3		
correct answers	29	36%	correct answers	20	33%
incorrect answers	47	64%	incorrect answers	41	67%
	76	100%		61	100%
ITEM 4			ITEM 4		
correct answers	60	74%	correct answers	57	93%
incorrect answers	21	26%	incorrect answers	4	7%
	81	100%		61	100%
ITEM 5			ITEM 5		
correct answers			correct answers	52	85%
incorrect answers	48	59%	incorrect answers	9	15%
	33	41%		61	100%
	81	100%			
ITEM 6			ITEM 6		
correct answers			correct answers	54	89%
incorrect answers	64	76%	incorrect answers	7	11%
	17	24%		61	100%
	81	100%			
ITEM 7			ITEM 7		
correct answers	18	22%	correct answers	52	85%
incorrect answers	99	122%	incorrect answers	9	15%
	117	144%		61	100%

ITEM 8				ITEM 8		
correct answers	29	36%		correct answers	24	39%
incorrect answers	52	64%		incorrect answers	37	61%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 9				ITEM 9		
correct answers	20	25%		correct answers	18	30%
incorrect answers	61	75%		incorrect answers	43	70%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 10				ITEM 10		
correct answers	4	5%		correct answers	18	30%
incorrect answers	77	95%		incorrect answers	43	70%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 11				ITEM 11		
correct answers	42	52%		correct answers	51	84%
incorrect answers	39	48%		incorrect answers	10	16%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 12				ITEM 12		
correct answers	55	68%		correct answers	61	100%
incorrect answers	26	32%		incorrect answers	0	0%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 13				ITEM 13		
correct answers	72	89%		correct answers	57	93%
incorrect answers	9	11%		incorrect answers	4	7%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 14				ITEM 14		
correct answers	62	77%		correct answers	50	82%
incorrect answers	19	23%		incorrect answers	11	18%
	81	100%			61	100%
PART B				**PART B**		
ITEM 15				ITEM 15		
correct answers	62	77%		correct answers	57	93%
incorrect answers	19	23%		incorrect answers	4	7%

	81	100%		61	100%
ITEM 16			ITEM 16		
correct answers	15	19%	correct answers	37	61%
incorrect answers	66	81%	incorrect answers	24	39%
	81	100%		61	100%
ITEM 17			ITEM 17		
correct answers	43	53%	correct answers	39	64%
incorrect answers	38	47%	incorrect answers	22	36%
	81	100%		61	100%
ITEM 18			ITEM 18		
correct answers	35	43%	correct answers	41	67%
incorrect answers	46	57%	incorrect answers	20	33%
	81	100%		61	100%
ITEM 19			ITEM 19		
correct answers	38	46%	correct answers	40	66%
incorrect answers	43	54%	incorrect answers	21	34%
	81	100%		61	100%
ITEM 20			ITEM 20		
correct answers	51	63%	correct answers	52	85%
incorrect answers	30	37%	incorrect answers	9	15%
	81	100%		61	100%
ITEM 21			ITEM 21		
correct answers	25	30%	correct answers	19	31%
incorrect answers	57	70%	incorrect answers	42	69%
	82	100%		61	100%
ITEM 22			ITEM 22		
correct answers	41	51%	correct answers	44	72%
incorrect answers	40	49%	incorrect answers	17	28%
	81	100%		61	100%
ITEM 23			ITEM 23		

correct answers	46	57%		correct answers	45	74%
incorrect answers	35	43%		incorrect answers	16	26%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 24				ITEM 24		
correct answers	53	65%		correct answers	46	75%
incorrect answers	28	35%		incorrect answers	15	25%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 25				ITEM 25		
correct answers	52	65%		correct answers	56	92%
incorrect answers	29	35%		incorrect answers	5	8%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 26				ITEM 26		
correct answers	58	72%		correct answers	49	80%
incorrect answers	23	28%		incorrect answers	12	20%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 27				ITEM 27		
correct answers	48	59%		correct answers	38	62%
incorrect answers	33	41%		incorrect answers	23	38%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 28				ITEM 28		
correct answers	61	75%		correct answers	55	90%
incorrect answers	20	25%		incorrect answers	6	10%
	81	100%				100%
ITEM 29				ITEM 29		
correct answers	55	68%		correct answers	50	82
incorrect answers	26	32%		incorrect answers	11	18
	81	100%			61	100
ITEM 30				ITEM 30		
correct answers	29	36%		correct answers	33	54%
incorrect answers	52	64%		incorrect answers	28	46%
	81	100%			61	100%
PART C				**PART C**		

ITEM 1				ITEM 1		
correct answers	31	38%		correct answers	28	46%
incorrect answers	50	62%		incorrect answers	33	54%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 2				ITEM 2		
correct answers	22	27%		correct answers	54	89%
incorrect answers	59	73%		incorrect answers	7	
	81	100%			61	89%
ITEM 3				ITEM 3		
correct answers	14	17%		correct answers	8	13%
incorrect answers	67	83%		incorrect answers	53	87%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 4				ITEM 4		
correct answers	14	17%		correct answers	15	25%
incorrect answers	63	83%		incorrect answers	46	75%
	77	100%			61	100%
ITEM 5				ITEM 5		
correct answers	30	37%		correct answers	28	46%
incorrect answers	51	63%		incorrect answers	33	54%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 6				ITEM 6		
correct answers	14	17%		correct answers	20	33%
incorrect answers	67	83%		incorrect answers	41	67%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 7				ITEM 7		
correct answers	39	49%		correct answers	42	69%
incorrect answers	42	51%		incorrect answers	19	31%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 8				ITEM 8		
correct answers	18	22%		correct answers	8	13%
incorrect answers	63	78%		incorrect answers	53	87%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 9				ITEM 9		

correct answers	78	96%		correct answers	59	97%
incorrect answers	3	4%		incorrect answers	2	3%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 10				ITEM 10		
correct answers	64	79%		correct answers	54	89%
incorrect answers	17	21%		incorrect answers	7	11%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 11				ITEM 11		
correct answers	61	75%		correct answers	51	84%
incorrect answers	20	25%		incorrect answers	10	16%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 12				ITEM 12		
correct answers	47	58%		correct answers	49	80%
incorrect answers	34	42%		incorrect answers	12	20%
	81	100%			12	100%
ITEM 13				ITEM 13		
correct answers	9	11%		correct answers	17	28%
incorrect answers	72	89%		incorrect answers	44	72%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 14				ITEM 14		
correct answers	51	63%		correct answers	52	85%
incorrect answers	30	37%		incorrect answers	9	15%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 15				ITEM 15		
correct answers	23	28%		correct answers	26	43%
incorrect answers	58	72%		incorrect answers	35	57%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 16				ITEM 16		
correct answers	60	74%		correct answers	50	82%
incorrect answers	21	26%		incorrect answers	11	18%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 17	11	14%		ITEM 17	26	43%
correct answers	70	86%		correct answers	35	57%
incorrect answers	81	100%		incorrect answers	61	100%

ITEM 18				ITEM 18		
correct answers	70	86%		correct answers	58	95%
incorrect answers	11	14%		incorrect answers	3	5%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 19				ITEM 19		
correct answers	44	54%		correct answers	49	80%
incorrect answers	37	46%		incorrect answers	12	20%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 20				ITEM 20		
correct answers	45	56%		correct answers	48	79%
incorrect answers	36	44%		incorrect answers	13	21%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 21				ITEM 21		
correct answers	22	27%		correct answers	27	44%
incorrect answers	59	73%		incorrect answers	34	56%
	81	100%			61	100%
ITEM 22				ITEM 22		
correct answers	22	27%		correct answers	29	48%
incorrect answers	59	73%		incorrect answers	32	52%
	81	100%			61	100%

	2006					1996			
	PART A	PART B	PART C	Total		PART A	PART B	PART C	Total
student 70	12	12	20	**44**	student 13	13	15	20	**48**
student 32	12	13	17	**42**	student 10	11	15	21	**47**
student 80	11	14	17	**42**	student 6	12	14	18	**44**
student 30	10	14	17	**41**	student 40	12	14	18	**44**
student 17	11	13	15	**39**	student 29	13	13	16	**42**
student 45	11	12	16	**39**	student 38	13	11	18	**42**
student 72	11	12	16	**39**	student 25	14	13	14	**41**
student 12	10	13	14	**37**	student 3	12	14	14	**40**
student 27	11	10	16	**37**	student 7	13	13	14	**40**
student 55	12	12	13	**37**	student 14	12	11	17	**40**
student 76	12	11	14	**37**	student 23	12	12	16	**40**
student 77	12	12	12	**36**	student 51	12	11	17	**40**
student 2	11	9	15	**35**	student 18	13	12	14	**39**
student 6	7	9	17	**33**	student 19	13	12	14	**39**
student 14	8	5	10	**33**	student 26	11	12	16	**39**
student 19	11	10	12	**33**	student 33	13	8	18	**39**
student 56	12	10	11	**33**	student 5	11	11	16	**38**
student 1	10	8	14	**32**	student 1	9	11	17	**37**
student 9	10	11	11	**32**	student 24	13	11	13	**37**
student 52	9	12	11	**32**	student 42	11	11	15	**37**
student 69	10	10	12	**32**	student 54	11	10	16	**37**
student 3	8	9	14	**31**	student 8	11	11	14	**36**
student 18	11	8	12	**31**	student 30	12	11	13	**36**
student 59	11	8	12	**31**	student 47	12	11	13	**36**
student 61	7	13	11	**31**	student 58	10	12	14	**36**
student 42	13	9	8	**30**	student 9	10	9	16	**35**
student 50	8	11	11	**30**	student 16	8	14	13	**35**
student 67	11	6	13	**30**	student 20	12	12	11	**35**
student 78	10	8	12	**30**	student 34	12	10	13	**35**
student 7	8	9	12	**29**	student 37	10	12	13	**35**
student 54	8	11	10	**29**	student 43	11	14	10	**35**
student 75	12	7	10	**29**	student 49	10	14	11	**35**

student 8	10	11	7	**28**
student 39	9	9	10	**28**
student 62	5	10	13	**28**
student 73	10	9	9	**28**
student 29	10	10	7	**27**
student 34	8	8	11	**27**
student 46	10	5	12	**27**
student 66	9	9	9	**27**
student 5	8	7	11	**26**
student 28	13	5	8	**26**
student 68	9	8	8	**25**
student 16	10	6	8	**24**
student 21	6	9	9	**24**
student 22	11	8	5	**24**
student 38	8	10	6	**24**
student 49	10	10	4	**24**
student 10	6	10	7	**23**
student 15	6	10	7	**23**
student 36	6	9	8	**23**
student 58	11	7	5	**23**
student 63	7	7	9	**23**
student 37	9	4	9	**22**
student 41	9	7	6	**22**
student 57	9	3	10	**22**
student 40	7	7	7	**21**
student 48	6	7	8	**21**
student 65	7	8	6	**21**
student 74	8	5	8	**21**
student 13	9	4	7	**20**
student 24	8	4	8	**20**
student 51	5	6	9	**20**
student 64	8	7	5	**20**
student 71	6	2	12	**20**
student 4	8	4	7	**19**
student11	8	6	5	**19**
student 31	8	6	5	**19**
student 35	8	7	4	**19**

student 53	11	13	11	**35**
student 17	13	9	12	**34**
student 36	10	10	14	**34**
student 61	11	11	12	**34**
student 2	10	11	12	**33**
student 12	10	8	15	**33**
student 28	11	8	14	**33**
student 41	8	11	14	**33**
student 27	14	8	10	**32**
student 45	11	10	11	**32**
student 50	7	13	12	**32**
student 56	10	9	13	**32**
student 57	9	10	13	**32**
student 59	11	12	9	**32**
student 39	11	9	11	**31**
student 48	11	10	10	**31**
student 4	6	8	16	**30**
student 21	11	8	11	**30**
student 22	12	8	10	**30**
student 44	10	9	11	**30**
student 55	8	9	13	**30**
student 35	10	11	7	**28**
student 52	10	9	8	**27**
student11	10	8	8	**26**
student 15	9	7	10	**26**
student 46	8	5	13	**26**
student 60	11	6	7	**24**
student 32	11	11	1	**23**
student 31	11	3	5	**19**
	10,93	10,62	13,05	**34,61**

student 47	8	5	6	**19**
student 23	8	5	5	**18**
student 25	9	3	6	**18**
student 26	9	3	6	**18**
student 43	5	4	7	**16**
student 60	4	5	7	**16**
student 79	5	6	5	**16**
student 81	8	5	3	**16**
student 33	6	5	4	**15**
student 53	3	5	6	**14**
student 44	4	4	5	**13**
student 20	7	4	1	**12**
	8,78	8,01	9,57	**26,48**

N.B. The lines highlighted refer to students with English as FL1

APPENDIX IV

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITE MENTOURI CONSTANTINE

DEPARTEMENT D'ANGLAIS

QUESTIONNAIRE INTENDED FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AT THE ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

Dear Colleague,

Carrying out a survey for my doctoral dissertation on the students enrolled in the department of English, I call upon your help and your teaching experience.

You are kindly requested to answer the following questionnaire. Feel free to add any comment.

The questionnaire won't take you long, so please hand it back as soon as possible.

Thank you for your comprehension.

Mrs Karima Lakehal-Ayat

1. Gender O Male O Female

2. Age (In years) ……

3. What qualifications (academic) do you hold?

4. How long have you been teaching English (including this year)?

Years.....

5. How long have you been teaching English in the university (English Department) (including this year)? Years.....

6. Did you choose your university studies with the intention of becoming a teacher of English?

O Yes O No

7. To what extent do you like your profession?

O Very much O A little O not at all

8. Do you think society values the teaching profession?

O Not at all O Very little O Reasonably O Highly

9. Do you think your students value your work?

O Not at all O Very little O Reasonably O Highly

10. What are the most significant structural changes since you started teaching?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

11. Indicate the challenges which you face as a University teacher of English:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

12. How strongly do you agree with the following?	Agree completely	Rather agree	Rather disagree	Don't agree at all
1. Students tend to depend entirely on their teachers to show them how they should study.	O	O	O	O
2. Students demonstrate a strong commitment in their studies.	O	O	O	O
3. Students are involved in the achievement of their tasks.	O	O	O	O
4. Students demonstrate passive attitudes in the face of learning.	O	O	O	O
5. Students demonstrate organizational skills and responsible time management.	O	O	O	O
6. Students gather information on their own.	O	O	O	O
7. Students show poor learning strategies.	O	O	O	O
8. For exams, students find it unclear what they should know and remember, and what is irrelevant.	O	O	O	O
9. Students favour rote learning.	O	O	O	O

12. In your opinion, what is the level of the classes you teach?

(a)Linguistic competence	Very low	low	adequate	high	very high

(b) If you answered very low, low, or adequate, please answer the following

Listening comprehension	Very low	low	adequate	high	very high
Reading comprehension	Very low	low	adequate	high	very high
Writing production	Very low	low	adequate	high	very high
(c) Cultural awareness	Very low	low	adequate	high	very high

(d) If you ticked "very low" and "low" in the above question, would you please state the main reasons behind. _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

13. What do you think of the new system (L.M.D.)?_____

_____

_____

_____
_____

14. Do you think it will improve students' performance?_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

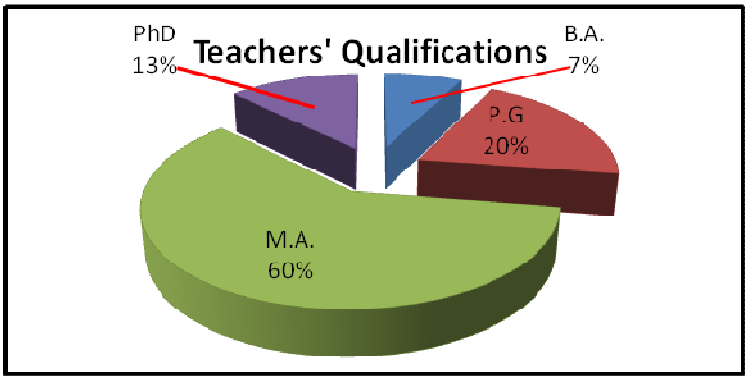
THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COLLABORATION, K. LAKEHAL-AYAT

APPENDIX V

TEACHER'S ANSWERS TO QUESTIONNAIRES

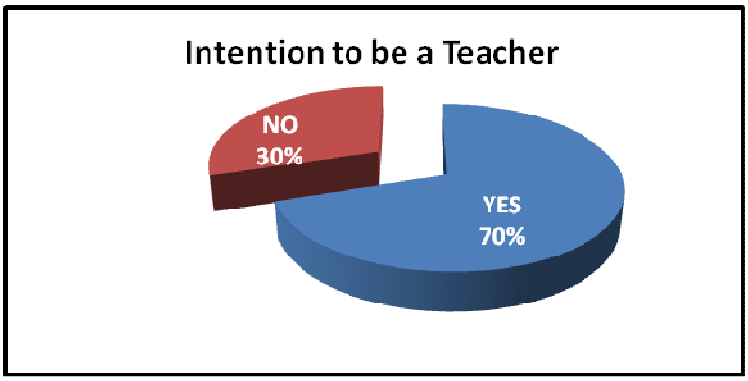
3. Academic Qualifications

B.A.	P.G	M.A.	PhD	Total
3	8	24	5	40
7%	20%	60%	13%	100%



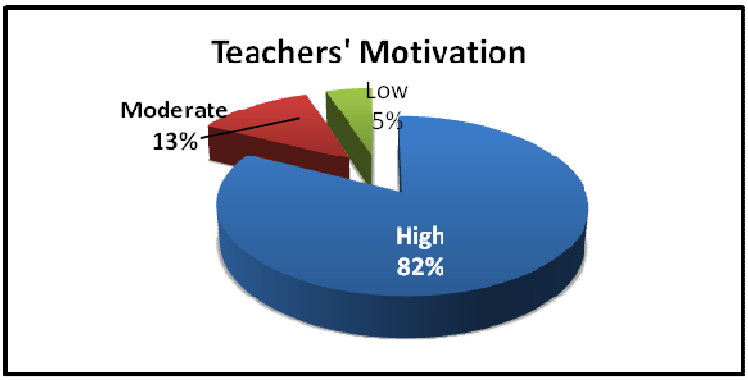
5. Intention to be a Teacher

YES	28	70%
NO	12	30%
Total	40	100%



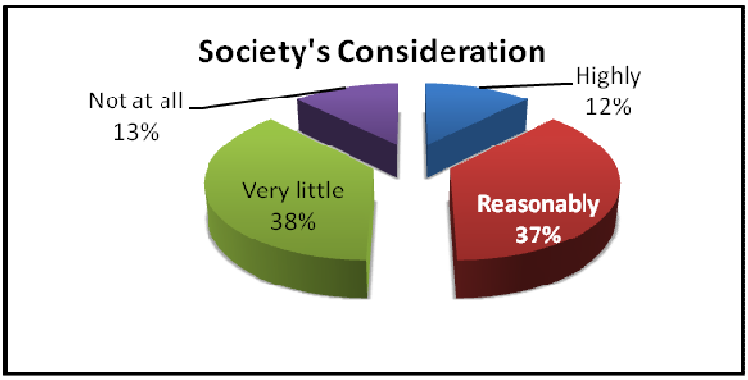
7. Teachers' Motivation

High	Moderate	Low	Total
33	5	2	40
82%	13%	5%	100%



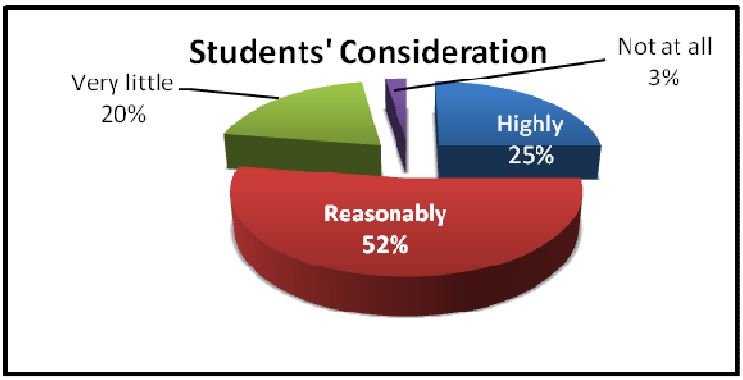
8. Society's Consideration

Highly	Reasonably	Very little	Not at all	Total
5	15	15	5	40
10%	47%	32%	11%	100%



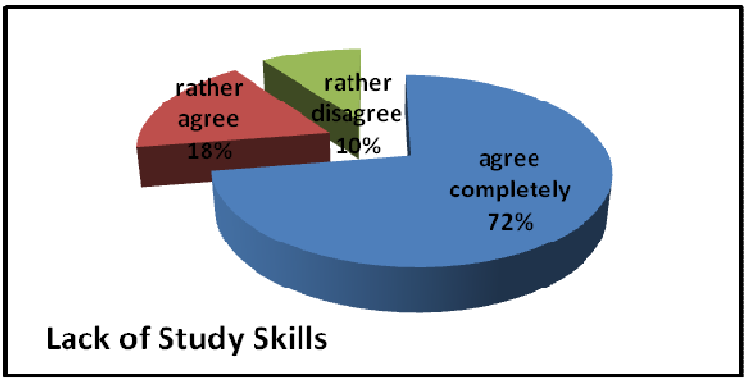
9. Students' Consideration

Highly	Reasonably	Very little	Not at all	Total
10	21	8	1	40
21%	60%	17%	2%	100%



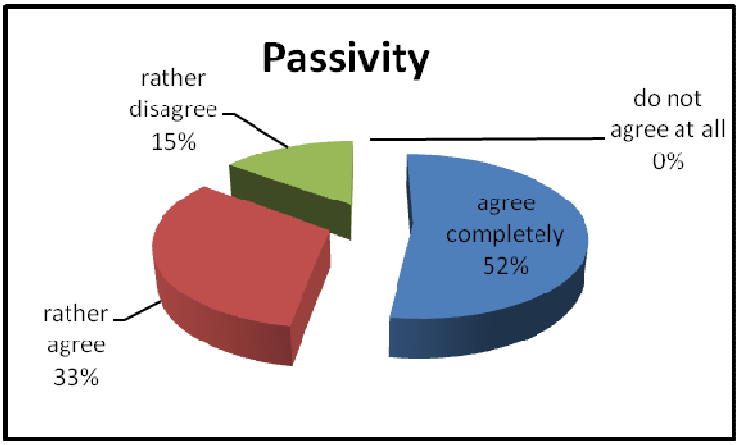
12.1. Students tend to depend entirely on their teachers to show them how they should study.

Lack of Study Skills		
agree completely	29	72%
rather agree	7	18%
rather disagree	4	10%
do not agree at all	0	0%
Total:	40	100%



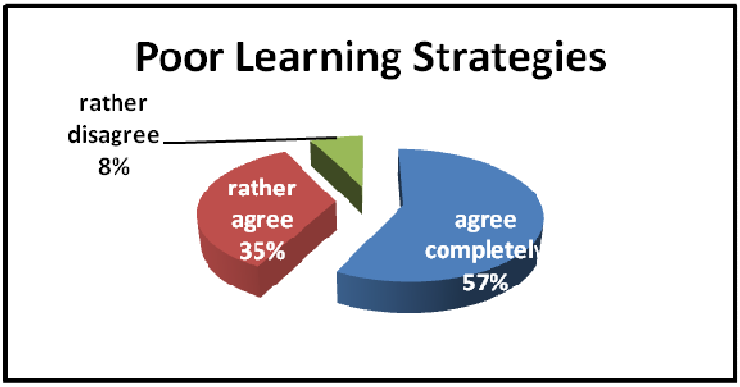
12.4. Students demonstrate passive attitudes in the face of learning.

Passivity		
agree completely	21	**52%**
rather agree	13	33%
rather disagree	6	15%
do not agree at all	0	0%
Total:	40	100%



12.7. Students show poor learning strategies.

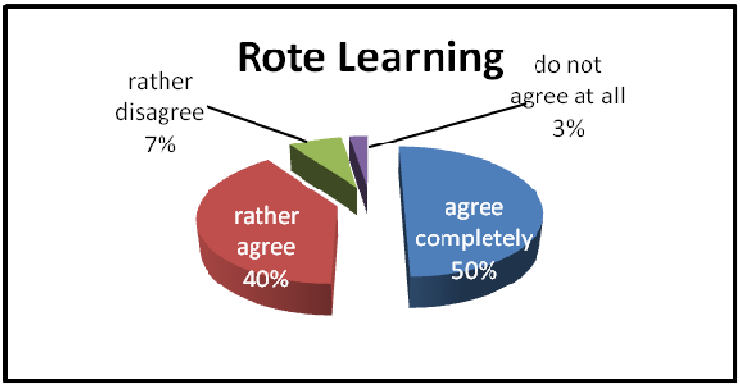
Poor Learning Strategies		
agree completely	23	**58%**
rather agree	14	35%
rather disagree	3	7%
do not agree at all	0	0%
Total	**40**	**100%**



12.9. Students favour rote learning.

Rote Learning		
agree completely	20	**50%**
rather agree	16	40%

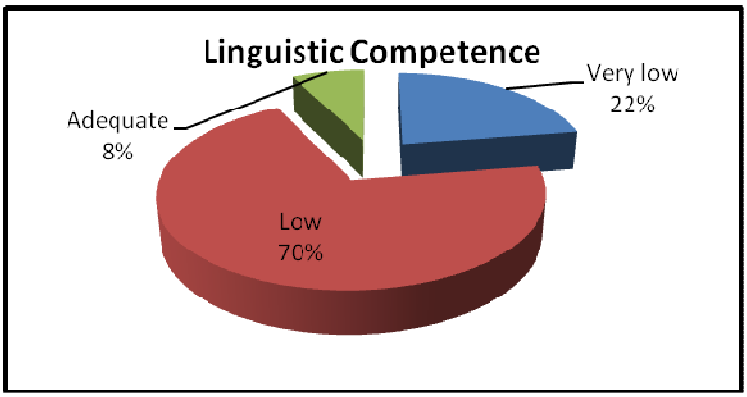
rather disagree	3	7%
do not agree at all	1	3%
Total	**40**	**100%**



13. In your opinion, what is the level of the classes you teach?

a. Linguistic Competence

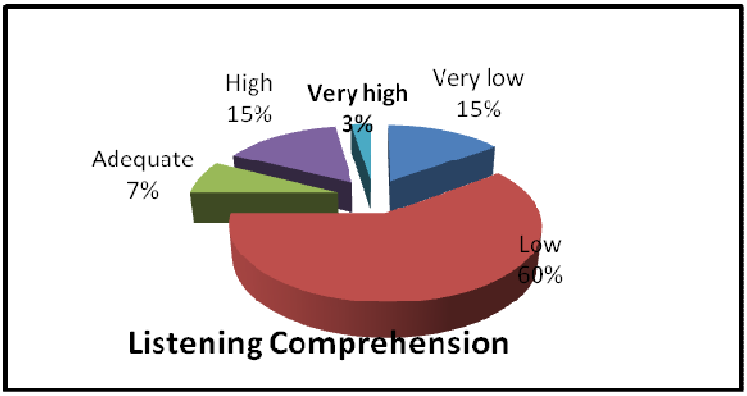
Very low	9	22%
Low	28	70%
Adequate	3	8%
High	0	0%
Very high	0	0%
Total	40	100%



b. 1. Listening Comprehension

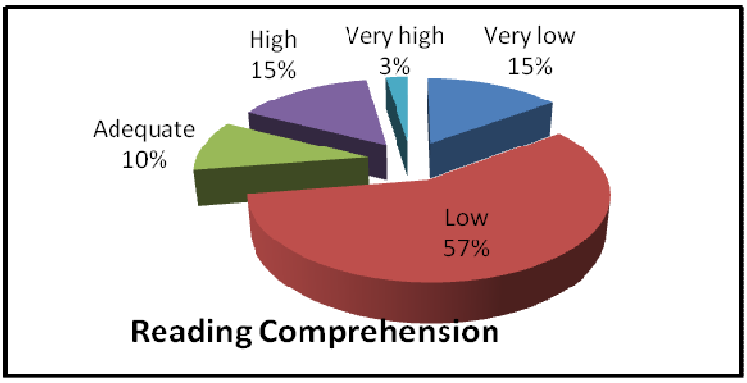
Very low	6	15%
Low	24	60%

Adequate	3	7%
High	6	15%
Very high	1	3%
Total	40	100%



b. 2. Reading Comprehension

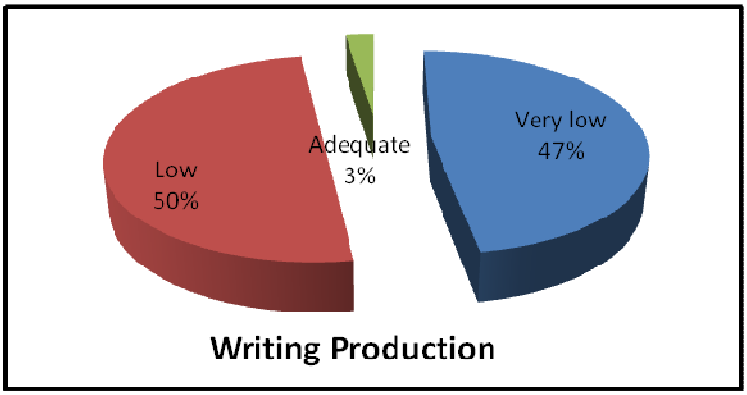
Very low	6	15%
Low	23	57%
Adequate	4	10%
High	6	15%
Very high	1	3%
Total	40	100%



b.3. Writing Production

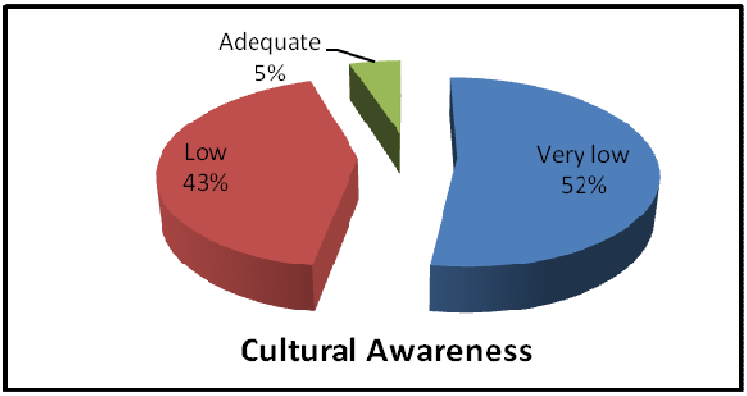
Very low	19	47%

Low	20	50%
Adequate	1	3%
High	0	0%
Very high	0	0%
Total	40	100%



b.4. Cultural Awareness

Very low	21	52%
Low	17	43%
Adequate	2	5%
High	0	0%
Very high	0	0%
Total	40	100%



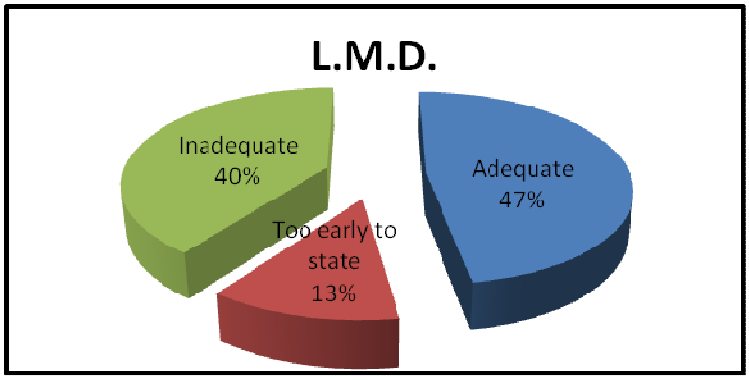
C. Main reasons

Most frequent answers:

- No reading,
- No reading practice in the curriculum,
- Poor pre-university learning (both in writing and speaking),
- Poor level of students,
- High school and University curricula do not match, students come with a poor command of English,
- Poor linguistic and cultural background in the basic and secondary education, lack of motivation for learning and thinking,
- Low input (listening, reading), low social values of education,
- Educational system is weak because of the society's attitude towards learning and reading,
- Students' level is getting lower and lower. Students reach university without enough linguistic background,
- Lack of practice, absence of authentic English and native English environment; no newspapers or magazines related to the students' needs and interests; lack of practice in writing (teachers focus on theory rather than practice); the lack of cultural awareness is due to the absence of reading.

14. What do you think of the new system (L.M.D.)?

	14. L.M.D.	
Adequate	19	47%
Too early to state	5	13%
Inadequate	16	40%
Total	40	100%



As for the question 15, which questions whether the L.M.D. would improve students' performance, twelve teachers, whose answer to the L.M.D. appreciation was "adequate", add that it would be so under conditions:

- Questions as for the seriousness of the implementers,
- Human and material means are provided,
- The system has to be applied correctly,
- The system depends on staffing and other criteria: availability of books, use of multi-media,
- The system fits universities where teaching staff is available and the pedagogical means are sufficient.
- It is rather a political decision which aims at reducing the number of years at university and the number of students.

Otherwise, most answers were negative to this question.

APPENDIX VI

BACCALAUREATE EXAMS

ENGLISH

Baccalaureate Foreign Languages EFL2 1995

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية

وزارة التربية الوطنية — الديوان الوطني للإمتحانات والمسابقات

امتحان بكالوريا التعليم الثانوي – دورة جوان 1995

شعبة : الآداب واللغات الاجنبية — المدة : 3 ساعات

اختبار في مادة اللغة الإنجليزية
ENGLISH PAPER

SECTION ONE : READING COMPREHENSION (7 points)

Read the text carefully then answer the questions.

"People think that it's fun to be afraid just as long as they know that they are, in fact, safe," said Sir Alfred Hitchcock who knew how to mix horror and humour.

Hitchcock was born in London in 1899. He had been interested in the cinema ever since he was twelve years old. He did intend to become an engineer, but found himself in the film industry, starting out as a titles designer for silent films.

Though he began making films in England in the early 1920's, having directed his first film in 1925, it was in America that he achieved such masterpieces as "Psycho" and "The Birds" which remain the classics of the genre. In 1937, he became an American citizen.

Hitchcock's films are so popular and manage to keep the audience on the edge of their seats because, though full of surprises, these films are very carefully planned, down to the last detail. Hitchcock never improvised. He worked for months with his screen writer developing a shot-by-shot outline of a film, using no dialogue whatsoever. When this was done, he knew every shot and every camera angle by heart. Take for example the famous scene in "Psycho" in which a woman is murdered in the shower. There is no real dialogue, and yet the effect on the audience is powerful. Hitchcock had decided to film "Psycho" in black and white. "After all," he pointed out, "who wants to see red blood running down the bathtub?"

Hitchcock managed to create a unique kind of suspense. He manipulates the spectators in such a way that they do more than just watch a Hitchcock film: they actually take part in it.

The Hitchcock we know and the Hitchcock his family knew were two different people. The "real" Hitchcock lived in quite an ordinary house and was married to the same woman until his death for over fifty years. He didn't travel much. In real life, he never dared to take the journeys he had planned. He never even learnt to drive because he was afraid of getting a traffic ticket!

"When I was four," he once told an interviewer, "my father sent me to the police station with a note. It must have been a punishment of some sort, since the policeman shut me in a cell for about five minutes and said that's what they always did to naughty little boys. I've been afraid of the police ever since."

Answer the following questions according to the text.

1) Was Hitchcock American by birth? Justify your answer.
2) When did his interest in the cinema begin?
3) When do people enjoy being afraid, according to Hitchcock?
4) Give words or expressions from the text showing that he planned his films very carefully.
5) What makes his films so popular?
6) How did his private life contrast with the situations shown in his films?
7) What do you think were the consequences of the experience he had very early in life?

SECTION TWO : MASTERY OF LANGUAGE (7 points)

1. Find in the text words, phrases or expressions that are closest in meaning to the following:

a) succeed in (§ 3) b) well-known (§ 2) c) is killed (§ 2)

2. Find in the text words, phrases or expressions that are opposite in meaning to the following:

a) in danger (§ 1) b) ending (§ 2) c) same (§ 4)

3. Complete the second sentence so that it means the same as the ones given.

a) "Do not come back too late," his wife told him.
— His wife told him …
b) "Psycho" was filmed in black and white, yet its impact was powerful.
— Although "Psycho" …
c) We must do everything carefully.
— Everything …

4. Supply the correct form of the verbs in brackets.

a) Try to solve your problem instead of (to ask) for help.
b) By the year 2050, the population of Algeria (to double) perhaps.
c) Thousands of Algerians (to be forced) to leave their homes during the Liberation War.

5. Fill in each gap with one word.

Good manners differ from country to country. Every cultural group has different ways of behaving in various social situations. Some of these are just conventions … 1 … are not important in themselves but which do … 2 … one social group from another. If a person … 3 … goes to a foreign country … 4 … to be accepted, he has to learn … 5 … its social customs.

6. Dialogue Completion : Imagine what A says and complete the following dialogue.

A : …
B : No, I didn't. What kind of film was it?
A : …
B : I don't like horror films.
A : …
B : Detective films.
A : …
B : I find them more relaxing, especially after a hard day's work.

SECTION THREE : WRITTEN EXPRESSION **(6 points)**

Choose one of the following topics.

Topic One : Using the following notes, write a composition of about 120 to 150 words.
People go less and less to the cinema. Several reasons :

— no time
— no or little money
— time taken up by TV
— national production insufficient in quantity and quality
— few good films imported
— cinemas are neither clean nor comfortable
— insecurity
— How can the problem be solved?

Topic Two : Write a composition of about 120 to 150 words to narrate a happy event from your childhood.

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية

وزارة التربية الوطنية — الديوان الوطني للامتحانات والمسابقات

امتحان بكالوريا التعليم الثانوي — (دورة جوان 2005)

الشعبة : آداب ولغات أجنبية — المدة : 3 ساعات

اختبار في مادة الإنجليزية ـــ لغة أجنبية ثانية ـــ

SECTION ONE : READING COMPREHENSION (7 points)

Read the text carefully then do the activities.

The train reached Maritzburg, the capital of Natal, at about 9:00 p.m. Bedding used to be provided at this station. A railway servant came and asked me if I wanted one. "No," said I, "I have one with me." He went away. But a passenger came next and looked me up and down. He saw that I was a 'coloured man'. This disturbed him. Out he went and came in again with two officials. They all kept quiet when another official came to me and said, "Come along, you must go to the van compartment."

"But I have a first class ticket," I said.

"That doesn't matter," rejoined the other. "I tell you you must go to the van compartment."

"I tell you, I was permitted to travel in this compartment at Durban, and I insist on going on it."

"No, you won't," said the official. "You must leave this compartment, or else I shall have to call a constable to push you out."

"Yes, you may. I refuse to go out voluntarily."

The constable came. He took me by the hand and pushed me out. My luggage was also taken away. I refused to go to the other compartment and the train steamed away. I went and sat in the waiting room, keeping my handbag with me, and leaving the other luggage where it was. The railway authorities had taken charge of it.

I began to think of my duty. Should I fight for my rights or go back to India, or should I go on to Pretoria without minding the insults, and return to India after finishing the case? It would be cowardice to run back to India without fulfilling my obligation. The hardship to which I was subjected was superficial. Only the symptom of the deep disease of colour prejudice. I should try, if possible, to root out the disease and suffer hardships in the process.

So I decided to take the next available train to Pretoria.

MK GANDHI 'An Autobiography, or the Story of my Experiment with Truth'

1. Are there any indirect quotations in the text? If so, how many?

2. Read the text then complete the following table on your answer sheet.

Name of the passenger: *Gandhi* — His race :

His country of origin : — His destination :

His problem on the train :

3. Here are the answers to some questions related to the text. Write the questions.

a) In the waiting room.

b) The railway authorities.

c) My duty.

4. Answer the following questions according to the text.

a) Why did the passenger refuse to share the first class compartment with Gandhi?

b) Did Gandhi go back to India or to South Africa after the incident?

c) Why was Gandhi travelling to Pretoria?

5. What do the underlined words – they (§1) and it (§2) – refer to in the text?

6. Choose the general idea of the text.

a) Gandhi's biography.
b) Gandhi on his way to Pretoria to fight for his rights.
c) Gandhi's adventure.

7. Match the words and their synonyms.

a) reached	1) obligation
b) was permitted	2) struggle
c) duty	3) arrived at
d) fight	4) allowed

SECTION TWO : MASTERY OF LANGUAGE **(7 points)**

1. Supply punctuation and capitals where necessary.

on the first day of january 1863 all persons held as slaves within any state shall be forever free abraham lincoln said

2. Which nouns can be derived from the following verbs?

a) to free b) to segregate c) to defend

3. Rewrite sentence (b) so that it means the same as sentence (a).

1(a). Ragtime was played everywhere in the USA in the early 1900's by both black and white musicians.
1(b). Both black and white .....
2(a). Dr King said, "I accept this Nobel Prize with faith in America and faith in mankind."
2(b). Dr King said that ....."

4. Join the two sentences into one using the link word provided. Make any necessary changes.

a) King used non-violent means of action during his struggle. Gandhi used non-violent means of action during his struggle. (like)
b) The whites marched behind the black leaders. They believed in human rights. (because of)
c) Black people were powerless. They struggled for their rights. (although)

5. Fill in the blanks using only four of the eight words in the following list.

words – sentences – day feast – in – where – looked watched

President Lyndon Johnson declared April 9th the day of Dr King's funeral in Atlanta a national ....1... of mourning. Millions of Americans ...2... the funeral on television. King was buried in Atlanta, the city ...3... he was born. On his grave stone are carved the ...4... from his most famous speech, "Free at last! Free at last! I am free at last!"

6. Reorder the following words to make a coherent sentence.

/ for / activities / and / was / to / Gandhi / prison / sent / his / ideas/

7. Classify the following words according to the pronunciation of their final 'ed'.

struggled colonised – developed arrested.

SECTION THREE : WRITTEN EXPRESSION **(6 points)**

Topic One : Using the following notes, write a composition of about 150-200 words.

- Mahatma Gandhi's biography
- Studied Law in London in 1888
- Left for South Africa
- Jailed many times
- Shot dead by a Hindu in 1948
- Born in Portland (India) in 1869
- Practised Law in India till 1893
- Back to India in 1915
- Believed in non-violence and truth

Topic Two : In no more than 80 words, write a summary of the reading passage.

بالتوفيق	الصفحة 2 / 2	انتهى

امتحان بكالوريا التعليم الثانوي (دورة جوان 2005)

الشعبة : علوم الطبيعة والحياة + علوم دقيقة + تكنولوجيا. المدة : ساعتان

اختبار في مادة الإنجليزية لغة أجنبية ثانية

SECTION ONE: READING COMPREHENSION **(8 POINTS)**

Read the passage carefully then do the activities.

Not all Americans are free to celebrate holidays at all times. Whether they must work or not depends upon the importance of the holiday, the demands of seasonal work, holidays agreed to in union contracts and other factors. Many newspaper reporters, radio broadcasters, hospital workers, police, fire fighters and workers who provide other essential services must work on holidays. All working Americans, however, do get vacation time. Most take their vacations during the summer months as is common in other nations. The amount of vacation time varies greatly, but most people get one or two weeks a year, after working for the same company for a year or more. More vacation is given after longer periods of work.

This brief description of holidays shows that for some of these special times, the customs of all or most Americans are very much the same. For others, however, the customs can vary greatly. Those who feel strongly about the labour unions, for example, see Labour Day as a day on which to demonstrate labour solidarity in a public way. For others, Labour Day means a day off to go for a ride in a car, to go for a final summer swim or to hold a family get-together.

Activity 1. Choose a title to the text.

a) American Celebrations
b) Holidays in America
c) American Workers

Activity 2. Answer these questions according to the text.

a) American holidays depend on several factors. Mention two of them.
b) Do all Americans behave in the same way during Labour Day? Justify your answer.

Activity 3. In which paragraph is it mentioned that in some kinds of jobs the Americans must work during holidays?

Activity 4. Here are the answers to questions about the text. Write the questions.

a) During the summer months. (§1)
b) More vacation time. (§1)

Activity 5. Find in the text words that are closest in meaning to:

a) differs (§1) b) usual (§1) c) short (§2) d) traditions (§2)

SECTION TWO: MASTERY OF LANGUAGE (8 POINTS)

Activity 1. Supply punctuation and capitals where necessary.

the american student spends six hours a day five days a week 180 days a year in school children in the united states start pre-school at the age of four

Activity 2. Which adjectives can be derived from the following nouns?

a) life b) length c) child

Activity 3. Every sentence contains one mistake only. Write the sentence without the mistake.

a) Money bring money.
b) Nowadays, people do not like read.

Activity 4. Combine the following pairs using the connector provided.

a) Reading the newspaper / the telephone (ring) (while)
b) You get to London / (start) speaking English (as soon as)

Activity 5. Read the passage and delete the unnecessary words.

In during their free time, the students spend much time watching TV. Students they also listen to music.

Activity 6. Classify the following words according to the pronunciation of 'ed'.

worked depended reported showed

/ d /	/ t /	/ id /

SECTION THREE: WRITTEN EXPRESSION (4 POINTS)

Choose one of the following topics.

Either Topic One

Using the following notes, write a composition of about 80 to 120 words.

- Algerian holidays : mostly in summer
- A few Algerians work - only necessary services
- They spend holidays : seaside – weddings – with family
- Holidays still expensive (hotels food)
- A lot stay at home.

Or Topic Two

Write a composition of about 80 to 120 words on the following topic.
Do you prefer to spend your summer holidays in your country or abroad? Give your reasons.

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية

وزارة التربية الوطنية — الديوان الوطني للامتحانات والمسابقات

امتحان بكالوريا التعليم الثانوي (دورة جوان 2005)

الشعب : آداب وعلوم إسلامية، آداب وعلوم إنسانية. — المدة : ساعتان

اختبار في مادة الإنجليزية (لغة أجنبية ثانية)

Section One : reading Comprehension (07 pts)

Read the following text carefully and do the activities.

Human Population Growth

Population growth is not simply due to an increase in births but to the excess of births over deaths. Improvements in public health and medicine around the world encourage population growth by enabling people to live longer.

Many economists say that economic development is the key to slowing population growth. In developing nations, where many people farm for a living, there is an economic advantage to having several children. When societies become economically and technologically advanced, however, modern agricultural techniques enable the production of the same amount of food using the labor of fewer people. In such societies, large families are unnecessary. As a result, family size drops. This so-called demographic transition has helped reduce the growth of populations in the wealthier, industrialized nations.

Unfortunately, a rapidly expanding population can by itself prevent a developing nation from improving its economy. A nation's people can become poorer when its population growth is higher than its economic growth.

1 – How many indirect quotations are there in the above passage ?

2 – Are these statements true or false? On your answer sheet write T or F next to the sentence letter.

a) The population increases because the birth rate is lower than the death rate.

b) People live longer thanks to progress made by public health and medicine.

c) Many economists believe that economic development will increase population growth.

d) Large families are not needed in developed countries.

3 – In which paragraph is it mentioned that mechanized farming has helped to produce more food with less farmers ?

4 – Answer these questions according to the text.

a) Why does the number of births exceed the number of deaths ?

b) How can economic development help slow population growth ?

5 – Find in the text words or phrases that are closest in meaning to the following :

a) caused by (§ 1) b) motivate (§ 1) c) decreases (§ 2) d) quickly (§ 3)

6 – Find in the text words or phrases opposite in meaning to the following :

a) decline (§ 1) b) drawback (§ 2) c) poorer (§ 2) d) lower (§ 3)

Section two : Mastery of language (08 pts)

1 – Supply punctuation and capitals where necessary.

overpopulation continues to deplete croplands fisheries water resources and energy supplies.

2 – Which verbs can be derived from these nouns ?

production – excess – industry - starvation

3 – Give the correct form of the verbs in brackets.

a) Couples (desire) to have children since antiquity.

b) They have agreed that when they get married, they (practise) family planning.

4 – Rewrite sentence (2) so that it means the same as sentence (1) :

a) 1 – " The population of the industrialized nations is ageing," an expert says.

2 – An expert says .....

b) 1 – We must draw a clear dividing line between contraception and abortion.

2 – A clear dividing line .....

c) 1 – Children are seen as a blessing in the Third World.

2 – People .....

d) 1 – An economist said the medical advances had considerably lowered the mortality rate.

2 – An economist said, " ..... ."

5 – Fill in each grap with ONE word so that the text makes sense.

The human population is .....(a)..... in many regions simply .....(b)..... people lack awareness of .....(c)..... control or the ability to limit the size of their .....(d)..... .

6 – Classify the following words according to the pronunciation of final " ed ".

developed – improved – limited – advanced.

/d/	/t/	/Id/

Section three : Written expression (05 pts)

Choose ONE of the following topics :

Either One: This is a conversation between A an B. Complete what B says.

A : I think getting many children is a gift from God.

B :

A : But the economic crisis is not going to last for very long.

B :

A : I don't agree. When I get older, they will help me.

B :

A : If they don't get any job, God will help.

B :

Or two :

In about 80 words, write a summary of the reading passage on page 1 .

بالتوفيق	الصفحة 2 / 2	انتهى

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية

وزارة التربية الوطنية — الديوان الوطني للامتحانات والمسابقات

امتحان بكالوريا التعليم الثانوي — (دورة جوان 2005)

الشعبة : آداب ولغات أجنبية — المدة: 3 ساعات

اختبار في مادة الإنجليزية ـــ لغة أجنبية أولى ـــ

SECTION ONE: READING COMPREHENSION **(7 points)**

Read the text carefully then do the activities.

Uthongathi

A little school near South Africa's tropical east coast port of Durban is breaking just about every racial taboo the white government here has enforced previously at local schools. And it seems to be a great success.

The school is called Uthongathi, a Zulu word meaning "a place of significance". For the staff and students – who hope it will be an example to the rest of the country – **it** most certainly is a significant place.

Uthongathi, built with private funds, is completely and calculatedly multiracial. It was the first school set up at the outset to be multiracial, though many other private schools have become so. Furthermore, in a country where co-ed schools are the exception, and still often regarded as a risky experiment, Uthongathi is a co-ed school.

The founders of Uthongathi have not even bothered to apply for a government subsidy. Instead, **they** look to individual and corporate donors for help, especially scholarships for black students who have the ability to do well but whose parents do not have enough money to pay the relatively high school fees.

Several black students interviewed said their main reason for wanting to be at Uthongathi was the high educational standards it encourages. A 13-year-old black girl said, however, that the school provided not only a "good education" but also a "lovely atmosphere" because of the way the students are allowed to mix freely.

For the white students, there seems to be a sense of adventure at being here, and a sense that they are parts of an important educational experiment. One girl said that she enrolled "because it's a new experience for the whole of South Africa and I just felt it was the place to be." She added, "It's just like we're not only being taught school work but also about life." Headmaster Thompson says that parents are also benefiting from Uthongathi. School events have given many of them their first opportunity to meet socially on equal terms with people of a different race.

He says he hopes it will serve as a model and as a catalyst to help transform apartheid education. "I know we're just a drop in the ocean, but somebody has to start somewhere."

The Christian Science Monitor, January 1986

1. Is the reading passage

a) a letter? b) a poem? c) a newspaper article?

2. Say whether the statements below are 'True' or 'False'.

a) Education in the new school is free.

b) The school has been founded to fight racism.

c) Uthongathi is a State school.

3. Answer the following questions according to the text.

a) Why has the new school been opened?

b) Where does the money for the school come from?

c) Is this co-ed school a successful experience?

4. Find in the text words that are close in meaning to:

a) dangerous (§3) b) permitted (§5)

5. Find in the text words that are opposite in meaning to:

a) public (§3) b) receivers (§4)

6. What do the underlined words - it (§2) and they (§4) - refer to?

SECTION TWO: MASTERY OF LANGUAGE **(7 points)**

1. Supply punctuation and capitals where necessary.

right in the middle of the party barbara had an urge to be alone she had a moment of doubts

2. Which adjectives can be derived from the following nouns?

a) adventure b) race c) finance

3. Rewrite sentence (b) so that it means the same as sentence (a).

1(a). One girl said that she had enrolled in Ukhungathi because she felt it was the place to be.
1(b). One girl said, "..... ....."

2(a). Co-education is still regarded as a risky experience.
2(b). People still .....

4. Give the correct form of the verbs in brackets.

a) Until last year, we never (to fly) to Paris.
b) If I (to be) President, I would give all youngsters jobs.

5. Re-order the words below to make a coherent sentence.

are / for / they / although / some / business / machines / drawbacks / good / have

6. Classify the words below according to the pronunciation of the final 'ed'.

hoped / called / enrolled / wanted / added

'd'	't'	'id'

SECTION THREE: WRITTEN EXPRESSION **(6 points)**

Write a composition of about 150 – 200 words on one of the following topics.

Topic One.

The writer gave an example of how racism could be banned. Would you suggest other solutions to this problem which still exists in many parts of the world?

Topic Two.

Here is part of a conversation. Complete it.

A: Do you think racism may disappear one day?
B: .....
A: But the problem still exists today.
B: .....
A: But are there any solutions?
B: .....
A: How can inter-racial meetings solve the problem?
B: .....
A: Yes. That's possible.
B: .....
A: .....

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية

وزارة التربية الوطنية — الديوان الوطني للامتحانات والمسابقات

امتحان بكالوريا التعليم الثانوي والتقني
(دورة جوان 2005)

الشعب : تقنيات المحاسبة +شعب التعليم الثانوي ما عدا آداب ولغات أجنبية — المدة : ساعتان

اختبار في مادة الإنجليزية (لغة أجنبية أولى)

SECTION ONE : READING COMPREHENSION (08 points)

Read the passage carefully, then do the activities .

At 3 :29 P.M. on October 15 , 1978 , a team of ten women accomplished something that no other group had ever done . The American Women's Himalayan Expedition was the first American climbing team to reach the summit of Annapurna 1, the tenth-highest mountain in the world . Arlene Blum was the leader of the expedition . Her stirring account of that adventure in her book , Annapurna : A Woman's Place , is a highly acclaimed story . But why should someone , man or woman , want to do something like that ?

" For us , the answer was much more than " because it is there " , says Blum ." We all had experienced the exhilaration , the joy , and the warm camaraderie of the heights , and now we were on our way to an ultimate objective for a climber – the world's tenth highest peak – But as women , we faced a challenge even greater than the mountain . We had to belive in ourselves enough to make the attempt in spite of social convention and two hundred years of climbing history in which women were usually paid little attention". Blum talks about how women had been told for years that they were not strong enough to carry heavy loads , that they didn't have the leadership experience and emotional stability necessary to climb the highest mountains . After a climb of Mount Mc Kinley in 1970 , her personal faith in the abilities of women was confirmed .

From " The leadership Challenge " by Jim Kouges
and Barry Posner Jossey Bass Publishers , San Francisco , 1995 .

1. The reading passage above is :
   a/ a newspaper article
   b/ an advertisement
   c/ an extract from a book .
2. Are these statements true or false ? On your answer sheet , write the sentence number and " T" or " F" next to it .
   a/ The expedition started at 3.29 on October 15th 1978 .
   b/ The ten women-climbers have become famous because they spent the longest time climbing .
   c/ Annapurna 1 is one of the ten highest mountains in the world .

3. Answer the following questions .

a/ Was the height of the mountain the only difficulty the women had to face ? Justify your answer .

b/ What feelings had the team shared when climbing ?

c/ How long have women been underestimated in climbing ?

d/ When did Arlène Blum start thinking that the Annapurna expedition was possible for her team ?

4. Choose and write the two characteristics which show that Arlène Blum is a true leader :

a / She believed in the team's abilities

b / She set objectives for the team .

c / She wrote a book about the expedition

d / She ignored what people think of women climbers .

5. Find in the text words closest in meaning to the following :

a / praised (§ 1)

b / goal (§ 2)

6. Find in the text words opposite in meaning to the following :

a / sadness (§ 2) b / disbelief (§ 2)

SECTION TWO : MASTERY OF LANGUAGE (08 points)

1 - Supply punctuation and capitalization where necessary :

did you see those two ladies over there they were just saying how disappointed they were

2 – Which adjectives can be derived from these nouns ?

Nouns	Adjectives
a/ height	-
b/ adventure	-
c/ attention	-
d/ faith	-

3 – Rewrite sentence (b) so that it means the same as sentence (a)

1. a / "No woman has ever attempted to climb the Annapurna", he declared

b / He declared that … … … … … … … … …

2. a / Women's abilities are being confirmed by their successes in different fields

b–/ Their successes … … … … … … … … … …

4 – Gap fillings : Fill in the blanks so that the text makes sense .

Angela Davies became famous in the early 1970s when she campaigned to free three black prisoners in California .

At that time she … 1 … a professor of philosophy at California university . She was … 2 … as a terrorist in New York in autumn 1970. … 3 … supporters launched a campaign to free her , and … 4 … June 1972 , she was found (to be)… 5 … of the charges made against her .

… 6 … went on to campaign for other political prisoners and for racial equality of all peoples .

5 - Put the verbs in bracket into the correct tense :

a – They (start) work on this building three years ago .

b – We (not see) each other for a long time , but he immediately recognized me !

c – I doubt that he (can / finish) the work before next holidays .

d – We (to hold) a meeting when they broke the news .

e – This factory (to employ) more than two thousand workers in the past .

f – We shall inform them when they (to arrive)

6 – Classify the following words according to which syllable is stressed

a. campaign b. everything c. enjoy d. combination

1st syllable	2nd syllable	3rd syllable

SECTION THREE : WRITTEN EXPRESSION (04 points)

Choose one of the following topics .

Either 1 : using the following notes,write a composition of about 80 to 120 words .

Algeria has many interesting places which could attract tourists . Choose a place , and write a description which could be published in a tourist guide . Include the following points : location , historical background , people , places where to stay (hotels and youth hostels) , amenities , places to visit and why , means of transport , special advice if any .

or 2 : Write a composition of about 80 to 120 words on the following topic :

Write a biography of someone you admire (a sportsman, a sportswoman, a scientist , an actor or singer etc) , and say what qualities you admire most in him / her .