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**REFLECTIONS UPON THE BACCALAUREATE EFL  
TESTS AS A SOURCE OF AND A MEANS FOR  
INNOVATION AND CHANGE IN ELT IN ALGERIA**

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of Doctorate in Applied Linguistics and TEFL*

**Presented by:**

**Miss. Nawal BENMOSTEFA**

**Supervised by:**

**Pr. Smail BENMOUSSAT**

**Jury Members:**

<b>Dr. Ali BAICHE</b>	<b>MCA</b>	<b>President</b>	<b>University of Tlemcen</b>
<b>Pr. Smail BENMOUSSAT</b>	<b>Pr</b>	<b>Supervisor</b>	<b>University of Tlemcen</b>
<b>Dr. Radia BENYELLES</b>	<b>MCA</b>	<b>Internal Examiner</b>	<b>University of Tlemcen</b>
<b>Pr. Fewzia BEDJAOU</b>	<b>Pr</b>	<b>External Examiner</b>	<b>University of Sidi Bel Abbas</b>
<b>Dr. Zouaoui MERBOUH</b>	<b>MCA</b>	<b>External Examiner</b>	<b>University of Sidi Bel Abbas</b>
<b>Dr. Faiza DEKHIR</b>	<b>MCA</b>	<b>External Examiner</b>	<b>University of Saida</b>

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*To my lovely parents*

*To my dear brother Ibrahim*

*To my adorable sisters Fatima Zohra and Sarah Imène*

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## Key to Abbreviations and Acronyms

**ALTE:** Association of Language Testers of Europe

**AM:** Année Moyenne (Middle School)

**AS:** Année Secondaire (Secondary School)

**BAC:** Baccalaureate

**BEF :** Brevet d'Enseignement Fondamental

**BEG:** Brevet d'Enseignement Général

**BEM:** Brevet d'Enseignement Moyen

**CAE:** Cambridge Certificate in Advanced English

**CALL:** Computer-assisted Language Learning

**CAPES:** Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement du second degré

**CBA:** Competency- Based Approach

**CBT:** Computer-based Test

**CLIL:** Content and Language Integrated Learning

**CLT:** Communicative Language Teaching

**CPE:** Cambridge Certificate of Proficiency in English

**CRT:** Criterion- Referenced Test

**EFL:** English as a Foreign Language

**ELT:** English language Teaching

**ELTM:** English language Teaching Methodology

**ELPT:** English Language Proficiency Test

**EPT:** English Placement Test

**FLL:** Foreign Language Learning

**ESL:** English as a Second Language

**FCE:** Cambridge First Certificate of English

**GVC:** Global Virtual Classroom

**IBID:** Ibidem

**iBTOEFL:** Internet-based TOEFL

**ICT:** Information and Communications Technology

**IELTS:** International English Language Testing System

**ILTA:** International Language Testing Association

**ITE:** Technological Institutes of Education

**JALT:** Japan Language Testing Association

**KET:** Cambridge Key English

**LCE:** Learner-Centred Education

**NCTM:** National Council of Teachers of Mathematics

**NRT:** Norm Referenced Test

**PEM:** Professeur D'Enseignement Moyen (Middle School Teacher)

**PES:** Professeur D'Enseignement secondaire (Secondary School Teacher)

**PET:** Cambridge Preliminary English Test

**SNAPEST:** Syndicat National Autonome des Professeurs de l'Enseignement Secondaire et  
Technique

**TEFL:** Teaching English as a Foreign Language

**TENOR:** Teaching English for No Obvious Reasons

**TESL:** Teaching English as a Second Language

**TOEFL:** Test of English as a Foreign Language

**UNESCO:** United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

**USA:** United States of America

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## ABSTRACT

This thesis serves to introduce the issues and concerns of language testing at large within the Algerian context. In line with such ‘worries’, a two-fold question, the what-to-teach question and the how-to-teach question, *de facto*, is brought to the forefront as it forms an integral part of the platform underlying the problematics of the present research work. Undoubtedly, teacher knowledge and the oft-held beliefs are of paramount importance in the success of the teaching-learning process. The knowledge that teachers have and the beliefs they hold about teaching and learning are likely to affect their abilities to adopt innovative and change-oriented approaches. Admittedly, it is the teachers who have the most meaningful role in initiating the culture of innovation and change (bottom-up), a process that cannot be implemented by policy decisions alone (top-down). The assertions made, the proposals advocated and the suggestions put forward initially represent the visions of players (teachers and students), stakeholders (administration and the general public). These were collected through interviews, structured, semi-structured and unstructured, and formal and informal discussions. Worth-noting here is that the Baccalaureate, as a high-stakes exam, has always been used as a lever of change as well as a valid tool for providing information to several concerns in the field of education in general and to ELT in particular; this being our direct concern. In this context, EFL Baccalaureate exams can provide a clear and vivid picture of ELT in Algeria. From a broader angle, the Baccalaureate examination gives an evidence of the results of the learning environment. Surprisingly, perhaps, this idea has become a common belief among teachers, school administration and students’ parents that high pass rates in the Baccalaureate reflect undeniably the teacher success and his competence and the seriousness of the educational institution. In effect, the present work strives to come up with an ensemble of ideas making up a model that may serve as a conceptual framework for better testing that hopefully will positively affect the teaching-learning process of EFL at different levels of the education system. In conclusion, it should be noted that many of the ideas developed in this doctoral thesis grew out of a Magister dissertation which was presented by the researcher in June 2009.

## GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The post-war period has noticed an increased demand for education worldwide and the field of language learning is no exception. The notion of quality education, as a prime objective of the *World Declaration on Education for All* scheme, put forward in the *Dakar Framework for Action* (2000) organized under the aegis the UNESCO and the *Global Monitoring Report 2005: The Quality Imperative* has been brought to the forefront. In line with educational quality, it is worth recalling that language learning, be it second or foreign, has always been much more preoccupied by the general principles and guidelines relating to the different methodologies underlying language teaching. A brief survey of the literature explicitly and emphatically depicts the fact that language teachers in general have been much more concerned with how much their learners know about a language, knowledge about language, i.e. linguistic competence as originally used by Chomsky, and how well they use the language, knowledge of the language, i.e. communicative competence as originally used by Hymes. Yet, the learner's linguistic competence, coupled with communicative competence, to focus just on these two aspects of language learning, for the time being, can effectively be assessed nowadays by means of appropriate types of test in a given teaching/learning situation.

Worth noting here the two-fold question, the what-to-test question and the how-to-test question, constitutes in effect one broad question that reflects the equal importance of both sub-questions. They undeniably, so to speak, form the cornerstone of any language testing activity. Thus, it is to this end that this research work takes up general considerations of what a teacher ought to know about language testing within the field of foreign language learning in general and EFL in particular. These theoretical constructs and their practical applications will form the general lay-out of this research; they will be dealt with under different headings. On the other hand, the second key term that deserves its fair share of attention is closely related to the role of the teacher; the EFL teacher is seen as highly significant in terms of the successful implementation of innovation and change. One of the first things teachers need to modify is their deadly routinized way of teaching. If teachers want to act as effective “agents of change” based on their own self-evaluation and self-improvement, they will be soundly equipped to exercise control over their teaching and to critically question educational reforms. Innovation and change cannot be

achieved in the field of ELT without first and foremost a total involvement of both teachers and learners (button-up process).

Innovation and change in the curriculum are necessitated by factors that relate to political, social, economic, cultural and technological drives. The advent of democracy and the economic reforms initiated in Algeria in the 1990s coupled with the opening of the country to the outside world have brought about some noticeable changes over the last 20 years. The education system has ostensibly changed since then in order to meet the emerging needs and demands. Looking ahead to the challenges of the globalization era, one should wonder about what professional qualities will be needed for successful implementation of change. Of particular interest among the traditional qualities are flexibility and creativity. Our rapidly changing society requires flexibility, the ability to adapt oneself to new ideas and experiences in order to meet the complex demands of preparing teachers for the 21<sup>st</sup> century- skills<sup>1</sup>. Teachers should work together to gain the benefit of one another's experiences and insights. This collaborative form of working will certainly have a positive effect conducive to innovation and change. Next, creativity, the capacity to create in an imaginative way processes and schemes, is a cardinal attribute by which professional competence can be developed and improved further. Once again, this attribute can add a further layer to innovation and helps consolidate the process of change. Just as these attributes of character are desirable today, so in the future they will surely continue to be decisive in determining skilled teaching.

Back to the field of language testing, researchers such as Alderson, Bachman, Spolsky and Skehan, to mention just a few, virtually all admit the fact that language testing has come of age as a discipline in its own right within applied linguistics. This demarcation of language testing will certainly contribute to the implementation of successful change. The field of language testing has much to offer in terms of theoretical, methodological and practical accomplishments to researchers and practitioners, particularly in language learning and language teaching that are likely to lead to the expected results, that is, to

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<sup>1</sup> The concept of 21<sup>st</sup> century-skills has been associated with different definitions across different studies. One study used the term to include skills such as teamwork, leadership, critical thinking and creativity (Mitchell et al., 2010). Another study used it to define pedagogy such as problem-based learning and experiential learning (Bell, 2010). Anyway, the locus of studies in this millennium is shifting towards skills acquisition, rather than knowledge accumulation, for autonomous self-directed and life-long learning (Perkins, 2004).

innovation and change. Overall, effective testing approaches can act as a promoter of educational change.

Testing is increasingly becoming an issue of concern. One of the preoccupations of language testers in the past has been investigating the nature of language proficiency; in other words, to test for the sake of testing, not rather for the sake of introducing innovation and implementing change. Language testing can, at best, be regarded as resource materials for teaching. In 1980 Oller's *unitary proficiency hypothesis* seemed to be the dominating concept in the literature of language testing (Oller, 1979). This hypothesis which claimed that language proficiency consisted of a single, global ability was widely accepted. This hypothesis clearly shows its original aim.

This research work will approach the task of ELT language teaching/testing in Algeria from a number of different views, past, present and what would be the developments in the future. These considerations will be viewed from the perspective innovation and change. The rhetorical organization will consist of a review of the achievements in language testing, a discussion of the problematic areas and suggestions of areas in need of increased emphasis to assure developments of language testing formats. This triangulated orientation will be reflected in the most important public examination, the Baccalaureate, the key to university entrance, taking into account the many-sided aspects of learning-teaching. A close analysis of the EFL Baccalaureate exams will form the core issue of the present research work. The study will be oriented towards whether or not these exam formats can be exploited to reach the expected results, innovation and change in the field of ELT.

In Algeria with its highly centralised education system, the Baccalaureate exam is actually a high-stakes test, i.e. test that has important consequences for individuals, institutions and the community at large<sup>2</sup>. It is used as a source of and a means through which innovation and change are to be implemented. Also, this formal assessment is often used as instruments of control in the school system. However, what seems to matter most is the rate of success in this most important public examination to the extent that teachers as well as the school administration measure the success of their pupils Baccalaureate

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<sup>2</sup> High-stakes tests are called so because their results *“are seen – rightly or wrongly- by students, teachers, administrators, parents, or the general public, as being used to make important decisions that immediately and directly affect them”* (Madaus, 1988 p. 87).

exams. Arguably, this nationwide official exam may offer a lot of potential for our ELT teachers to assess their students' language proficiency and abilities in English and by the same token diagnose their strengths and weaknesses. Such a professional assessment, if properly carried out and adequately oriented, will systematically lead to innovation and change. Language educators and researchers in Algeria have always considered testing as the 'poor relation' of the teaching-learning process and it is regrettable to say that the promotion of an effective testing system has never been taken seriously. In sum, it is widely acknowledged that the EFL testing system needs to be reconsidered in Algeria.

Subsequently, the present study would hopefully offer some proposals and suggestions to serve as a guiding conceptual framework for generating a "learning path" conducive to innovation and change for EFL teachers, language inspectors, researchers, programme coordinators, policy-makers and others in the field of education. In sum, then, ELT professionals should not view testing as a necessary evil, but rather as a positive experience emphasizing its importance in the overall language teaching/learning process. Such an experience can contribute, support and even enhance the teaching/learning process by encouraging both teachers and learners to aim higher and by stimulating further teaching and learning to respond positively to the challenges of a globalised world, *globalisation oblige*. Taking on these challenges will require a new approach to educational reform.

The academic insights of the boundless relations between language testing and language teaching/learning, on the one hand, and the introduction of innovation and implementation of change, on the other, represent the core of our attempt to provide, hopefully, satisfactory answers to the following research questions:

- How can innovation and change in the field of ELT be implemented and introduced making use of the Baccalaureate exams as a platform for reflection?
- What criteria are to be defined and to be followed in order to achieve the expected results, innovation and change in ELT?
- What is to be done to urge teachers to act as effective agents of change based on their own self-evaluation and self-improvement?
- How can English Language Education in terms of teaching and testing be geared towards skilled teaching?

These four questions can be combined into a single broad, yet down-to-earth question: How can teachers be equipped with the ability and authority to criticize input from other professionals and academics and evaluate its appropriateness or acceptability, to use Ur's (2001) terms? The answer to this question will govern the general lay-out of this research work. The ultimate aim of this dissertation is to highlight the importance of testing and the effects it can bring to the field of ELT in terms of innovation and change. Thus, investigation throughout this work will hopefully attempt to provide arguments for the research hypotheses that can be formulated as follows:

- The Baccalaureate exams can serve as a springboard to introduce innovation and implement change in the field of ELT.
- A set of criteria can be defined and followed by EFL teachers to respond positively to the demands required in order to achieve the expected results.
- Teachers can act as agents of change from a bottom-up perspective making use of their experience as practitioners.
- English Language Education, as a discipline, can benefit enormously from testing in general.

The present research work tries to demonstrate to what extent the aforementioned hypotheses can empirically be validated. Our aim in dealing with such a “necessary evil” to language teaching/learning is to search for what language teachers as researchers and practitioners need to know about language testing in order to introduce innovation and implement change. This would help them devise appropriate language testing items on the one hand, and know more about our ELT testing procedures and their inherent shortcomings on the other hand. The implementation of appropriate teaching/testing may help our students improve their “learning path” in general and move towards a betterment of their overall English language proficiency in particular. The organization of the work in four chapters mirrors the interconnectedness between the research questions and their related hypotheses.

The first chapter stresses the importance of the right to basic education, not least quality education as put forward by experts in the field of education; this being of utmost importance to bettering individual's welfare and strengthening national economic growth. It also reviews the literature on educational innovation and change in order to serve as a

springboard to those interested in undertaking a bottom-up teacher-initiated innovation in ELT. Next, the chapter emphasizes the importance of English as a global *lingua franca* in the light of the relentless globalization process, in addition to its shift in status from a language of wider communication, on equal footing as Spanish, French, Portuguese and German, to that of a global one. This demarcation has accentuated the role of the EFL teacher. The last part of the chapter is wholly devoted to the role of the teacher in a globalized world; fair share of attention is given to the notion of change agency, i.e. the teacher as agent of change.

The second chapter provides a survey of the theoretical insights into language proficiency testing from a diachronic view, or to use Spolky's terms, i.e. from the "pre-scientific" period to the "integrative-sociolinguistic" in passing by the "psychometric-structuralist" one, or to use Morrow's metaphor, i. e. *the Garden of Eden, the Vales of Tears and the Promised Land* . It also highlights the close relationship between language teaching and language testing and put forward an ensemble of criteria or requirements that are *sine qua non* to qualify a test as a "good" test. Next, it gives an exhaustive list of the different types of tests used in FLL, not least in English language education. The last part of the chapter put focus on a valuable language learning device and language testing tool that dates back to the end of the Middle Ages: dictation. Its use has always been the subject of much discussion and heated and endless debates among language teachers.

The third chapter deals with the current situation and issues characterizing English language education at the teaching-testing level. Additionally, the chapter discusses the status of French, as first foreign language, and English, as a second foreign language, and highlights their importance in the light of the globalization process for technological advancement, economic development and commercial expansion. Next, it provides a comprehensive portrait of the English Language Teaching Methodologies, i. e. the methods and approaches, which have significantly marked the teaching of English from the post-independence period to the present time, in other terms from the grammar-translation method to the most recent competency- based approach. In this section, a large part of the discussion is devoted to Communicative Language Teaching-Testing. The chapter ends with a sad and less promising report; virtually all informants in both Middle and Secondary schools make reference to passing exams as the main driving force that leads them to study English.

The fourth and last chapter can be regarded as the crowning touch to the present research work's major concern. It first tries to highlight the importance of the Baccalaureate exam, as a high-stakes national exam, in the Algerian society from a socio-political standpoint. Passing the Bac, so to speak, ensures a pedagogical place at university and opens the doors to certain professional and vocational training. Next, the chapter gives a clear and vivid picture of the power and authority of high-stakes exam, as levers for change, and their 'manipulation' by policy-makers for purposes intended to introduce educational reforms, such as to control curricula, to propose and/or to promote textbooks and to implement a new methodology. The last part of the chapter is entirely devoted to the literature dealing with the different definitions and antagonistic description of the washback phenomenon, i. e. the influence of testing on the teaching-learning process. Other related aspects are also dealt with in detail in this chapter.

Arguably, language testing has become a core issue in language learning programmes. A substantial literature has developed giving language testing a demarked orientation within the field of applied linguistics. From a research perspective, the analysis and interpretation of test results can serve as a gold mine to better understand the true nature of language proficiency. While from a pedagogical perspective, feedback from language tests can provide useful information about the process of language teaching-learning. These perspectives, to a larger extent, confirm the oft-held belief that in the field of language learning, teaching and testing can be viewed, metaphorically speaking, as two sides of the same coin.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

# **INNOVATION AND CHANGE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION**

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**CHAPTER ONE**

**INNOVATION AND CHANGE IN**

**ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION**

**1.1. Introduction**

The post-war period has witnessed an increased demand for education worldwide. With compulsory education, children are offered more chances to become functionally literate and behave as world citizens. A related assumption is that access to education provides an equal starting point for all children to eventually demonstrate their scholastic merit. Additionally, since the advent of globalisation in the late 20<sup>th</sup> century, the need for better education which would respond positively to the demands of the phenomenon has been accentuated, not least English Language Education. Admittedly, English is becoming a key factor in the development of the nations globally and the information technology has shortened the distance between nations. This urge has given way to the notion of ‘high-quality education’; this has created a new goal for education. Meritocracy has become the standard model in virtually all parts of the world. This quality-oriented dimension would lead us to assert that now more than ever language testing plays a pivotal role, not least EFL testing.

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This chapter aims to present a somehow clear vision of the notion of ‘quality education’ as advocated by UNESCO experts<sup>1</sup>. Such dimension is of paramount importance as it contributes to bettering individuals’ welfare and strengthening national economic growth. It also sheds light on some aspects of ELT teaching and testing in Algeria. Language testing practices in the past are also reviewed. Attention will be paid to innovation and change in foreign language learning and in the English language teaching methodologies. Reforms will have their fair share of consideration. Also dealt with in this chapter the factors leading to innovation and change, and finally ends with answering the fundamental question: What does it mean to be an agent of change?

### **1.2. Quality Education**

Although the right to education has been reaffirmed on many occasions since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was proclaimed in 1948<sup>2</sup>, many international institutions are silent about the qualitative dimension of learning. This is due to the fact that in many countries the expansion of schooling is happening at the expense of quality<sup>3</sup>. In Algeria this substantial access to education, with the plain policy of providing universal, free public education, has been accomplished at the expense of the quality of education being provided. Achieving full and active universal participation, however, depends fundamentally on the quality of education that is transmitted to the learners. People in all countries expect schooling to help children develop creatively and emotionally and acquire the skills, values and attitudes necessary for them to lead productive lives and become world responsible citizens. As Bolitho (2012, p. 35) has rightly pointed out, ***“In educating the citizens of tomorrow, we are told, we should be preparing them to cope with change***

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<sup>1</sup> Green noted ironically and provocatively that quality education is simply ***“the education that the rich provide for their sons”*** (Green, 1980 p. 120).

<sup>2</sup> The right to education is one of the human rights proclaimed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948): 1. Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit. 2. Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace. (Universal Declaration of Human Rights, art. 26/1 and 26/2).

<sup>3</sup> The EFA goal of universal education implies not only that all children have access to school and complete it but also, and equally importantly, that they receive an education of good quality (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2005, p. 2). In Algeria the rate of compulsory education is 98% for pupils aged 6 and more than 95% for those aged between 6 and 15 (see Appendix IV).

*in our increasingly globalised world*". Many countries are striving to guarantee all children the right to education, or to *basic education*<sup>4</sup>, to use a UNESCO's term, yet the focus on access often overshadows attention to quality. As Barrett *et al.* (2006, p. 2) note, *"While the universal provision of 'basic education' has been considered a major improvement for the individual and society in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, both in today's context and its interpretations it remains heavily contested"*. Education for All cannot be achieved without improving quality, and any policy aiming at such objective must also provide favourable conditions, non-threatening atmosphere and a supportive environment. According to UNESCO (2004, p. 2), *"Policies must ... assure decent learning conditions and opportunities"*. Overall, quality determines how much and how well children learn and the extent to which their education translates into a range of personal, social and developmental benefits.

### **1.2.1. Quality Imperative**

Two main principles underline most attempts to define quality in education: the first identifies learners' cognitive development as the major explicit objective of all education systems. Accordingly, the success with which systems achieve this is one indicator of their quality. The second emphasizes the role of education in promoting values and attitudes for responsible citizenship and in nurturing creative and emotional development. Better education contributes to higher lifetime earnings and sounder national economic growth, and helps individuals make more informed choices about fertility and other matters important to their welfare (Education for All, 2005). This has mobilized the international community to renew its commitment to the Education for All scheme and engaged stakeholders worldwide in programmes designed to ensure access to basic education for all learners. Hence, in virtually all countries of the world basic education is compulsory and state-funded.

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<sup>4</sup> Proficiency in reading, writing and basic arithmetic, the three 'R', remains the prime goals of basic education, i. e. core competencies such as literacy and numeracy. Analogically, basic education provides the foundations on which the house or structure of one's choosing can be solidly built.

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The World Declaration on Education for All (1990) and the Dakar Framework for Action (2000) – the two most recent United Nations conference declarations focusing on education – recognize quality as a prime condition for achieving Education for All. The Dakar Framework affirms that quality is ‘at the heart of education’<sup>5</sup>. It commits nations to providing primary education ‘of good quality’, and to improving ***“all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills”***<sup>6</sup>. Better learning places emphasis on the dynamics of the teaching /learning process. Policies for better learning must focus on the teaching profession, learning time, pedagogy and learning materials.

It is noteworthy that the World Bank Report (2008) severely criticized Education in the Arab World<sup>7</sup>, which Algeria is an integral of it. The Report notes, however, that the countries in question continue to use a more traditional model of pedagogy, for example, repetition and rote-learning<sup>8</sup>, copying from the blackboard, acquisition of declarative knowledge at the expense of procedural knowledge (see Appendix I), out-dated curricula and standardized high-stakes national tests, adoption of teacher-centered pedagogy leading to little interaction between teacher and learners. Typically, curricula and textbooks are centrally developed to ensure that they are the same for all students of each grade. Even innovative initiatives aiming at improving learning outcomes have a centralized and top-down management structure.

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<sup>5</sup> Dakar Framework for Action (2000) Goal 2

<sup>6</sup> Dakar Framework for Action (2000) Goal 6

<sup>7</sup> EFA Global Monitoring Report (2005, p. 1) notes that ***“This region [Arab world] as a whole has made significant progress over the last decade in terms of school access and retention. Education quality poses a challenge: an enormous gap exists between the number of pupils graduating from schools and those among them mastering a minimum set of cognitive skills. Yet, achieving education for all, which is essential to a wide range of individual and development goals, fundamentally depends upon the quality of education available.”*** In the same line of thought, it is reported that, ***“... gaps exist between what education systems have attained and what the region needs to achieve ... MENA countries continue to lag behind many comparator countries, ... education systems do not produce the skills needed in an increased competitive world. Unemployment is particularly high among graduates, and a large segment of the educated labor force is employed by governments ... the education systems in the region need to follow a new path of reforms ”*** (MENA World Bank Development Report, 2008, pp. 1-2).

<sup>8</sup> In many high-stake exams, learners’ success is determined by their ***“ability to reproduce fixed bodies of knowledge”*** (Schweisfurth, 2011, p. 423); this quotation can be roughly and jocularly translated into what rote-learning means in our educational context: ***‘Your goods have been given back to you’***.

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Additionally, many education specialists argue that the traditional curricula, originally developed for the industrial age, is no longer effective in the information age of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Mitchell et al., 2010). The mismatch between education and labour market needs tends to widen further the gap given the rapid changes that Algeria's socio-economic structures is undergoing as she strives to make the transition from the industrial age to the information age. A simple examination of the daily technologies utilized today such as cell phones, iPads, video communications and many more, all of which are considered basic tools today, highlights the metamorphosis in how societies and economies function in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (El Sebai, 2006). Rotherham and Willingham (2009) state that in many parts of the world the current curricula are preparing students for jobs that are likely not to exist by the time they graduate.

It is further noted that Arabic language, history, civics and religious studies dominate the curriculum over math, sciences, technology and foreign languages. This, according to the World Bank, has led to a disparity between education and the job market affecting the countries' development objectives. In today's world, professional skills, i.e. teaching skills, research skills, critical thinking and management skills, and social skills, i.e. communication skills, interpersonal skills, teamwork skills, strategic competence, rather than the ability to perform routine tasks, have become essential for productivity. Pedagogical methods adopted worldwide incorporate inquiry-based learning and adapt teaching to the learning capacity of individual students. An education system in which high drop-out and repetition rates are so prevalent implies that the students are not being adequately prepared to advance towards subsequent stages of education. Thus, the region still needs to reshape its education systems to face up to a number of new challenges. A sample of these challenges includes learner-centred pedagogy, flexible curricula, skills-based assessments and providing technological resources (Emes and Cleveland-Innes, 2003).

### **1.2.2. Correlates Conducive to Quality Education**

Achieving quality education is largely dependent on the provision of highly qualified teachers. It is logical to state that countries which have achieved higher learning standards have invested steadily and consistently in the teaching profession, not least, raising the status and qualifications of teachers. In many countries, however, teachers' salaries are often too low to provide a reasonable standard of living. On the hand, training

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models for teachers should be reconsidered, in many countries, to strengthen school-based pre- and in-service training rather than lengthening traditional academic pre-service training. Learning or instruction time is another crucial factor of achievement in the context of quality education. The broadly agreed benchmark of 850–1,000 hours of instruction per year for all pupils is not reached in many countries<sup>9</sup>. Many commonly used teaching styles do not meet learners needs and fail ‘to get the message across’. They are often too rigid and rely heavily on rote learning, placing students in a passive role. Many educational researchers advocate structured and eclectic teaching – a combination of direct instruction, guided practice and class, group and individual learning activities – in a child-friendly environment. Finally, the quality and availability of learning materials strongly affect what teachers can do. Lack of textbooks can have a negative impact on learners academic achievements and may be the source of a serious waste of time. The following figure provides a schematic representation of the interplay between the different constituents that are very likely to lead to Quality Education:

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<sup>9</sup> Research shows consistently positive correlations between instructional time and students’ achievement at primary and secondary levels. The average amount of instructional time in the Arab countries stands at 805 hours a year in primary and lower-secondary education. While the mean intended instructional time has increased since the 1980s, it is still well below the broadly agreed benchmark recommended for effective learning, 850 to 1,000 hours (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2005, p. 3).

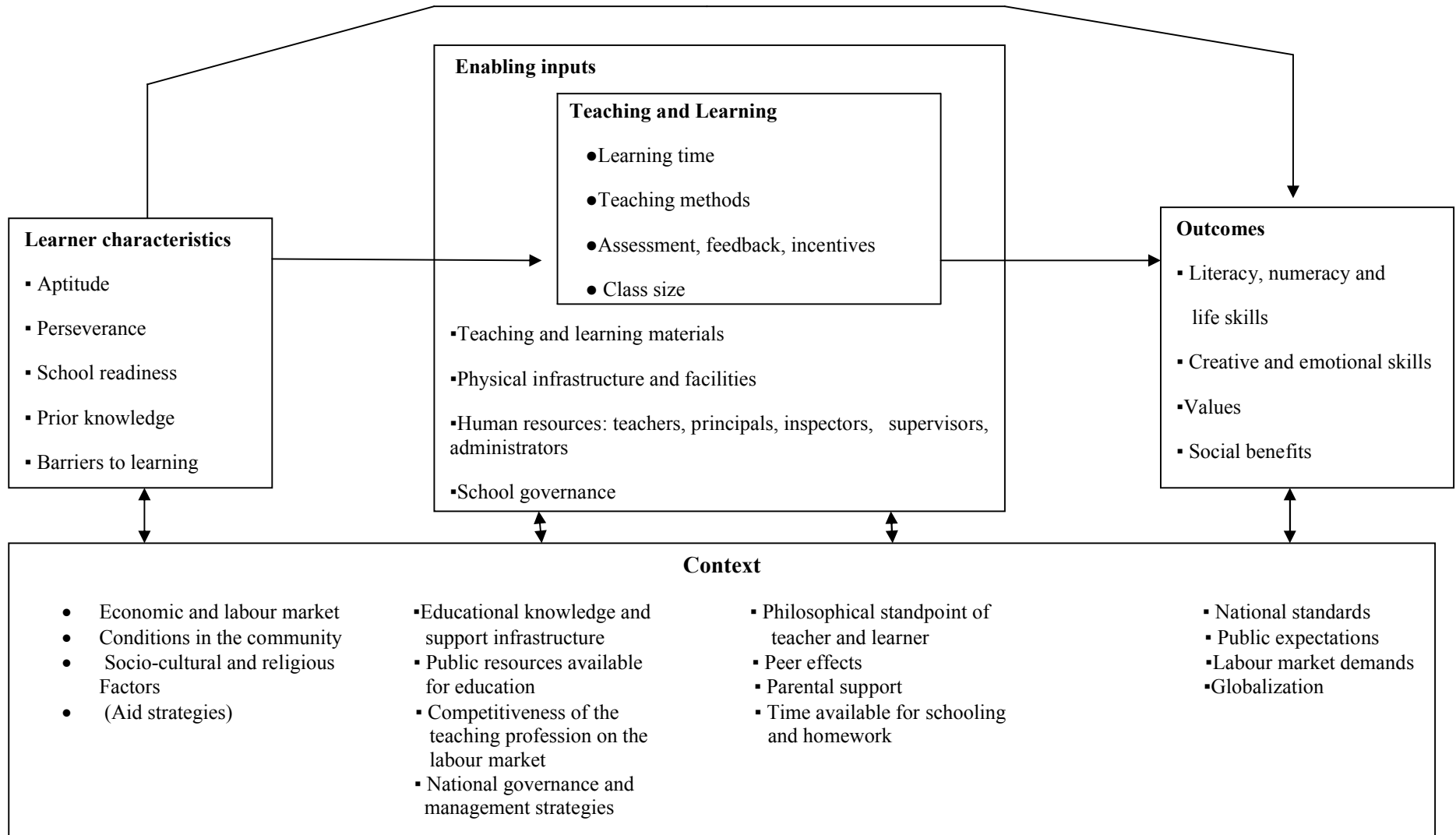


Figure 1.1: A Framework for Understanding Education Quality (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2005, p. 36)

The framework explicitly highlights the interplay between the different variables conducive to quality education. Admittedly, learners do not come to the classroom equal. Family background, gender, ethnicity, pre-school learning experience and other hard-to-measure differences must be taken into account in policies devised to improve quality. On the other hand, the educational context tends to strongly reflect society's values and attitudes. Circumstances ranging from a society's wealth to national policies on goals and standards, curricula and teachers have an influence on quality. Inputs include material resources, i.e. textbooks, learning materials, classrooms, libraries, school facilities and human resources, i.e. managers, supervisors, inspectors and, most importantly, teachers. The teaching-learning process involves what happens in the classroom and the quality of learning outcomes. Pedagogical processes lie at the heart of day-to-day learning. Indicators such as time spent on learning, use of interactive teaching methods and how progress is assessed are among those applied to these processes. Finally outcomes can be expressed in terms of academic achievement, generally through examination performance (EFA The Quality Imperative, 2005).

### **1.2.3. Professional Standards and Quality Education**

According to UNESCO, Education for All cannot be achieved without improving quality. The Dakar Framework for Action reaffirmed the World Declaration's commitment to improve access with quality; this has led many countries to put a great focus on quality in education which has become the hobby-horse of many political speeches worldwide. Researches on the correlates between professional teaching standards and quality education show that the teacher is the ultimate key to improving education (Hargreaves, 1994). However, in education reform there is a danger of overemphasizing the role of the teacher in the learning process. He is not the only one to praise in case of success, nor is he the only one to blame in case of failure; academic achievement or failure of learners does not rest solely upon the quality of the teacher.

Carroll Model (cited in Halloway, 2005, p. 3) presents five key factors as causal links in student learning, namely aptitude, opportunity to learn, perseverance, quality of instruction and ability to understand instruction. In addition, research and common sense maintain that teacher quality and teaching quality are determinants of professional

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standards. That is, most value comes from investing in the people who teach in order to enable good preparation, appropriate qualifications and professional experience and development (Ingvarson cited in Halloway, 2005). It is a truism to assert that no education reform could succeed without the provision on a regular and continuous basis of highly qualified and highly motivated teachers (see Appendix IV). It has also been suggested that ***“successful qualitative educational reforms require a strong leading role by the government, with central importance assigned to the quality of the teaching profession”*** (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2005, p. 3).

Though it is commonly accepted that there is no single universal recipe for improving quality, a minimum package of requirements is needed to do so. The package in question consists of at least four essentials of provisions:

1. A stated minimum of instructional time for learners
2. A safe and healthy place in which to learn
3. Individual access to learning materials
4. Adequately trained teachers in terms of content and pedagogy.

In the same vein, Brock and Mowbrey (1998) provide a list of what they call descriptors for determining professional teaching standards. The list in question presents ‘areas of competencies’ drawing the profile of an effective teacher.

1. Masters of the content and discourse of their discipline from which the subjects they teach are derived.
2. Accomplished in assessing and reporting the learning outcomes of their learners.
3. Manage the classrooms and other teaching sites in exemplary ways.
4. Committed to their students and their holistic development.
5. Reflective practitioners who embody the qualities of the educated person.
6. Leaders of learning communities.

(Brock and Mowbrey cited in Halloway, 1998, p. 4)

Needless to recall despite the many criticisms that can be made to the Algerian school system, Algeria, since independence in 1962<sup>10</sup>, has established a relatively long tradition for a unitary school, which is state-run, non-fee-paying and anti-elitist, where children from different social backgrounds meet in the same school. There are relatively few paid-for private schools in Algeria, most because of rather strict laws regulating this area<sup>11</sup>. However, within the globalization framework, the pursuit of educational quality and high teaching standards has become a professional ideal conducive to the implementation of a teaching paradigm that meets the many demands dictated by the new world order and accounts for the many-sided challenges formulated by the relentless globalization process. From a broader educational view, what can be said about quality education can be extended, yet narrowed down to foreign language learning, not least English language education. For the purposes of the present study, English language education is taken to include not just school and classroom learning activities, but also other organized forms of learning such as, CALL, CLIL, and other learning formats that have fundamentally changed the nature of teaching paradigms<sup>12</sup>.

### **1.3. Innovation and Change in Foreign Language Learning**

Nowadays, the concepts of innovation and change have become commonplace in the field of education. Promoting innovative approaches and disseminating good practices in the teaching and learning of foreign languages in general and English in particular have always been part of the agenda in the in-servicing programmes of teachers. As Karavas-Doukas (1998) puts it ironically, stating that *“change and innovation have become words that policy-makers*

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<sup>10</sup> During the French colonial rule, two types of school distinctly emerged: the European school for the French and European-origin children and the Indigenous school, l'école indigène, for the indigenous population.

<sup>11</sup> In addition to guaranteeing tuition-free education, the 1976 reforms mandated that schooling, at the three levels, be the exclusive domain of the State. Yet, to ease the burden on the State's expenditures, the government passed an executive decree in 2004 which amended the 1976 reforms and overtly allowed for the creation of private educational institutions under strict and well-defined set of regulations.

<sup>12</sup> Kuhn, T. S. in his book, *The structure of scientific revolutions*, (1970) describes a paradigm as a set of principles and rules broadly accepted by the scientific and professional group involved in a field of activity.

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*seem to love and teachers seem to dread*” (Karavas-Doukas, 1998, p. 26). Before one launches into a discussion of innovation and change in foreign language learning, it would be wiser first to start by having a closer look at the following quotation:

***One of the most fundamental problems in education today is people do not have a clear, coherent sense of meaning about what educational change is for, what it is, and how it proceeds. Thus, there is much faddism, superficiality, confusion, failure of change programs, unwarranted and misdirected resistance, and misunderstood reform.***

(Fullan quoted in De Lano et al, 1993, p. 1)

This quotation clearly states that understanding of the concept itself, and ways of implementing innovation is of utmost importance in educational settings.

The term innovation has been defined in various ways throughout the mainstream literature on education innovation. Etymologically speaking, the word ‘innovation’ comes from the Latin word ‘innovare’, which means to change to something new, i.e. it involves the implementation of new ideas. The Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (1994) defines *innovation* as, making changes, introducing new things, new techniques, ideas and *change* as any act of making something different. Thus, ***“any deliberate effort or decision to adopt new aims (or ends) and new methods (or means), perceived as new and intended to bring about improvement, is a decision for innovation”*** (White, 1988, p. 136). As White points out, the emphasis is on the notion of ‘newness’. However, what seems to be new and innovative in one area, could be commonplace in another. At the pedagogical level, ***“curricular innovation is a managed process of development change whose principal products are teaching (and/or testing) materials, methodological skills, and pedagogical values that are perceived as new by potential adopters”*** (Markee, 1997, p. 46). Where does, however, the difference in meaning lie between innovation and change?

### **1.3.1. Innovation versus Change**

The terms innovation and change are mostly used synonymously. However, in educational policy, there is a nuance somewhere between the terms. Thus, change can be defined as ***“predictable and inevitable, resulting in an***

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*alteration in the status quo but not necessarily in improvements*”, whereas innovation *“results from deliberate efforts that are perceived as new, that are intended to bring about improvements, and that the potential for diffusion”* (Stoller, 2011, p. 37). Basically, there is no significant difference between the two terms to the extent to set them apart and treat them differently. All too often, innovation and change are used interchangeably to refer to *“the introduction of innovation brings about changes that need to be managed”* (Murray and Christison, 2011, p. 61). Yet in the context of language learning, there seems to be a shade of meaning.

The term innovation has been defined in various ways throughout the literature on educational change. The most useful working definition is a *“planned or managed change”* (Heyworth, 2003, p. 10). In this way, Heyworth differentiates ‘innovation’ from a spontaneous new idea that might emerge. Put differently, it can be said that a key element embedded in the concept of innovation is the idea of change. In a more practical fashion, innovation refers to the introduction of new ideas, or practices that are designed to improve a specific situation. To unravel the nuance between innovation and change, suffice it to say that, *“innovation is more than a change, although all innovation involves change”* (White, 1987, p. 211). The following article’s title *Managing innovation in English language education* (2009) by Waters and books’ title *Managing Change in English Language Teaching* edited by Tribble (2012) give an illustrative example that the difference between innovation and change is insignificant to the extent that the two terms are used almost synonymously. In what follows, therefore, they will be used throughout this work interchangeably, unless otherwise specified.

The overall conceptualization of the educational innovation management process can be viewed in terms of three broad chronologically related phases:

*Phase I – variously labeled initiation, mobilization, or adoption - consists of the process that leads to up to and includes a decision to adopt or proceed with a change. Phase II – implementation or initial use (usually the first two or three years of use) – involves the first experiences of attempting to put an idea or reform into practice. Phase III – called continuation, incorporation, routinization or institutionalization – refers whether the change gets built in as an on-going part of the system or disappears.*

(Fullan, 2001, pp. 50-53)

Put differently, *imitation* consists mainly of aspects related to (i) rationales for innovation, (ii) innovation characteristics, and (iii) innovation context. *Implementation* considers the ways in which innovation implementation approaches have been conceptualized, i.e. models for attempting to bring about changes. Finally, *institutionalization* is concerned with innovation sustainability (Water, 2009).

### **1.3.2. Innovation and Change**

The diachronic survey of the history of language learning in general is, in effect, a tale of controversies and conflicting views that has led to innovation and change in the pedagogical practices. The nature of language teaching has changed throughout history. New ideas have emerged, new technologies have been invented and new theories have been advocated, all of them converging towards improving the quality of language teaching, motivating learners and making the best of the available resources. Along this path, various methods and approaches have been introduced and implemented with the purpose of improving the learning outcomes and inculcating in the language learner various types of competence, linguistic, communicative, cultural, pragmatic and intercultural competence.

*Research on foreign language teaching and learning has been closely connected with the history of innovation in language teaching. New developments in linguistic theory and language learning theory have repeatedly fostered new methods in foreign language teaching*

(Wagner, 1988, p. 99)

What is more, from the perspectives drawn by the framework of the globalization process, the challenge to innovate and to change, driven by the forces of

technology, has created ample opportunities for educational reform in general and for ELT in-class actors to move away radically or cosmetically from the tenacious hold of the classical methods and aspire for a better future characterized by an expansion of education and a growing interest for quality. As Leu has rightly pointed out, *“Teachers and classroom processes are now front and center, and they generally agreed to be key to education quality”* (Leu, 2005, p. 2).

### **1.4. Innovation and Change in English Language Education**

The terms innovation and change have become commonplace in English language education. Since the mid 1980s, a literature closely relating to the management and evaluation of innovation and change in ELT has emerged allying theoretical principles to practical in-class issues. This has given rise to a large swath of well-documented literature concerning the contextual factors in English language education innovation management. *“Recognising the role of English in today’s world and responding to demands in society, government and educational authorities around the world have, in recent decades, made serious efforts to improve the teaching and learning of English in their schools”* (Knagg cited in Tribble, 2012, p. 3). However, Heyworth (2003) notes that before launching into an implementation of an innovation the following principles, which usually influence decisions either explicitly or implicitly, will have to be taken into account:

- Utility: Is the innovation useful for some clear purpose? i.e. purpose of innovation
- Feasibility: Can the innovation be implemented? i.e. practicality of implementing the innovation
- Economy: What will the innovation cost? i.e. cost of innovation
- Acceptability: Will it be accepted by all the players and stakeholders? i.e. reaction of actors and stakeholders
- Measurability: Can its effect be assessed? i.e. possibility of evaluating the learning outcomes
- Opportunity cost: Are we to compare the effect with the other possible actions? i.e. comparing the effect with other options
- Sustainability: Can the innovation be repeated without special resources? i.e. feasibility of the implementation without project resources

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- Manageability: Can the innovation be implemented with the management resources available? i.e. availability of necessary management tools
- Impact: How does it affect language learning success? i.e. effect on language learning and achievement

(Adapted from Heyworth, 2003, p. 15)

It is critical that in educational reform it is not only the innovation or idea that seems to matter most, but more importantly ***“what really happens in practice”*** (Fullan, 2007, p. 12). This quotation focuses on the actual implementation of change in the classrooms as this fundamentally determines the fate of the innovation in question. In virtually all Algerian state-run schools, most English language teaching still mainly takes place in very traditional ways. Learners<sup>13</sup>, or at least those who are motivated, learn in a class-group with one teacher in a classroom for limited number of hours weekly, usually not exceeding two hours, with resources limited to normal classroom equipment, chalk and talk. In gross, the resources that are supposed to support innovation and back up its implementation in terms of school infrastructure, class size, teaching-learning materials and teaching skills, leave a lot to be desired, and are severely constrained. In this very specific context, Meziane Meriane, national coordinator of the SNAPEST (Syndicat National Autonome des Professeurs d’Enseignement Secondaire et Technique, National Autonomous Syndicate of Secondary and Technical Teaching Teachers) in an interview with the weekly newspaper El Watan (9-15 Sept. 2013) notes that,

***The school is an institution which determines the way the state follows, either the school leads it to progress or to uncertain tomorrows and to obscurantism. One of the factors responsible for the alarming decline of educational standards can be explained by the lack of infrastructures and pedagogical means facilitating learning such as laboratories, libraries ... the reform initiated in 2003 was based on a number of 25 students per classroom. With the delay in the construction of infrastructures and in massing 40 to 45 students per classroom, how can you, in these conditions, implement a differentiated pedagogy that meets the needs of every learner? How can you implement an aid-based pedagogy that provides help***

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<sup>13</sup> Most of the time teachers report of many situations where learners come to the end of six or seven years of English language education with very low language competence at the end. This failure is also due intense formal teaching as noted by Widdowson (1972, p. 15) ***“The problem is that students ... who have received several years of formal English teaching, frequently remain deficient in the ability to actually use the language, and to understand its use, in normal communication, whether in the spoken or written mode.”***

*to those who really need it? How can you assess continually an over-crowded classroom?*<sup>14</sup>

In relation to the innovative idea of introducing the communicative approach in English Language Education, Heyworth (2003, p. 23) contends that **“a traditional classroom is not necessarily the best environment for communicative, task-based language learning – frequently it is shared with other subject areas and the arrangement of the desks is often designed for frontal teacher input than collaborative work”**. The size of the classroom impacts undeniably and considerably the language learning/teaching process. Communicative Language Teaching, in essence, requires a limited number of pupils (cf. 2.7. Holliday’s ‘popular perception’ of Communicative Language Teaching). The number of pupils in Algerian classrooms is relatively very high; in most cases it exceeds forty pupils. There are on average forty-two pupils per class in Middle and Secondary Schools in the area of Tlemcen. **“The pupils sit in four rows on shared benches so that their arms rub and their textbooks and notebooks overlap. There is barely room to walk between the rows of tables”** (Benmoussat, 2003, p. 141).

This ‘extra-load’, so to speak, adds fuel to fire, in other words, it presents the teacher with problems of management and discipline. Regretfully, many teachers explicitly lament their inability to introduce communicative language activities in their classrooms. Language inspectors often complain about the reluctance of many teachers to adopt the communicative approach. In effect, it is very difficult for teachers who usually have to cope with overcrowded classrooms, to implement Communicative Language Teaching based on more egalitarian and decentralized ways of interacting and learning.

On the other hand, the deterioration of the conditions of some classrooms (black-board, tables, chairs, light, etc.) represents serious set-backs. What is more, resources such as school library, duplicating facilities and audio-visual equipment are minimal or non-

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<sup>14</sup> Researcher’s translation; the original text in El Watan reads as follows: « *L’école est une institution qui détermine le chemin que suit l’état, soit l’école le propulse vers le progrès soit vers des lendemains incertains et vers l’obscurantisme. Un des facteurs de la baisse alarmante du niveau scolaire s’explique également par le manque d’infrastructures et de moyens pédagogiques facilitant l’apprentissage comme les laboratoires, les bibliothèques scolaires... la réforme entamée en 2003 était basée sur 25 élèves par classe. Avec le retard dans la construction des infrastructures, en entassant les élèves à 40, voire 45 élèves par classe, comment voulez-vous dans ces conditions appliquer une pédagogie différenciée qui s’adapte à chaque enfant? Comment voulez-vous appliquer une pédagogie de l’aide qui soutient ceux qui en ont réellement besoin? Comment évaluer de façon continue une classe surchargée?»*

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existent in many schools. This implies that there is a heavy use of the blackboard and no other audio-visual aids are employed. Heyworth (2003, p. 10) also notes that ***“any discussion of change in language education cannot restrict itself to consideration of what is desirable, but must address the question of whether a proposal is feasible (and useful) and, if so, how it can be organised in the most economical and efficient way possible”***. In overall terms, a desirable outcome and a feasible proposal are the key criteria conducive to an efficient and effective implementation innovation in practice. Eventually, as Fullan (2007, p. 13) argues ***“planned change attempts rarely succeed as intended”***.

Accordingly, in the 1980s the Algerian educational authorities made relatively heavy investments in projects and programmes designed to improve the teaching and learning of English in all middle and secondary schools, with the focus usually being on implementing learner-centred pedagogy through Communicative Language Teaching. Seminars, workshops and study days were organised regularly to disseminate the underpinnings of Communicative Language Teaching. In-service training regrouping compulsorily EFL teachers were scheduled periodically to give them opportunities to improve and develop their practical teaching as well as to inculcate the benefits of learner-centred teaching.

It is a truism to assert that any project is constructed around goals. The investments of resources are justified in close rapport with the desired outcomes and project initiatives are designed to achieve these goals (Kiely, 2012). However, the investments, human, material and financial, to teach communicatively did not appear ***“to have produced the changes to established patterns of classroom interaction to accord with new curriculum guidelines or to have raised student achievement as their funders intended”*** (Hayes, 2012 p. 48). Paradoxically, the grammar-translation method, despite the many criticisms that have been made to it, produced excellent results, yielded high academic standards and proved very efficient on many aspects of language learning - knowledge about the language. Many teachers, with long experience in the field of ELT, still cling tenaciously to the classical methods, mainly the grammar-translation method and the structural approach. Cynically, Schweisfurth (2011, p. 419) notes that ***“the history of LCE [Learner-Centred Education] in different contexts is riddled with stories of failures grand and***

*small*". This raises the issue related to the endless pedagogical debate on positivism versus constructivism<sup>15</sup>.

Admittedly, the process of introducing change is rather a daunting and complex task. Any attempt to introduce innovatory ideas requires effort, resources and cost. Seemingly, this proverb-question imposes itself *de facto* in this context: Is the game worth the candle? Translated into pragmatic terms: Is the desired need for change so great that it is worth the effort involved? The answer to problematic question lies in the following table:

$C = (abd) > x$	C= change
	a= level of dissatisfaction with the status quo
	b= clear or understood desired outcome
	d= identified practical first step to achieving the desired outcome
	x= cost of changing

Table 1.2. *Formula of Readiness for Change (Heyworth, 2003, p. 28)*

### 1.5. Issues in EFL Innovation

Probably the most comprehensive study of innovation in language pedagogy is to be found in Stoller's (1994) study of innovation. The adoption of an innovation is largely dependent on how the nature of the innovation is perceived by the stakeholders. In more technical terms, whether or not these perceptions fall within the framework of what Stoller (2009) calls 'the zone of innovation'. In other words, is the innovation within the zone of innovation? The attributes or parameters operating in that zone of innovation may either facilitate or hamper the implementation process of the innovation in question. According to Stoller (2009), the following parameters constitute the zone of innovation:

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<sup>15</sup>Two different concepts relate to the question of quality in education: positivism and constructivism. *"Positivist orientations to learning emphasize the acquisition of facts, while constructivist orientations emphasize the interpretation of facts and the construction of knowledge. Until very recently, education systems in most countries have been based firmly on positivist principles, featuring the teacher at the center of the instructional process transmitting information through 'chalk and talk' to students, primarily for the purposes of memorization. Since memorizing information is no longer regarded as adequate learning, and analytical skills are increasingly in demand, many countries have recently adopted reforms or new paradigms of teaching and learning based on constructivist principles"* (Leu, 2005, p. 26).

- Explicitness, i.e. whether adopters are clear about exactly what the innovation involves
- Complexity, i.e. whether the innovation is neither completely simple nor too complex
- Compatibility, i.e. whether the innovation is sufficiently compatible with past experiences and current practice
- Visibility, i.e. whether the innovation will increase the visibility of the organization positively
- Flexibility, i.e. whether the innovation is sufficiently flexible for some variation in implementation to be possible
- Originality, i.e. whether the innovation is so novel that adopters do not understand it.

(Adapted from Murray and Christison, 2012, p. 63)

The shift in status of English from an international language to that of a global<sup>16</sup> one is regarded as the main factor conducive to innovation and change in English Language Education in Algeria and world wide. A good working knowledge of English is seen as a basic skill necessary for organisations to step into the global market and for individuals wishing to improve their employment prospects and engage with a wider world (Knagg, 2012). Murray and Christison, 2012) give an outline of what can be regarded to be an innovation in the field of ELT, with a focus on the different contexts in which innovation in English language education might be required and the issues which are considered to be relevant for innovation initiatives. The issues in question fall under the following headings: (1) teacher knowledge and belief, (2) quality and content of teacher education programmes, (3) print, multimedia and teacher-developed materials, and (4) public and political perception of language teaching. In itself the account offers all those whose wish is to improve the ELT situation at various levels, teaching, learning and testing, a practical outline of the possible areas which deserve their fair share of attention when proceeding to implement an innovation.

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<sup>16</sup>It is to this end that it is worth nothing, “*A language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country ... To achieve such a status, a language has to be taken up by other countries in the world. They must decide to give it a special place within their communities*” (Crystal, 2003, pp. 3-4). Conversely, to be considered an international language, the language is de-linked from its original setting in terms of country or culture and therefore belongs to those who use it.

### **1.5.1. Teacher Knowledge and Beliefs**

It is commonly agreed that teacher knowledge and beliefs are of capital importance to the success of the teaching-learning process, that is, they have a significant impact on learner performance. The knowledge that teachers have and the beliefs they hold about teaching and learning are likely to affect their abilities to adopt innovative approaches, and there is no need to recall that ***“teachers are the linchpins in the implementation process”*** (Murray and Christison, 2012, p. 65). In other words, As Leung (2004) notes, it is the teachers who have the most meaningful role in instigating the new culture [innovation and change], a process that cannot be induced by policy decisions alone. However, any innovatory procedure all too often requires a reculturing<sup>17</sup> and retooling on the part of the teachers so that they can work in new ways. Reculturing usually manifests itself through the oft-held expressions: *“Sorry, but that wouldn’t work in my classroom.” “It won’t work”. I told you it wouldn’t work.”*

What is more, knowledge of a language and knowledge about a language, i.e. use and usage, to use Widdowson’s (1998) terms are necessary to effective teaching conducive to improved learning outcomes. Language use and language usage coupled with a pedagogical knowledge<sup>18</sup> are *sine qua non* conditions in the sense that they play a critical role in the implementation success of an ELT innovative initiative. This, however, should be accounted for by the educational authorities in charge of introducing innovations in English language education. As to the preparation of the teacher a prime requisite is, obviously, mastery of the English language in the broader sense of the word, i.e. knowledge of the linguistic, communicative, pragmatic and cultural dimensions of the language. Although this seems to a truism that requires no further discussion, yet there are in our schools teachers whose knowledge of English falls far short of this requirement. Worse still, some teachers do not meet even the minimum standards for entry into the teaching profession. Wilkins quotes a study of language teaching methods positing that ***“results of research on teaching methods in all subjects generally showed that method was less important than the teacher’s competence —which in turn depended very much***

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<sup>17</sup> Fullan describes ‘reculturing’ as the process by which ***“teachers come to change their beliefs and habits”*** (Fullan, 2007, p. 25).

<sup>18</sup> Knowledge about how languages are learnt refers to effective management of language learning in a classroom environment, i.e. pedagogical knowledge.

*on the teacher's belief and confidence in what he was doing*" (Wilkins, Cited in CITL, 1969, p. 30).

Admittedly, the teacher's competencies rather than the efficiency of the method remain more important in determining improved learning outcomes. It is further agreed that *"the number of hours allocated to a language cannot be increased without making properly qualified and trained teachers available in the institutions"* (Heyworth, 2003, p. 19). It should be noted, however, that at present, in addition to the 'Licence'<sup>19</sup> in English Studies, teachers become apt to teach English on the basis of having passed a written examination consisting of an achievement test and an interview. On the other hand, to be confirmed and therefore appointed as a "qualified teacher", teachers should pass the CAPES<sup>20</sup> professional exam (Certificat d'Aptitude Professionnelle de l'Enseignement Secondaire. Candidates should be ready to sit the CAPES exam any time. The CAPES is quite different from a normal visit; passing it is, somehow, a breakthrough, in the sense that, it allows teachers to embrace the teaching career and climb up the promotion ladder.

### **1.5.2. Quality and Content of Teacher Education Programmes**

Research has shown that teacher education programmes play a role of paramount importance in the preparation of current and future ELT teachers. Murray and Christison (2012, p. 69) note that *"through their own instruction and attitudes towards instructions, they [teachers] can model innovative practice and be incubators of innovation"*. At university level, pre-service programmes on teacher education development are to be integral part of the TEFL and Didactics modules to keep pace with current research on effective teacher education. The implemented programmes should lay emphasis on the development of new teachers with appropriate knowledge and understanding. This will hopefully help would-be-teachers respond positively to the changing needs of our learners and society, meet the challenges of the globalization process and cope successfully with

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<sup>19</sup> In Algeria the 'Licence', which is actually a French qualification name given to the diploma, is awarded to students after completing a three-year course at university. It is roughly equivalent to English/American BA or BSc.

<sup>20</sup> The CAPES is a professional exam. It is roughly equivalent to the British Certificate of Education, Cert Ed. The CAPES exam consists of two parts: the first part relates to purely pedagogical aspects in which the teacher presents two lessons to two different levels; this is followed by an interview and a discussion around methodological aspects of language learning. The ELT inspector is assisted by two qualified teachers in the assessment of the candidate.

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the growing demands of the 21<sup>st</sup> century at the level of education in general and classroom management and pedagogy in particular.

In-service programmes, however, should focus on developing current teachers' level of expertise on a regular basis and in a continuous way, as the old adage has it: *Never too old to learn*. The empowerment of the teacher, in the sense of endowing him with the status of an autonomous professional, i.e. responsible for, and an authority on, professional learning and practice, rather than subordinate to external authority and expertise (Ur, 2001), does not always happen in most of our educational institutions. Teachers implementing the change are actually in need of in-service training. There are several instances of situations where some sessions of teacher education development, organized under the form of study days or coordination meetings, are understood as a training methodology based on getting teachers involved in interactive discussion, but where the ultimate goal is to get them to accept innovation and change that have been determined elsewhere: teachers are subject to a top-down, power-coercive initiative put forward by some authoritative group of experts who are not themselves teachers.

The common used workshop approach as a forum of exchange in-service training has in part run its course with the advent of teacher education programmes. The workshops may be useful in inculcating specific classroom techniques and how to trigger off strategies in learners but not to educate teachers ***“to make decisions about their own or to reflect on their practice in order to develop their professional expertise”*** (Murray and Christison, 2012, p. 71). Consequently, there needs to be a more clearly structured and articulated ELT methodology if the situation is to improve and bring about the expected changes. This new strand involves a redefinition of the teachers' role with respect to the literature relating to teacher education development.

A recent trend in foreign language teaching is to introduce teachers to ways of exploring and reflecting upon their teaching experiences, hence reflective teaching (Richards and Lockhart, 1996). Such an 'approach' focuses on the teacher and the actual teaching processes. It promotes self-inquiry and self-evaluation as a basis for decision making, planning and action. Head and Taylor posit that:

*Teacher development draws on the teacher's own inner resource for change. It is centered on personal awareness of the possibilities for change, and of what influences the change process. It builds on the past, because recognizing how past experiences have or have not been developmental helps identify opportunities for change in the present and future. It also draws on the present, in encouraging a fuller awareness of the kind of teacher you are now and of other people's responses to you. It is a self-reflective process, because it is through questioning old habits that alternative ways of being and doing are able to emerge.*

(Head and Taylor, 1997, p. 1)

Reflective teaching turns teachers' attention onto themselves using a carefully structured approach to self-observation and self-evaluation. It is a helpful and insightful approach to explore the processes involved in the teaching/learning mechanisms in order to develop and improve the teacher's professional competence (Benmoussat, 2003). There is evidence that reflection, i.e. willingness on the part of teachers to be reflective, leads to actual changes in their practice. Ultimately, implementing innovative ideas in ELT is, in effect, a challenge which requires a high level of savoir-faire and the right to committing mistakes is hardly allowed.

### **1.5.3. Print, Multimedia and Teacher-Developed Materials**

From a narrow standpoint in the context of the classroom three key actors, teachers, learners and materials, are to play determinant roles in the success or failure of an innovative initiative. The term materials is used here with a pedagogical connotation to cover aspects related to print, i.e. textbooks, workbook and the like; multimedia, i.e. cassettes, CD's and other interactive computer-accessed content and teacher-developed materials, i.e. hands-out and power-point presentations. These teaching resources are of capital importance if innovation and change are to be introduced. Some commercially available English teaching materials do more harm to the learning process than they are supposed to remedy the situation.

However, commercial values tend at present to influence the design and content of many textbooks, which are in effect "*Masses of rubbish that is skillfully marketed*" (Brumfit, 1980, p.30). Thus, the textbooks are often bland, general and culturally neutral, lacking for the most part controversial and emotionally engaging and thought-provoking materials, and stick to "*bland, middle-of-the-road 'safe' topics*" (Swan and Walter, 1993, p. viii). They do not provide the learner with the linguistic models and cultural behaviours

that they are likely to encounter when interacting with native speakers of English, that is to say, to provide the learners with a linguistic and cultural construct that would serve as a springboard for copying the native speaker's model. It is worth remembering in this context Malinowski's remark that knowledge of the language is actually essential *'to grasp the native's point of view, his relations to life, to realize his vision of his world'* (Malinowski, 1935, p. 25). The notion of empathy, that is, the willingness and capacity to look at different aspects of life the way they appear to members of the target community, is at the core of this idea

ELT inspectors all too often remind teachers not to rely heavily and extensively on the prescribed textbook; by analogy, *"the textbook is not the Holy Koran"* (Official Syllabus for English, 1999, p. 4) to be followed slavishly. The syllabus as such is only a guide which, by virtue of necessity, may be adapted to meet the pupils' needs and expectations and to centre one's teaching on those very needs and expectations. According to the General Inspectorate of English<sup>21</sup>, *"The textbook writers expect you [the teacher] to be a teacher not just a textbook user* (op. cit.). Thus, to do so, teachers need some professionalism and expertise to develop their own teaching materials and come to an optimal use of the multimedia at hand if we expect them to act as efficient agents of change (see 1.7.).

### **1.5.4. Public and Political Perceptions of Language Teaching**

Language learning all over the world is largely misunderstood by the general public and often by policy makers who are not experts. Therefore the layman's perception of language and language learning is most of the time misguided, and as a remedial to improving the situation they propose simplistic and pseudo remedies for the teaching of languages, not least English. Policy makers have imported education models to make them fit within the local context. For example in 1984, the Foundation School System was originally introduced on grounds of efficiency, a system ensures nine years of basic education to all children (see 1.2.). That is to say, as a 'remedy' to the high rates of failure that struck down Primary and Middle School education. Parallel to this, it was geared to

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<sup>21</sup> The General Inspectorate is a body comprised of the Chief Inspector for English and a staff of regional inspectors. Each of the regional inspectors is in charge of a region which usually includes several towns and settlements.

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reinforce the Arabization policy<sup>22</sup> in the sense that Arabic became *de facto* a functional language used as a medium of instruction in all schools.

Yet, this pseudo-remedy did not yield the expected educational outcomes; it added a further layer to the complexity of the situation: an under-resourced education system characterized by depressingly substandard academic levels, alarmingly-increasing school loss and a problem of language use that has not yet been definitely sorted out. This grim picture of the education system, low-quality education, high drop-out rate and what status to be assigned to the French language (see 3.4.), still represents the topics debated in education literature. The UNESCO Report on Education and Literacy in the Arab World (1999) noted that the Algerian School had been somehow failing a large number of its pupils, and ***“a large number of graduates were functionally illiterate in the sense that they were unable to perform simple literacy tasks, such as writing a job application or fill in a formal form”*** (Benmoussat, 2003, p. 114).

The breakdown in the education system was to be traced back to The Foundation School System; this education system derived from the former Eastern World models of education which had been found inadequate or discarded elsewhere. This illustrates that there has never been a deep concern among education policy makers about many aspects of education. Educationalists' attempts at reforms have always been well intended but rarely have professionals had the opportunity to participate in the solving of background educational issues. However, in Algeria attempts at reforming the education have always moved in the reverse order, i.e. at the expense of academic standards. Yet, is ***“the persistence of educational underachievement a result of the failure of the Arabisation policy, reinforced by the legacy of the Foundation School System, or it is the result of the failure to implement that policy and to adapt and/or to adopt an alien educational system?”*** (Benmoussat, 2003, p. 117).

It should be added that two decades ago, there was an attempt to introduce English as a first foreign language as a pilot experience in the primary cycle (fourth year of primary education) to displace the French language. It was implemented in very few classes.

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<sup>22</sup> The Arabization process or as called elsewhere Arabicization (cf. *The Ecology of Arabic: a Study of Arabicization* by Al Sharkawi, 2010) was effectively launched in 1971 as part of a large scale status planning and acquisition planning policies aiming at replacing the French language by Arabic in all sectors, namely education.

Unfortunately, and despite encouraging and promising results the experiment ended in the academic year 2000-2001. This U-turn policy clearly illustrates that *‘language (foreign and national) planning, as well as teaching, has always responded to considerations imbued with partnership far from the sociolinguistic reality of the country’* (Miliani, 2001, p. 14). It also shows the lack of long-run perspectives resulting from the inherent chronic instability of the institutions in charge of the education system supervision.

To respond innovatively to change is of capital importance in the field of language learning in general and EFL in particular. Any attempt to introduce innovative ideas and change initiatives is to be geared towards a clear understanding of their nature and *“how they the local context impacts the way the innovation will be adopted and diffused”* (Murray and Christison, 2012, p. 73). In trying to understand the true nature of an innovation, policy makers are to ask themselves conscientiously whether the innovation in question fits within the framework of the zone of innovation put forward by Stoller (see 1.5.). In overall terms, change in language teaching involves change in educational beliefs and principles.

### **1.6. Teachers as Practitioners**

Though, at present the teaching-learning process is bound to be learner-centered<sup>23</sup>, the teacher still performs the pivotal role in an EFL classroom. In this very specific context, it is worth remembering the motto-like teaching process, **“A teacher is a P.L.E.F.T.E.R.”**, initiated by the General Inspectorate of English in the eighties to specify the different roles that the EFL teacher, mindful of his duties, is supposed to engage in. The acronym **P.L.E.F.T.E.R.** stands for the following:

- *Planner*, i.e. the teacher sees planning and structuring of learning activities as fundamental to success in teaching and learning.
- *Linguistic model*, i.e. the model learners should imitate.

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<sup>23</sup> Many English classrooms are still being described as dominated by the three T’s: teachers, textbooks and tests. However, task-based learning is seen as requiring a significant change in pedagogy *“from teacher-centred to pupil-centred, from textbook-based to task-based teaching and from summative assessment to formative assessment”* (Ko, 2000, p. 84). In recent pedagogical discourse, a process-oriented, student-centered, and task-based approach has been the most effective for teaching/learning. The ELT research and professional circles have this as *“the optimum interactional parameters within which classroom language learning can take place”* (Holliday, 1994, p. 54).

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- *Evaluator*, i.e. the teacher assesses the learners' progress.
- *Facilitator*, i.e. the teacher simplifies the learning process.
- *Team member*, i.e. the teacher takes part in cooperative activities and team work.
- *Educator*, i.e. the teacher serves as an example suitable for imitation.
- *Researcher*, i.e. the teacher is expected to keep up with the latest development in the field of language learning.

However, this account reflects partially what the teacher, as a practitioner and researcher ought to do with respect to the requirements of the teaching profession. More importantly, the teacher should account for the specificities of the teaching situation; the teacher is in a better position to know what his pupils need, what their interests are, and what should be done to adjust these needs and interests to the requirements of the school curriculum (Benmoussat, 2003). Interestingly, the roles of the teacher, as a practitioner and researcher, have attracted considerable attention. Richards and Lockhart (1996) provide an account in which they identify eight teacher role specifications; the following are intended to teachers who think about their task and want to improve their classroom performance as well as learning outcomes:

- *Needs analyst*, i.e. the teacher determines students' individual needs following institutional procedures (e.g. a structured interview) and uses the information obtained for course planning and development.
- *Curriculum developer*, i.e. the teacher develops his own course plans and syllabuses based on students needs.
- *Materials developer*, i.e. the teacher develops his own classroom materials.
- *Counselor*, i.e. the teacher is encouraged to identify students who are having problems and learning difficulties, and to offer individual council to students who need it.
- *Mentor*, i.e. the teacher assists less experienced teachers with their professional development.
- *Team member*, i.e. teachers are encouraged to work together as a team rather than to teach in isolation from other teachers in the school.

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- *Researcher*, i.e. the teacher is encouraged to conduct research related to language learning, including research in his own classroom.
- *Professional*, i.e. the teacher is expected to continue with professional development by taking part in workshops and conferences, reading professional journals in the field, and joining professional organizations.

(Richards and Lockhart, 1996, pp. 99-100)

An emerging literature on the notion of *professionalism* closely relating to the management of innovation and change in ELT has emerged recently; the teacher as a *professional* has been expanded to cover other attributes. The teacher, in this respect, should possess an underlying understanding of the principles of their practice, not just a collection of technical skills. According to Ur (1997, 2001), this profile of the teacher as professional is a vital component of the teacher profile in the sense that it “***equips them [teachers] with the ability and authority to criticize input from other professionals and academics and evaluate its appropriateness or acceptability in principle or for specific contexts***” (Ur, 2001, p. 3). In sum then, a profession becomes strong and ethical precisely by being professional (Davies, 1997, see Appendix V).

More recently, Spratt et al. (2011), drawing on their experience as EFL teachers and ELT project consultants, have provided a detailed outline on classroom management in general and on teacher roles in particular. According to them, teachers need to behave in different ways at different stages of a lesson to manage the classroom and to successfully guide learners through the lesson. To do so, what roles do teachers adopt during a lesson? The answer to the question lies in what follows:

- *Planner*, i.e. the teacher prepares and reflects on the lesson before teaching, anticipates problems and selects, designs and adapts materials.
- *Manager*, i.e. the teacher organizes the learning space, makes sure everything in the classroom is running smoothly and sets up rules and routines (i.e. things which are done regularly) for behaviour and interaction.
- *Monitor/Observer*, i.e. the teacher goes around the class during individual, pair and group work activities checking learning and providing support as necessary.

- *Facilitator*, i.e. provides opportunities for learning, helps learners to access resources and develops learner autonomy.
- *Diagnostician*, i.e. the teacher works out the causes of learners' difficulties.
- *Language resource*, i.e. the teacher can be used by the learners for help and advice about language.
- *Assessor*, i.e. the teacher evaluates the language level and attitudes of the learners by using different means of informal and formal assessment.
- *Rapport builder*, i.e. the teacher tries to create a good relationship with and between learners.

(Adapted from Spratt et al., 2011, p. 199)

These three models, though overlapping at different role levels, provide a clear account of classroom management in terms of the organization of the classroom and the learners. It shows how teacher roles match with different aspects of the teaching process. Effective and fruitful classroom management is largely dependent on the teacher adopting different, yet appropriate roles, roles that fit within the context, i.e. the teaching approach, the aims of the lesson and objectives of the syllabus, the type of activity, the learners' age, level, interests and worries and ultimately their expectations<sup>24</sup>. In overall terms, as Rea-Dickins notes teachers are expected both to develop and to measure their learners' language learning. Thus, "***shifting between these two roles –of facilitator of language development and assessor language achievement***" (Rea-Dickins, 2008, p. 261).

### 1.7. Teachers as Agents of Change

By definition, as an agent of change in the literature on ELT is the person who is actually responsible for the overall planning and day-to-day execution of the innovation implementation process. The term '*entrepreneurs*' is sometimes used to refer to change agents (Lambright and Flynn, 1980). The issue of the role of the teacher is seen as highly significant in terms of the successful implementation of change. Research on innovation in

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<sup>24</sup> The moral in teaching is present in the manner of the teacher. This position is based upon an Aristotelian view of how virtue is acquired by the young: teachers act as models and moral agents in the lives of their students. Teachers who act justly, honestly, and with compassion and tolerance, express these virtues through their teaching, thus instilling these traits and virtues in their students (Fenstermacher, 1992, cited in Johnston and Buzzelli, 2008).

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education has shown that teachers' perceptions of innovation determine to a larger extent the success of that innovation. In this context, Markee (1997) highlights that ***“teachers play the key role in the success or failure of a planned innovation, because they are the executive decision makers in the actual setting in which the intended innovation is to be integrated- the classroom”*** (Markee, 1997, p. 20). If teachers want to act as effective and efficient “agents of change” based on their own self-evaluation and self-improvement, they will be soundly equipped to exercise control over their teaching and to critically question educational reforms. Professionalism in the field of ELT implies increased responsibility for both proposing and implementing innovations on the part of the teacher. To accomplish lasting reforms, awareness of the meaning of innovation and how to proceed is vital (Delano et al., 1994). In short, an understanding of the elements of the reform is seen as a precondition for making change (Stecher et al., 2004).

In this very specific context, Richards (1999) argues that, ***“the process of change occurs when teachers articulate to themselves and others what they want to change and why, when they identify the factors that inhibit change, and when they develop strategies to implement change over time”*** (Richards, 1999, p. 143). In the same line of thought, Carless (2001) notes that teachers should possess a thorough understanding of the principles and practices of the proposed change if a curriculum innovation is to be implemented successfully. He emphasizes that ***“teachers not only need to understand the theoretical underpinnings of the innovation, but more importantly, how the innovation is best applied in the classroom”*** (Carless, 2001, p. 263).

It is further agreed that no innovatory projects will bring about the expected learning outcomes without the convinced and sustained commitment of those who are fully in charge of its implementation and the management of the organizational variables can influence the acceptance of refusal in a decisive way (Heyworth 2003). Fullan in his book *Successful school improvement* (1992, p. 45) argues that, ***“The stark reality is that innovations fail more times that they succeed mainly because the process of implementing innovations continues to be downplayed or overlooked.”*** Successful innovation is attributable to an ensemble of factors; Heyworth (2003) gives an account of these factors: motivation, involvement, commitment, communication, realistic evaluation and institutionalization.

### **1.7.1. Motivation**

It is quite normal to assert that no innovative initiative can be successful without the motivation of the people involved. There are numbers of well-known theories of motivation which generally try to give an illustrative framework for action for example, Gardner and Lambert's (1972) dichotomy of integrative motivation and instrumental motivation and Cooper and Fishman's (1977) construct of 'developmental' or personal motivation to refer to personal motivation or personal satisfaction. Yet, the concept of motivation has been viewed differently by different schools of thought: behaviourism, cognitivism and constructivism.

From the behaviouristic perspective, motivation is *"quite simply the anticipation of reward"* (Brown, 2000, p. 160). The cognitivists view motivation are being more related to *"the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they exert in that respect"* (Keller, 1983, p. 389). However, the constructivists' definition of motivation places *"further emphasis on social contexts as well as the individual's decisions"* (ibid). Despite the differences, in all the aforementioned definitions of the concept of motivation as viewed by the three schools of thought, the idea of 'need' is emphasized, in other words, *"the fulfillment of needs is rewarding, requires choices, and in many cases must be interpreted in a social context"* (ibid, 390).

Arguably, the people mandated to manage innovatory projects must account for consultation, participation and ownership of the project for those closely involved in the projects (Heyworth, 2003). In over-centralised or top-down projects, where the decision to implement innovation is external to those who are to put them into practice, must pay attention to providing them opportunities to get involved. These grassroots, have the right to voice their views, opinions and involvement as to what to implement and how what this ought to be implemented.

### **1.7.2. Involvement**

By definition the term 'involvement' refers to act of involving or state of being involved. In the literature on approaches to the management of innovation in ELT, it denotes the responsibility placed on teachers in charge of implementing an innovation

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initiative. It aims at a dual-focused responsibility in the sense that it is a right and a duty. A right that teachers can claim by virtue of the fact that they are an integral part of the continuum in the implementation process. Conversely, a duty is a moral or legal obligation that teachers ought to fulfill mindfully duty-bound or out of a sense of duty.

In change management in the context of educational programmes and projects, teachers are key elements in the process of change. Successful and effective innovation is largely dependent on an appreciation of their view of what will or will not work in the classroom. As Bolitho (2012, p. 44) reminds us forcefully, ***“teachers are often the target of a change initiative, but they are also frontline change agents. They need to be involved in the project from the earliest possible stage and inspired to take ownership of the change.”*** However, teachers are rarely involved in educational innovations when these are in the planning stages (Bolitho, *ibid*).

According to Heyworth (2003), it is clear that innovations will be adapted more smoothly and effectively if those in charge of implementing it are involved, preferably from the very onset of the process. The involvement approach views innovation initiatives as primarily changes at the level of practice, and therefore holds that teachers as practitioners should have a voice, expressing both a right and a duty, in how in-class practices, lesson presentation, classroom management, time allocation to activities and assignments, operate. Ultimately, the key locus of innovation management resides at the practice level rather than in decision-making arenas, i.e. a bottom-up approach initiated by teachers instead of a centralized top-down management initiated by ‘non-practitioners’. Unfortunately, the common practice for innovations is that decisions to innovate are decided on by the Ministry of Education as a result of political decisions, this is another way of recalling that *“it’s the political that determines the educational”*. The 1995 World Bank review of education notes that “This central management, extending even to instructional inputs and the classroom environment, allows no room for the flexibility that leads to effective learning” (World Bank, 1995, p. 4).

### **1.7.3. Commitment**

The Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (1994) defines ‘commitment’ as promise or pledge to do something. According to Heyworth (2003), for innovations to go

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beyond the stage of being desirable, those whose involvement has been established must commit themselves to the project. It needs to be noted here that:

***Believing that a goal is desirable and reachable does not automatically force an individual to act. The individual must choose to put his or her judgement in action; accordingly, ‘goal commitment’ is an important goal property. Commitment making is a highly responsible personal decision and it entails a significant qualitative change in one’s attitudes.***

(Heyworth, 2003, p. 38)

Here are some clear imperatives adapted from Heyworth (2003) relating to building commitment to change:

- Allow room for participation in the planning of the change
- Leave choices within the overall decision to change
- Provide a clear picture of the change, a “vision” with details about the new state
- Share information about change plans to the fullest extent possible
- Give advance warning about new requirements
- Repeatedly demonstrate your own commitment to the change
- Make standards and requirements clear, i.e. tell exactly what is required in implanting the change
- Help people feel compensated for the extra time and energy change requires<sup>25</sup>.

Thus, committing oneself to a goal is a decisive step in the innovatory process, but ***“it is not sufficient in itself to promote effective action if the goal is not translated into concrete steps the individual needs to take.”*** (Heyworth, *ibid.*). This quotation clearly illustrates that commitment to concrete action plans over a sustained period of time is requirement to implementing effective change process. In overall terms, ***“innovators must take steps to ensure that they have the necessary commitment of the people who are responsible for implementing the innovation at classroom level”*** (Hayes, 2012, p. 54).

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<sup>25</sup> In this very specific context when a number of countries were looking West and rewiring their education systems and with close reference to the Romanian experience in textbook project reform undertaken in the post-Soviet era, Popovici (2012, p. 165) notes that, ***“Time and detailed attention given to the selection of team members pay off in that they ensure commitment, ownership, and efficiency.”***

### **1.7.4. Communication**

To reach the expected goals in an innovation initiative some communication skills become therefore a must. These skills denote the art of successfully sharing meaningful information with people by means of an inter change of experience. It is commonly agreed that the initial stages in the implementation of a change are the most crucial where theoretical knowledge has to be translated into practical activity. A lack of clarity, misunderstanding or, ambiguous understanding, of aspects related to innovatory procedures may be the main source of failure and disorientation in many innovatory projects. In this respect, Bolitho (2012) focuses on the procedures involved in getting change messages across to those who need to put them into practice. Any change initiative needs to be founded on clear understanding of the expected goals, a clear understanding of the reasons underlying the change and a clear understanding of the procedures to be followed for undertaking the change. The notion of clarity is at the core of the foundation of successful change. In sum, as Bardi argues,

***Project managers have a crucial role in facilitating communication among team members and in ensuring that there is a complete transparency for all team members, about the implantation process. Communication and transparency generate better understanding and facilitate the process of task implementation.***

(Bardi, 2012, p. 187)

Literature on innovation in ELT abounds with examples of CLT case studies where teachers believe their teaching draw on communicative principles but in fact have changed their teaching practices cosmetically. Instances describing such common practices are cases of ‘false clarity’ as opposed to ‘painful unclarity’ to describe situations where an innovation is rejected on the premise that teachers have no clear vision of either the principles or the expected outcomes. Karavas Doukas (1998) reports that in the evaluation a Greek project implementing a new communicative curriculum, it was found that although teachers thought they applying a new curriculum, in fact they tended to find ways of reproducing a more grammar-based teaching with imported exercises. Similar situations may be reported in Algerian ELT classrooms where teachers were supposed to teach ‘communicatively’ but when asked to situate themselves within the syllabus, they tended to use pure grammatical labels, such as, “Last week we studied *The Conditional Type One and Type Two*, and this week we’re going to carry on with *The Conditional Type Three*.”

It is highly recommended that those in charge of planning innovation need to articulate their goals around clear communication schemes; these include organizing meetings on a regular basis to discuss implementation procedures and identify problematic issues, open channels between those managing and those implementing innovations and ultimately accepting proposals as a result of feedback between innovators and grass-root involvements. As Hayes (2012, p. 55) has rightly pointed, ***“if educational administrators and others who are responsible for educational reform are truly concerned with the effectiveness of what they propose and wish to heighten the chances of its being implemented in the classroom, it is essential that they listen to classroom teachers at every stage of the reform process”***. It also demonstrates the impossibility of implementing a top-down reform without grassroots understanding and support (Fullan, 1991).

### **1.7.5. Realistic Evaluation**

It is in the context of realistic evaluation that any innovatory project is subject to careful scrutiny. Close examination of the innovation should commence at the very initial stage. The purposes of evaluation are of two folds: (1) a product-based evaluative approach in which the focus is exclusively on the product that reflects success or failure, i.e. is the implementation innovation a success, and therefore it deserves support, encouragement and continuation? Or is the implementation a failure, and therefore it is not worth continuing and should be abandoned? (2) a process-oriented evaluative approach in which the result emerges out of a series of evaluative sub-processes that fine tuned the implementation process accordingly throughout the life of the innovation. However, As Heyworth 2003, p. 41) posits, ***“a realistic framework evaluation, formulated at the outset of the project contributes to clarity of purpose and realism in both aims and assessment”***.

### **1.7.6. Institutionalization**

The ultimate phase in the implementation of an innovation initiative is its institutionalization or, in practical down-to-earth terms, its adoption. In the context of English language education, the institutionalization process takes place at the following levels:

- changes in programmes, i.e. curricula, syllabi or teaching material, e.g. introduction of home-made ELT textbooks

- changes in teacher and learner behaviour, i.e. introduction of new teaching methodology, e.g. shift from teacher-centredness to learner-centredness
- logistic changes, i.e. reorganization of where learning takes place, use of new resources and media, e.g. use of ICT's (Global Virtual Classroom, or GVC for short, at the University of Tlemcen to stimulate students to practice English in meaningful context)
- changes in beliefs and principles, i.e. radical, large-scale or profound changes in the educational paradigms, e.g. textbook reform projects in the former Soviet Republics and Eastern European countries.

### **1.7.7. Profile of Teachers as Agents of Change**

The concept of a teacher as an agent of change is nothing new. Educators have been talking on innovation and change for as long as one can remember, though it is only in recent years that the spirit of change agency has been promoted within the educational sphere. The teacher as an agent of change plays a pivotal role in the teaching-learning process. As the adage goes, *'no education system can rise too far beyond the level of the teachers in it'*; and *"what goes on in the classroom, and the impact of the teacher and teaching, has been identified in numerous studies as the crucial variable for improving learning outcomes. The way teachers teach is of critical concern in any reform designed to improve quality"* (UNESCO, 2004, p. 152). In order for teachers to bring about significant differences in the teaching-learning process and move away from routine to recreational language learning, it is believed that these educators must be able to make responsible decisions based on a sound professional knowledge background and reflect a strong commitment to their profession. Additionally, teachers who aspire to be agents of change cannot content with merely replicating traditional teaching practices. Research has shown that a teacher who wishes to incorporate the change agency club should be able to demonstrate the following traits:

- to implement a learner-centred pedagogy in which the adequacy between learner practice time and teacher talking time is respected

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- to use a variety of teaching methods in the sense of being able to combine innovative, up-to-date approaches with the best of traditional approaches<sup>26</sup>
- not to rely solely on the prescribed textbook in the sense of being able to break up with the routine by introducing teaching materials of his/her own
- to have high expectations of his/her learners in the sense that he/she asks for feedback from learners on how whether he/she is meeting their needs<sup>27</sup>
- to integrate moral purpose dutifully and change agency creatively in the sense of being able to engage in a new conception of teacher professionalism<sup>28</sup>
- to make learners want to learn in the sense of being able to adapt his/her teaching to suit the different abilities (mixed abilities) and learning styles
- to get the message across in the most obvious and clearest way to learners so that success can be expected and provides strong academic attachment to the language
- to use a variety of assessment methods in the form of continual control tests in addition to standardized tests
- to incorporate new ICT's and to promote "earning to learn" and lifelong learning, to help learners to become self-learners to develop learner autonomy
- to assign field work and project writing (exposés) to encourage out-of-class activity.

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<sup>26</sup> The notion eclectic teaching is at the core of this trait. Here eclectic, as one might interpret it, is to combine innovative, up-to-date approaches with the best of traditional approaches by integrating skills work around communicative tasks and task-based learning to make learning stimulating, motivating and effective in order to improve the learners' overall communicative ability. It is the teacher's responsibility to find as much as one can about the approach or method that he is required to use and to determine ways to make it relevant to one's classroom context. Put in down-to-earth terms, and to borrow Tuck's quotation, "***Take the best from a hotch-potch of methodologies and dump the rest.***" (Tuck, 2003, p. 1).

<sup>27</sup> Research has shown that in a safe, secure and supportive classroom environment, there is a far greater possibility that learners can exploit optimally their latent potential. They are likely to develop high self-esteem, to have a positive image, a sense of purpose and skills of competence (see Appendix II).

<sup>28</sup> Moral purpose is a technique to keep teachers close to the needs of young learners; while change agency causes them to develop better strategies for bringing about improvements at the level of learning outcomes. Eventually, rapport is established between the teacher and learner, making the teaching-learning environment a friendly one.

Can all teachers act as effective agents of change? The answer to this challenging question is: May be not. Yet, all teachers have the potential to become an agent of change in the true sense of the word provided that as the proverb has it ‘*Where there’s a will there’s a way*’. It is worth noting that students spend between 850 and 1,000 hours of instruction per year. Thus, it stands to reason that teachers are probably the people who can most powerfully and positively impact their learner’s lives. This puts a high premium on teacher’s roles and ethical responsibility within the community.

It is in this context that the role of teachers as agents of change is significant; they must accept to become themselves learners of teaching and teachers of learning, and therefore incarnate the models who demonstrate moral purpose and professional behaviours. Regrettably, one dare say that the way would-be teachers are prepared, the way teachers are trained, the way schools are managed, the way educational hierarchy operates and the way policy and decision makers treat educators, all this results in a system that leaves a lot to be desired and that it is likely to retain the status quo. Such situation arranges some teachers and who strive and manage fiercely to preserve as long as they can and by all means. In plain terms, many teachers are comfortable with their old ways of teaching and do not want to abandon them completely.

### **1.8. Teachers as Resistant to Change**

It is strongly believed that one of most crucial issues in the management of innovation in ELT is resistance to change that teachers express overtly or covertly when they are asked to adopt new ways of teaching. It is evident that no change is successful if the people being asked to change do not value its need. Change, broadly speaking, aims at improving learners’ educational experience and teachers’ professional output. In this respect, as Williamson and Blackburn (2012, p. 36) note, “***the school culture must include a collective commitment to improvement and a parallel commitment to supporting people who take risks and make changes***” to satisfy the requirements of those at the chalk face. Resistance<sup>29</sup> is a likely normal and natural behavioural response, especially in the early stages of an innovation initiative and most frequently among the more experienced and long-servicing members of a teaching community (Bolitho 2012).

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<sup>29</sup> A. Kohn, in a personal communication, April 17, 2002, notes that teachers do not resist changes; they resist being changed.

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Teachers usually respond to change in different ways depending on their existing beliefs and practices, contextual support and professional expertise and understanding of the key concepts underlying an innovation initiative<sup>30</sup>. However, three different ways or reactions have been identified: obedience and acceptance, rejection and resistance and reflection and acceptance. Some are, right from the very beginning, eager and willing to implement the change, some bluntly resist the change and nothing can convince them to embrace the innovation, and some can be moved to accept the change if given sufficient time to accommodate themselves and clear information to see its need.

Admittedly, teachers resist change for two main reasons: they do not see the usefulness of the innovation and therefore undermine the change, or they are not sure that there change will bring about the expected results and lead to an improvement of the teaching-learning situation. One of the most fiercely form of resistance is manifested insidiously when the change involves shifting form long-standing and deep-rooted traditional teaching practices to supposedly new, creative and more productive ones, for example, to give up with traditional grammar-based and teacher-centred approaches to embrace Learner-Centred Education through Communicative Language Teaching. In many cases of resistance, it has been noted that some teachers manifest their disagreement and express their dissatisfaction as a strategy to gain time to reflect thoughtfully about the proposed change. All too often, as Bolitho (2012, p. 41) has rightly pointed out, those teachers take up ***“the position of the devil’s advocate in order to probe and understand more fully what the change is about and how it is likely to affect their lives”***.

More tellingly, perhaps Hayes (2012) outlines three main reasons underpinning the different forms of change. Firstly, the nature of the change expected is too great and the speed at which it is required to happen is too rapid. For example, the implementation of

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<sup>30</sup> Andrews (1994) summarizes three possible responses of educators in response to curriculum innovation: *fight it, ignore it and use it*. While Davison (2004) identifies six different responses to curriculum change: *resistance* including explicit rejection of the innovation; *pseudo-compliance*, with little or no alteration to underlying practices and beliefs; *compliance*, where the innovation is assimilated without significantly altering existing practice; *accommodation*, where there are some adjustments made to incorporate aspects of the innovation into existing practices and *convergence and creative co-construction*, where the most significant elements of the innovation are integrated into existing practices to create something fundamentally new.

CLT is seen particularly effort-demanding ***“because of the profound shifts required in teacher-learner power relations, and due to the nature of teacher professional learning”*** (Schweisfurth, 2011, p. 421), which is shaped by prior learning experience as well as sociocultural context. Secondly, in many countries, the resources to support the innovation in terms of the school structure, class size, teaching-learning materials and teacher capacity, are severely constrained. Thirdly, innovations based on imported pedagogy are often difficult to accommodate in an alien context<sup>31</sup>. From a pragmatic standpoint, when teachers start to feel that the ideas put forward by reformers are incompatible with reality many switch back to traditional approaches. In gross, teacher’s main reason for not wholeheartedly embracing the curricular reform is that the new pedagogical practices do not seem to fit within the local established school traditions. Ultimately, it is stated that ***“when an innovation fails, there is a tendency to blame the way it was implemented rather than criticize the idea itself”*** (Fullan quoted in Wall, 1996, p. 339).

### **1.9. Quality Assurance**

It is firmly acknowledged that the provision of teaching services to any group of learners should be subject to a form of evaluation system for ensuring that the quality of the learning experiences in English Language Education is consistently high and meets the requirements set by the General Inspectorate of English. Boards of Education at the national level organise ‘inspection visits’ to have a weather eye on the teaching quality, hence quality assurance. The concept of quality assurance draws, to a larger extent, on the principles involved in the former concept of quality control: adherence to some externally conceived and validated process, determined through a rigorous inspection process. It ***“refers to the systematic activities implemented in quality system so that quality requirements for a service are fully fulfilled”*** (Wikipedia, 2011). The relationship between quality provision and quality outcomes is so tight that poor quality provision leads to poor quality learning outcomes.

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<sup>31</sup> The notion of ‘tissue rejection’ (Holliday, 1992) is at the core of this form of resistance. This notion is based on the organ transplant metaphor which sees systems as organic and coherent and with a capacity to reject any alien element which does not fit within the ecology of the situation.

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Kiely in his article entitled *Designing evaluation into change management process* (2012) deals with quality assurance in ELT. He focuses on what are generally acknowledged as the drivers of quality: education and training of teachers, development of effective assessment formats, learning materials and uses of technology, and classroom activities which promote and sustain English Language Education. Quality assurance provides clear benefits to the three main partners of the teaching-learning process: the learner, the teacher and the institution.

It is strongly believed that quality assurance has the following benefits to the learner:

- It is conducive to a better learning experience.
- It helps learners to have realistic and clear expectations.
- It helps learners to understand their rights and responsibility.
- It can make learners think about how they learn.
- It can help learners to feel more valued.
- It should help them to achieve better results.

For teachers benefits are as follows:

- It is conducive to a better teaching experience.
- It helps teachers dutifully and mindfully understand what is expected from them.
- It establishes a shared responsibility teacher, learners and the institution.
- It helps teachers think about how they ought to teach.
- It helps learners feel more valued.
- It should help teachers to become more interested in their professional development.

Finally benefits for the institution are as follows:

- It helps the institution develop a common understanding of the notion of high-quality teaching leading systematically to high learning outcomes.
- It helps meet the needs of teachers, individual learners and institution.
- The institution develops its reputation as a pole of excellence.
- It helps determine what needs to be improved.

- It puts a high premium on the institution.
- It encourages internal and external competitiveness between teachers and learners.

Admittedly, quality enhancement and assurance function are the *raison d'être* of learning experiences in language education, and needless to say establishing a structured system in charge of quality assurance in the field of language learning, not least English Language Education is a direct route to improve learning outcomes and to foster a culture of quality in ELT. On the other hand, quality assurance practices are important means for the sustainability of the project and in-school and external accountability.

### **1.10. Conclusion**

The post-war period marked the commencement of a new era in the field of education. The notion of Quality Education became a buzz term throughout the world, including the newly-independent states, and Algeria is no exception. However, the advent of the globalization process in the late 1990s has curiously coincided with a movement characterized by a seminal period of innovation management and programme evaluation in language learning in general and English Language Education in particular. The shift in the worldwide position of English from the status of an international language or a language of wider communication to the status of a global language has led educators to put a more accentuated focus on the different ways conducive to an improved teaching context and high learning outcomes. Accordingly, government and educational authorities are spending heavy expenditures in programmes and projects designed to meet the requirements of a Learner-Centred Education through the implementation of what commonly known in TEFL as Communicative Language Teaching, a 'standard' approach acting as 'the sword of Damocles' hanging over ELTM.

However, for the situation to recover and move away from the status quo, two terms, innovation and change, have emerged to occupy a large part of the literature related to improving learning outcomes. The meaning of the terms has been the subject of much discussion among language teachers and educators. Are they to be used synonymously? Or, is there a shade of meaning between innovation and change? Anyway, throughout this chapter and subsequently in the following chapters, they are assigned no difference in meaning, and they will be used interchangeably, unless otherwise specified. Eventually,

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the concept that forms the backbone of the present chapter is closely related to the role of the teacher as an agent of change and to what extent this role can impact the teaching-learning situation.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LANGUAGE TESTING: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

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## CHAPTER TWO

# LANGUAGE TESTING: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

### 2.1. Introduction

It is largely argued that language testing as a structured academic activity and a pedagogical instrument is relatively a new notion that has entered the field of applied linguistics and didactics<sup>1</sup>. The last few years have witnessed the introduction of a new terminology relating to assessment signaling not only a semantic change but also a profound conceptual one with assessment as a cover term to refer to *“all methods and approaches to testing and evaluation whether in research studies or educational contexts”* (Kunnan, 2004, p. 1). Bachman (2000) argues that the field of language testing has shown ample evidence of maturity over the last quarter century. The introduction of qualitative research methodologies closely related to the design, description and validation of language tests has significantly influenced the field of testing in general and language testing in particular.

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<sup>1</sup> Language testing has in the last 20 or so years sought to professionalize itself. To that end, it has provided itself with both national and international professional associations such as the International Language Testing Association (ILTA), the Association of Language testers of Europe (ALTE), the European Association for Language Testing and Assessment, the Japan Language Testing Association (JALT). The ILTA organizes professional meetings and conferences on a regular basis, sees to the dissemination of research through the publication of articles in dedicated journals such as *Language Testing* and *Language Assessment Quarterly*, develops web sites and establishes a range of academic training and qualifications available in many countries (Davies, 2008). The ILTA Code of Ethics identifies 9 fundamental principles; they identify what ILTA members ought to do or not to do (see Appendix V). The ILTA Code of Practice is still under consideration.

From a diachronic viewpoint, Spolsky (1975) distinguished three main dominant periods: the “pre-scientific”, the “psychometric-structuralist” and the “integrative-sociolinguistic”. Morrow (1979) translated these periods metaphorically into *the Garden of Eden*, *the Vales of Tears* and *the Promised Land*. *The Promised Land* refers to the emergence of communicative language testing in the late 1970s and early 1980s as direct reaction against tests consisting of multiple-choice items and the perceived heavy emphasis on the criterion of reliability<sup>2</sup>. Yet, despite this long and deep-rooted tradition in the field of education, the use of tests has, always been subject to criticism. ***“Nevertheless, tests continue to occupy a leading place in the educational policies and practices of a great many countries”*** (Cheng and Curtis, 2004, p. 6).

This chapter starts by highlighting the relationship between language teaching and testing. It also presents an overview of language testing and strives to provide definitions to the key-concepts underlying testing. It can, hopefully, help language teachers organise, reorganise their view and their conception of language testing on more systematic ways for the purpose of shaping more effective quality improvement techniques. It tries to make the classroom teacher familiar with the terminology in current testing theory and practice. The terminology used throughout this research work is drawn mainly from the standard testing handbooks and primers, such as Lado, Valette, and Brown to mention just a few. It is clear that language tests, not least ESL/EFL testing, will continue to play a crucial and critical role in the field of education as we are entering the second decade of the twenty-first century.

### **2.2. Testing: A Historical View**

Prior to the early 1950s, in the pre-scientific period there was virtually no language testing research, in other words, systematic language testing *per se* did not exist; language teachers elaborated their own classroom test models drawing largely on the principles

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<sup>2</sup> “By the 1970s, changes in society, educational measurement and theories of language learning resulted in a shift toward the sociolinguistic period. [Canale and Swain (1982) and other refer to this as ‘communicative competence’ or ‘the proficiency approach’ (Barnwell, 1996).] During this period, a new shift occurred from discrete-point testing toward tests meant to measure meaningful communication. By the early 1980s, training in various approaches to assessing communicative competence became available to instructors” (Malone, 2008, p. 227).

underlying the grammar-translation method, i.e. purely grammar-language oriented exercises, translation activities from and into the mother tongue and essay writing. This is why Heaton (1982) calls it ‘the essay-translation approach’. It has also been termed ‘traditional’ and had a highly subjective, elitist and authoritarian character. The pre-scientific era was characterized **“by the use of essays, open-ended examinations, or oral examining, with the result determined intuitively by an authorized and authoritarian examiner”** (Spolsky, 1995, p. 356). He also notes that **“texting ... did not rely on linguistic theory, and reliability was considered less important than the production of a test that felt fair”** (Spolsky, 1995, p. 356). In sum, it was deeply rooted in the techniques used to test classical languages, namely Latin and Greek.

The early 1950s and late 1960s marked the emergence of the “psychometric-structuralist” period. This period coincided with the advent of structural linguistics and behavioural psychology<sup>3</sup>. A pioneering study undertaken by Lado (1961) strongly recommended that the content of language test should be based on a linguistic analysis. Language should be broken up into discrete units for the purpose of testing. This has clear implications for what is to be tested and how the test is to be carried out. Discrete items are constructed to sample a specific component of the target language within a particular skill.

On the other hand, Stern (1983) notes that language tests produced during that period clearly reflected the analytical procedures advocated by the tenets of structuralism<sup>4</sup>. In this context Stern (1983) notes that, **“the influence of structuralism on language**

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<sup>3</sup> Psychometrics, or the measurement of cognitive abilities, is a hybrid discipline combining psychology and statistics, was relatively asocial. Many language testers have recognized the limitations (linguistic and technical) of traditional statistical methods for language assessment research. **“... the linguistics which provided the intellectual discipline for thinking about the content of language tests was, at this time [the 1950s and 1960s] also largely asocial, focusing on langue not parole, on competence rather than performance... since the advent of communicative language testing, the structuralist heritage of linguistics ... has tended to focus on the immediate social context of communication”** (McNamara, 2008, p. 415). On the other hand, Inbar-Lourie (2008: 286) notes that **“The psychometric measurement paradigms that dominated the measurement scene throughout most of the twentieth century were compatible with behaviourist perceptions of knowledge, and with views of intelligence and learners’ achievements as innate.”**

<sup>4</sup> *Structural linguistics* or *structuralism* is an approach to linguistics which stresses the importance of language as a system and which investigates the place that linguistic units such as speech-sounds, words (free and bound morphemes) and longer stretches have within this system.

*pedagogy was pervasive and powerful and can be clearly identified with in teaching materials, teaching methods, language tests, and in the writings of language teaching methodologies”* (Stern, 1983, p. 163). Language testing was much more oriented towards discrete linguistic items, i.e. phonological, grammatical (morpho-syntactic) and semantic, and lexical contrasts between languages. Linguistic competence<sup>5</sup>, in the Chomskyan sense, was at the core of the language testing procedures dominating the “psychometric-structuralist” period. The psychometric-structuralist approach to language testing reflected the combination of structural linguistics and the psychometrist orientation which helped teachers to produce objective and reliable methods of testing the learner’s mastery of the discrete elements of the target language.

The psychometric-structuralist period is also called the ‘modern’ and ‘scientific’ in the sense that with the introduction of measuring tools and statistical procedures, it can be demonstrated that testing can be objective, precise, reliable, and therefore, scientific. In this vein, Lado (1961) stressed two main points that were of capital importance in the field of language testing: tests should test language *use* and not knowledge about language, i.e. *usage*; the structures to be tested should be valid structures in colloquial language *use*. One clear advantage to this approach is, however, that results are easily quantifiable. Yet, the main criticism one can make to psychometric-structuralist-oriented testing comes from the fact that it is largely based on an atomistic view of language (isolated segments) and on the premise that knowledge of the elements of a language is likely to lead to knowledge of the language.

Admittedly, there are obvious advantages to the testing of discrete linguistic points. The data can be clearly quantifiable; what is more, it is possible to deal with a wide range of items. However, this approach to testing assumes that it is indeed possible to parcel up language in a very atomistic way, and unfortunately, many discrete item tests are said to suffer from a lack of construct validity. The first applied linguist to advocate the discrete linguistic approach to language testing was Lado (1957) making use of structural

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<sup>5</sup> In *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965) Chomsky makes a seminal distinction between what the speaker of a language knows implicitly, i.e. linguistic competence and what he does, i.e. linguistic performance. ‘*We thus make a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in actual situations...*’ (Chomsky, 1965, p. 4).

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contrastive analysis, i.e. splitting language items into small testable segments<sup>6</sup>. There are those who do not value Lado's contribution to language testing. McNamara (2000, p. 89) notes that ***“his [Lado's] recommendations about testing dominated practice for nearly twenty years and are still influential in powerful tests such as TOEFL”***

The “integrative-sociolinguistic”, also called the “psycholinguistic-sociolinguistic” (Spolsky, 1976), period dates back to the early 1970s. It came as a reaction against the methods of language testing making use of structuralist and behavioural criteria. This is another way of saying that, Lado's views on the atomistic nature of language coincided with the advent of Hymes' concept of communicative competence. As Valette posits, ***‘The growing interest in language as a means of interpersonal communication has led to the development of communicative tests’*** (Valette, 1977, p. V). This period has marked the starting point in the development of precise and accurate methods of assessing language proficiency, and therefore a number of test types have elaborated and devised based on the integrative approach. Needless to recall the introduction of new approaches and methods of teaching requires the introduction of new methods of testing.

The fact that the discrete linguistic and integrative approaches to language testing only provided a measure of the candidate's competence (knowledge of language) and failed to measure the candidate's performance (ability to use knowledge of language in a communicative situation), this manifested a strong need for communicative language testing. As stated by Spolsky,

***Language tests involve measuring a subject's knowledge of, and proficiency in, the use of language. A theory of communicative competence is a theory of the nature of such knowledge and proficiency. One cannot develop sound language tests without a method of defining what it means to know a language, for until you decide what you are measuring, you cannot claim to have measured it.***

(Spolsky, 1989, p. 140)

The Second World War manifested an urgent and felt need to communicate in a foreign language, namely English. This urgency and vital need dictated its priority in the

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<sup>6</sup> The validation of the discrete-point language tests that featured prominently in language testing in the 1950s and 1960s was mostly couched in the validity conceptualization put forward by Lado (1961).

education system in schools as well as in barracks, and became one of the main goals of curricula in many parts of the world. The teaching programmes needed continual assessment to rate learners' and war personnel's progress; this marked the beginning of the modern testing era, the era of the testing of the speaking skill, i.e. communicative language testing. Kaulfer (1944) noted that tests "*should provide specific, recognizable evidence of the examinee's readiness to perform in a life-situation, where lack of ability to understand and speak extemporaneously might be a serious handicap to safety and comfort or to the effective execution of military responsibilities*" (Kaulfer, 1944, quoted in Fulcher, 2000, p. 486).

The communicative language testing movement, as stated at in the beginning of the chapter, came as a reaction or, to a lesser extent, as a form of dissatisfaction expressed against the criteria of reliability as perceived in Lado's work (1961). Yet, he reaffirmed his view on the testing of speaking; he posits that "*The ability to speak a foreign language is without doubt the most prized language skill, and rightly so....*" (Lado, 1961, p. 239). He also noted that the testing of the speaking skill was 'the poor relation' in the area of language testing. This "*...is probably due in part at least to a lack of clear understanding of what constitutes speaking ability or oral production.*" As for the speaking ability, Lado (1961, p. 240) describes it as, "*the ability to express oneself in life situations, or the ability to report acts or situations in precise words, or the ability to converse a sequence of ideas fluently...*"

### **2.3. What is it to Test a Language?**

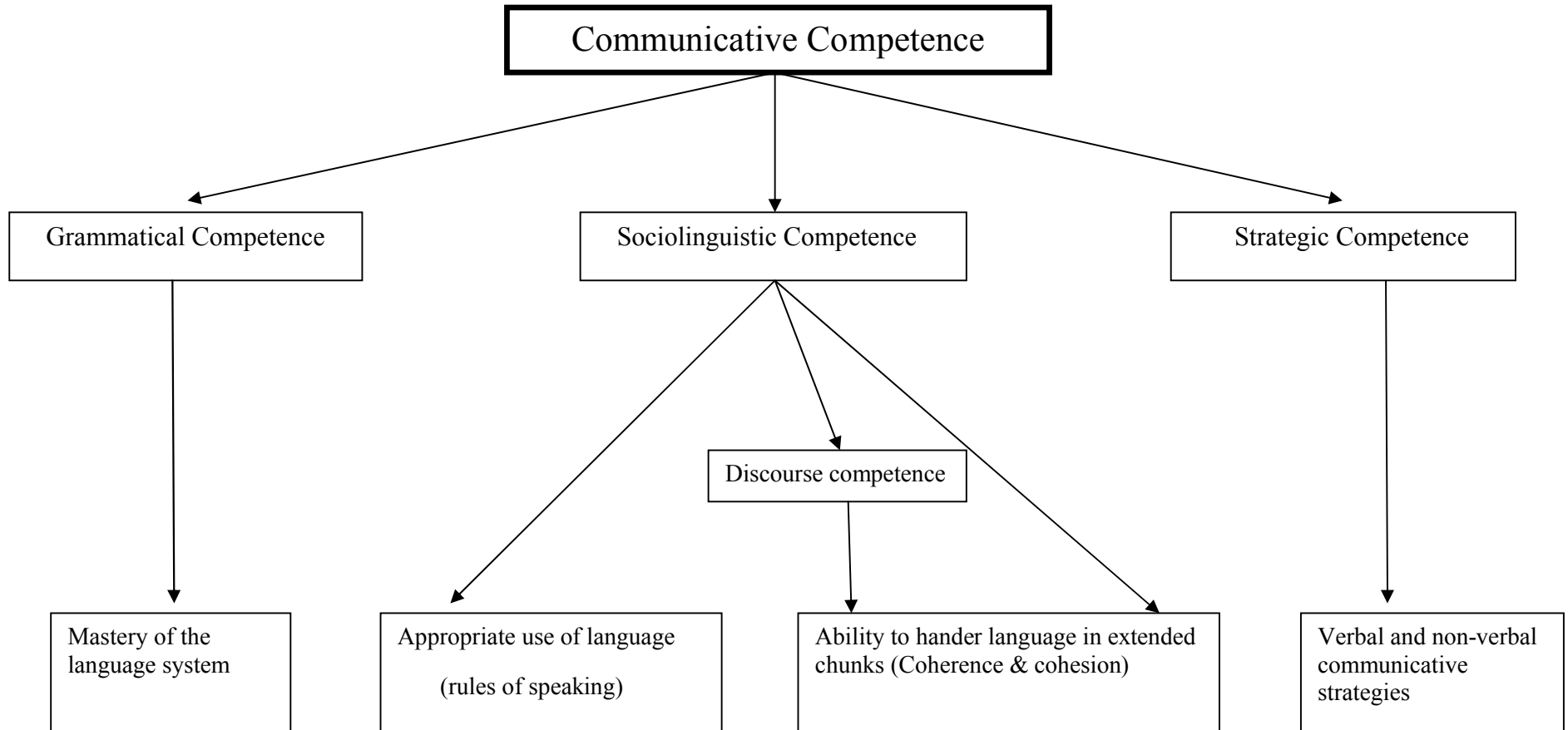
It is not an easy task to give a precise answer to the question: what is it to test a language? In common parlance, several attempts have been made to answer the question, however, to limit to the scope of our model answer, let us discuss the most influential models relating to Communicative Language Ability: Canale and Swain's 1980 model, Bachman's 1990 framework and Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model. Inspired by Hymes' (1971) theoretical descriptions of language use, the work of Canale and Swain was an attempt to "*determine the feasibility and practicality of measuring ... the 'communicative competence' of students*" (Canale and Swain, 1980, p. 1). In so doing,

they proposed a set of three types of competence which altogether make up communicative competence.

1. *Grammatical competence*, i.e. “knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence grammar, semantics and phonology.”
2. *Sociolinguistic competence*, i.e. “sociolinguistic rules of use and rules of discourse.”
3. *Strategic competence*, i.e. “verbal and non-verbal communicative strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence.”

(Canale and Swain, 1980, p. 29)

Canale and Swain’s model refuted Chomsky’s (1965) notion of competence for failing to account for the sociolinguistic appropriateness of utterances expressed in context. It has significantly affected both language teaching and testing. It draws a clear line of demarcation between the learner’s competence and performance. That is, it **“broadened our understanding of the L2 ability construct by specifying features of grammatical form alongside other components of communicative competence”** (Purpura, 2008, p. 57). In 1983 Canale slightly amended the 1980 model; he further elaborated sociolinguistic competence which still relates to the sociocultural rules, but he introduced the term *discourse competence* to refer to the mastery of cohesion and coherence (see diagram 2.1.). The Canale and Swain 1980,1983 model has impacted enormously on language test designers. It is also credited today for providing the main theoretical framework underlying communicative language teaching and testing. It is consistent with many aspects closely relating to linguistics and sociolinguistics. The Canale and Swain model has been, however, superseded by the Bachman framework of communicative competence.

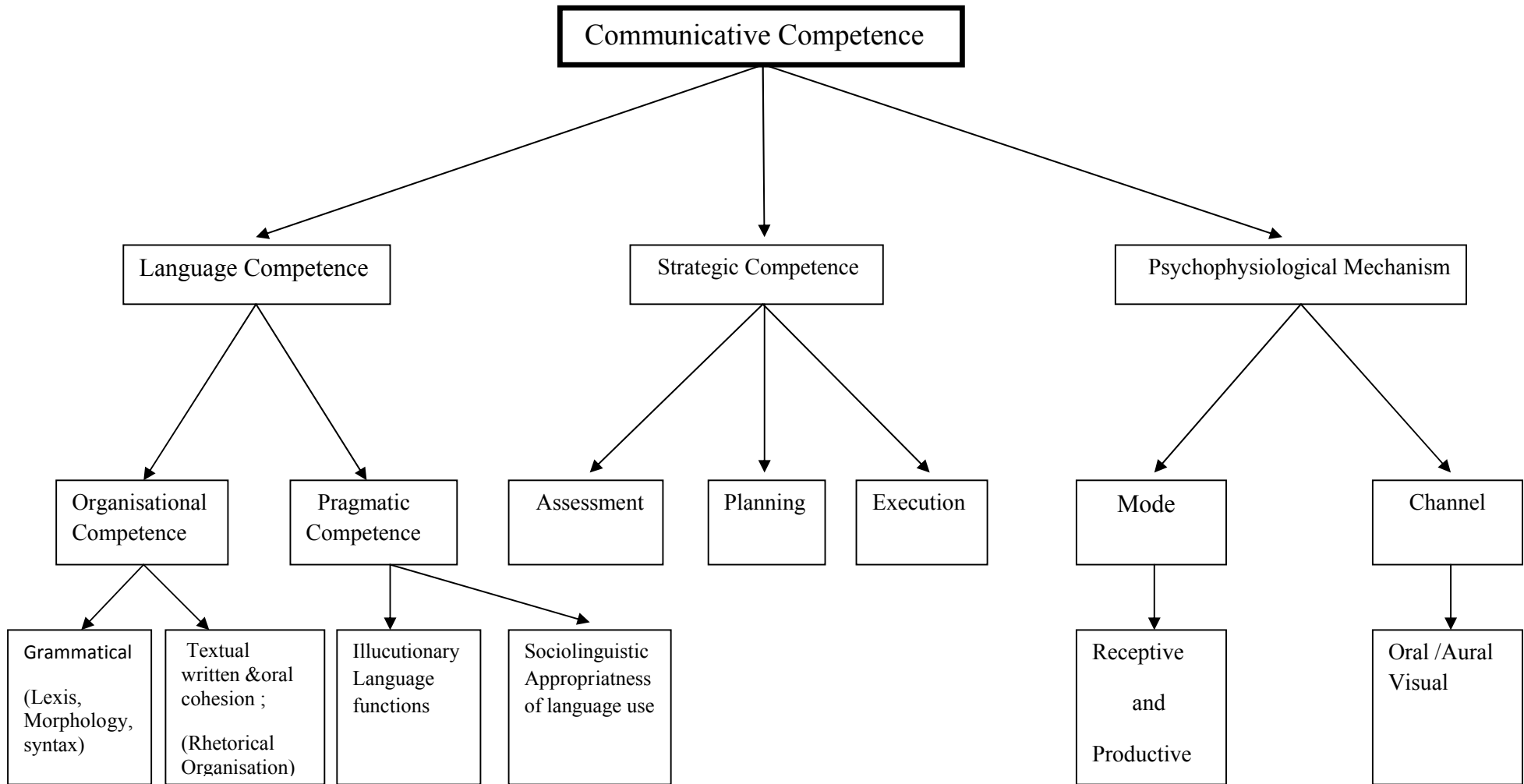


2.1. Canale and Swain's (1980, 1983) Model of Communicative Competence

## ***Chapter Two: Language Testing: Review of the Literature***

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In 1990 Bachman introduced a framework that drew largely on Canale and Swain's model. The framework in question includes three components: language competence, strategic competence and psychophysiological mechanisms. Language competence is divided into two sub-competences, organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Organizational competence covers both aspects of grammar and textual properties, and pragmatic competence covers illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence. Put simply, language competence refers to ***“a set of components that are utilized in communication via language”*** (Bachman, 1990, p. 84). On the other hand, strategic competence consists of three components: assessment, planning and execution. It denotes the mental ability to implement language competence appropriately in communicative situations and it covers sociocultural and real world knowledge. Finally, psychophysiological mechanisms refer to the neurological and psychological processes that come into play in producing and comprehending language (see diagram 2.2.).



*2.2. Bachman's Framework (1990) of Communicative Competence*

## Chapter Two: Language Testing: Review of the Literature

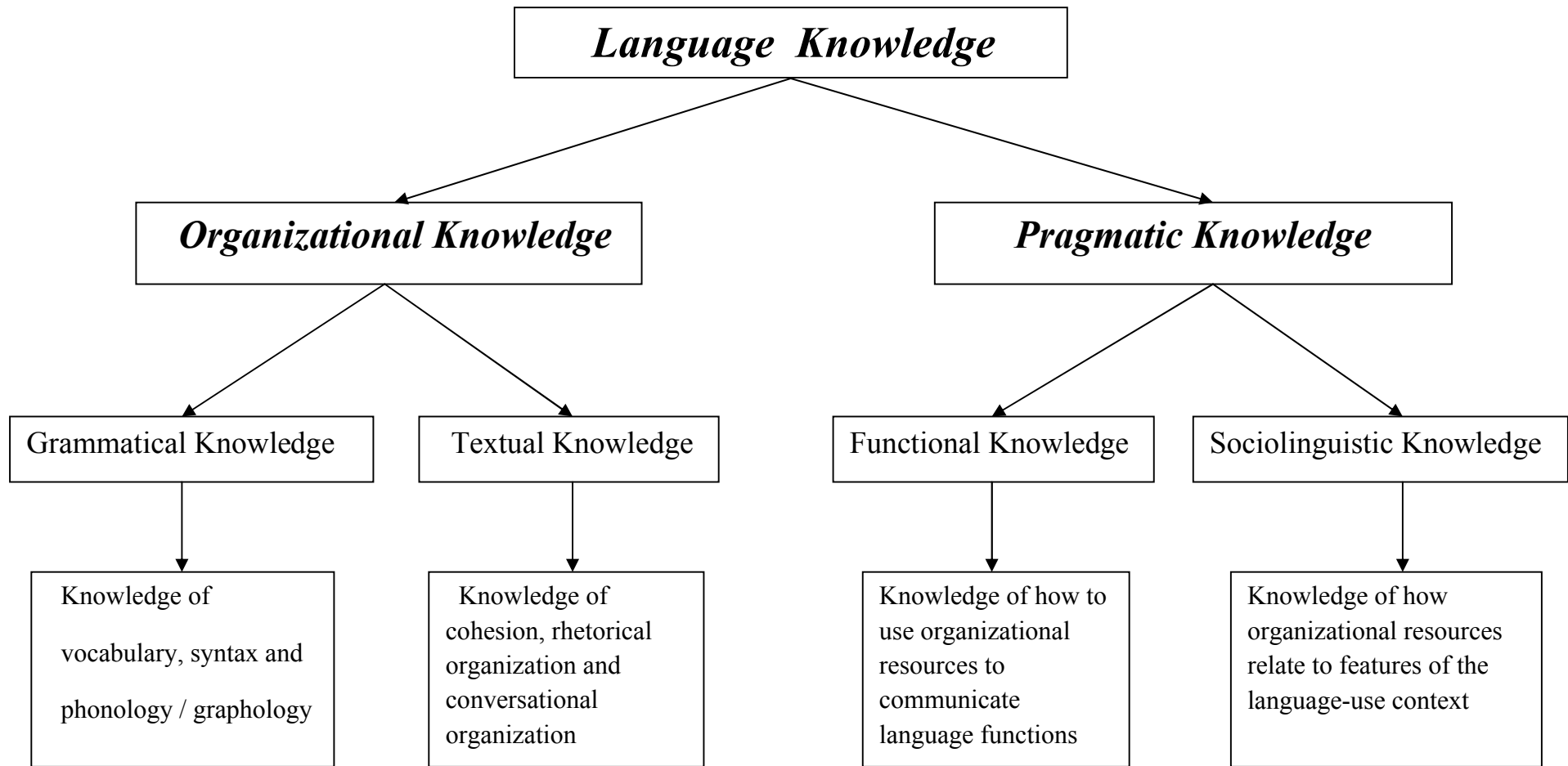
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In 1996 Bachman and Palmer proposed a more elaborate model in which language knowledge consists of two general interacting components: (i) *organizational knowledge*, or how individuals control language to produce grammatically correct utterances and texts, and (ii) *pragmatic knowledge*, or how individuals communicate meaning and how they produce contextually appropriate utterances, sentences and texts<sup>7</sup>. Organizational knowledge is further divided into *grammatical knowledge*, i.e. knowledge of vocabulary, syntax and phonology/graphology, and at the discourse level, *textual knowledge*, i.e. knowledge of cohesion, rhetorical organization, and conversational organization. Pragmatic knowledge is defined in terms of *functional knowledge*, i.e. knowledge of how to use organizational resources to communicate language functions and *sociolinguistic knowledge*, i.e. knowledge of how organizational resources relate to features of the language-use context<sup>8</sup>.

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<sup>7</sup> Pragmatic knowledge in Purpura's (2004) model refers to "*knowledge structures that enable learners to understand or communicate meanings beyond what is explicitly expressed by the grammatical forms and their literal meanings*" (Purpura, 2008, p. 61).

<sup>8</sup> This model is considered by Alderson and Banerjee (2002) "*to represent the current state-of-the-art, and has been a resource for test development in numerous assessment contexts such as the Test of Spoken English published by the Educational Testing Service*" (Purpura, 2008, p. 58). Bachman's (1990) model of language proficiency, further developed in Bachman and Palmer (1996), "*with its focus on the learners' abilities to use language, has been hugely influential in developing the agenda for research into task and performance based language assessments*" (Wigglesworth, 2008, p. 112).



2.3. Bachman and Palmer's model (1996) of Communicative Competence

It is commonly agreed that test design based on a communicative view of language, all too often, represents a challenge for test designers. One cannot draw a parallel between testees' good performance in class, and testees' good performance outside school in a real life situation. Such uncertainty and lack of systematic correlation are mostly due to the fact that real life communication is largely characterized by unpredictability and unexpectedness on behalf of the participants. Test designers have tried to devise real-world tasks, but fail to do so as they encountered difficulties closely relating to the varied and diverse nature of contexts.

### 2.4. Language Teaching and Testing

Language testing is a vital component of any instructional language programme throughout the world. It has evolved into an independent discipline that is characterized by well-articulated theories and a sound methodological framework. It is a truism to assert that testing undoubtedly is an integral part of the teaching-learning process. At present it is viewed *“as a means to promote learning (rather monitor it), in order to facilitate social and academic mobility, hence ‘Assessment for Learning’”* (Gipps, 1994; Stiggins, 2002 cited in Inbar-Lourie, 2008, p. 287). Piaget's cognitive development theory perceives learning as *“integral and inseparable aspect of social practice”* (Lave and Wenger, 1991, p. 31). Hence, teaching and testing are closely interrelated and complement each other in the sense that there is no testing without teaching, nor is there teaching without testing. A symbiotic dependence arises between teaching and testing.

Most commonly, educators use the metaphor of a coin to illustrate the relationship between teaching and testing: they are two sides of the same coin, but to really function properly the coin has a third side: the edge. On the two-sided coin of teaching and learning, the edge is testing. Though, most teachers view testing as a “necessary evil”; it is in, effect, a pedagogical in-class activity which serves many purposes and helps teachers set

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<sup>9</sup> Assessment for Learning is the process of seeking and interpreting evidence for use by learners and their teachers to decide where the learners are in their learning, where they need to go and how best to get there. (Assessment Reform Group, 2002 cited in Inbar-Lourie, 2008, p. 287). Interestingly, it is worth noting that *“Distinctions have been made between assessment of learning, i.e. focused on achievement and summative in orientation, and assessment as learning, i.e. that is formative in purpose providing feedback to learners so that they can improve their learning”* (Rea-Dickins, 2008, p. 257).

academic standards for their learners and provide them with feedback about the learning progress in general and teaching process in particular. According to Flavell (1981, p. 1), *‘A test is seen as a natural extension of classroom work, providing teacher and student with useful information that can serve each as a basis for improvement’*. Teachers’ feedback plays a major role in supporting, scaffolding and promoting students’ learning (Black and William, 1998; James, 2001; Shepard, 2005 cited in Inbar-Lourie, 2008, p. 287). However, it is commonly agreed that testing is a time-consuming and effort-demanding activity, and all too often it uses up valuable class time usefully.

Working on the assumption that testing is part and parcel of the language teaching-learning process, it follows logically that the person best prepared to set the test is the teacher. However, what the teacher actually needs in language testing is to be familiar with the general guidelines and key concepts underpinning the different test-types. Such a knowledge will certainly serve as a platform for teachers to devise practical, reliable and valid testing activities, and consequently give helpful information to both teachers and learners about successes and failings, to use Flavell’s terms. Though one of the biggest problems with testing is that of the standards<sup>10</sup>, standards are all too often ill-defined, the teacher, as a counselor (see 1.6.), is in a better position to make judgments about the appropriateness of a test for a particular class or level, and in effect cater for his learners needs. Additionally, it is worth recalling Flavell’s view which holds that the appropriateness of a test is largely determined by purpose: why is a test needed at a particular stage in the student’s learning and what use will be made of the results? The answers to these questions lie to a larger extent in the teacher’s mind.

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<sup>10</sup> The notion of standards refers to what a learner at every grade level needs to know and be able to do (Greenlee 2002). For example, the Threshold Level, which is actually used to delimit, *“the minimal level of language proficiency which is needed to achieve functional ability in a foreign language. It serves as an objective for foreign language teaching.”* (Richards et al., 1985, p. 293). In language assessment, *“standards have two senses: 1) The skills and/or knowledge required to achieve mastery and proficiency levels leading to mastery, along with the measures that operationalize these skills and/or knowledge and the grades indicative of mastery at each level. 2) The procedures followed by test constructors which provide evidence to stakeholders that the test/assessment/examination/evaluation is serious and can be trusted, demonstrating, often through a code of ethics, that the test constructors are operating professionally”* (Davies, 2008, p. 437).

### **2.4.1. Role of Classroom Testing**

Testing has evolved and has become extremely prevalent in our educational system today. Year after year, testing is increasingly becoming an issue of concern and as previously mentioned, classroom tests have their share in the language/teaching process. Yet the grading function should not be overemphasized at the expense the learning function. Valette (1977) notes that in-class testing fulfills three main functions in second and foreign language learning. These functions can be summed up as follows:

1. Definition of course objectives.
2. Stimulation of student progress.
3. They evaluate classroom achievement.

#### **2.4.1.1. Definition of Course Objectives**

From an instructional standpoint, classroom tests are used in a very helpful way to define the course objectives. In other words, they define the short-term course objectives envisioned by the teacher, as well as the content and nature of the language learning programme. This has a two-fold aim, for one thing, the teacher will be systematically geared towards the set objectives; for the other, the tests results will indicate how close the learner has come to attaining the objectives. In sum as Haertel (1999) posits, testing appears to be the logical approach to identify learners who do not meet expectations.

#### **2.4.1.2. Stimulation of Student Progress**

Traditionally tests have been devised by teachers to point up the learner's ignorance, errors and lack of application. However, from a didactic perspective, testing is supposed to offer ample opportunities for the learner to measure how well he masters specific linguistic items of the target language. In this context Valette argues that *'The test best fulfills its function as part of the learning process if correction performance is immediately confirmed and errors are pointed out'* (Valette, 1977, p. 4).

#### **2.4.1.3. Evaluation of Classroom Achievement**

Most teachers contend that testing is all too often viewed as a necessary evil. On should also note that testing on a frequent and regular basis provides the teacher with

valuable information concerning areas of difficulties the learners encounter. In this way, the teacher gets more about what aspects of language need further clarification and explanation and subsequently devise remedial activities. What is more, testing provides the teacher with clues and details related to the effectiveness and soundness of a specific teaching approach and method. It also gives an objective evaluation of learner's progress individually, his attainment of the set course objectives and his performance in relation to that of the other classmates. In sum, one should view testing as a bridge-building process between teaching and learning and classroom tests as mirrors in which teachers and students see their reflections clearly (Valette 1977).

### **2.5. Definition of Test**

In educational terms, a test can be defined as '*any procedure for measuring ability, knowledge and performance*' (Richards et al., 1985, p. 291), while Brown (1994, p. 252) notes that a test is '*a method of measuring a person's ability or knowledge in a given area*'. In very practical terms, tests yield scores that mirror attributes or characteristics of individuals (Allan, 1995). Brown's definition seems to be more comprehensive in the sense that it covers all the main components of a test. However, what does a test consist of and what is it intended for? Firstly, a test is a *method* consisting of a set of techniques, procedures and test items that constitute an instrument of some sort. Secondly, a test has the purpose of *measuring* the testee's performance in precise mathematical terms, assigning a grade, or expressing evaluative qualifiers, such as excellent, good, fair, poor and so on. Thirdly, a test is intended to measure a *person's* ability or knowledge, i.e. who are the testees and what is, for example, their linguistic background knowledge? Next, a test measures the *ability* or *knowledge*, that is to say, competence and know-how. Finally, the test is closely related to a *given area*, in the case of a proficiency test, that area is language proficiency, e.g. communicative competence. In other terms, "*The overall purpose of any form of language testing is to sample the language abilities of candidates in such a way that a realistic representation of their degree of skill in using language in non-test situations is provided.*" (Milanovic, 2002, p. 2).

Devising a language test that accounts for the different linguistic variables is not an easy task. Broughton et al. (1980) note that the preparation of tests for educational

measurement is time-consuming, expensive and requires expertise in statistical techniques as well as in devising suitable tasks for the linguistic assessment to be based on. Additionally, Brown (1994) remarks that, '*one of the biggest obstacles to overcome in constructing adequate tests is to measure the criterion and not inadvertently something else*' (Brown, 1994, p. 253). In this sense, he puts forward three requirements that are axiomatic to qualify a test as a "good" test: practicality, reliability and validity; in Brown's view, if these three requirements are carefully met, a test can be administrable, dependable and can actually measure what it intends to measure. On the other hand, Flavell (1983) notes that a teacher who ignores the interrelatedness between the content of a test and the consistency of the results it gives is in danger of writing tests which are likely to produce misleading information about the test-takers.

### **2.5.1. Practicality**

It is highly recommended that some practical considerations are to be taken into when constructing and administering a test. These considerations closely relate to financial means, time constraints, ease of administration, and scoring and interpretation. Undoubtedly, a test which requires considerable financial means and therefore a considerable budget is impractical. Additionally, a test which is time-consuming in the sense that uses up hours and hours to complete is also impractical. Finally, a test which requires individual one-to-one testing is impractical for hundreds of people and only a limited number of examiners. Conversely, a test that takes a few minutes for a student to complete and several hours for the examiner to correct is impractical. A test that is too complex and too sophisticated may not be of practical use to the teacher. In other words, it lacks *instructional value* to use Oller's (1979, p. 52) terms. In sum, the value, quality, credibility and formality of a test are largely dependent upon such basic facts and realities.

### **2.5.2. Reliability**

The criterion of reliability in test constructing denotes the degree to which a test gives consistent results. Actually, a test is said to be reliable if it gives the same results repeatedly when it is given on different occasions, or it is used by different people. Generally, if people get similar scores on parallel forms of a test, i.e. using different forms of a test which try to measure the same skills and abilities using the same methods of

testing, equal length and level of difficulty, this proves that the test is reliable. Harmer (2001) notes that, ***“In practice, ‘reliability’ is enhanced by making the test instructions absolutely clear, restricting the scope for variety in the answers, and making sure that the test conditions remain constant”*** (Harmer, 2001, p. 322). However, it is worth noting that the careful specification of an analytical scoring instrument can increase, what Brown and Bailey (1984) have called *the scorer reliability*, to refer to the consistency of scoring by two or more scorers or examiners. Put differently, the circumstances in which the test is taken, the way in which it is marked and the uniformity of the assessment it makes (Flavell, 1983). In sum then, for Lado (1961) reliability is seen as a prerequisite for validity (Xi, 2008).

### **2.5.3. Validity**

Arguably, the attribute of validity is in effect complex and multi-faceted. Basically, it refers to the degree to which a test measures what is supposed to be measured, or can be used successfully for the purposes for which it is intended. In other words, does the test evaluate what is intended to evaluate? For example, Harmer (2001) notes that, ***“to test writing ability with an essay question that requires specialist knowledge of history or biology- unless it is known that all students share this knowledge before they do the test.”*** Teachers can use a set of different statistical procedures to apply to a test to evaluate its validity. Such procedures seek to determine what the test actually measures, and how to what extent it does so. However, a question is worth posing this level: how are teachers to establish the validity of a test? The answer to this question leads us to explore other related aspects of validity; the following are of capital importance for the classroom teacher: content validity, construct validity, empirical validity, and face validity. In gross, teachers, all insist, in somewhat different ways, that test validity must account of how and where a test is used.

#### **2.5.3.1. Content Validity**

This aspect of validity is based on the degree to which a test adequately and sufficiently measures the particular skills it sets out to measure, what is called content specification, in other words, the extent to which the content of the test matches the instructional objectives. For example, a test of pronunciation skills in a language learning

programme would have low validity content if it tested only some of the skills which required accurate pronunciation, such as a test which tested the ability to pronounce isolated words with no reference to the other supra-segmental phonological features as stress, intonation and pitch. In this very specific context Flavell posits that ***“The content specification is important because it ensures as far as possible that the test reflects all the areas to be tested in suitable proportions and also because it represents a balanced sample, without bias towards the test material which happens to be available”*** (Flavell, 1983, p. 11). A related point worth raising here is that content validity is crucial for the teacher who sets his own tests. However, according to Lado (1961), content validity concerns the degree to which an item contains a language problem that is representative of the problem in real life. As Xi (2008, p. 178) posits, ***“A direct language test has to show face or content validity by demonstrating its resemblance of ‘real-life’ language situations in the setting and linguistic content.”***

### **2.5.3.2. Construct Validity**

The late 1970s and early 1980s saw the first hint of the notion of construct validity in language testing (Xi, 2008). This aspect is based on the degree to which the items in the test reflect the theory or the construct on which the test is based. For example, in language proficiency the greater the relationship which can be demonstrated between a test of communicative competence in a language and the theory relating to this concept, the greater the construct validity of the test.

### **2.5.3.3. Empirical Validity**

This aspect measures the validity of a test arrived at by comparing the test with one or more criterion measures, i.e. another or other tests which are known to be valid. Such comparison could be made on the following basis:

1. Other valid tests or other independent measures obtained at the same time, e.g. an assessment made by the teacher.
2. Other valid test or other performance criteria obtained at a later time.

### **2.5.3.4. Face Validity**

The criterion of face validity refers to the degree to which a test appears to measure the knowledge or abilities it claims to measure, making use of the subjective judgment of an observer. Put differently, and to use Brown's (1994, p. 256) question: ***“does the test, on the face of it, appear to measure what it is designed to test?”*** For example, if a test related to a reading comprehension lesson or course contains many dialect or slang words which the students are very likely to ignore, the test may be said to systematically lack face validity. Additionally, one way of finding out more about the notion of face validity is simply to ask teachers and students concerned for their opinions and views about the test. This could be done either formally by administering a questionnaire or through an in-class informal discussion.

## **2.6. Principles of Testing**

Many teachers still hold a specific vision about testing. They all too often regard it as one of the most controversial areas of the teaching/learning process. It is undeniably an in-class activity that is necessary as a form of completion of the teaching input and the learning output. Basically, if properly prepared and adequately implemented, testing undoubtedly turns to be an objective pedagogical tool serving as activity to check the effectiveness of the whole language teaching/learning process. Test scores provide a valuable measure of how well the curriculum is being learnt and help indicate how well students do at the main exit points of the school system, for example the baccalaureate exam. To fulfill faithfully the functions that are assigned to testing, teachers should turn their attention towards the following basic principles of testing:

1. To assess learners' performance in the target language the teacher should not give a task that the learner cannot perform. The task should be *authentic*, *realistic* and *appropriate* to their linguistic level.
2. Even when assessing the learners' performance, at any level, the learners should be given clear instructions well. They should know what they are expected to do in a given task. The ideas, feelings and emotions that the learners want to express cannot be limited to their insufficient linguistic input.
3. Teachers should test the outcomes or products of what they have taught their learners, not what their colleagues know.
4. Teachers should not use a technique not used in the teaching process as a test technique to have a positive washback affect of testing on language learning and teaching (see 4.5.).

5. Teachers should test learners' writing skills by having them write and their speaking by having them speak. This is what is known as 'construct validity (see 2.5.3.2.).
6. We teach people and we evaluate language ability but we do not evaluate people.

(Adapted from Korsal, 2006)

### 2.7. Analytical Review

Arguably, the teaching-learning process depends on a larger extent on the provision of learners with knowledge about language *use* and its *usage*, to use Widdowson's (1978) dichotomy, for linguistic and communicative purposes is most generally the most largely common assumption shared by language teachers in general and ELT teachers in particular. This two-fold pedagogical perspective can be best preserved, maintained and actualized through the implementation of a regular-basis testing schedule, i.e. continual control test. The literature dealing with testing in general and language testing in particular reveals the true facets of this oft-taken for granted and seemingly easy-to-do classroom activity, all too often viewed as part of a simple task and routinized pedagogical activity. In the field of Teacher Education Development, testing is another professional skill that is difficult to master due to the complex nature of the criteria underlying the aforementioned criteria practicality, reliability and validity.

Additionally, a test that is both reliable and valid is of no good if it raises some issues with respect to ease of administration and practicality of performance required of the learner. On the other hand, there are other test criteria and each tested given area, to borrow Brown's terms, has its own testing features and each test has its own specificities inherent to the nature of the test type it is intended for. Making use of Carroll's (1980, p. 16) concept of *economy*, a good test is expected to "***provide as much information as is required with the minimum of time, effort and resources***". Yet, Flavell (1983) would see the question of the qualities of a good test incomplete without taking into account the criteria of *comparison* and *discrimination*.

On the face of it, any approach to assessment and testing is based on comparison, either between one learner and another, or the same learner's performance as he was and as he is now. To relate comparison to reliability, Flavell notes that '***comparisons between two***

*sets of scores obtained from the same group of students are the basis of estimates of reliability'* (Flavell, 1983, p. 13). As for discrimination, it can be better explained in relation to a placement test (see 2.9.6.) in the sense the more sufficiently it discriminates between students, the easier it is to divide them in teaching level groups.

### **2.8. Approaches to Language Testing**

Language tests fall into four main broad categories or approaches<sup>11</sup>: the essay-translation approach, the structuralist approach, the integrative approach and the communicative approach. Eclectically speaking an 'ideal' test generally includes features of several of these approaches. In this respect, Shohamy (1996) notes that it is impossible for a single test to measure the complex nature of language knowledge and thus there is need for what she calls "**multiple assessment procedures**" (Shohamy, 1996, p. 152). Let's have a close look at each approach and what it consists of in terms of testing procedure. This will help us better understand the diachronic development of the concept of language testing.

#### *1. The Essay-Translation Approach*

This approach to testing refers to the pre-scientific period, or to the *Garden of Eden*, to use Morrow's (1979) term. From a scientific point of view, no special skill or expertise is needed to develop, administer and correct a language test. The teacher's judgment represents the final and definite evaluative procedure. The essay-translation approach-based tests usually consist of an essay-writing activity, a translation passage and a grammatical analysis.

#### *2. The Structuralist Approach*

This approach draws on the principles underlying language learning. It views learning in general as a set of habit formation. It leans heavily on the description of language elements as advocated by structural linguists. The structuralist approach-based tests aim at measuring the mastery of language through a knowledge of words and sentences in

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<sup>11</sup> Shohamy (1996) identifies three key eras in a sequence of development that corresponds to changing conceptions of language: the integrative era, the communicative era and the performance testing era (cf. 2.1.).

isolation, i.e. with no specific reference to the socio-pragmatic context. The language skills are tested separately making use of the principle ‘test one thing at one time’.

### *3. The Integrative Approach*

The integrative approach came as a reaction against the shortcomings and drawbacks of the structuralist approach. Its main focus is the testing of language in context. Thus, the language skills are tested integratively and are designed to assess the learner’s language proficiency in terms of *use* and *usage* to use Widdowson’s (1998) dichotomy. Integrative tests include mainly cloze testing (see 2.9.2.) and dictation (see 2.12.), however, translation and essay writing are part of integrative testing.

### *4. The Communicative Approach*

This approach to testing refers to communicative language testing *proper*, or to the *Promised Land* to use Morrow’s (1979) term. Communicative language tests are concerned primarily with how language is actually used in communication. Like communicative language teaching, the communicative approach to testing draws on largely on the concept of communicative competence as put forward by Hymes. In the communicative approach-based tests, emphasis is heavily placed on ‘use’, i.e. on one’s knowledge of the language system to achieve some kind of communicative purposes.

## **2.9. Types of Language Tests**

The needs of assessing the outcome of learning have led to the development and elaboration of different test formats. Testing language has traditionally taken the form of testing knowledge about language, usually the testing of knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Stern (1983, p. 340) notes that ***‘if the ultimate objective of language teaching is effective language learning, then our main concern must be the learning outcome’***. In the same line of thought, Wigglesworth (2008, p. 111) further adds that ***“In the assessment of languages, tasks are designed to measure learners’ productive language skills through performances which allow candidates to demonstrate the kinds of language skills that may be required in a real world context.”*** This is because a ***“specific purpose language test is one in which test content and methods are derived from an analysis of a specific***

*purposes target language use situation, so that test tasks and content are authentically representative of tasks in the target situation”* (Douglas, 2000, p. 19).

Thus, the issue of authenticity is central to the assessment of language for specific functions. This is another way of saying that testing is a socially situated activity although the social aspects have been relatively under-explored (Wigglesworth, 2008). Yet, language tests differ with respect to how they are designed, and what they are for, in other words, in respect to test method and test purpose. In terms of method, we can broadly distinguish traditional *paper-and-pencil language tests* from *performance tests*.

Paper-and-pencil language tests are typically used for the assessment either of separate components of language knowledge (grammar, vocabulary etc.), or of a receptive understanding (listening and reading comprehension). In performance-based tests, the language skills are assessed in an act of communication. Performance tests<sup>12</sup> are most commonly tests of speaking and writing, for instance, to ask a language learner to introduce himself or herself formally or informally and to write a composition, a paragraph or an essay, on the way he or she spent her summer holidays. These examples are elicited in the context of simulations of real-world tasks in realistic contexts. In terms of purpose, several types of language tests have devised to measure the learning outcomes accordingly. However, each test has its specific purpose, properties and criterion to be measured<sup>13</sup>. The test types that will be dealt with in this part have been laid-out not in terms of importance, they are all of equal importance, but on the basis of alphabetical order. Yet, dictation, the

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<sup>12</sup> A performance test is *“a test in which the ability of candidates to perform particular tasks, usually associated with job or study requirements, is assessed”* (Davies et al., 1999, p. 144).

<sup>13</sup> Richards et al. (1985) define a criterion-referenced test (CRT) as: *a test which measures a student’s performance according to a particular standard or criterion which has been agreed upon. The student must reach this level of performance to pass the test, and a student’s score is therefore interpreted with reference to the criterion score, rather to the scores of the students.* That definition is very different from their definition for a norm-referenced test (NRT) which they say is: *a test which is designed to measure how the performance of a particular student or group of students compares with the performance of another student or group of students whose scores are given as the norm. a student’s score is therefore interpreted with reference to the scores of other students or group of students, rather than to an agreed criterion score.*

traditional testing device which focuses much more on discrete language items, will have its fair of attention in terms of its pro's and con's.

### **2.9.1. Achievement Test**

An achievement test, also referred to as attainment or summative test, are devised to measure how much of a language someone has learned with reference to a particular course of study or programme of instruction, e.g. end-of-year tests designed to show mastery of a language. An achievement test might be a listening comprehension test based on a particular set of situational dialogues in a textbook. The test has a two-fold objective:

- 1) To help the teachers judge the success of their teaching.
- 2) To identify the weaknesses of their learners.

In more practical and pedagogical terms, Brown (1994, p. 259) defines an achievement test as *'tests that are limited to particular material covered in a curriculum within a particular time frame'*. In other words, they are designed primarily to measure individual progress rather than as a means of motivating or reinforcing language. Ideally, achievement tests are rarely constructed by classroom teacher for a particular class.

### **2.9.2. Cloze Test**

A cloze test, also alternately referred to as cloze procedure, consists of a set of techniques for measuring, for example, reading comprehension. In a cloze test words are removed from a reading passage at regular intervals, leaving blanks. For example every fifth word may be removed. The reader must then read the passage and try to guess the missing words. For example, a cloze passage looks like this:

*A passage used in ..... cloze test is a ..... of written material in  
..... words have been regularly..... . The learners must then .....  
to reconstruct the passage ..... filling the missing .....*

(Adapted from Richards et al., 1989, p. 41)

Here, the test-taker or the reader has to guess the following missing words: *a, passage, which, removed, try, by* and *words*.

The cloze test can also be used to judge the difficulty of reading materials. If the cloze procedure is being used for language testing, the test-taker is given a score according

to how well the words guessed match the original words, or whether or not they make sense. Two types of scoring procedure are used:

- 1) The reader must guess the exact word which was used in the original (as in the example) above. This is called *exact word method*.
- 2) The reader can guess any word that is appropriate or acceptable in the context. This is called the *acceptable word method*.

Another illustrative example of close test looks something like the following: ‘*A week has seven .....*’. The only word which will fit in this blank is ‘*days*’. But sometimes one can choose between two or more words, as in: ‘*We write with a.....*’. In this blank one can write ‘*pen*’ or ‘*pencil*’ or even ‘*chalk*’, ‘*computer*’ or ‘*typewriter*’.

However, two substantial criticisms have been made to the cloze-test types (Broughton et al., 1980). The first of these criticisms is that such tests rarely afford the person being tested any opportunity to produce language spontaneously. The second is that they are fundamentally trying to test that knowledge of the language system that underlies any actual instance of its use –linguistic competence in the Chomskyan sense- they are not concerned with the ability to master the language system for particular purposes with particular people in particular situations.

### **2.9.3. Diagnostic Test**

As its name denotes, a diagnostic test is primarily designed to diagnose some particular linguistic aspects. Diagnostic tests in pronunciation, for example, might have the purpose of determining which particular phonological features of the English language are more likely to pose problems and difficulties for a group of learners. One of the well-known diagnostic tests in English is Prator’s (1972) *Diagnostic Passage*. It consists of a short written passage that the learner reads orally; the teacher then examines a tape recording of that reading against a very detailed checklist of pronunciation errors. Basically, diagnostic language tests have a three- fold objective:

1. To provide learners with a way to start learning with their own personal learning programme or what would be called in the literature of testing *learning paths*.
2. To provide learners with a way to test their knowledge of a language.
3. To provide learners with better information about their strengths and weaknesses.

Ideally, diagnostic tests are designed to assess students' linguistic knowledge (knowledge of and about the language) and language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) before a course is begun. However, the term *formative* is sometimes used to designate a diagnostic test. One of the main advantages of a diagnostic test is that it offers useful pedagogical solutions for mixed-ability classes. In this very specific context, Broughton et al. (1980) contend that:

***There will certainly be a large block in the middle of the ability range who can be separated off as a group for some parts of the lesson, or for some lessons, and will form a more homogenous teaching group. If this strategy is adopted, the poor ones and the better ones must receive their due time and attention.***

(Broughton et al. 1980, p. 189)

### **2.9.4. Discrete-Point Test**

The discrete-point test, also called discrete-item test, is a language test which measures knowledge of individual language items, such as a grammar test which has different sections on tenses, adverbs and prepositions. Discrete-point tests are based on the theory that language consists of different parts such as speech sounds, grammar and vocabulary, and different skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing, and these are made up of elements that can be tested separately. Test consisting of multiple-choice questions are usually regarded as discrete-point tests. Discrete-point tests are all too often contrasted with what are called integrative tests. An integrative test is one which requires a learner to use several skills at the same time. An essay-writing is an integrative test because it leans heavily on the knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and rules of discourse; a dictation is also an integrative test as it requires knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and listening comprehension skills.

In this vein, Harmer notes the following distinction between discrete-point testing and integrative testing, *“Whereas discrete point-testing only tests on thing at a time such as asking students to choose the correct tense of a verb, integrative test items expect students to use a variety of language at any one given time – as they will have to do when writing a composition or doing a conversational oral test”* (Harmer, 2001, p. 323). In the same line of thought and Broughton *et al.*, more than some thirty years ago, noted that *“Since language is seen as a number of systems, there will be items to test knowledge of both the production and reception of the sound segment system, of the stress system, the intonation system, and morphemic system, the grammatical system, the lexical system and so on”* (Broughton et al., 1980, pp. 149-150).

### 2.9.5. Language Aptitude Test

Before one ventures into defining what a language aptitude test is, it would be wiser to start first by defining what a language aptitude is. Language aptitude, as a hybrid concept part linguistic and part psychological, refers to the genuine ability one is endowed with to learn a language. It is thought to be a combination of several abilities:

- *Phonological ability*, i.e. the ability to detect phonetic differences (e.g. of stress, intonation, vowel quality) in a new language.
- *Syntactic ability*, i.e., the ability to recognize the different grammatical functions of words in sentences.
- *Psychological ability*, i.e. rote-learning abilities and the ability to make inferences and inductive learning.

Additionally, Crystal (1989, p. 371) suggests other variables conducive to successful language learning such as *‘empathy and adaptability, assertiveness and independence with good drive and powers of application’*. A high language-aptitude person can learn more quickly and easily than a low language-aptitude individual. The evidence in such assertion is axiomatic in a language aptitude test.

A language aptitude test tends to measure a learner aptitude for language learning, be it second or foreign, i.e. students performance in a language. Thus, it is used to identify

those learners who are most likely to succeed. Language aptitude tests usually consist of several different test items which measures such abilities as:

- *Sound-coding ability*, i.e. the ability to identify and remember new sounds in a new language.
- *Grammar-coding ability*, i.e. the ability to identify the grammatical functions of different parts of sentences.
- *Inductive-learning ability*, i.e. the ability to work out meanings without explanation in the new language.
- *Memorization*, i.e. the ability to remember and to recall words, patterns, rules in the new language.

Two well-known standardized language aptitude tests have been used in the United States, the Modern Language Aptitude Test (Carroll and Sapon, 1958) and the Primsleur Language Aptitude Battery (Primsleur, 1966). Both of these are English tests and require students to perform such tasks as learning numbers, listening, detecting spelling clues and grammatical patterns and memorizing (Brown, 1994).

### **2.9.6. Placement Test**

A placement test, as its name implies, is originally designed to place learners at an appropriate level in a programme or course. The term “placement test” as Richards et al. (1989) note does not refer to what a test contains or how it is constructed, but to the purpose for which it used. Various types or testing procedures such as dictation, interview or a grammar test (discrete or integrative) can be used for placement purposes. The English Placement test (EPT), which is a well-known test in America, is an illustrative example of this test-type. The EPT is designed to assess the level of reading and writing skills of entering undergraduate students so that they can be placed in appropriate courses. Those undergraduate students who do not demonstrate college or university-level skills will be directed to remedial courses or programmes to help them attain these skills.

### **2.9.7. Proficiency Test**

A proficiency test is devised to measure how much of a language someone has learned. It is not linked to any particular course of instruction, but measures the learner’s

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general level of language mastery. Most English language proficiency tests base their testing items on high frequency-count vocabulary and general basic grammar. Some proficiency tests have been standardized for worldwide use, such as the well-known American tests, the TOEFL (see 2.9.9.), and the English Language Proficiency Test (ELPT)<sup>14</sup> which are used to measure the English language proficiency of foreign students intending further study at English-speaking institutions, namely the USA.

However, the Cambridge Certificate of Proficiency in English or CPE, as it is generally referred to, is the most advanced remains the only British top-value and high-prestige standardized<sup>15</sup> language test. It is the most advanced general English exam provided by the University of Cambridge. The Certificate is recognized by universities and employees throughout the world. The English level of those who pass the CPE is supposed to similar to that of a fairly educated native speaker of English. Clearly, as Valette posits, ***‘the aim of a proficiency test is to determine whether this language ability corresponds to specific language requirements’*** (Valette, 1977, p. 6)

Actually, there are four other types of Cambridge proficiency tests, the Cambridge Key English Test (KET), the Cambridge Preliminary English Test (PET), The Cambridge First Certificate of English (FCE) and the Cambridge Certificate in Advanced English (CAE). The material contained in proficiency tests can be used for teaching as well as for testing. In essence, a proficiency test measures what the student has learned in relation to a

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<sup>14</sup> The *English Language Proficiency Test* (ELPT) was the name of a test last administered in January 2005. It was a one-hour multiple choice question given on English language proficiency. A student whose native language was not English could have chosen to take this test instead of or in addition to the TOEFL for college or university entrance depending upon the requirements of the schools in which the student was planning to apply. Until 1994, the tests were known as Achievement Tests. The ELPT assessed both the understanding of spoken and written standard American English and the ability to function in a classroom where English is spoken.

<sup>15</sup> A *standardized test* is an exam which has been developed from tryouts and experimentation to ensure that it is reliable and valid. It is also a test for which norms have been established and it provides uniform procedures for administering (time limits, response format, and number of questions) and for scoring the test. ***“Standardized tests are often used by school systems for high-stakes decision making”*** (Menken, 2008, p. 402).

specific purpose, e.g. does the student know enough English to follow a course offered in English?

### **2.9.8. Progress Test**

A progress test is an achievement-like test. It is closely related to a particular set of teaching materials or a particular course of instruction. Progress tests are usually administered at the end of a unit, a course, or term. A progress test may be viewed as similar to an achievement test (see 2.9.1.) but much narrower and much more specific in scope (Richards et al., 1989). They help examiners in general and language teachers in particular to assess the degree of success of their programmes and teaching and therefore to identify their shortcomings and weaknesses respectively. Progress tests can also be diagnostic to some degree, in the sense that they help identify areas of difficulties encountered by learners in general.

### **2.9.9. TOEFL**

The Test of English as a Foreign Language, or TOEFL for short, is a large-scale language assessment. It is, ***“arguably the most well-known and widely used large-scale language assessment in the world”*** (Kunnan, 2008, p. 140). It was first developed in 1963 in the United States to help in the assessment of the language competence of non-native speakers. As a test type, it is a standardized test of English proficiency administered by the Educational Testing Service, Princeton. It is widely used to measure the English-language proficiency of foreign students wishing to enter American colleges and universities. According to Taylor and Angelis (cited in Kunnan, 2008) the first TOEFL was administered in 1964 at 57 test centres to 920 test candidates. Recently, the TOEFL has widely been recognized as a model test and have-take-test for our students, graduate and postgraduate, as well as our teachers and researchers in universities and higher education institutions wishing to read for higher degrees and develop further their research potential in North American universities<sup>16</sup>. Kunnan (2008, p. 141) notes that, ***“Over the years, the***

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<sup>16</sup> The International English Language Testing System, IELTS, is designed to assess the language ability of candidates who wish to study or work in countries where English is the language of communication. IELTS is required for admission to British universities and colleges. It is also recognized by universities and employers in Australia, Canada, and the USA. IELTS is jointly managed by the University of Cambridge, British Council and IDP Education.

*TOEFL became mandatory for non-American and non-Canadian native speakers of English applicants to undergraduate and graduate programs in U.S. and Canadian English-medium universities”.*

One of the most important realizations in the TOEFL enterprise was the launching of a more innovative test, the iBTTOEFL, internet-based TOEFL, in 2005. This iBTTOEFL is regarded as a significant development over the previous TOEFL forms and the TOEFL CBT, Computer-Based Test, launched in 1996. The novel features of the iBTTOEFL are a speaking section consisting of independent and integrated skills tasks, a listening section with longer lectures and conversations with note-taking, a reading section made up of questions that ask test-takers to categorize information and fill in a chart or complete a summary and a writing section that has both an independent and integrated task (see Appendix VI or visit the TOEFL website for details: [www.toefl.org](http://www.toefl.org)).

### **2.10. Reflections and Analytical Review**

Arguably, since the 1950s language testing has strived to evolve into an independent field of study and research all too often punctuated by a growing emergence of theories based on well-structured principles and sound methodological frameworks. Nevertheless, there is no need to reiterate that classroom-based language assessment is actually a complex and multi-purpose pedagogical activity. To that end the need to assess the outcomes of both the learning and teaching processes have led to the development of a wide variety of tests. Interestingly, one should note that there is an overt and clearly demonstrated evidence of cases in which one test overlaps with another or others, and it is, in fact, difficult to draw a clear-cut division between test types. Illustratively, in pointing out the differences between discrete-point testing and integrative testing, Harmer points out that:

*In many proficiency tests where students sit a number of different papers, there is a mixture of direct and indirect, discrete-point and integrative testing. Test designers find that this combination gives a good overall picture of student ability. Placement tests often use discrete-point testing to measure students against an existing language syllabus, but may then compare this with more direct and integrative tasks to get a fuller picture.*

(Harmer, 2001, p. 323)

On the other hand, it is also worth recalling that the difference between an achievement test and proficiency one is that the later is not linked to a particular course of instruction. From a pedagogical standpoint, they differ mainly in the way they are prepared and interpreted. One may add for the purposes of this argument that the dichotomy of language proficiency and language achievement is a point worth raising here. Language proficiency denotes a learner's skills and abilities in using a language for a specific purpose. In other terms, the degree of skill with which a person can use a language, such as how well he can speak, read, write or understand the language. Language achievement, however, describes language ability as a result of a learning period, i.e. a course of instruction. The endless debate on the development of different types of test would lead us to touch on a fundamental dichotomy of formative and summative assessment.

### **2.11. Formative and Summative Assessment**

The terms formative and summative assessment were put forward by Bloom (1971) to refer to language assessment and classroom curricula and pedagogy. Basically, the difference between the two terms lies in the fact that the former is administered during a course of instruction. Its purpose is to determine which aspects of the unit, file or sequence the learner has actually mastered and where remedial work is necessary. This would lead us to assert that the rationale underlying formative assessment is the identification of the learners' strengths and weaknesses so that necessary adaptations can be made and needed modifications can be introduced. Teachers all too often have recourse to the type of assessment to improve instructional methods and learners feedback during the teaching-learning process. Formative assessment should be an integral part of instruction that informs and guides teachers. It should also be done for students to guide and enhance their learning (NCTM, 2000)<sup>17</sup>.

The latter, however, is usually graded on a pass-fail basis. Learners who have failed are given the opportunity to improve their learning outcomes and take the test again. Additionally, the summative test, however, is one given at the end of a course of

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<sup>17</sup> The NCTM, as an acronym, stands for National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. The Council was founded in 1920. It has grown to be the world's largest organization concerned with mathematics having more than 80,000 members across the USA and Canada and internationally. By analogy what can be said about mathematics can be extendedly applicable to language learning.

instruction. Its main purpose is to measure or to sum up how much a learner has acquired of the course. The summative test is a graded test in the sense that the learner is usually marked and graded. This would lead us to posit that this type of assessment is used as means to gauge, whenever it is felt needed, learning outcomes in relation to content standards; It has an important role in monitoring the overall educational progress of learners. Thus, the difference between the two types of assessment is clearly illustrated in Black's analogy "***When the cook tastes the soup, that's formative assessment; when the customer tastes the soup, that's summative assessment***" (Black, 1998, quoted in Moodley, 2008, p.1).

The interface between formative and summative assessment has given rise to another form of debate. For the purposes of this argument, it has been reported cases of disagreement among teachers arising from "***the need for summative assessment data of learner achievement for bureaucratic reporting purposes and formative language assessment for their own instructional planning***" (Rea-Dickins, 2008, p. 259). Yet, the dichotomy of formative versus summative assessment has been "***undertheorized and oversimplified in the language assessment literature***" (Rea-Dickins, *ibid*). The ELT situation in Algeria is still largely dominated by the three 'T's': teacher, textbook and test, in other words, a teacher-centred pedagogy in which the prescribed textbook is the only teaching-learning material and ultimately, summative testing represents the lion's share in the overall assessment process. Effective language learning-testing is therefore seen as requiring a radical shift of pedagogy "***from teacher-centred to pupil-centred, from textbook-based to task-based teaching and from summative assessment to formative assessment***" (Ko, 2000, p. 84). The following table succinctly illustrates the differences between formative and summative assessment:

<b>Purposes</b>	<b>Formative Assessment</b>	<b>Summative Assessment</b>
What to assess?	All objectives of the file/unit (on the basis a few at a time) Learning processes	Selected course/programme objectives (representative of a given level)
Why to assess?	To provide feedback to learner and teacher on learning progression To determine need and type of remedial activity required	To determine level for placement purposes Graded on pass/fail basis Certification, i.e. to give rights to access to practice a certain profession and also a certain social position and status
When to assess?	Continuous, as part of the teaching/learning process	Periodic, at the end of a course of instruction/programme
How to assess?	Observation Checklists Portfolios	Standardized tests (norm-referenced) Achievement/placement/proficiency tests
Who assesses?	Teacher Learner Peer	Teacher Educational institution Educational jurisdiction/stakeholders
What decision to make?	To adjust teaching procedures To adapt learning activities To provide individual remediation	To award credits Certification Programme evaluation

*Table 2.1. Differences between Formative and Summative Assessment (adapted from various sources)*

In sum then, one may dare say that the teaching-learning-testing process makes up a single entity. However, the type of testing that is referred to in this context is obviously formative assessment because it tends to be positive in intent, promotes learning and is an integral part of the educational process. Additionally, from a pedagogical standpoint, it takes into account the notion of pedagogical achievement in terms of effort and progress made by individual learners.

### **2.12. Dictation: A Teaching-Testing Device**

Arguably, our bias in favour of dictation is clearly pronounced and supportably, we try to put forward some suggestions as to how dictation can form an integral part of a testing programme. It is to this end that this section strives to convey the intrinsic value of dictation as a testing device bearing in mind, however, that as a tool it has always had its ups and downs among test developers. Yet, let's first depict some aspects of dictation as a teaching device. Dictation, as a valuable language learning device, has been used for centuries. However, at present for some teachers, the word *dictation* is synonymous with old-fashioned, boring, and teacher-centred teaching/testing technique; while others still forcibly and tenaciously stress its pedagogical value. Today, many applied linguists, teachers and test-designers are at least inclined to agree with Finocchiaro's (1969, p.176) summary of its value: ***"[Dictation] ensures attentive listening; it trains pupils to distinguish sounds; it helps fix concepts of punctuation; it enables pupils to learn to transfer oral sounds to written symbols; it helps to develop aural comprehension; and it assists in self-evaluation."***

It is commonly agreed that dictation began to be used in foreign language teaching at the end of the Middle Ages. Initially, its purpose was to help learners write and interpret the new language. Since then, it has been introduced as an in-class activity within the grammar-translation method's framework for teaching the language system- phonology, grammar and vocabulary- of the new language. With the advent of the direct method, it was found convenient for the teaching of sounds and spellings. However, in the audio-lingual era of foreign language teaching, dictation fell into disfavour, as did other techniques related to the grammar-translation and direct methods. Savignon (1983, p. 264) notes that although ***"dictation does not test communicative proficiency, the reasons for its***

*popularity is that it has high concurrent validity, is easy to develop and score, and has high reliability*". Now that a more integrative approach to foreign language teaching and testing is highly recommended, dictation is regaining its former popularity.

After many years of ban from classroom, dictation is now being recognized as an effective diagnostic device for the language classroom teacher and an excellent integrative test to include in a language proficiency test battery (Oller 1973). Indeed, research in the classroom shows it to be a valuable technique for language teaching and for testing learners competence. Convinsingly, Heaton (1988, p.17) notes that, *"the integrated skills involved in tests of dictation include auditory discrimination, the auditory memory span, spelling, the recognition of sound segments, a familiarity with the grammatical and lexical patterning of the language, and overall textual comprehension,"* and contends that, *"dictation tests can prove good predictors of global language ability"*. Additionally, dictation has numerous uses in the ELT classroom, often involving very little preparation and a lot of creativity and interest. Used imaginatively, it can be an effective tool for working on accuracy and fluency in some aspects of the language skills.

### **2.12.1. Benefits of Dictation**

Though severely criticized by some educationalists<sup>18</sup>, there are several benefits that can be drawn from dictation as a testing device and as a teaching-learning technique. The following arguments can be proposed to try to convince those who view dictation with a critical eye:

- Dictation can help develop all four language skills in an integrative way.
- As students develop their aural comprehension of meaning and also of the relationship among segments of language, they are learning grammar.
- Dictation helps develop short-term memory. Students practice retaining meaningful phrases or whole sentences before writing them down.

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<sup>18</sup> Lado (1961) notes that *"Dictation ... appears to measure very little of language. Since the word order is given ... it does not test word order. Since the words are given ... it does not test vocabulary. It hardly tests the aural perception of the examiner's pronunciation, because the words can in many cases be identified by context. The student is less likely to hear the sounds incorrectly in the slow reading of the words which is necessary for dictation"* (Lado, 1961, p. 34).

- Practice in careful listening to dictation will be useful later on in note-taking exercises.
- Dictation can serve as an excellent review exercise.
- Correcting dictation can lead to oral communication.
- If the students do well, dictation is motivating.
- Dictation involves the whole class, no matter how large it is.
- During and after the dictation, all the students are active.
- Correction can be done by the students.
- Dictation can be prepared for mixed-ability classes.
- Dictation can be prepared for any level.
- The students, as well as the teacher, can get instant feedback (if the exercise is corrected immediately).
- Research has shown the learning to write down what you hear can encourage the development of literacy.
- Dictation can be a good indicator of overall language ability.
- During and after dictation all students are active.
- Dictation gives practice in correct forms of speech.

(Adapted from various sources)

In sum, then, we can say that dictation, as a teaching-learning technique in general and a testing device in particular, should be exploited optimally. Surprisingly, ***“Parents, students, teachers and the general community all appear to have a strong belief in the role of dictation in language development”*** (Cheng 1993 quoted in Adamson and Davison, 2003). Dictation usually takes a short time to administer, yet teachers are often invited not to give too much attention to dictation and to discourage its overuse.

### **2.12.2. Ways of Administering Dictation**

Dictation is in effect a listening-writing combination activity; it is a form of a listening comprehension test where learners write down verbatim what they listen to. Dictation passages may be presented in a number of ways. Of those ways, we have opted for Valette’s (1967) way for its simplicity of use and pedagogical effectiveness. She recommends in the following long quotation one effective technique for administering dictation:

*First, the whole passage is read at normal speed. The students are told not to write, just to listen carefully. Then the passage is read a phrase at a time, with pauses during which the students write down what they have heard. At this time the teacher may read each phrase either once or twice, as long as he is consistent. Finally, the entire passage is read again at normal speed, and the students are given a few minutes for final revision. It is imperative that the teacher never repeats a particular phrase at a student's request.*

(Valette, 1967, p. 140).

A word of caution is in order here, in many cases the language learner faces some difficulties when it comes to writing correctly proper names and proper adjectives. For example, the spelling of names like *Gloucester* and *Norwich* and adjectives like *Scottish* and *Briton* is to be provided by the teacher. The words are either written on the board or individually spelt out. One can extend this to words in which the sound-spelling correspondence is seriously noticed, for example, *lieutenant* and *colonel*. In a formal test, the instructions should be made clear to all teachers concerning language aspects of kind

### 2.12.3. Dictation Revisited

It is a truism to assert that dictation does not work for everything or for everyone. It is a test of integrative skills and a very convenient and useful tool in listening training. As a technique for teaching and a device for testing languages, dictation has witnessed some ups and downs. At times it has been the target of severe criticisms while, at other times it has been considered positively effective and reactions to it have ranged from strong opposition and relegation to enthusiastic support and application. Anderson (1953) seems to dismiss dictation as a teaching-testing tool in the sense that it is a very indirect and inadequate test of auditory comprehension. Additionally, Lado (1961) plays down the role of dictation in language proficiency development. Heaton (1975) backs up Anderson and Lado's views; he notes that dictation is not an effective means of assessing any one skill because it measures too many features. Finally, Davies (1977) clearly and overtly posits dictation is too imprecise in diagnostic information.

Conversely, Bloomfield, one of the most influential linguists of the twentieth century, strongly endorsed the use of dictation as a learning device. Oller (1979), on the other hand, does not seem to dismiss entirely dictation and recognizes the limitations of

dictation, yet, he considers it to be a reliable device to test language proficiency, if it is administered properly and scored fairly<sup>19</sup>. According to him, dictation meets both the criteria of pragmatic tests<sup>20</sup>, if the sequences of words or phrases to be dictated are from normal prose, dialogue or some other natural form of discourse. In this very specific context, he notes that,

*“A simple traditional dictation meets the naturalness requirements for pragmatic language tests. First, such a task requires the processing of temporally constrained sequences of material in the language and second, the task of dividing up the stream of speech and writing down what is heard requires understanding the meaning of the material, i.e. relating the linguistic context (which in a sense is given) to the extra-linguistic context (which must be informed)”.*

(Oller, 1979, p. 39)

To the question: Do you use dictation in your classroom? We obtained the following percentages in terms of frequency:

**Never:** 25.5%

**Sometimes:** 52.5%

**Often:** 22%

To the question: Do you think that dictation has a place in the modern English language classroom? The following viewpoints have been exposed (see Appendix VII for answers and opinions from other EFL teachers worldwide).

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<sup>19</sup> The scoring of a dictation test can be done differently depending on the nature of test's goals. Initially, in the 1960s and 1970s in the 6ème Exam (entrance exam to middle school), the scoring of dictation was simple yet very harsh; five mistakes rendered the dictation test's score nil. A more generous scoring method would be to fix the mark to 20 and take off half a point for each spelling mistake and a point for other mistake types. Alternatively, it would be to give a number of points for each word/phrase that is written correctly.

<sup>20</sup> Oller (1979) proposed what came to known as the *Unitary Competence Hypothesis*, i.e. performance of a whole range of tests (which he termed pragmatic tests) depended on the same underlying capacity of the learner –the ability to integrate grammatical, lexical, contextual and pragmatic knowledge in test performance. *“It is possible to be somewhat more precise in saying what a pragmatic test is: it is any procedure or task that causes the learner to process sequences of elements of language that conform to the normal contextual constraints of all language and which require the learner to relate sequences of linguistic elements via pragmatic mapping to extra-linguistic context ... Moreover, the constraints must be of the type that are found in normal use of the language not merely in some classroom setting ...”* (Oller, 1979; pp. 38-39).

## Chapter Two: Language Testing: Review of the Literature

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*Dictation is regarded by many instructors as teacher centered, outdated, a legacy of the grammar-translation method. The focus was mainly put on language accuracy, i.e. spelling. It is reminiscent for many unhappy moments in which former learners particularly at the primary level feared the most. The dictation was used as an end in itself devoid of any type of motivation. The only severe instruction the former learners still remember is that threatening instruction stating the number of mistakes that lead to zero.*

*Dictation aims at spelling through listening and writing skills within a wide range of sub-skills from letter formation to spelling, punctuation, lay-out... it can check and reinforce, for instance, the use of the final -s in third person singular; 's possessive; -s of plural ...*

*If dictation is carefully prepared and aims at the academic and mental age of the learner (connected to the learning outcomes and objectives of the lesson), the learners will surely find it of great interest.*

*The assessment of dictation is a formal and formative that aims to measure students' spelling and intensive listening skills. The students are required to listen to either a word; sentence or paragraph and write it down. Punctuation is also given prior importance. The main problem in dictation can be related to perception rather than that of production or a real problem of spelling. Assessment process should focus on spelling problems. The major problem we face is that teachers choose demotivated texts to dictate with bad pronunciation devoid of any evaluation grid.*

*The criteria and indicators of evaluation can mean different things to different people in different times. The students should know in advance the evaluation grid.*

(H.M. ELT Inspector)

*For cons upon cons, dictation has been used as an activity in both language teaching and language testing. It has been used as a means to transmit material from the teacher to the students in the first language classroom, and later, passed into the second and foreign language class. It proved to be useful when well integrated with other learning activities. Dictation seems to be an important resource of the direct method. Some linguists added a refinement to it to teach one particular aspect of the language, for example, the English sounds.*

*"Phonetic dictation is very stimulating to pupils and serves as useful test of their acoustic powers ..." wrote Sweet in 1898. Spelling could be another aim of the dictation exercise. Some teachers introduced the marking of all long vowels so as to ease the activities that follow. Dictation, here, is considered as a conditioning process used a formal repertoire for sound discrimination. This will certainly lead to ability in both listening and writing.*

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*Spot dictation, another type of dictation, focuses on the correct spelling of certain words (decided in advance by the teacher). It is generally used as a testing device to develop the mastery of the spelling system of the English language. It is very useful at elementary level.*

*As a conclusion, dictation of unfamiliar material as exercise in auditory recognition and accurate reproduction had been a regular classroom activity for centuries. It has always been recommended in the Algerian system of education. We believe that it offers more advantages than disadvantages.*

- *It helps the learner develop their auditory system*
- *It trains them in discriminating the sounds*
- *It gives them the ability to master the spelling of the words*
- *It aims at grammatical accuracy and textual cohesion, when learners are working in group in the dictogloss activity*
- *It trains them to relate what is heard to its graphophonemic form*

*The only major problem is perhaps the difficulty to administer a dictation to a crowded class: discipline problem, noise, cheating in the case of a test.*

(B.A. former ELT Inspector)

Some uses of dictation in EFL formal and informal tests have been proposed. Ideas advanced through discussions, interviews and questionnaires with both teachers and learners prove dictation to be a useful learning/testing device suitable for a wide range of levels, interests and ages. Virtually all teachers put forward the idea that dictation can offer an interesting learning path for language learners and a helpful technique for teachers that extends beyond the oft-held view of the traditional outdated teaching-learning-testing activity. However, a related question worth raising here is: *What are the criteria for text selection in a dictation test?* The answer to this thought-provoking question keeps the lines open to a better and optimal exploitation of dictation both as a teaching technique and as a testing device.

### **2.13. Conclusion**

Our concern in dealing with language testing at large arises from the urgent and pressing need to know more about the key concepts underpinning language testing in general and the criteria or requirements that are likely to contribute to make the different test-types practical, reliable and valid. Arguably, these attributes represent the skeleton of language testing as a comprehensive concept in both theoretical and practical terms. Additionally, this chapter is concerned with the many different steps ELT teachers can take to develop effective classroom tests. However, this ‘double-sword edge’ literature may either enrich our teachers’ knowledge about testing, or may add a further layer of confusion and complexity to the testing process. The teacher as a practitioner or a researcher is faced with such issue.

In-class testing is the major, if not perhaps the only source of objective feedback available to the teacher with regard the effectiveness of his teaching. In this way, assessment is to be used as a technique among other techniques to monitor learners’ progress and as a strategy among other strategies to make students learn better. Testing, in this sense, becomes an integral part of the education system in general and the teaching/learning process in particular. If properly devised and pragmatically administrated, testing should contribute to school improvement. It is widely recognized that the mission assigned to school is to provide education to children. Assessment has no value, or to a lesser extent, little value unless it contributes fully to that mission. One way to do this is to test more frequently, but less obtrusively. As Alexander (1967, p. vii) states, *‘an examination [in the sense of language testing] must always be regarded as something secondary, a by-product which the student will take in his stride ... It must never be regarded as an end in itself’*. Admittedly, in this research work our argument is in favour of bringing such issue to light in the classroom and fully integrating language testing in the teaching change process.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

# **ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN ALGERIA: TEACHING AND TESTING**

### **3.1. Introduction**

### **3.2. ELT in Algeria**

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## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN ALGERIA: TEACHING AND TESTING**

#### **3.1. Introduction**

This chapter is concerned with the current situation and issues relating to the English language education both at levels of teaching and testing. As a way of start, it first provides a brief diachronic survey of English language education in Algeria. Then, it deals in some depth with the current situation, looking specifically at the teaching-testing situation. Additionally, the chapter discusses the status of French swinging between a second language and a first foreign language, as well the new status that is to be assigned to English in the light of the relentless globalization phenomenon. The final part of the chapter will be devoted to a discussion of the problems and issues EFL teachers have been experiencing in the teaching of English in the context of integration and new world order.

The advent of democracy and the end of the one-political-party system in the late 1980s initiated overall politico-economic reforms that led to the exercising the open-door policy, and thus assigning the English language a higher status. As a result, English language education in Algeria has changed dramatically since then. The country is well aware of the key roles the English language plays in virtually all domains, economic, financial, political, educational, linguistic, scientific and so on locally and globally; these being, so to speak, the logical outcomes of the globalization process.

In the post-independence period, 1962 onwards, a variety of approaches and methods has been introduced and implemented for the teaching of English as a foreign language. Yet, it is not possible to draw a clear-cut line to distinguish periods during which a specific period a teaching approach/method was used. However, since early 1990s, a date marking the advent of the globalization process worldwide in very overt way, coupled with the shift of English from the status of an international language to that of a global one, English language education in Algeria has slanted towards the approach that places the learner at the forefront with the teacher's role as facilitator, i.e. a provider of creative contexts and supportive environments for language learning (see 1.6.). Additionally, the chapter discusses the status of French swinging between a second language and a first foreign language, as well as the new status that is to be assigned to English in the light of the on-going globalization phenomenon.

### **3.2. ELT in Algeria**

It is difficult to point to a specific date when English was introduced in Algeria. Yet, what is certain is that the language was part of the secondary school curriculum from the French colonial times. What are left today are some French mandated ELT textbooks such as the *L'anglais vivant* Series: *Classe de sixième*, *Classe de cinquième*, *Classe de quatrième*, and *Classe de troisième* dating back to the late 1930s and early 1940s. It can be inferred from the content of the textbooks that it draws on the principles of the grammar-translation method with its heavy emphasis on formal and explicit grammar teaching and translation exercises. Worth noting here is that the grammar-translation method being officially phased out in the late 1960s was replaced by the oral-structural activity approach. The activity approach was then replaced by the notional-functional communicative approach in the mid 1980s which in turn gave way to the implementation of the competency-based approach. The competency-based approach was formally introduced in 2003 and is still in use.

This explicit recognition of English as global language has led key stakeholders including policy-makers, textbook writers and teachers to reconsider the teaching of English at the different levels of education, middle, secondary and tertiary. Needless to recall, English is undisputedly the first genuinely global language of world

communication. It is the main language of the world of diplomacy and business negotiations. It is the language of scientific and technological literature. Knowing English makes such access possible. Indeed Kachru, in his book entitled *The Alchemy of English* (1986) contends in a very metaphorical way that,

***In comparison with other languages of wider communication, knowing English is like possessing the fabled Aladin's lamp, which permits one to open, as it were, the linguistic gates to international business, technology, science and travel. In short, English provides linguistic power.***

(Kachru, 1986 p. 1)

This global status the English language has attained is to a greater extent the result of the drastic and massive changes in the economic fortunes, and in the overall balance of world power (Crystal, 1990), as well as to the extent to which the language is found useful outside its original setting. No language has achieved such a widespread profile, or is likely to, in the foreseeable future. As Ibn Khaldun noted in his *AL Mukadima*, "***The triumph of a language reflects its speakers' triumph and its position among languages expresses its position among nations.***" In the same line of thought, it may also be appropriate to mention Halliday's long but right-to-the-point quotation.

***English has become a world language in both senses, international and global: international, as a medium of literary and other forms of cultural life in (mainly) countries of former British Empire; global as the co-genitor of the new technological age, the age of information. So those who are able to exploit it, whether to sell goods and services or to sell ideas, wield a very considerable power. Many people would like to resist this dominance of English. The strategic response would seem to be: do away with English. Don't teach it, or do anything to perpetuate its standing in the community. But most thinkers believe that that won't now work: English is too deeply entrenched, and if people are deprived of the chance of learning it they are the ones who suffer. That was not the case 50 years ago, when English was just one international language among many, and it may well not be the case 50 years from now; but for the movement that is how it is. It seems that if you want to resist the exploitative power of English, you have to use English to do it.***

(Halliday, 2006, p. 362)

The quotation is a convenient summary of the point the present discussion has now reached. It is also a corroboration of the fact that within the globalization framework, the open-door policy and shift towards a more international outlook, the English language will certainly be assigned in the near future a higher status and many of the domains, foreign

trade, scientific research and technological transfer, that are under the monopoly of the French language will gradually slide down to the inner, outer and expanding circles, to use Kachru's terms. It also brings to the fore the question of language attitudes and Adegbija (2005) clearly notes in this context that:

*Attitudes towards languages are motivated by several factors including their perceived socioeconomic value, their status-raising potential, their perceived instrumental value, their perceived esteem, their perceived functions or roles in the nation, their numerical strength, their perceived political and economic power of its speakers, their use in the official domains, their educational value, etc. Generally, positive attitudes, covert or overt, are developed towards a language that is perceived to have value in all these different areas ... Conversely, negative attitudes, overt or covert, develop towards a language in proportion to its lack of function or narrowing of its distribution in registers.*

(Adegbija, 2005, p. 54)

Clearly, the importance and value of the English language in the education system at the three levels, primary, secondary and tertiary, ought to be revisited and the newly-assigned educational status of English, worldwide, could serve as an index to inform policy makers to reshape the current policy in the Algerian educational institutions. No doubt, there are issues at stake which would need to be unveiled. However, much depends on the challenge of implementing an adequate language planning policy that strikes the balance between local and the global. There is no doubt that in educating the citizens of tomorrow, as Bolitho notes:

*We should be preparing them to cope with change in our increasingly globalised world. Among other things, this seems to mean laying emphasis on using language as a tool for communication and accessing information and developing transferable skills such as critical thinking and learning how to learn. These features should be in evidence in the curriculum and in textbooks as well as in classroom practices.*

(Bolitho, 2012, p. 35)

This quotation clearly illustrates what Wedell (2009) describes as an interpretive and dynamic view of the educational process, with an accentuated role of the teacher as a facilitator rather than a fount of knowledge (see 1.6).

### **3.3. Status of English in Algeria**

The issue relating to the status of English in Algeria can easily be addressed and unambiguously sorted out in comparison to that of the French language. The status of English in Algeria is almost the same as that in the other countries of the world where English is regarded as a foreign language. Also, it is worth noting that despite the hegemonic and imperialistic nature of English worldwide, it is still badly needed in Algeria for the purposes of communicating with the outside world, education, acquisition of knowledge, and development at large (Al-Khatib, 2008). The use of the acronym TEFL in the field of EFL confirms such a state of affairs<sup>1</sup>. However, things are rather different and complex with the French language which has been left over from a long period of colonial rule stretching from 1830 to 1962.

Two opposing views arise when evoking the thorny and sensitive issue relating to the status of French in Algeria. The first views, advanced by the politician who has largely been influenced by the former one-party ideology and the policy-maker, who still clings to the principle of *'it's the political that determines the linguistic'*, is that Arabic is the national and official language of the People's Democratic and Republic of Algeria, and French is a foreign language, the first foreign language; English being the second one, a logical outcome of status planning. This categorization of French and English in terms of first and second foreign languages respectively is an educational label, i.e. how these two languages are ranked in the education system and school curriculum.

The other opposing view is that of the linguist in general and the sociolinguist in particular, who, in the light of the different recognized and established functions the French language performs in the various domains, claim that French is a second language. In other words, as Benmoussat (2003, p.101) notes, *'the political view claims that Algeria is a monolingual nation, while the linguistic view considers Algeria a bilingual country'*. Arguably, why should one be afraid or ashamed 'to call a spade a spade' when it comes to talking about a situation that reflects faithfully reality, in other words, bilingualism and

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<sup>1</sup> In countries in which the English language enjoys a high status, English proficiency is therefore perceived as a requirement for upward social and economic mobility and lack of fluency in English reading, writing, speaking and listening would affect personal and professional advancement (Pal, 2005).

multilingualism in many parts of the world are the norm- not the exception. This problematic, thorny and highly sensitive issue would lead us to step further and deal in detail with the dichotomy of second versus foreign language proper and in relation to second and foreign language learning.

### **3.4. Second Language versus Foreign Language**

Several labels, linguistic, sociolinguistic and dialectological, have been assigned to languages and language varieties in accordance with the function they perform in a given speech community. In this respect, the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria is so complex that various terms are used to designate a speech variety in relation to its status. However, to launch into an in-depth discussion of the issues of language planning in Algeria goes beyond the scope of the present research work. Thus, in common parlance and in the context of non-native language learning, the term *foreign language* is all too often used in deliberate contrast to the term *second language*. Yet, although the two terms are to some extent used synonymously as in the context of TEFL and TESL in which the difference between the two is of geographical nature. TEFL is the acronym used to the teaching of English in Europe and North Africa, while TESL is the acronym used to refer to the teaching of English in Americas and Asia. Yet, worth noting, in certain cases a conceptual distinction is expressed in the use of ‘second’ and ‘foreign’ (Stern, 1983).

However, some applied linguists for example, Corder (1973); Widdowson (1983) and Crystal (1989), to mention just a few, do affect a distinctive value to ‘foreign’ language and ‘second’ language, recognizing major differences at the levels of learning aims, teaching methods and learning outcomes. They virtually all agree that a second language is a non-native language that, for some reasons mainly historical, used nationwide to fulfill some functions. These functions are communicative, instructional and educational, governmental, or commercial. Conversely, a foreign language is a non-native language that is taught in school but that has no recognized status as a routine medium of communication in a country (Crystal, 1989).

A word of caution is in order here, in the Algerian sociolinguistic context the term ‘second language’ refers to the French language. The issue is a sensitive one which needs to be ‘handled with care’. Therefore, it has to be clearly qualified, deeply analyzed and

scrupulously scrutinized. The following Taleb Ibrahimi's quotation is a reflection of the extent to which the issue is a sensitive and thorny one:

***Oscillating constantly between the status of a second language and that of a privileged foreign language, between the denial, the expressiveness of its symbolic power and the reality of its use, the ambiguity of the place assigned to the French language is one of the marked facts of the Algerian situation***<sup>2</sup>.

(Taleb Ibrahimi, 1995, p. 50)

Undeniably, the roots of the long-established and deep-widespread use of the French language in Algeria can only be traced back to one main historical event- to make reference to a historical event to explain a linguistic fact<sup>3</sup>. Historians virtually all agree that of all Arab countries<sup>4</sup> that were subject to European rule, Algeria absorbed the heaviest colonial impact. The French colonial authority had a firm control of education, government, business, and most intellectual life for 132 years. This policy of linguistic imperialism<sup>5</sup>, to use Phillipson's (1992) term, coupled with a policy of cultural domination, attempted to suppress Algerian cultural identity and to reshape the society along the patterns of 'L'Algérie française'. The effects of this policy, which continued to reverberate throughout Algeria after 1962, have perhaps been most evident in the legacy of a dual language system, a bilingual country *par excellence*. The language planning policies implemented in haste in the 1970s and 1980s did not succeed in bringing out the expected sociolinguistic outcomes.

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<sup>2</sup> Researcher's translation; the original quotation in Taleb Ibrahimi's *Les Algériens et leur(s) langue(s)* reads as follows: '*Oscillant constamment entre le statut de la langue seconde et celui de la langue étrangère privilégiée, partagée entre le déni officiel, la prégnance de son pouvoir symbolique et la réalité de son usage, l'ambiguïté de la place assignée à la langue française est un des faits marquants de la situation algérienne*'.

<sup>3</sup> By analogy to the Norman conquest (1066) to explain the influx of French words and phrases into the English language.

<sup>4</sup> In comparison to Morocco and Tunisia, Algeria's neighbouring countries that were under French protectorate, Algeria was a French territory in the true colonial sense of the word. The French colonial rule in Algeria had started in 1830 and ended in 1962.

<sup>5</sup> Phillipson, in his book *Linguistic Imperialism* (1992) describes the spread of English as a post colonial endeavour of core English-speaking countries to maintain dominance over periphery and many developing countries. He coins the term 'linguistic imperialism' to describe a situation in which "*the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages*" (Phillipson, 1992, p. 47).

Admittedly, the French language is France's linguistic legacy to the Algerian people after a long period of colonial rule and power (1830-1962), and its value as an important language of wider communication continues to be recognized for '***full participation in the political and economic life of the nation***' (Paulston, 1974, pp.12-13). However, from a purely political standpoint and a deep patriotic sentiment, it is worth noting that all four Algerian constitutions (1963, 1976, 1989, and 1996) reject in bulk any idea of multilingualism and any aspect of multiculturalism, affirming that Arabic is the sole official and national language. Nonetheless, the sociolinguistic situation is a denial to an existing situation and confirms the assertion that Algeria is actually a multilingual country where Arabic, French and to some extent Tamazight, are, to varying degrees, linguistic traits of the sociolinguistic portrait of Algeria. About a decade ago, Tamazight was proclaimed unofficially the second national language of Algeria.

More tellingly, perhaps, from the educational standpoint, it is arguably a common belief among many Algerians, especially the what-used-to be called 'Francophones'<sup>6</sup> that the introduction of Arabic instead of French as the sole medium of education has led to a general fall in the pupils' academic standards. Additionally, this has also led to low language proficiency among many students, or to what Brann (1990) calls a situation of 'semilingualism' to refer to the inability to use fluently two different language systems one is supposed to know. Worse still, some extremists, among the anti-Arabic, view the Arabic as a language of backwardness, religious extremism and underdevelopment, lacking the inherent characteristics of a modern, fully-developed and open language. This lack explains its unscientific nature that renders it unable to cope with the demands of state-of-the-art technology. It is a language that fits appropriately within the framework of 'Arts and Belles Lettres'.

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<sup>6</sup>The term *Francophones* is used here to refer to the offspring of the French School, i.e. those who view French as a key to education and economic betterment, modernization and progressive values. The term is used in deliberate contrast to *Arabophones* or *Arabisants*.

### **3.4.1. Rationale of Second Language Teaching-Learning**

In very plain terms, one may wonder about the rationale underlying the teaching-learning of a second language. In our very specific context, the question may be formulated differently: what is the usefulness of the French language in Algeria? As stated earlier, the French language is Algeria's linguistic legacy resulting from a long and a merciless colonial period. Paradoxically, its value as an international and a language of wider communication continues to be highly recognised and greatly appreciated and deeply-established in the intellectual academia. Although worldwide the English language takes the lead in the fields of scientific and technological research, in Algeria the French language has its fair share as the language of access to science, technology, and international business. The 2004 reform of the educational system reinstated French as the first foreign language to be taught as a compulsory subject from the third year of the primary school education (3<sup>ème</sup> Année Primaire). Its teaching is much more oriented towards an accumulation of a knowledge about the language. Yet, the learner of French, unlike the English one, has more opportunities to come across the language outside school and therefore to consolidate what has been learnt in class in a rather practical way.

The language-planning process<sup>7</sup> in Algeria has resulted in a language shift, with Arabic replacing French to a certain degree in various areas of social life. However, paradoxically, owing to the policy of compulsory education for all, more people nowadays have a good working knowledge of French than during the colonial period. Yet, despite the large and nationwide Arabisation programme, French still remains the most widely used working language in many state-run administration and enterprises and virtually in all the private sector. However, there has been a growing concern that the level of French language among Algerians have dropped quite significantly and that is due to French no longer being the language of instruction in schools. A fact that has become obvious to

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<sup>7</sup> Shohamy (2003) offers the following distinction between language policy and language education policy: *“Language policy is concerned with the decisions that people make about languages and their use in society, whereas language education policy refers to carrying out such decisions in the specific contexts of schools and universities in relation to home languages and to foreign and second languages... “* (Shohamy, 2003, p. 279). Language education policy therefore *“pertains to which languages will be the medium of instruction in schools, which languages will be taught, how they will be taught, and to whom they will be taught”* (Menken, 2008, p. 402).

many students who obtained an education in Arabic as their prospects for gainful employment becomes bleak without facility in French. For the élite French still constitutes the medium of modernization and technology. It facilitates the access to Western commerce and to economic development and culture.

Of the various factors that overtly reinforce and consolidate the presence of French in the Algerian society are the advent and the ready availability of satellite dishes which have introduced all the French television channels into Algerian homes. However, despite the fact that Algeria is not a member of the French-speaking countries (francophonie), the current President Bouteflika attended the 1999, 2004 and 2008 francophone summits. Following his election in 1999 and his re-election in 2004, President Bouteflika dealt with issues that had hitherto been squashed by major taboos linked to Algerian history, religious practices, and the linguistic reality of the country. He *'praised the Jewish and Christian heritage of Algeria'* (Benrabah, 2004, p. 51) and he was eager *'to re-establish a strong bilateral relationship with France by restoring technical and cultural education'* (Naylor, 2000, p. 288). The very recent official visit of France's newly elected President, François Holland in December 2012 to Algeria and to the University of Tlemcen, where he was awarded the honorary degree Honoris Causa Doctorate, will certainly give a second wind to the bilateral relations between the two countries, especially at the level of education.

### **3.4.2. Rationale of Foreign Language Teaching-Learning**

The post-war period heralded the advent of an age of an unprecedented expansion of scientific, technical/ technological and economic activity worldwide. This has led to a flow of exchange between virtually all world nations. This state of affairs soon generated a need for a *lingua franca*, a language to be used by speakers who do not share the same linguistic background. For various obvious reasons and more particularly for economic and military supremacy of initially Great Britain in the nineteenth century and the USA in the twentieth century, the *de facto* selection fell onto the English language. The English language was first spread around the world in the nineteenth century as a result of the growing British Empire. As British political power waned at the beginning of the twentieth

century, American influence and prestige was on the ascendancy, further spreading the use of English and turning its status from a *lingua franca* to a global language.

The establishment of the colonial British Empire across the world in the nineteenth century gave English the status of an international language along with other European languages. Paradoxically, those languages, the ‘flagship’ of colonialism, not least English, have become the languages of Westernization or modernization for most colonized countries of the world and hence, ***‘English standards have become touchstones of internationalization’*** (Tam & Weiss, 2004, p. XI). In his book *English as a Global Language*, Crystal (1997) explains how the British Empire has given way to the empire of English; the following quotation clearly puts light on the notion of global language:

***The present-day status of English is primarily the result of two factors: the expansion of British colonial empire, which peaked towards the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, and the emergence of the United States as the leading economic power of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. It is the latter factor which continues to explain the world position of the English language today.***

(Crystal, 1997, p. 53)

Crystal has outlined various types of power which best explain why English has become dominant throughout the world; among those influences, he rightfully puts the spotlight on the military and economic supremacy of both Britain (in the 19<sup>th</sup> century) and the United States (in the 20<sup>th</sup> century) serving in this sense as key factor in sustaining today’s influence of the Anglo-American pole over the rest of world. Additionally, with the advent of the globalization process, and the shrinking of the world in a village-like planet, or is what called today in the literature on globalization, ‘global village’<sup>8</sup>, the status of English is moving far beyond the other international languages.

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<sup>8</sup> Percy W. Lewis is accredited with having introduced the term ‘global village’ in his book *America and Cosmic Man* (1948), however, it gained popularity in Marshall Mc Luhan’s books *The Gutenberg Galaxy: The Making of Typographic Man* (1962) and *Understanding Media* (1964). McLuhan described how the world would be contracted into a village-like planet by electric technology and the instantaneous movement of information. Today, the concept of ‘Global Village’ is mostly used as a metaphor to refer to the wide use of the Internet and World Wide Web. On the Internet, the notion of physical distance is no more a barrier or a hindrance to the real-time communicative activities of people. Therefore, this technology fosters the implementation of a conglomerate yet unified global community.

Shohamy (2006, p. 95) highlights the following as *“the three major language policy implications of testing: determining prestige and status of languages, standardizing and perpetuating language correctness, and suppressing language diversity.”* The first one is our direct concern, for example, *the use of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) internationally to determine school or university entrance contributes to the high status and prestige of English as a global language* (Menken, 2008, p. 404). In this way, one dare say that, at present in the light of the globalization process, the learning of other languages other than English does not count as much as English.

It is worth noting that in Algeria the notion of foreign language is generally equated with English, as more than ninety-five percent of the pupils in Middle and Secondary schools study that language. The rest are oriented towards the learning of Spanish. At university level, virtually all specialisms incorporate a module of English at both graduation and postgraduation levels. The global importance of the English language as a language of science and technology, i.e. *a sine qua non* condition for development in its broader sense, is fully recognized.

### **3.4.3 What Does it Mean to Learn English in Algeria?**

Some thirty years ago Cunningsworth in his article *‘What Does It Mean To Learn a Foreign Language’* (1983) outlined a number of reasons acting as drivers to learning a foreign language. Among the most obvious reasons, he notes that learning a language involves learning to use the linguistic resources provided by the language. Needless to say when it comes to learning English, there are several benefits that can accrue to a learner who is animated with a high degree of integrative motivation. The English language abounds with a rich literature, a wide variety of songs and a fully-boosted film-making industry. As for the learner who is instrumentally motivated, there are many advantages that can be obtained from a mastery of the English language. Additionally, there is no doubt that a good command of the linguistic components and pragmatic dimension of an international language or a language of wider communication, not least English, is necessary to facilitate international communication. Yet far beyond the linguistic

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knowledge, there are other major assets that can be achieved in the light of the globalization process.

In the past the driving reasons for teaching-learning foreign languages, or what used to be called “Les langues vivantes étrangères”, were not well defined. *“A knowledge of a foreign language had been generally regarded as a sign of a well-rounded education, but few had really questioned why it was necessary. Learning a language was, so to speak, its own justification* (Hutchinson and Walter, 1995, p. 6). However, the recent changes in Algeria’s politico-economic policies, which are actually logical outcomes of the on-going globalization process, have significantly borne on the creation of new ‘institutions’ offering opportunities for the learning of the English language outside the classical state-run institutions. Hence with the implementation of non-French- and non-Arabic-speaking foreign companies and the proliferation of joint-ventures, the English language will gain much importance and a higher status in Algeria.

#### **3.4.4. Functionalism in Language Learning**

The post-war period has witnessed the greatest changes in the history of language learning. It has also been an odyssey of controversies and conflicting views. More languages are now learned by people from all walks of life, and methods and approaches of teaching and learning foreign languages, not least English, are changing radically. Moreover, the dramatic advances in linguistic sciences and other related subjects, notably psychology and sociology have markedly contributed the increasing study of languages as part of general education. As Corder (1973, p. 81) pointed out, *“A process of ‘bridge-building’ has been taking place with the emergence of what can be called ‘hybrid’ disciplines, part linguistics and part psychology (psycholinguistics) and part linguistics and part sociology (sociolinguistics)*. In other words, psychology is concerned with the study of learning strategies and sociolinguistics with the study of language in society.

Additionally, the integration of sociolinguistics in the field of language teaching methodology has been a radical revolution. This branch of linguistics concerns itself particularly with language as it is used in a speech community. It employs the concepts and research techniques of sociology and linguistics. As Rivers (1981, p. 84) posited, *“It [sociolinguistics] brings to light interesting information about language in organized*

*communicative interaction within a community, about domains of language use..”.*

However, the novel and important aspect of sociolinguistics has been the elaboration of the concept of *communicative competence*, i.e. the individual’s achievement of appropriateness and effectiveness in his choice of language (and associated non-verbal behaviour). Hymes pointed out that linguistic research was to establish what a speaker “*needs to know to communicate effectively and culturally in significant settings*” (Hymes, 1974, p. 75).

Language, therefore, is no more considered as a system of elements, but rather as artifact, which arises from social and individual needs. In other terms, language should be described in terms of its functions. A functionalist view of language requires of the linguist a different answer to the question ‘what is language?’ and raises new questions, ‘how does language work?’, ‘what is language for?’ and so on, in other words, language functionalism. Functionalism views language as “*a dynamic, open system by means of which a community exchanges information*”. In this respect, one must understand the functions of language can perform and what various mechanisms are involved to cope with these functions. Jakobson (1960), Halliday (1975) and the Council of Europe (1975) have elaborated the basic functions language performs. For the sake of clarity and simplicity, we have opted to use the terminology proposed by Hartmann and Stork in their *Dictionary of Language and Linguistics* (1972). The basic functions proposed are as follows:

*Representational*, i.e. the use of language for the purpose of portraying a situation.

*Appellative*, i.e. the use of language for the purpose of asking for a response or action by the person addressed.

*Expressive*, i.e. the use of language for the purpose of verbalizing a person’s feelings.

*Communicative*, i.e. the use of language for the purpose of conveying information between a speaker or writer and a listener or a reader.

*Cognitive*, i.e. the use of language for the purpose of intellectual activity such as reasoning.

From a pedagogical perspective, the functionalist approach has advocated the apprehensions by the pupils themselves of the way language works. Functionalists prefer learners to develop a rule of generalisations themselves after they have heard or seen certain forms and practised them in a number of different ways, following a process of

inductive learning, i.e. moving from the examples to the rule. Thus, a functional approach, to be effective, requires ready participation and involvement of the learner in the learning activities (Rivers, 1981).

### **3.5. Methods and Approaches**

The history of ELT in Algeria is a tale of ambition and accomplishment. Along this path, English language education has witnessed the implementation of the different methods and approaches that the literature of foreign language learning/teaching has developed and elaborated, moving from the most ancient classical method, the Grammar-Translation Method, to the most recent one, the Competency-Based approach, or CBA for short, en passant by Communicative Language Teaching. For the sake of a comprehensive study of English language teaching methodology in Algeria, let us have a look at the different methods and approaches that have significantly marked EFL classrooms, viz. the Grammar Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Structural Approach, the Communicative Approach and finally the Competency-Based Approach.

#### **3.5.1. Grammar-Translation Method**

The Grammar-Translation Method originated in Prussia in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century; it was the offspring of the German scholastic philosophy, and was therefore first known in America as the Prussian method. It dominated the field of foreign language learning for more than a century. Earlier in the twentieth century this method was used for the purpose of helping students read and appreciate foreign language literature, and grow intellectually. It is still acknowledged as the most popular method and is still widely used in many parts of the world. In this very specific context, Miliani notes,

***“Practice shows that traditional methods continue to prevail despite the progress achieved in methodology. It seems, therefore, that the methodological routine continue more than ever as it is subject to a superficial coating of new labels whose philosophies are only rarely internalized by teachers.”***<sup>9</sup>

(Miliani, 1998, p. 14)

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<sup>9</sup>Researcher’s translation; the original quotation reads as follows: « *La pratique nous montre que les méthodes traditionnelles continuent de sévir en dépit des progrès méthodologiques réalisés. Il apparaît ainsi que la routine méthodologique continue de plus belle car soumise à l’habillage superficiel de labels nouveaux dont les philosophies ne sont que rarement intériorisés par les enseignants.* »

Brown (1994) attempts to explain why the Grammar Translation Method is still ‘alive and kicking’ in many countries worldwide by stating three main reasons:

1. This method requires few specialized skills on the part of the learner.
2. Grammar rules and translation tests are easy to construct and can be objectively scored.
3. Many standardized tests of foreign languages still do not attempt to test communicative abilities, so students have little motivation to go beyond grammar analogies, translations and other written exercises.

These reasons, among a few others, still perpetuate the use and consolidate, so to speak, the deep anchoring of the oldest classical teaching method in the field of foreign language learning despite the many criticisms that have been made explicitly to it. This confirms the adage that “old habits die hard”, so do the classical methods, not least the Grammar Translation Method.

#### **3.5.1.1. Focus on Grammar**

As its name suggests, it leans heavily on the formal description of the target language and upon exercises of translation into and out of the native language. Needless to recall the term native language is used here to refer to the French language. It aims at inculcating the learner with a wide range of lexical items, mainly literary terms. The learner is supposed to memorise the grammatical rules and their exceptions, as well as paradigms and vocabulary list by heart, As Brown (1994) posits, focus on grammar, memorization of vocabulary and of various declensions and conjugations, translation of texts are at the core this method.

In the Western tradition learning foreign languages, or what used to be called then, *les langues vivantes* was equated with learning Latin and to a much lesser extent Greek. Paradoxically, these classical languages, from a sociolinguistic standpoint labelled ‘dead languages’ based on the fact that they lack a living community used them as L1 for their everyday communicative purposes, were thought to develop logical thinking, to promote intellectuality and to lead “*to the ‘mental dexterity’ considered so important in*

*any higher education study stream*” (Orrieux, 1989, p. 79). This classical method, however, is not without its critics. The criticisms come mainly from two directions. First of all, the systematic and formal description of the target language does not enable the learner to use the language appropriately in communicative situations, but rather to learn and accumulate a passive knowledge of the language. As it has been clearly stated, *“Knowledge about language may be beneficial in its own right as providing an intellectual exercise; this does not necessarily determines its place, or even determine that it has a place in a language course”* (Halliday et al., 1964, p. 255).

Thus learning a language is not just a matter of acquiring a set of rules and building a lexicon. It is how well the learner can use the language, and not how much he knows about it that matters most in the context of foreign language learning. In this respect, Alexander (1967) draws an analogy between a language learner and a pianist, he notes and concludes that,

*Learning a language has much in common with learning a musical instrument. The drills and exercises a student does have one end in sight: to enable him to become a skilled performer. A student who has learnt a lot of grammar but who cannot use a language is in the position of a pianist who has learnt a lot about harmony but cannot play the piano. The student’s command of a language will therefore be judged not by how much he knows but how well he can perform in public.*

(Alexander, 1967, p. vii)

This is another way of saying that we learn to do things by doing them, and this applies no less to language learning than to playing the piano. Overall, informed teachers should be aware of the fundamental and seminal distinction between language *use* and language *usage*. Widdowson (1978) defines *use* as being the manifestation of our knowledge of the language system to achieve some kind of communicative purposes; and *usage* as the manifestation of our knowledge of the language system.

### **3.5.1.2. Importance of Grammar**

Although it is generally agreed that grammar has its due value in the process of language learning, the place of grammar in the language teaching process has always been controversial. Some language teachers take this idea further so to posit that it is a truism to assert that grammar represents the skeleton of a language, to use Crystal’s (1990)

metaphor. In clearer words, this means that grammar is part and parcel of the teaching process. A sound knowledge of grammar represents an asset of paramount importance to the learner, and it therefore deserves its fair share of attention in the language classroom. In lines with such view, Cunningsworth contends that *“Few, if any, writers on language learning would disagree that the internalisation of grammar rules is central to language learning and that any teaching programme which omits grammar is not really teaching language in the full sense of the word.* (Cunningsworth, 1987, p. 18). As for Rivers, another authority on foreign language teaching, she argues that grammar represents *“the framework within which language operates”* (Rivers 1991: 3). Drawing an analogy between the grammar of a language and a “boneless chicken”, ironically she responds to an interviewer’s question on the importance of grammar in the language learning process, as well as to those who de-emphasize it by *‘...saying that we don’t need to teach grammar ...is like saying that you can have a chicken walking around without bones’*. (Rivers quoted in Benmoussat 2003, p. 16).

Yet, it is widely recognized that an over-emphasis on grammar rules renders language learning routinized and boring, and this can have a detrimental effect on the process of learning. Put differently, the use of isolated, out-of-context sentences can negatively impact the learning process as it reflects a de-contextualized use of language. However, it suffices to say that teachers are well-informed to account for the specificities of the teaching situation, and well-aware to know what their learners needs are, what their interests and worries are, what should be done to get around the failures, and ultimately to contribute to a better change and to fruitful innovation in language teaching. This is the rationale of one’s acting as agents of change.

### **3.5.1.3. Focus on Translation**

It is commonly agreed that translation is a well-established discipline in its own right, and as such it should be taught separately as it presupposes a through linguistic knowledge of both the source and target languages. As Halliday et al. Report

*Translation is, in fact, an extremely complicated and difficult task. It is far from being the simple, obvious exercise it is sometimes described to be. In its usual form it is more appropriate to the advanced stages of a university special course, when the literary and historical styles are being studied, than to the early stages of acquiring practical skills in a foreign language.*

(Halliday et al., 1964, p. 268)

Experience has shown that, when translation becomes a means of teaching, it may cause confusion and may lead to a word-for-word exchange which can do great harm to the language learning process. This has led proponents of the communicative language teaching/testing to convincingly assert that the use of the mother tongue is counter-productive and the use of translation in the language classroom can do more harm than good to the learning process (Carreres, 2005).

However, some leading applied linguists, such as Stern and Cunningham, do not totally play down the role of translation in a language course in teaching and testing. Stern (1992) note that a contrastive analysis between L1 and the target language is indeed very important for the language learner. Therefore translation in one form or another can play a certain part in language learning. Likewise, Cunningham (2000) recognizes that while there may indeed be some negative effects from using translation, there is a place in the learning environment for translation. Therefore translation can contribute to the student's acquisition of the target language at all levels.

#### **3.5.1.4. Translation: A Curse or a Blessing**

To launch into a debate about using or not using the mother tongue in an EFL teaching/testing environment is far beyond the scope of the present research work. Admittedly, the issue is problematic and has always had a divisive effect among teachers. It seems there is a never-ending debate about its use. For a decade or so, since the advent of the direct method in the late 1960s till the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching in the late 1970s, translation, as an aid to teaching and learning, was banned from language classrooms. Ironically, it became an outlaw in the field of language teaching, not least EFL. Nonetheless, since then, positive attitudes towards translation and the use of the mother tongue have started to develop and discussions and arguments have emerged arguing that translation is a legitimate pedagogical tool and it deserves to be rehabilitated

(Widdowson 1978, Harmer 1991, Ellis 1992, Ur 1996). At its best, most authors agree that translation is most useful as a quick and easy way to present the meaning of words and contextualized items, and when it is necessary to draw attention to certain differences that would otherwise go unnoticed.

In so far, then, we have seen that translation can be viewed as a ‘curse’ doing much harm than good to the learning process or a ‘blessing in disguise’ if exploited rationally, judiciously and optimally. Yet, a discussion of translation pedagogy would lead us to mention Klaudy’s (2003) seminal distinction between pedagogical translation and real translation. According to her, the types of translation differ at the levels of the function, the object and the addressee of the translation. As regards function, pedagogical translation, through translation activities, can serve as a device to improve the learner’s language proficiency. It has a three-fold aim: it gives the learner and the teacher the opportunity to practise, consolidate and test the language knowledge respectively. While in real translation, the translation activities do not serve as a tool but are the goal *proper* of the translation process. The object of real translation is to convey a message of some sort, i.e. information about reality, contained in the source language, whereas in pedagogical translation it is the message, i.e. information about the learner’s level of language proficiency. As for the addressee, in real translation it is a target language audience, i.e. a reader in search of information about reality, while in pedagogical translation, the addressee is the teacher or the examiner. In sum then, we can speak about real translation ***“only if the aim of translation is to develop translation skills”*** (Klaudy, 2003, p. 133), conversely, we can speak about pedagogical translation only if the goals of translation activities are devised to develop learner’s language proficiency.

In the same line of thought, Gile (1995) introduced the dichotomy of school translation and professional translation. He defines school translation as the writing of texts ***“following lexical and syntactic choices induced by the source-language text”*** (Gile, 1995, p. 22), as opposed to professional translation, in which the content of the text is the reader’s goal. Put simply, in school translation, the focus is language-oriented, while in professional translation, the focus is content-oriented. Schäffer (1998, pp. 131-2) suggests that a distinction be made between translation for foreign language purposes, that is, ***“reproducing the message of the ST [source text] while paying attention to different***

*linguistic structures*”, and translation for professional purposes which denotes “*text reproduction for specific purposes*”. Closely related to the difference between the two types of translation, it is worth noting Dollerup’s distinction. In “*foreign-language acquisition, [sic] many texts tend to be isolated fragments, because they are used to check student mastery of specific features (vocabulary, syntax, etc.), whereas texts in translation classes are coherent, run-on texts*” (Dollerup, 2005, p. 81).

### **3.5.1.5. Grammar Translation Method in Practice**

To link theory to in-class practice, it is worth mentioning Richard and Hall’s series of ELT textbooks, the French mandated textbooks that were actually used in Algeria’s schools during the very post-independence period. They are, *par excellence*, illustrative examples of ELT textbooks that draw on the principles of the Grammar-Translation Method. The series in question consists of the following textbooks: *Anglais Seconde Langue, Classe de Quatrième*, (1960), *Anglais Seconde Langue, Classe de Troisième* (1961), *L’Anglais par la Littérature, Classe de Seconde* (1962), *L’Anglais par la Littérature, Classe de Première* (1963) and *La Vie en Amérique: 1ère ou Classes Terminales* (1963). The following texts, taken randomly from *L’Anglais par la Littérature, Classe de Seconde*, reflect faithfully what is to teach and test after the Grammar Translation Method (see Appendix III).

## **3.6. Direct Method**

It is commonly agreed that the Direct Method came as direct reaction against the inherent shortcomings of the Grammar Translation Method. As its name suggests, this new method emphasised language learning by direct contact with the foreign language in meaningful situations. The following is list of the main principles underlying a direct method-oriented language teaching: The use of everyday vocabulary and structure.

- Grammar is taught through meaningful situations.
- Introduction of many new items in the same lesson so that the language sounds natural and normal conversation is encouraged.
- Oral teaching of grammar and vocabulary.
- Concrete meanings through object lessons and abstract ones through the association of ideas.

- Grammar illustrated through visual presentation.
- Extensive listening and imitation until forms become established.
- Most of the work done in class.

(Adapted from Mackey, 1965, pp. 149-50)

In summary, then, the direct method was introduced to actually remedy the teaching situation at two fundamental levels: substitution of explicit formal grammar teaching by language contact, and translation activities by language use. The rationale underpinning the direct method is, however, the establishment of a direct association between words and phrases and their meaning through demonstration, dramatisation, pointing, as it is the case with the process of L1 acquisition. As Lado posits ***“The direct method assumed that learning a foreign language is the same as learning the mother tongue, that is, that exposing the student directly to the foreign language impresses it perfectly upon his mind”*** (Lado, 1964, p. 5).

In a practical fashion, the direct method provides an exciting and interesting framework of learning a language through activity. Unfortunately, as Rivers noted ***“Since students are required at all times to make a direct association between phrases and situations, it is the highly intelligent student with well-developed powers of induction who profits most from this method, which can be discouraging and bewildering for the less talented”*** (Rivers, 1981, p. 34). To get around with the problems mentioned above, some educators strongly recommended the reintroduction of some grammatical explanations of a strictly functional kind given in the mother tongue. Along similar lines, where it is difficult to establish the meaning of words and phrases by demonstration and dramatisation, teachers could give very brief explanations in the mother-tongue.

In Algeria the direct method was first implemented in ELT Middle School classrooms in the early 1970s with the introduction of Broughton’s ELT textbook *Success with English Coursebook1*. The course book is divided into thirty-six teaching units. These are larger than teaching lessons, and not necessarily are one week’s work. How long a teacher takes over a Unit depends on local conditions: length and frequency of lessons, age and abilities of students, etc. Ideal conditions might give six teaching hours in a week. As stated in the Teachers’ Handbook1 (1972, p. 25) ***“Success with English is a flexible***

*course and the classroom teacher must know best at what pace he can use it*". As for the activities, Appendix III provides a detailed outline of the different types of exercises that the ELT textbook offers. Culture-wise, though many EFL teachers and inspectors still report that Broughton's Textbook was appropriate for the proficiency level of our former 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> year Middle-School pupils, its content was culturally inappropriate. The use of statements like: *Jillian is Martin's girlfriend* and *Martin is Jillian's boyfriend* have no place in our social context. Sentences of this type are still regarded as taboo topics. Allusion to dating and alcohol are seen as incompatible with Islamic values.

### **3.7. Structural Approach**

The structural approach to language teaching, also known as the grammar approach, represents, so to speak, a compromise language teaching model which attempts to strike the balance between the formal teaching of grammar with a heavy use of a metalanguage and translation activities and the non-allowed use of the learners' mother tongue. The structural approach is actually a by-product of structuralism. In a structural syllabus the grammatical structures form the core of the whole teaching/learning process. A structural-based language course is based on units that are defined in grammatical terms. The different parts of the language are taught separately and step by step so that learning establishes itself as a gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the language is fully mastered. The following list provides the underlying assumptions underlying a structural syllabus:

- Language is a system consisting of a set of grammatical rules.
- Learning a language is learning the grammatical rules.
- Application of grammatical rules to practical language use.
- The linguistic input is selected and graded according to grammatical simplicity or complexity.
- Introduction of grammar structure at a time.
- Mastery of the structure before moving to the next.

In summary, then, the grammar of the target language occupies a central place and holds the lion's share in the teaching/testing process. The structural syllabus generally evolves

around two main components: a list of language structures, i.e. the grammar to be taught, and a list of words, i.e. the lexicon to be taught. This overemphasis on linguistic competence has a detrimental effect on the development of communicative skills. It does not address the immediate communication needs of the learner. However, testing is relatively simple as teachers have to deal with discrete point knowledge and skills.

In Algeria the structural approach was first implemented in ELT Secondary School classrooms in the early 1970s with the introduction of L.G. Alexander's popular ELT textbooks *Practice and Progress* and *Developing Skills*. Actually, *Practice and Progress* is the second textbook of Alexander's Series New Concept English<sup>10</sup>; it was first published in 1967 with a later (1993) revised edition. The textbook was intended for the pre-intermediate level which corresponded then to 1<sup>st</sup> AS and 2<sup>nd</sup> AS students. It is divided into four Units each of which is preceded by an entry test. Each Unit consists of twenty-four passages which become longer and more complex as the course progresses (Alexander, 1967, p. xiv). Though the passages are multi-purposes, they are made-up texts which evolve around specific grammar points, called, Key Structures (see Appendix III).

As for *Developing Skills*, it is the third textbook of Alexander's New Concept English; it was first published in 1967. The textbook was intended for the intermediate level which corresponded then to 3<sup>rd</sup> AS students. It is divided into three Units the first two of which are preceded by an entry test. Each Unit consists of twenty passages which become longer and more complex as the course progresses (Alexander, 1967, pp. ix-x). Though the passages are multi-purposes, they are made-up texts which evolve around specific grammar points, called, Key Structures (see Appendix III).

### **3.8. Communicative Language Teaching**

The late 1970s witnessed the emergence of a widespread movement that expressed its reaction against the approaches and methods that focused too much on the overt

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<sup>10</sup> Alexander's Series New Concept English consists of four textbooks: *First Thing First* intended for beginners, *Practice and Progress* for pre-intermediate students, *Developing Skills* for intermediate students and *Fluency in English* for advanced students.

teaching of discrete items and atomized particles of the language at the expense of the communicative nature of language, i.e. the teaching of language which paid little or no attention to communication and emphasized on an explicit teaching of the formal properties of language. This was clearly stated in official documents, ***“Traditional methods which use, among other things, translation and systematic grammatical analysis leave the pupils little time to practice the spoken language and do not lead to a sufficient consolidation of the language items learnt”*** (Directives et Conseils Pédagogiques, 1971-1972, p. 3) As an direct outcome of such reaction, as Crystal posits that ***‘a concern developed to make FLT ‘communicative’, by focussing on learners’ knowledge of the functions of language, and on their ability to select appropriate kinds of language for use in specific situations’*** (Crystal, 1989, p. 374). Communicative Language Teaching has attracted a worldwide interest and has significantly imposed itself in the practice of modern foreign language teaching.

Although Algeria was one of the pioneers in implementing Communicative Language Teaching, little was done to prepare the schools for the necessary changes and to provide the appropriate conditions required by the communicative approach. English classrooms rarely met the criteria of purposefulness and contextualisation that define CLT tasks at the level of the intended aims and objectives. Such a situation is due to the pedagogical constraints, i.e. the incongruence between the intended and implemented syllabus. On the other, the communicative approach has always been controversial in Algerian educational institutions in the sense that it challenges the traditional conceptions of good teaching and learning, i.e. fluency at the expense of accuracy. Worse still, many teachers, especially the more experienced, still do point to communication-based teaching as a reason for declining English standards in Algeria and in many parts of the world. Holliday (1997) describes the ‘popular perception’ of Communicative Language Teaching as including the following:

- Primacy given to oral practice.
- Practice equally distributed in the classroom.
- Group or pair work for enabling equal distribution of practice.
- Most useful in classes under 20 seated in a U-shaped arrangement.

Needless to recall, in the 1980s, Communicative Language Teaching became a buzz term and a cliché which was used here and there rightly and wrongly, most of the time, with no precise perception in the principles it embodies in popular literature and common parlance among EFL teacher. This is another way of saying that this approach to language teaching has become so over-used that it has begun to lose its meaning. The following is an attempt to give a list, a non-exhaustive one, of the characteristics underlying communicative language teaching:

- Learners learn through communicating in the target language rather than overt teaching of discrete items and atomized particles of the language.
- Authentic texts are used instead of artificial or controlled ones. The text should reflect everyday language use.
- Tasks and activities are done for reasons of meaning rather than form.
- Interaction is meaning-focused rather than form- focused.
- Comprehensible communicative competence is the aim: activities are aimed at fluency rather than accuracy and by extension, over-learning.
- Feedback given by the teacher is related to the communication information gap and not to the language point in question. That is, meaning is presented subtly.
- Learners are given opportunities to focus on the learning process as well as the language items.
- An attempt is made to link classroom learning with language use outside the classroom.
- Target language use is properly contextualised.
- Communication starts immediately, rather than after long periods of grammar, vocabulary or drills.
- Sequencing of presentation is dictated by function or need and not linguistic complexity.
- Communicative competence is reached through trial and error and mistakes are considered a part of the learning process.

In sum then, and according to Larsen-Freeman (1986), CLT is characterized by the focus on communicative competence, orientation towards learner-centredness, emphasis on the

role of teachers as facilitators and providers of a secure, non-threatening atmosphere, introduction of group activities, and finally, use of authentic materials.

One of the main criticisms one can make to this approach is that it is derived from Western models and implemented on the basis of concept developed in the Anglo-American applied linguistic context, i.e. the provision of a supportive and consolidating linguistic environment. In its original version it has been uncritically adopted to the Algerian foreign language teaching context, i.e. lack of a supportive and consolidating linguistic environment. The problem with CLT was not grounded in the local context and educational realities: it was very much a ‘Western-thought package’. Today many EFL teachers convincingly note that CLT should be the model-approach, but as McKay argues,

***CLT has been largely promoted in ELT in Inner Circle countries and in private English language institutes in Outer and Expanding Circle countries. In using this method, typically a great premium is placed on using group work to develop students’ spoken English.***

(McKay, 2003, p. 15).

It goes without saying that, a successful and promising educational policy of language teaching, not least English due to its worldwide recognition as a global language, requires a great deal of institutional support in terms of class size, classroom materials, teacher training and other related educational inputs. Overall, the communicative approach trend did not equip teachers who were driven by its urge to change with either theoretical or material tools for handling various pedagogical situations in accordance with the principles underpinning Communicative Language Teaching. What is more, Swan (1985) in his article *A critical look at the communicative approach* (2), he draws a cogent distinction between what he qualifies as ‘real-life use of language’ and ‘real-life fallacy’ and notes that,

***The classroom is not the outside world, and learning a language is not the same as using language. A certain amount of artificiality is inseparable from the process of isolating and focusing on language items for study.***

(Swan, 1985, p. 82)

### **3.8.1. Reflections and Pedagogical Implications**

Since its inception in the late 1970s, the communicative approach has been gaining ground in many language classrooms in various parts of the world. Communicative Language Teaching developed as a sound substitute to the traditional methods and approaches of teaching grammar and culture. The rationale underlying communicative language teaching is that the purpose of learning a language is to take part in communication acts. It is commonly agreed that the approach is learner-centred and relies heavily on the learner's language resources, which reflect the home culture. In the context of English language learning in Algeria, the approach would mean the reliance on Algerian resources.

The shift from using English language teaching materials imported from Britain to using home-made ELT textbooks is *“an indication of the processes of localization that come along the communicative approach”* (Tam & Weiss, 2004, p. 39). It is commonly accepted that language use depends on the culture it embodies, i.e. the cultural context of language. Such an assertion calls into question the notion of culture, home culture vs. target culture. Put differently, which culture is required to develop communicative competence? The British culture which is based on an appraisal of the Western values and ways of life, or the local culture which represents a reservoir of ideas and resources serving the context of communication in language learning activities.

From a pedagogical standpoint, the production of ELT textbooks that draw on the Algerian-culture makes the teaching and learning of English much easier for both the teacher and learner respectively; the cultural dimension has been pushed to the margins and no more is the source of long and detailed and useless explanations. The in-class language activities are made more manageable with the elimination of the cultural component that symbolizes the target culture. Hence learning a language becomes a mastery of language skills.

Although the rhetoric of the General Inspectorate of English at that time was the development of the practical communication skills, this was rarely reflected in the classroom where emphasis was on the development of the reading comprehension skills, vocabulary building and mastery of the structural patterns for the sole purposes of passing

the Baccalaureate exam. Many EFL inspectors report that during the in-service training sessions, EFL teachers, as researchers, show great interest and enthusiasm in new methodologies, but once in class, as practitioners, they continue sticking to old methods of teaching. Yet it is important to note that teachers may hold positive attitudes towards a teaching innovation, yet their willingness to actually implement it could be another matter. As English (1992) stated well,

*The end point of educational change –classroom change- is in the teachers' hands. When the classroom door is closed and nobody else is around, the classroom teacher can then select and teach almost any curriculum he or she decides is appropriate irrespective of reforms, innovations, and public examinations.*

(English 1992 quoted in Cheng and Curtis, 2004, p. 17)

### **3.8.2. Communicative Language Testing**

Communicative language testing is intended to provide the teacher with information about the learners' ability to perform in the target language in certain context-specific tasks. It is commonly agreed that, *“By the mid-80s, the language-testing field had begun to focus on designing communicative language-testing tasks”* (Brown, 2003, p. 10). However, there is an overt and manifested mismatch between teaching practices and testing activities. In this very specific context, Inbar-Lourie (2008) notes that

*The move from an atomized view of language knowledge to what is known as communicative competence, and to communicative and task-based approaches to language teaching has accentuated the incongruity of existing assessment measures. Calls for matching language learning and evaluation have been repeatedly made since Morrow (1979) urged language testers over three decades ago, to bridge the gap between communicatively focused teaching goals and the testing procedures used to gauge them.*

(Inbar-Lourie 2008, p. 289)

As a case in point, speaking, the most active productive skill and the most common focus of Communicative-oriented language teaching and the hallmark *par excellence* of Communicative Language Teaching, is not tested at all. That's a fundamental paradox in the sense that the communicative approach, as its name implies, originates from the theory

of language as communication and the main objective of language teaching activities is to develop communicative competence as put forward first by Hymes (1972), then elaborated by Canale and Swain (1980), extended by Canale (1983) and revisited by Bachman (1990) and Bachman and Palmer (1996). Understanding the different components that come into play in the elaborate model of communicative competence is necessary and helpful for developing communicative language test (see 2.3.).

Arguably, most teachers claim to teach ‘communicatively’ in one way or another, and it is hardly surprising that no one wishes to be called a non-communicative teacher (Karavas-Douglas 1996). In the same line of thought, Richards (2007: 1) notes that *“Perhaps the majority of language teachers today, when asked to identify the methodology they employ in their classrooms, identify ‘communicative’ as the methodology of choice”* In the context of English language education, the label ‘non-communicative teacher’ may be debasing and may be taken to mean a teacher who is mindless of his duties vis-à-vis his learners. Savignon (2002) confirms the fact that there is a low correlation between what teachers state and what they do in terms of their classroom practices. Communicative Language Teaching has had its heyday in the 1980s and was viewed as a banner under which language teachers would march. However, many teachers have incomplete and imprecise notions of what CLT entails and what a communicative language test should incorporate. In overall terms, one can call into question the teacher training scheme, both pre-service and in-service.

With this presumption in mind, we may allow ourselves to formulate the following questions: Have our teachers been sufficiently trained to teach and to assess along the lines of the communicative approach? Have they been properly and adequately prepared to lend themselves to the quality label of communicative language teachers? While most teachers confess to make their teaching draw on the principles developed in the literature of Communicative Language Teaching, however, in practice they tend to be much more traditional and structural to the extent that they measure their progression in the programme in purely grammatical terms instead of notional-functional categories, an easy way to spot their way on the teaching/testing continuum. This reflects that there is somewhere some form of resistance to change that is deliberately expressed and

manifested by teachers, not least long-experienced teachers, let alone many novice teachers whose pre-service training leaves a lot to be desired.

### **3.8.3. Requirements of Communicative Testing**

A central tenet of communicative language testing is that the tasks are designed to represent authentic activities which test learners are to be expected to encounter in the real world outside the classroom. Brown (2005) identifies five requirements that make up what is to be called a communicative test. The requirements in question are 1) meaningful communication, 2) authentic situation, 3) unpredictable language input, 4) creative language output, and 5) integrated language skills.

1. *Meaningful communication*, i.e. the test needs to be based on communication that is meaningful to students, that is, it should meet their personal needs. It should promote and activate language which is useful for them. Making use of authentic situations can increase the likelihood that meaningful communication will be achieved.
2. *Authentic situation*, i.e. communicative test offer students the opportunity to encounter and use the target language receptively and productively in authentic situations to show how strong their language ability is.
3. *Unpredictable language input*, i.e. the fact that in reality it is usually impossible to predict what speakers will say; this natural way of communication should be replicated in a communicative test.
4. *Creative language output*, i.e. the fact that in reality language input is largely dependent on language input to prepare for one's reply.
5. *Integrated language skills*, i.e. a communicative test will elicit the learners' use of language skills integratively, as is the case in real life communication.

(Brown, 2005, p. 21)

### **3.8.4. Communicative Test versus Discrete-Point Test**

Unlike communicative language tests, discrete point testing, based on an analytical view of language, assumes that knowledge of the language system can be divided into a number of independent elements: grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation, pronunciation, intonation and stress. These can be tested through the following formats:

Phoneme recognition

Yes/No answers

True/false statements

Spelling

Word completion

Grammar items

Multiple choice questions

Discrete point tests have been severely criticized for handling only recognition knowledge and facilitating guessing and cheating. The discrete point approach has always had the lion's share in the language tests in general and the Baccalaureate EFL exam in particular. Each test item is devised to give clues about the candidate's mastery of a particular point of language.

Admittedly, the main advantage of the discrete point tests is that they yield easily-quantifiable data, and can be accurately and objectively marked even by mechanical scanning methods. However, one of the main drawbacks of the approach is that ***“an atomistic approach to test design depends utterly on the assumption that knowledge of the elements of language is equivalent to knowledge of the language”*** (Morrow, 1981, p. 11). Such a view does not hold true in the context of communicative language testing and discrete point testing is no longer felt to provide a sufficient measure of language ability. What matters most is not how a language works, but rather the ability to use it in meaningful communication and authentic situation in an integrative way.

The implementation of communicative language test has always been viewed with a purely positive ring to it. Few educationalists and test designers have grown dissatisfied with communicative language testing. Most of the criticisms made to communicative language testing are directed towards the form. Communicative tests virtually incorporate real-world situations where the language learners experience and strive to produce language creatively with an integrated approach of the language skills. They help teachers measure their learners' language ability more accurately. They also help learners become familiar with some testing types they are likely to encounter when taking tests that are internationally acknowledged have a worldwide fame, such the TOEFL or the IELTS.

Finally, from the standpoint of innovation and change, which are at the core of the present research work, implementing communicative tests represents a radical shift away from the oft-grammar based traditional tests.

### **3.9. Competency-Based Approach**

The competency-based approach, or CBA for short, is part of the overall framework of Competency-based Education. All the subject-matters that make up the school curriculum are to draw on the principles underpinning this approach. From a historically standpoint, the competency-based approach is believed to have been introduced in the USA in the late 1960s and early 1970s. However, its wide use in many parts of the world dates back to the 1990s. Originally, it was implemented in schools as a remedial approach to overcome the shortcomings and weaknesses of the teaching-by-objective methods.

The key concept of the approach relates to the term competency. As such, the term competency commonly denotes a ‘know-how-to-act’ process which is, basically, the result of the integration of a set of three fundamental resources: capacities, skills and knowledge. These acquired resources are made valuable only if they enable the learner to cope with problem-solving situations outside the classroom. Capacity refers to a ‘know-how-to-learn’ process which integrates intellectual, strategic and knowledge. Skills, on the other hand, relate to the ‘know-how-to-do’ process which comes into play when facing a problem-situation. Finally, knowledge is the sum of data, facts, concepts, rules and laws and principles relating to a given discipline.

It is strongly assumed that the implementation of this new educational scheme serves fundamentally a three-fold purpose: for one thing it aims at establishing links between the context of learning and the context of use so that learning is made meaningful and therefore interesting. For another, it aims at making the learner re-exploit his knowledge when performing tasks at school level as well as at social and professional levels, and thirdly, it aims at offering viable learning. Though the approach is not a new one, it is almost half a century old, its implementation is a novelty in language pedagogy in the sense that in inculcating know-how and developing critical thinking, the learner will approach a task, be it academic or professional, according to a vision of the world he has developed.

The competency-based approach was first introduced in Algeria's education system in 2003, and since then, it is still supposed to be applied in EFL classrooms. Its implementation did not go unnoticeable since it has given rise to a significant change in the national curriculum guidelines, elaboration of new home-made textbooks such *Spotlight On English* for 1<sup>st</sup> AM, the *English Courses* Series for the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> AM and *On The Move* for 4<sup>th</sup> AM. As for the secondary level, one can mention *At The Crossroads* for 1<sup>st</sup> AS, *Getting Through* for 2<sup>nd</sup> AS and *New Prospects* for 3<sup>rd</sup> AS. Needless to recall at this very specific context the competency-based approach is part of the process related to the educational level of integration. This level is itself part of the multi-dimensional globalization process. The competency-based approach, though facing considerable criticism, is seen to hold great promise in EFL teaching-learning.

#### **3.10. Appropriate Methodology**

The core of most debates and discussions in foreign language teaching has always evolved around the general principles and guidelines underpinning the methodologies relating to the learning/teaching process. A survey of the literature review that relates to the history of language teaching shows that language teachers have been much more concerned with the various approaches and methods, i.e. the how-to teach, than content, i.e. the what-to-teach. With this ebb and flow of educational philosophies and methodologies conducive to yo-yo effects, ***“the language teacher has tended to swing between opposite extremes: grammatical versus functional syllabuses, teacher-centred versus student-centred classrooms, deductive versus inductive learning styles, and so on, to settle finally for the so-called eclectic approach”*** (Benmoussat, 2003, p. 9).

The blunt rejection of the grammar-translation method that led to the advent of the direct method and communicative approaches to language learning have given way in recent years to a more balanced approach/method in which the local and the alien interrelate. This central idea can be referred to as the notion of appropriate methodology as an extension of the concept of ‘post-method’ era<sup>11</sup>. ‘The post-method’ pedagogy has in part

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<sup>11</sup> The search for the best method is actually a myth (Prabhu, 1990). ***“What is now called the postmethod realization insists that practitioners in the periphery should develop teaching strategies that are more relevant to their pedagogical contexts, rather than depending on the center for methods that are considered authoritative. Such an approach is pedagogically empowering”*** (Canagarajah, 2008, p. 216).

freed ELT professionals from many of *“the constraints of the concept of method and invigorated their practices by providing new options to the classroom teacher”* (Bell, 2003, p. 325).

### **3.10.1. ELTM: A Western Orientation**

ELTM has been elaborated and developed mainly in the English-speaking countries of the ‘West’ and is not ‘a one size fits all’, in other words it does not fit the needs of the rest of the world, and *“many English language textbooks have used target culture topics ... ELT textbooks use such content because textbooks are often published in Inner Circle countries”* (McKay 2003: 10). Phillipson in his ground-breaking book *Linguistic Imperialism* (1992) notes that ELT materials export not only globally conceived English content, but also a methodology often associated with an Anglo-Saxon view of communication. He critiqued the intentions of British Council and other Anglo-American institutions sponsoring ELT worldwide (Canagarajah, 2008). He also notes that Communicative Language Teaching is seen by some as part of the linguistic imperialism of the West.

It has been argued that the globalization process and the blurring of national and linguistic boundaries due to the tremendous development in the field of ICT’s coupled with the emergence of regional thinking and the revival of ethnic and regional cultures have given rise to the political motto ‘Think global, act local’ (Kramsch and Sullivan, 1996), translated into English pedagogy as ‘global thinking, local teaching’ (Berman, 1994). An appropriate methodology accounts for both the global and local needs of learners of English. A reconsideration of the notion of appropriate methodology is grounded in the fact that the teaching methodologies and materials developed in Europe or the United States could not be used in the same way they were intended by their original authors once they reach a non-Western country (Kramsch and Sullivan *ibid*). As Dickinson (1996) further explains, there are likely to be many differences between the contexts: differences in the resources, i.e. things like equipment, classroom, teachers, and so on. Differences in aims and objectives, i.e. why the language is being taught, and the examination system through which the students have to demonstrate their learning.

### **3.10.2. Export of Methodologies**

All in all, a teaching methodology is to be judged in relation to the socio-physical context in which it is to be used. A method that proved to work well in one context may not do so in another. The ELT industry in Britain is still producing teaching materials which reflect British culture to non-Western consumers on the basis of ‘one size fits all’. The following remark made by a Russian Professor of education, speaking at a conference on methodology and textbook, is a case in point: ***“We manage to forget, to cut off, the best things ever existing in our system of education and adapt the worst things from the West”*** (Quoted in Tribble, 2012, p. 40). Howatt in his book *A History of English Language Teaching* (1984) contends that ***“The Third World has frequently been victim in the past of the over enthusiastic promotion of ‘packaged’ methods originally devised for quite different circumstances, and there have been instances of the same kind of ‘salesmanship’ with communicative approaches”***.

From a pedagogical standpoint, in communicative-oriented language classrooms, the use of authentic materials, i.e. dialogues or texts spoken or written by native speakers for native speakers to communicate real-life messages for real-life purposes is a part and parcel of CLT. Yet, this component of language teaching may be fine for ELT in a core English-speaking country, but once the teaching materials are used in real-life situation other than originally intended by the producers, the notion of authenticity is called into question and therefore loses its intrinsic value. However, there are factors other than exclusively educational ones that come into play in the genesis of many innovation initiatives. One dare say that English language educators worldwide seem, explicitly or implicitly, to be in connivance with British ELT industry so as to propound CLT as representing the state of the art approach- an export commodity. As Richards (1984, p. 13) points out, ***“the rise and fall of methods depends [sic] on a variety of factors extrinsic to a method itself and often reflects [sic] the influence of fads and fashions, of profit-seekers and promoters, as well as the forces of the intellectual marketplace”***.

The global sales of the ELT series *New Headway* and *The New Cambridge English Course* published by Oxford University Press and Cambridge University Press respectively are clear and concrete evidence of such ‘collusion’. More tellingly, perhaps, Alexander’s

*Practice and Progress* and *Developing Skills* were ELT prescribed textbooks for more a decade in Algeria, some editions of these textbooks were even published by the Institut Pédagogique National<sup>12</sup> by permission of the Longman Publishing Group.

Arguably, educational reforms and innovations are not value- or culture-free, but must be considered in relation to the context in which they are to be implemented (Hayes 2012). Innovations which are successful in one context may have to be adapted, or even rejected, in another. Murray and Christison (2012) comment that contexts for English language education vary across the globe and so policy development must be responsive to the local context. Wedell (2009) has made the point that large-scale educational change requires a long-term view, if it is to take root. Ultimately, Bolitho (2012) posits that any change initiative needs to be founded on a clear understanding of the status quo and also of the reasons for undertaking the change.

It is generally agreed that the de-link of English from Inner Circle countries warrants a new pedagogy, as McKay (2003) posits. An appropriate ELT methodology is one that takes into both the global and local needs of EFL learners. Though the most common recurrent arguments made as far as the learning of English is concerned are being fueled by a belief in the power of English, the pedagogical objectives and approaches should be designed in relation to the learners' desires so that to meet their needs and expectations. Yet, many Algerian students, like many EFL student, study English for no obvious reason other than because they are required to do so, i.e., in most schools it is part of the school curriculum<sup>13</sup>. As Harmer has rightly pointed out, "***Many students study English because they have to. English is part of the school curriculum because a decision has been taken by someone in authority that it should be so***" (Harmer, 1983, p. 2).

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<sup>12</sup> L'Institut Pédagogique National (National Pedagogical Institute) was a state-run body in charge of the publishing and distribution of mandated school textbooks in Algeria.

<sup>13</sup> The acronym TENOR (Teaching English for no Obvious Reasons) was coined by Abbot and Wingart (1981) to describe ELT situations in many developing countries. Learners are motivated to learn when they know the reasons underlying their learning of a language and what use they can make of it, either for their individual development or to contribute to the development of their communities.

What is more, at the age of puberty and in the pre-adolescence period, pupils do not seem to realize the importance of the subject areas making up the school curriculum, and often find themselves studying subjects that do not, on the surface, seem to fit their immediate needs and interests. Hence, there is neither integrative nor instrumental nor motivation<sup>14</sup> to learn the language. Many teachers feel powerless to change anything and feel that their best efforts are showing few results when daily facing groups of students who have little or no motivation or interest to learn English and uncertain needs for English in the future. All teachers are well aware of situations where learners come to the end of six or seven years of English language education with very low language competence at the end.

### **3.11. EFL Testing in Algeria**

Arguably, educators usually view teaching and testing in a symbiotic relation, and as such, language testing, though all too often approached as a ‘necessary evil’ should be regarded as a vital and a complementary component of instructional language programme in any educational institution. It is almost impossible to move up from a lower level to a higher one without a prior form of assessment. Needless to say, English language teaching in Algeria has steadily improved since independence in 1962. However, at present the immediate goal and the principal motivating drive pupils in both Middle and Secondary schools manifest to learn English is to pass examinations, not least the high-stake exams, the BEM (Brevet d’Enseignement Moyen) and the Baccalaureate exams. It is worth noting that the BEM is an official national end-of-year exam for pupils attending the 4<sup>th</sup> AM of middle-school education. It is very important and decisive exam in the sense that the average of the marks obtained in the different examined subject matters, with a coefficient of two, added to the annual average, the result obtained is divided by three. The

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<sup>14</sup> Integrative motivation describes the desire to achieve proficiency in a new language to participate in the life of the community that speaks the language. It *“reflects a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group.”* While instrumental motivation denotes the desire to achieve proficiency in a new language for utilitarian reasons, such as getting a job. It *“reflects the practical value and advantages of learning a new language”* (Gardner and Lambert 1972: 132). *These constructs give the impression that just having the right motivation will help succeed in language learning. There are serious socioeconomic constraints that shape one’s motivations and the ability to attain one’s objectives. Furthermore, motivations can be contradictory, multiple, and changing. The strategies one adopts to negotiate the available resources in relation to one’s motivation will shape the mastery of language* (Canagarajah 2008: 217).

combination of the average obtained in the exam in question and that of the year should at least 10/20. This will help the pupil pass to the secondary-education level or to the 1<sup>st</sup> AS. Yet, it is required in order to enter the lycée. Unlike the BEM, the Baccalaureate exam is, in effect, a more important and a more decisive exam for 3<sup>rd</sup> AS pupils in the sense that its passing open the door to tertiary education.

Additionally, virtually all informants in both Middle and Secondary school make reference to passing exams as the principal drive to studying English. However, as Alexander notes '*a formal examination with its bias towards the written language will only exert a pernicious influence on language learning when it is regarded as an end in itself.*' (Alexander, 1967, p. vii). This instrumental motivation is beneficial in its own right; passing an exam, be it a high-stakes one or classroom activity, can have a positive or negative effect on the whole learning process, what applied linguists and educationalists call *washback effect* (see 4.5.). Because of the paramount importance of the impact language testing has on the whole language teaching and learning process, the concept of the washback effect will be dealt with in detail in Chapter Four.

There is a common belief among 4<sup>th</sup> AM and 3<sup>rd</sup> AS teachers that the curriculum is somehow "overloaded" and consequently the respective teachers should "cover the syllabus" rather than teach effectively and with pace according to the degree of intake and assimilation of the learners. This has lead teachers to select only those aspects of language that feature prominently in the BEM and Baccalaureate exams (Benmoussat, 2003). This form of teaching is called 'teaching to the test' and is which actually harmful the teaching-learning process. Additionally, one should note that both the teachers and the administration give too much importance and accord too much value to the results obtained by their pupils in official exams. In other words, the educational institution in general and teachers in particular are judged by their students' success and achievement in the BEM and Baccalaureate exams. However, this selective focusing teaching/testing may have a deleterious backwash effect on methodology as classroom teachers are under pressure to teach "exam English". Arguably, emphasis should be put on academic success and concentration on the pupil's development of his or her potential rather than on training them for a particular exam (Benmoussat, 2003).

### **3.12. Conclusion**

Algeria, as a developing country, is determined to convert all her productive potential into that of a modern state. She wants to extend her commercial and cultural exchanges beyond the French borders to venture into other, perhaps greener grass and more fertile lands. The awareness of the widespread use of the English language, as well as its importance in the fields of science and technology has imposed itself overtly. This fact has largely favoured the promotion of ELT in Algeria. What is more, undoubtedly within the globalization framework the English language will be more valued, more recognized and therefore more reconsidered. Needless to recall the educational authorities have always expressed their will and eagerness to promote the teaching of English in terms of textbooks elaboration and teacher-training programmes. Although there are still many schools with over-crowded classes, a lack of appropriate teaching facilities and insufficient pedagogical structures, there is a commitment at the highest level and among many teachers to continue efforts to improve foreign language teaching in general and ELT in particular.

What is more, the advent of the globalization process and its relentless progression has given a new driving force to the teaching of English and explicitly has promoted its status from an international language and a language of wider communication to a global language. Knowledge of the English language is more perceived as a sign or a mark of a well-rounded education as it used to be in the past, but as a must for those who want to embrace the 'Globalization Wave'. The goals of language learning were in the past, so to speak, ill-defined to the extent that the term TENOR, Teaching English for No Obvious Reasons, has been introduced in the ELT literature. At present, the globalization effect has given rise to a new mass of learners expressing their will and availability to learn English, not for the pleasure or prestige to learn Shakespeare's language, but because English has become *de facto* as Kachru (1986) notes the fabled Aladin's lamp which allows its owner to open up the linguistic gates to international business, technology, science and travel. In other words, the English language provides linguistic power.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

# **THE BACCALAUREATE EXAM: CHALLENGES AND WASHBACK**

### **4.1. Introduction**

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## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **THE BACCALAUREATE EXAM: CHALLENGES AND WASHBACK**

#### **4.1. Introduction**

It goes without saying that preparing students for an examination, be it a high-stakes exam or a low-stakes one, is in effect a great responsibility that teachers are to assume pedagogically and educationally; it requires the implementation of a disciplined teaching, the application of a rigorous time management and the inculcation of organizational skills. This is because the results obtained in such exams are so important and therefore can, in a determinative way, impact learners' future lives and prospective careers. It is common knowledge that the Baccalaureate in Algeria is a high-stakes national exam; passing it provides access to tertiary education and opens the doors to certain professional training. Most 3<sup>rd</sup> AS students experience a growing sense of anxiety all year long, and which becomes more acute and apparent as the Baccalaureate exam date approaches. It is therefore the duties of the mindful teacher to help them maintain self-confidence and self-control and to foster personal skills and discipline to help them better cope with the situation. In overall terms, teachers and students need to be prepared to face a wide range of challenges and frustrations respectively. These issues will form the first part of the present chapter.

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The Baccalaureate exam systematically brings to the fore the issue of washback or backwash<sup>1</sup> effects which, explicitly or implicitly, have a significant impact on classroom teaching and learning in Algerian secondary schools. This concept, with its positive and negative forms and its effects at the micro- and macro- levels, will receive considerable attention in the subsequent parts. The chapter will also review current models of teaching and learning research in relation to the washback effects. The complex nature and multidimensional aspects of the washback effects of the Baccalaureate exam on language teaching and learning will be investigated thoroughly. The analytical review and pedagogical reflections will help us make some proposals and suggestions as for what innovation to implement and what change to introduce. The last part of the chapter will discuss some views held by 3<sup>rd</sup> AS students and teachers at large and try to synthesize the concerns of teachers and worries of students in relation to the nitty-gritty of the Baccalaureate examination.

### **4.2. Baccalaureate Examination**

The *Baccalaureate*, also known in Algeria and in many French-speaking countries under its clipped informal form as ‘*Le BAC*’, is, in effect, a high-stakes school-leaving examination. Not only is it an academic qualification, a high-school exit exam, but also a diploma which allows 3<sup>rd</sup> year AS students to move from secondary education to tertiary studies, i.e. a prerequisite to gain entrance to university and higher education institutes in the sense that each baccalaureate holder has the right to qualify for tertiary education. Much like British A-Levels or American high school diplomas, the *Baccalaureate* allows Algerian and international students to obtain a standardized qualification, typically at the

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<sup>1</sup> *Washback* or *backwash*, a term now commonly used in the testing literature, refers to the influence of testing on teaching and learning (Alderson and Wall 1993) Alan Davis, the doyen of British language testing, frequently used the term *washback* and I do not recall him ever using *backwash*. ... to clarify the distinction between the terms *backwash* and *washback*: there is none. The only difference is that if somebody has studied at the University of Reading, UK, where Arthur Hughes used to teach, they are likely to use the term *backwash*. Hughes (1989: 1) states simply that “***the effect of testing on teaching and learning is known as backwash***”. If they have studied language testing anywhere else, but especially in Edinburgh or Lancaster in the UK, they will almost certainly use the term *washback* (Alderson cited in Cheng and Watanabe, 2004, pp. xi-xii). However, Andrews (1994) comments on the *backwash* versus *washback* nomenclature. Based on his own review of the literature, he comments that “***in general education literature, the favoured term to describe this phenomenon is ‘backwash’, while in language education there seems to be a preference for ‘washback’***” (Andrews, 1994, p. 67). For the sake of consistency, throughout this dissertation the term *washback* will be used as it the most commonly used in the literature relating to testing.

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age of 18. From an elitist viewpoint, it acts as a filter to mediocrity and is employed as a selection instrument for tertiary education. In short, it is an emotionally charged issue.

The Baccalaureate examination, as an achievement test (see 2.9.1.), plays an important role in the Algerian education system. It usually takes place in June. This is a very stressful period for stakeholders, mainly students, teachers, school administrators and parents (see Appendix II). The following are Sarah's felt and expressed impressions:

*I'm among those students who will sit for the BAC, 2013 session. The closer we get, the higher the tension is. For me the most important thing is to get myself well-organised in always setting a revision planning. I often start my revision by the subject matters that have a higher coefficient. I try to rest every 45 minutes as it is difficult for the human brain to keep focused for a long time. At times, I avoid thinking about the BAC day because of the stress that is always accompanying me.*

(Researcher's translation<sup>2</sup>)

In the same line of thought, an anonymous student expressed his impression confidently and in a very pessimistic way, he wrote what follows:

*It's a pleasure for me to be a student who will pass [sit for] the baccalaureate exam after few months; at the same time, I'm scared of this exam.*

*Our teachers always say that it's a simple test like the other term exams, but it represents for me a giant leap which can be realized if I do my best.*

*So when I succeed, I will be very happy, I can [persue] pursue my studies at the university in order to enrich my level and become a doctor because it's my dream!*

*But the most important thing is to see joy and happiness through my parents' eyes, for this reason, I try to make all my efforts so as to see them proud of me.*

*In addition, I feel now that I'm sharing a big responsibility because passing in the exam is not just a dream but it's the first step to the successful future.*

Since its institution in 1963, the Baccalaureate examination has always been a more or less reliable source of information on educational outcomes to external stakeholders. Its preparation starts early in the school year, sometimes even a few years beforehand. It has a

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<sup>2</sup> Je suis l'une des élèves qui passeront le BAC, session 2013. Plus les jours avancent, plus la pression monte. L'important pour moi est de bien s'organiser en faisant toujours un planning de révision. Je commence souvent ma révision par les matières à plus forts coefficients. J'essaye de me reposer toutes les 45 minutes puisqu'il est difficile pour le cerveau humain de rester concentrer plus longtemps. Parfois, j'évite de penser au jour du BAC à cause du stress qui m'accompagne tout le temps.

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reputation for being thorough assessment. The following table illustrates the fluctuation in the rate of success:

Academic Year	2010	2011	2012	2013
Number of Candidates	433,814	353,112	392,540	566,694
Number of Bac Holders	212,555	220,518	230,989	253,656
Rate of Success	61.23%	62.45%	58.84%	44.78%

*Table 4.1 Fluctuations in rates of Success in Baccalaureate Exam ( Source Daily Newspaper Le Quotidien d'Oran dated 08-07-201)*

Additionally, the overwhelming bureaucratic character of the Baccalaureate in secondary schools threatens to make teachers even more cynical about it and ways of turning it to productive account for teachers and learners is crucial (see Appendix II).

It is no wonder, in such context to touch on the coaching services, offered outside school time by teachers. These so-called extra remedial lessons, oriented chiefly towards practicing exam techniques have turned to become commonplace and a very trendy form of outside-schooling. Students spend evenings, weekends, and even holidays preparing for the Baccalaureate exam in classrooms or teachers' homes, or even in garages. The following quotation illustrates clearly the rationale, so to speak, underlying such tendency:

***The benefits of such a compensatory teaching are wide-range: the number of students is very limited (not more than ten), the teacher explains every single word or structure in Arabic or in French, he goes through the exercises that were done in class and the pupil has all the chances to succeed. That's an extra to the teacher to make ends meet.***

(Benmoussat, 2003, pp. 245-6)

It goes without saying that this type of supplementary education costs a great deal of money, and yet students' families willingly or unwillingly try to keep up with the Joneses, to use an appropriate idiomatic expression.

On the other hand, most teachers report that they try to follow the textbook only during the first two terms of the year, and many schools stop giving courses and classroom dissolved right before the spring holidays so that students can study on their own. However, in some schools the third term is devoted to a greater use of past papers and

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commercial exam-related publications. This raises the issue why teachers at this period of the year rely extensively on exam-oriented materials and past papers. As Spratt (2005, p. 12) notes, “*they [teachers] wish to fulfil student expectations or their presumed expectations.*” This test-oriented teaching is manifested that the students insistence on doing practice tests. Teachers do this as “*they believe the best way to prepare students for exams is by doing past papers*” (Lam, 1994, p. 91). This teaching-to-the-test approach, based on Underhill’s preach “*As ye teach, so shall ye test*’ (1982, p. 18), has led to the publication and proliferation, on a large scale, of annals containing materials that are highly exam-technique oriented. Yet, from an educational standpoint, it is believed that this pedagogical approach encourages teachers to focus much more on individual language items and grammar structures rather than engage students in an integrated cyclical learning process. In this way, the textbook becomes a test-book and therefore loses not only its intrinsic value but also many of the attributes<sup>3</sup> which have been assigned to it.

As for the test development process, and in order to develop the tests for the different disciplines, *The Committee for the Baccalaureate Preparation* appoints test writers who are literally locked up in a sequestered location for about a month, presumably to maximize test security and avoid any exam subject leaking attempt. On the other hand, as for the examination *proper* is concerned, the *Baccalaureate* testing material is the same for all students in a given stream. It goes without saying that secrecy surrounding the material is very tight and the envelopes containing the exams are unsealed by a high-ranking school officer (usually a principal or vice-principal) in front of the examinees only a few minutes prior to the start of the examination. The procedure is the same for each subject, in each stream. Students usually have an identification number and an assigned seat. The number is written on all exam material and the name is hidden by folding and sealing the upper right corner of the examination sheet. In this way, anonymity is clearly respected. This anonymous marking is used to avoid any form external cheat or corruption.

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<sup>3</sup> A more or less recent but related analysis of textbooks content is found in Cortazzi and Jin (1999), in which they assign seven attributes to a textbook: *a teacher*, i.e. it contains material that is intended to instruct about the target language; *a map*, i.e. it gives an overview of a structured programme; *a resource*, i.e. it remains the main source of linguistic content; *a trainer*, i.e. it provides inexperienced and untrained teachers with explanations and guidance; *an authority*, i.e. it is reliable, valid and written by experts; *a de-skinner*, i.e. it restricts teachers’ tasks to its content and *an ideology*, i.e. it reflects a worldview or cultural system imposed on both the teacher and the student.

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Each Baccalaureate stream has its own set of subjects that carries a different weight (*coefficient*). For example, in the Sciences and Mathematics streams, the disciplines of natural sciences, mathematics and physical sciences carry more weight than the literary and social disciplines such as French, English, geography and history. Students usually devote more study time and effort to subject-matters that are assigned a higher coefficient, since the grades obtained in these exams may positively impact their mean grade and help them pass the Baccalaureate exam and finally embark on tertiary education. Yet, due to its importance for an individual's education and professional career, the Baccalaureate is a source of stress, uneasiness and fear, in other words, a source of anxiety. The following impressions illustrate what one can feel at that very moment:

*My sister was the first one who was informed about my BAC result; she was crying when telling me that. I can't describe that moment, I was so happy even though I have never expected a negative result. Trust me, I was just waiting for the average which reflected all my hard work and efforts. Furthermore, this success offered me the opportunity to choose the stream which I've dreamed about from my childhood.*

(A Baccalaureate holder with distinction, June 2010)

### **4.3. Test Anxiety**

Test anxiety can be defined as a form of stress, i.e. a psychological and physiological response as a result of specific events that negatively effect and upset a person's personal balance. It is a human emotion that manifests itself through feelings of fear, uncertainty and stress. One of the most obvious situations which leads to stress and causes anxiety for students is testing. Most of our informants have in one way or another experience it. They expressed their fear of performing poorly on tests and even failure in a very overt and explicit way. The inability to achieve the expected is not due to a lack of cognitive ability, but rather to a high level of test anxiety. Actually, test anxiety is a part of a wider phenomenon which psycholinguists *term performance anxiety*. The following are impressions that illustrate the impact of test anxiety on some candidates:

*My daughter is very bright, but she panics when she has to take a test.*

*I can't sleep the night before the test.*

*I feel a 'ball on my belly' as the day of the bac exam gets closer.*

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*Personally, I have dealt with many cases of brilliant pupils who failed the baccalaureate because they didn't know how to handle their stress in exams. Some have a mental block and are on the brink of depression at the very moment of the exam. (Psychologist Hassiba Beledi reporting to Magahrebia<sup>4</sup> on 04-06-2010)*

To do well on tests in general and EFL tests in particular, our learners should try to develop an attitude of relaxed confidence. This state of the mind, according to psychologists, does not arise by itself. It grows within the student as he takes specific and positive actions to prepare himself in several interrelated ways: academically, mentally, physically and psychologically. The student is the one in charge of his attitude. He is to do whatever is needed to do to help himself, just as he would advise his best friend or younger brother or sister. As a bright language learner he should draw upon this asset to increase his self-confidence. Similarly, as an average or dull language learner, he should remind himself that at any time, his life can change for the better, once he decides to make it so. This will hopefully help our learners overcome, or at least, reduce the test anxiety.

### **4.3.1. Types of Test Anxiety**

There are different forms of test anxiety, however, four types have been identified: *rational, irrational, anticipatory* and *situational*. To try to overcome effectively one's anxiety, it is necessary to consider if the stress is rational or irrational. For example, if the candidate has not prepared adequately in the sense that he has not reviewed and revised the material and has not worked through any practice exercises, his fear may be rational. However, if the candidate prepared well, did continuous revision and practice tests and still feel extremely tense, his anxiety may be irrational. There are obvious ways to reduce such tension through the adoption of different strategies to overcome the fear. On the other hand, some students feel heavily stressed well before the test. In fact, they may even feel nervous and agitated when preparing for the test or just about thinking about the day of the test. This is known as "anticipatory anxiety". Other students feel nervous and distressed during the test itself. This is called "situational anxiety".

### **4.3.2. Symptoms of Test Anxiety**

Due to its importance for 3<sup>rd</sup> Secondary Education students the Baccalaureate has always been a source of anxiety. The symptoms of test anxiety resulting from this high-

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<sup>4</sup> **Magharebia** is an interactive news website covering the Maghreb region in Arabic, French and English. It features current events, sports, culture, interviews, and more.

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stakes exam are numerous and can be divided into three main categories: *Physiological, cognitive and emotional*.

- Physical: rapid heartbeat, headaches, shortness of breath, fainting, nausea, diarrhea, extreme body temperature changes, excessive sweating and dry mouth.
- Cognitive: feelings of dread, negative self-talk, going blank, difficulty concentrating and focussing, difficulty thinking logically.
- Emotional: high level of fear and depression, disappointment, anger, uncontrollable crying and feeling of helplessness.

The following table summarises the anxiety symptoms experienced by some of our informants:

<b>Physiological</b>	<b>Cognitive</b>	<b>Emotional</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• My stomach feels like it has knots.</li> <li>• My hands perspire and shake.</li> <li>• I feel breathless.</li> <li>• My heart pounds and races.</li> <li>• I feel like throwing up.</li> <li>• My mouth feels dry</li> <li>• I feel too cold and too hot.</li> <li>• My muscles feel tense.</li> <li>• I have a headache.</li> <li>• I feel like I'm going to faint.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I can't concentrate or focus.</li> <li>• My mind sometimes "goes blank".</li> <li>• I can't remember things I know.</li> <li>• I feel confused.</li> <li>• I forget what I'm supposed to do.</li> <li>• I can't organize my ideas.</li> <li>• I can't remember key words.</li> <li>• My mind drifts to other thoughts.</li> <li>• I remember the words or answers after the test is over.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I feel that every-one else is fine, except me.</li> <li>• I feel frustrated easily.</li> <li>• I think I'm going to fail the test.</li> <li>• I feel helpless.</li> <li>• I feel disappointed in myself.</li> <li>• I feel angry.</li> <li>• I feel depressed.</li> <li>• I feel "I can't do this".</li> <li>• I feel overwhelmed.</li> <li>• I feel like crying.</li> </ul>

There are a number of strategies to reduce and minimize test anxiety before taking a test in general and an EFL test in particular. These strategies could be divided into three broad psycho-physiological areas: mental, physical and emotional.

### **4.3.3. Mental Strategies**

This part provides the learner with some mental strategies which aim at developing effective study habits. By preparing adequately and well in advance, the learner will build

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some confidence and reduce the amount of fear, stress and tension. The strategies in question, prescriptively addressing the learner, can be laid as follows:

- Start preparing in advance, so you will have plenty of time to make progress.
- Set up a study plan based on the time you have available.
- Study in a clean, well-organized environment. The word clean is to be considered in its inclusive sense.
- Keep your study material in the same place so you can find them easily.
- Form a study group and meet on a regular basis, say twice a week, to keep motivation high.
- Read, listen, speak and write as much English as possible.

### **4.3.4. Physical Strategies**

It is self evident that the brain can perform at its best only if one has taken good care of one's body. This physical hygiene includes many different elements, as described below:

- Maintain a healthy lifestyle.
- Sleep adequately. Being exhausted will not help you in any way.
- Take short, frequent breaks while studying.
- Exercise regularly to keep you body fit.

### **4.3.5. Emotional Strategies**

As an individual person, never underestimate yourself. You have many strengths and talents. The following ideas may help you feel stronger:

- Be strong, positive and calm.
- Don't think of all or nothing; remember "grasp all lose all".
- Plan time for relaxation.
- Expect some anxiety. It's normal.

Also, it worth noting in this very specific context that there are some ayat from the Koran which, while reading them, tend to reduce test anxiety and help the recall of information, for example, Sourat ‘El Israa’ (Aya number 79) and Sourat ‘Taha’ (Ayat number 24, 25, 26 and 27).

### **4.4. Power and Authority of Tests**

Needless to recall the use of examinations as a criterion of selection in education and recruiting in employment has existed for a long time. Additionally, it is widely accepted that *“Examinations were seen by some societies as ways to encourage the development of talent, to upgrade the performance of schools and colleges, and to counter to some degree, nepotism, favoritism, and even outright corruption in the allocation of scarce opportunities”* (Cheng and Curtis, 2004, p. 5). In very down-to-earth terms, Chapman and Snyder (2000, p. 458) posit that the primary use of tests is *“to ratio future opportunity as the basis for determining admission to the next layer of education or to employment opportunities.”* Tests are frequently viewed as means to engineer innovation, to steer and guide the curriculum (Alderson, 2004). Tests are often intended as “levers for change” (Pearson, 1988). The challenge is how to make such a mechanism reinforce the teaching and learning of skills which are very likely to improve the education system.

Nonetheless, aware of the power of tests, policy-makers in many parts of the world continue to use them to their local educational systems, to control curricula and to impose or to promote new textbooks and new teaching methods (Cheng and Curtis, 2004). Put differently, testing and assessment is the darling of the policy-makers (Madaus, 1985). In complex sociolinguistic situations, language tests are used as mechanisms in the manipulation of language education policies and policy control. During the implementation phase of the Arabization process, the coefficient affected to the Arabic language in the Baccalaureate exam was nearly as high as that the major in scientific, technological and technical streams<sup>5</sup>. This strategy of acquisition planning policy has been loosened since the total implementation of the Arabization policy of the subject areas in secondary education and therefore the coefficient affected to Arabic has been lowered to three to the major

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<sup>5</sup> In Algeria young pupils who enroll in secondary school are ‘channelled’ into different streams or tracks, literary, scientific, technological, and technical, pre-determining their educational and career prospects.

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subject areas in the scientific, technological and technical streams. Writing in a similar vein, Shohamy<sup>6</sup> et al. (1996) note,

***The power and authority of tests enable policy-makers to use them as effective tools for controlling educational systems and prescribing the behavior of those who are affected by their results – administrators, teachers and students. School-wide exams are used by principals and administrators to enforce learning, while in classroom, tests and quizzes are used by teachers to impose discipline and to motivate learning.***

(Shohamy et al., 1996, p. 299)

It is widely accepted that testing, obeying a logical thinking, ought to come at the end of the teaching and learning process for evaluative purposes. However, with the widespread expansion and proliferation of high-stakes public exams, for example, the Middle-School entrance exam, BEM and Baccalaureate, the direction seems to have been largely reversed, as Cheng and Curtis (2004) note, and testing at present comes first in the teaching and learning process. It is therefore the power of these exams and the strength of the perceptions which are held about them, as Andrews (2004) notes, that makes them potentially so influential upon school and classroom practices<sup>7</sup>, as well as their power to largely change students and teachers behaviour. Additionally, results obtained from test can have serious consequences for individuals, and programmes, since many crucial decisions are made on the basis of test results (Shohamy et al., 1996). Subsequently, Shohamy (1999, p. 711) reaffirms such assertion stating that tests are ***“powerful ... because they are conducted by authoritative and unquestioning judges or are backed by the language of science and numbers”***. In short, test and data obtained from tests are all too often used as levers of instructional reform, i.e. levers for change.

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<sup>6</sup> In a previous article published in 1993, Shohamy noted that ***“external tests have become most powerful devices, capable of changing and prescribing the behaviour of those affected by their results – administrators, teachers and students. Central agencies and decision makers, aware of the authoritative power of external tests, have often used them to impose new curricula, textbooks and teaching methods. Thus external tests are currently used to motivate students to study, teachers to reach, and principals to modify the curriculum”*** (Shohamy, 1993, p. 186).

<sup>7</sup> The term *school practices* is used ***“to refer to those actions and guidelines that affect all teachers, such as the assignment of teachers to grades and classes, scheduling the school day, school selection of curricular and materials, and the provision of professional development. Classroom practices, by comparison, refers to those actions that are the responsibility of individual teachers, such as developing lessons, delivering instruction, assigning homework, and grading students”*** (Stecher et al., 2004, p. 55).

### **4.4.1. Tests as Levers for Change**

Admittedly, one of the main functions of assessment is generally believed to be as one form of leverage for educational change. In other words, what we actually want, and it is in effect the rationale of the present dissertation, is to use the Baccalaureate examination results and feedback to improve classroom practices and therefore student learning. Chapman and Snyder (2000) reported on the mixed outcomes reflecting attempts made by educational institutions throughout the world to use high-stakes tests to improve learning outcomes. They outlined five major propositions emerging from the literature relating to the contributions of assessment to the improvement in teaching practices and thereby learning outcomes:

1. Education officials can use test scores to target educational resources to low achieving schools or geographical areas;
2. Testing can be used to shape and “pull” teachers pedagogical practices in desirable ways;
3. Testing can be used to motivate teachers to improve their teaching;
4. Testing gives teachers information with which they can target remediation; and
5. National assessments can support cross-national comparisons which can lead governments to commit a larger share of the national budget to education.

(Chapman and Snyder, 2000, cited in Andrews, 2004, p. 45)

Such propositions reflect the extent to which the Baccalaureate, as a high-stakes exam, is to be used as a powerful tool for promoting change across the national education system. Additionally, the first proposition comes somehow closer to the Algerian context. Algeria is a vast country in which some Saharan regions still have low-resourced schools in remote areas, in comparison to urban-implanted schools. These schools usually underscore in the Baccalaureate exam. On the other hand, Andrews (2004, p. 46) notes that ***“disseminating test scores will generate competition between schools and thus motivate teachers in low achieving schools to improve their instructional practices”***. This idea can be read between the lines in the second proposition. Yet, it is important to note that there is not a systematic causal relationship between test scores and student performance, in other words, performing well on a test is not necessarily an indication and a reference about

good teaching-learning or high standards, it only tells part of the story about the actual teaching and learning (Cheng and Curtis, 2004).

### **4.4.2. Alderson and Wall's Hypotheses**

Alderson and Wall (1993) propose fifteen possible hypotheses that reflect the effect of a test at different levels of the educational continuum, i.e. they relate to various teaching and learning behaviours and attitudes yielded by high-stakes tests and discuss other factors that go beyond test design and directly or indirectly affect the teaching-learning process. The hypotheses have been highly influential in providing frameworks for research into washback. They are as follows:

1. A test will influence teaching.
2. A test will influence learning.
3. A test will influence what teachers teach; and
4. A test will influence how teachers teach; and by extension from (2) above,
5. A test will influence what learners learn; and
6. A test will influence how learners learn.
7. A test will influence the rate and sequence of teaching; and
8. A test will influence the rate and sequence of learning.
9. A test will influence the degree and depth of teaching; and
10. A test will influence the degree and depth of learning.
11. A test will influence attitudes to the content, method, etc. of teaching and learning.
12. Tests that have important consequences will have washback; and conversely,
13. Tests that do not have important consequences will have no washback.
14. Tests will have washback on all learners and teachers.
15. Tests will have washback effects for some learners and some teachers, but not for others.

(Alderson and Wall, 1993, pp. 120-121)

Yet it is, to some extent, axiomatic that a test on its own cannot bring about changes if the educational system has not adequately prepared the teachers.

#### **4.5. Educational Reforms and Language Testing**

It is not a truism to assert that the education system in any part of the world is static and is never subject to changes, superficial, cosmetic or radical. Innovation and change in education are vivid signs of the dynamism that characterizes today's world's schools, colleges and universities. These educational reforms constitute, so to speak, the 'lungs' that provide the oxygenation process necessary to any education system to stand the test of time and to demonstrate its ability to update and adapt its teaching to the country's needs. Educational and examination reforms ***“are usually aimed at making the curriculum ‘more relevant’ development needs”*** (Heyneman and Ransom, 1990, p. 180). These reforms, as Brindey (2008: 365) notes, ***“involve systematic attempts by governments or educational authorities to change educational policies and practices with a view to improving learner outcomes”*** (see Appendix IV). Yet, basically quality improvement must be founded on the integration of 21<sup>st</sup> century skills that are conducive to the building up of knowledge-based societies.

The process of introducing reforms to an education system is no doubt a complex and extremely daunting task. It requires an in-depth analysis of key elements ranging from politics and administration to pedagogy and assessment (El Nashar: 2012). Their implementation is generally reckoned as a response to identify certain breakdowns of the education system that are considered as problematic and deserve reconsideration and need careful treatment. Of these issues are those dealing with the following:

- Low quality education
- falling academic standards of learner achievement
- poor performance by learners in comparison to international standards
- high drop-out level
- increase in number of repeaters
- incongruity between planned objectives and classroom practices
- change in socio-political environment

Arguably, low investments in education coupled with poorly qualified teachers and inadequate teaching practices are indirect indicators of declining school quality. Most poor countries in the world have less money to invest in items that boost learning such as textbooks, instructional materials, good teachers and teacher training (Heyneman and

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Ransom, 1990)<sup>8</sup>. Additionally, in most developing countries, officials are always been haunted by the fear that the educational institutions are not responding to the needs of the society in terms of scientific progress and technological advancement, and therefore put the blame on the education system for not creating job opportunities and for not producing the technical manpower required for economic development. On the other hand, testing has long been used by educational authorities as an instrument for a host of reasons. These are as follows:

- it is relatively cheap compared to other major reforms
- it is easy to administer
- it can be externally prescribed
- its results are visible and measurable in terms grades/marks and rates
- immediate remedial measures can be put forward

These reasons reflect in clearer terms the extent to which the use of tests as a lever for reform has long been common practice and their orchestration and instrumentalisation by educational policy-makers for attaining specific goals can prove very fruitful. In sum, as Heyneman and Ranson (1990, p. 178) posit, ***“Examinations can be a powerful, low-cost means on influencing the quality of what teachers teach and what students learn in school.”*** However, if reforms do not respond to public or parental aspirations, ***“officials use the power of examinations to make reforms acceptable”*** (ibid, p. 180). They also note that ***“Test content is a powerful influence on teachers to change their decisions on what part of the curriculum to teach”*** (ibid, p. 186).

Educational reforms can be implemented in an explicit way affecting directly learning outcomes. The introduction of the different ELT methods and approaches since independence (see 3.5.) illustrates case of reforms which have a visible and serious impact on the teaching/learning process. Yet, other reforms, closely related to language planning, and which have a nationwide dimension and can covertly impact learning outcomes, deserve their fair share of attention in this part.

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<sup>8</sup> This cause-and-effect relationship can be explained in simple economic terms: rising population growth rates, slowed economic growth, and mounting foreign debt in developing countries mean that there are more children to educate and less money with which to educate them.

### **4.5.1. Reflections and Pedagogical Implications**

In Algeria the promotion of one language-in-education policy through the large-scale Arabization process has had a profound effect on the education system as whole<sup>9</sup>. It is a common perception among some Algerians that the substitution of the French language by Arabic as the medium of instruction has led to falling educational standards. On the other hand, language-wise, a high percentage of students and graduates have developed a low level of language proficiency, which degenerated into what Brann (1990) has termed ‘semilingualism’, i.e. the inability to use fluently two different languages one is supposed to master.

At the very onset, one dare say that, Arabization has not been carried out with great seriousness of intent and commitment. In fact, *‘Arabization ... has been made, from the start, the target of the hijacking manoeuvres instigated by political bodies or even individuals’* (Miliani, 2003, p. 55). The main objective this acquisition-planning policy<sup>10</sup> had a two-fold objective: 1) to discard and marginalize the francophone élite, and 2) to aid in the eradication of minority languages, not least *Tamazight* spoken by one fifth of the population. Worse still, the promotion of Arabic, as the national and official language, has had a divisive effect in the sense that it has undermined rather than strengthened political unity.

It is generally acknowledged that the Arabization policy, implemented on the basis of political directives rather than linguistic consideration, academic orientations and pedagogical criteria, has been fundamentally related to attempts to deprive the élite of access, status and power. What is more, the precipitate valuation of Arabic over French and the other local varieties created a situation of general malaise which can be described in terms of linguistic imperialism. Here the notion of imperialism is similar to that of Phillipson (1992), but one might argue that Phillipson’s terminology is slightly patronizing. In sum then, Arabization, the noble socio-cultural project, has deliberately been deviated from its original dimension, in the sense that Arabic has been manipulated for instrumental and goal-seeking reasons.

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<sup>9</sup> Acquisition-planning policy refers to the strategy to increase the use and users of a language through language teaching.

<sup>10</sup> From 1971 onwards Arabic replaced French as the sole medium of instruction in primary schools; by 1976 all middle-school education was conducted in Arabic; by 1984 all secondary education and by 1986 most university education had undergone this change.

### **4.5.2. Foundation School Reform**

The alarming fall in the educational standards as a whole had led the educational authorities to have recourse to implementing a set of reforms more commonly known under the label of Foundation School. Unlike the former system, the Foundation School system gave pupils only three - instead of four – years of middle education before entering Secondary Schools. Since its introduction in 1984, however, this system was one of the most frequent subjects for public debate in the country. This so-called new approach had a far-reaching and long-lasting effect on many aspects of the educational system. First of all, it impacted drastically the general style of teaching, which tended to give priority to acquiring factual knowledge through memorization and imitation rather than developing independent and analytical styles of thinking through the development of critical thinking. A second effect was its heavy emphasis on science and technology at the Primary and Middle School levels at the expense of what are known as ‘the three Rs’ (Reading, Writing and Arithmetic , i.e. literacy and numeracy or the backbone of basic education, see 1.2.) which sought to develop the intellectual, emotional and cultural aspects of the child. The prevailing belief at that time was that Algeria needed more scientists and technicians for the economic take-off stage<sup>11</sup>. Unfortunately, this resulted in low-quality education and a high drop-out rate –two highly debated topics in the education literature. The UNESCO Report on Education and Literacy in the Arab World (1999) noted that the Algerian School had been somehow failing a large number of its pupils, and a large number of graduates were functionally illiterate in the sense that they were unable to perform simple literacy tasks, such as writing a job application or fill in a formal form.

Originally, Foundation School was introduced on grounds of efficiency, That is to say, as a ‘remedy’ to the high rates of failure that struck down Primary and Middle School education. Such a system ensured nine years of schooling to all children. Parallel to this, it was geared to reinforce the Arabisation policy in the sense that Arabic became *de facto* a functional language used as a medium of education for lower levels of science and technology. Yet, this pseudo-remedy did not yield the expected learning outcome; it actually added a further layer to the complexity of the situation: an under-resourced

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<sup>11</sup> At this stage the old blocks and the resistances to steady growth are finally overcome and the economy is made capable of generating its own economic and industrial development (Rostow, 1960 cited in Todaro, 1981).

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educational system characterized by depressingly substandard academic levels, alarmingly-increasing school loss and a problem of language use that was not yet definitely sorted out.

One might argue that following the major shift to Arabic as the sole medium of education in schools coupled with the implementation of Foundation School did not bring about the expected results. Consequently, these changes were not based on a true understanding of what the Algerian learner really needed nor in accord with his environment. Needless to say, Foundation School, derived from the former Eastern World models of education, was found inadequate or discarded elsewhere. This illustrates that there has never been a deep concern among education policymakers about many aspects of education.

Admittedly, educationalists' attempts at reforms have always been well intended, but rarely have professionals had the opportunity to participate in the solving of background educational issues. On the other hand, the pseudo-reform committee meetings are deliberately orchestrated to gain the acceptance of what has already been taken before the meeting, and allow only 'cosmetic changes'. Unquestioning acceptance to authority has always been the hallmark of exemplary good behaviour and obedience. Indeed, the process of educational change is a complex and daunting task involving sound politically-oriented goals. However, in Algeria attempts at reforming the education system have always moved in the reverse order, i.e. at the expense of academic standards and pedagogical orientations.

### **4.5.3. Stated Objectives Vs. Classroom Practices**

The current English language teaching methodology draws on a set of principles based on eclecticism, though the Competency-Based Approach is supposed to take the lead in the EFL teaching/learning process (see 3.9.). However, the teaching task in the Algerian ELT context is largely influenced by the imposed methodology and government-prescribed textbooks. Most teachers describe their teaching in these terms. These constraints determine specific roles for both teachers and learners. On the other hand, a related point worth raising here is the form of incongruity between the syllabus designers' own theoretical perception and knowledge of the pupils' cognitive and linguistic capabilities and their actual abilities (Ourghi, 2002). This state of affairs can be explained in terms of the noticeable overload characterizing the English curriculum and the discrepancy between stated and planned objectives and classroom practices.

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Many teachers believe that the curriculum is ‘overloaded’; this has given rise to a major preoccupation among most teachers of the 4<sup>th</sup> year of Middle-School education and 3<sup>rd</sup> year of Secondary-School education to “cover the syllabus” rather than teach effectively following the learners’ progressive intake and assimilation capability. Teachers, therefore, often select only those aspects of language that feature prominently in the BEM and the Baccalaureate EFL exams. In sum, what seems to matter most is the rate of success in the aforementioned official exams. Teachers as well as the school administration measure the success of their pupils in passing official tests. Consequently, this selective-focusing teaching may have a deleterious backwash effect on methodology as classroom teachers are under pressure to teach “exam English” (see 4.5.). Arguably, emphasis should be put on academic success and concentration on the pupil’s development of his or her potential rather than on training them for a particular exam.

As mentioned earlier, many teachers feel compelled to cover, albeit hastily, the stated syllabus rather than assess the needs and interests of their learners, and consequently design remedial activities. This in itself, some teachers report, reduces learners’ motivation. On the other hand, syllabus designers and language inspectors vigorously claim that *‘the textbook is not the Holy Koran’* (Official Syllabus for English, 1999, p. 4), and the syllabus as such is only a guide which, by virtue of necessity, may be adapted to meet the pupils’ needs and expectations and to centre one’s teaching on those very needs and expectations. Teachers are not bound to follow the textbooks slavishly. According to the General Inspectorate of English, *the textbook writers expect you [the teacher] to be a teacher not just a textbook user* (op.cit.). Other teachers go so far to assert that there is a discrepancy between the stated curriculum objectives and what is actually occurring in the classroom. They note that the curriculum includes more objectives than can feasibly be taught in the specified time period (Benmoussat, 2003).

It should be also noted that there was an attempt to introduce English as a first foreign language in the fundamental cycle (fourth year of Foundation School) to displace the French language. In 1993-94 it was implemented in very few classes but this pilot experiment had not been generalized since then. In the area of Tlemcen it was carried out in five primary schools: Abou-Techfine, Imama, Hennaya, Nedroma and Bab-El-Assa. Unfortunately, and despite encouraging and promising results the experiment ended in the academic year 2000-2001. This U-turn policy clearly illustrates that *‘language (foreign and national) planning, as well as teaching, has always responded to considerations*

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*imbued with partnership far from the sociolinguistic reality of the country'* (Miliani, 2001, p. 14). It also shows the lack of long-run perspectives resulting from the inherent chronic instability of the institutions in charge of the education system supervision.

Arguably, such a gloomy picture of ELT, according to the overwhelming majority of teachers, is partly due to two main facts. First, the syllabus designers and armchair education policymakers seem not to account for the Algerian School's contextual constraints relating to teacher's training, teaching time, physical conditions, and other related educational inputs; the pedagogical orientations are not couched in terms of the reality of the everyday classroom. Second, our pupils, with few exceptions, display a reluctance and growing demotivation to spend extra effort to learn foreign languages.

### **4.5.4. Language Testing**

In educational setting the major uses of test scores are related to evaluation, or making decisions about learners or programmes. Ur (1996) states nine reasons for testing whereby tests may be used as a means to:

1. give the teacher information about where the students are at the moment, to help decide what to teach next;
2. give the student information about what they know, so that they also have an awareness of what they need to learn or review;
3. assess for some purpose external to current teaching (a final grade for the course, selection);
4. motivate students to learn or review specific material;
5. get a noisy class to keep quiet and concentrate;
6. provide a clear indication that the class has reached a 'station' in learning, such as the end of a unit, thus contributing to a sense of structure in the course as a whole;
7. get students to make an effort (in doing the test itself, which is likely to lead to better results and a feeling of satisfaction);
8. give students tasks which themselves may actually provide useful review or practice, as well as testing;
9. provide students with a sense of achievement and progress in their learning.

(Ur, 1996, p. 34)

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Language testing has become a central issue in second and foreign language teaching. A substantial literature has developed on the topic. Language teachers regularly use tests to help diagnose students' strengths and weaknesses, to assess student progress, and to assist in evaluating student achievement. Language tests are also frequently used as sources of information in evaluating the effectiveness of different approaches to language teaching. As sources of feedback on learning and teaching language tests can thus provide useful input into the process of language teaching. Conversely, insights gained from language teaching practice can provide valuable information for designing and developing more useful and more appropriate tests. Language tests are used in two main ways: as sources of information for making decisions within the context of educational programmes; and as indicators of abilities or attributes that are of interest in research on language teaching. The first way is our direct concern, as it gives a micro view on the role of testing in the overall language teaching/learning situation.

### **4.5.5. Language Testing Perspectives**

However, in the context of research, the analysis and interpretation of test results can be of a valuable help to our understanding of the nature of language proficiency, and may have implications for language learning and language teaching (Bachman 1990). On the one hand, from a language learning perspective, tests are used for pedagogical purposes, either as a means of motivating students to study, or as a means of reviewing material taught. On the other hand, and from a language teaching perspective, testing has a 'lot to reveal' to improve students performance (see 4.3.1.).

Testing is one of the most controversial areas in language teaching, and at the same time it is necessary as a sort of completion of the teaching/learning progress. In fact, if testing is adequately prepared and well administered on the basis of '*test-what-you-teach*' motto, it checks the effectiveness of the process as a whole. In this respect, ***Both testing and teaching are so closely interrelated that it is virtually impossible to work in either field without being constantly concerned with the other***' (Heaton, 1988, p. 5). From this perspective, one can consider the relationship between testing and teaching as one of partnership in the sense that ***it [testing] should be supportive of good teaching and where necessary, exert a corrective influence on bad teaching***' (Hughes 1989:2).

On the other hand, the teacher, as a practitioner, should bear in mind that teacher-made tests can be superior in certain respects to the professionally-made tests. Many teachers believe that writing tests requires some sort of expertise. Yet, it is axiomatic that the teacher is the one who best knows the teaching profession; he is in a better position than anyone to state in precise and clear terms what his learners have been taught and where they have been up to. This is to say that, ***“A test is seen as a natural extension of classroom work, providing teacher and student with useful information that can serve each as a basis for improvement ... it follows that the person best prepared to set the test is the teacher”*** (Harrison 1983: 1). Interestingly, an important aspect underlies this quotation; it is the fact that apart from being used formally for public examinations, a test can be used as a constructive and practical learning strategy offering learners useful opportunities for the discussion of many aspects of the teaching/learning process. This point would lead us to a discussion of the effect of testing on teaching, what applied linguists call the *washback effect*.

### **4.6. Washback Phenomenon**

Much has been written about the influence of testing on teaching and learning, i.e. washback. This part deals exclusively with the washback phenomenon and its intended effects of the Baccalaureate exam with a view to improving our understanding of the phenomenon which is much needed for an in-depth understanding of the issue. It is commonly believed that examinations affect teaching and learning as stated by Alderson and Wall (1993, p. 1) that ***“tests are held to be powerful determiners of what happens in classroom”***, and that what is ***“what is assessed becomes what is valued, which becomes what is taught.”*** (McEwen, 1995, p. 42). Thus, the way in which examinations influence the whole teaching-learning process is commonly described as washback or backwash. Worth noting here is that the term washback has become commonly used in language teaching and a key concept in the testing literature, yet it is rarely found as an entry in dictionaries. However, the word backwash can be found in some dictionaries, and is defined as ***“the unpleasant repercussions of some social action”*** by the *New Webster’s Comprehensive Dictionary*, and as ***“unpleasant after effects of an event or situation”*** by the *Collins CoBuild Dictionary*. No reference is made to the terms washback and backwash in the *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary*.

### **4.6.1. Washback Defined and Described**

Admittedly, tests exert a powerful influence on both learners and teachers in different ways. In the testing area, this influence is called washback. The concept of washback has been defined and dealt with in a variety of ways. The following quotations, which are actually definitions of the concept, are evidence of the importance the washback phenomenon in language teaching-testing. They also provide an overview of the complexity and touch on the contextual factors entangled with testing, teaching and learning.

- Pearson (1988, p. 98) states that “***Public examinations influence the attitudes, behaviours, and motivation of teachers, learners, and parents, and because examinations often come at the end of a course, this influence is seen working in a backward direction, hence the term, washback.***”
- Buck (1988, p. 17) notes that “***The influence of the test on the classroom ... this washback effect can be either beneficial or harmful.***”
- Hughes (1989, p. 1) notes that “***The effects of testing on teaching and learning***” is known as backwash.
- Pierce (1992, p. 687) states that “***the washback effect ... refers to the impact of a test on classroom pedagogy, curriculum development and educational policy.***”
- Alderson and Wall (1993, p. 239) note that “***Concerns has long been voiced about the power of tests to affect what goes on in the classroom, the educational system, and the society as a whole – the so-called ‘washback effect’.***”
- Wall and Alderson (1993, p. 41) posit that “***It is common to claim the existence of washback (the impact of a test on teaching) and to declare that tests can be powerful determiners ... of what happens in classrooms.***”

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- Spolsky (1994, p. 55) believes *“backwash is better applied only to accidental side-effects of examinations, and not to those effects intended when the first purpose of the examination is control of the curriculum.”*
- Biggs (1995, p. 12) uses the term backwash to refer to the fact that *“testing drives not only the curriculum, but also the teaching methods and students’ approaches to learning.”*
- Messick (1996, p. 243) describes washback as *“the extent to which the introduction and the use of a test influences language and teachers to do things they would not otherwise do that promote or inhibit language learning.”*
- Bailey (1996, p. 259) defines washback as the *“influence of testing on teaching and learning.”*
- Shohamy et al. (1996, p. 4) delineate washback as *“the connections between testing and learning.”*
- Wall (1997, p. 291) defines washback as *“the effects of tests on teaching and learning.”*
- Cheng (2005, p. 56) notes that washback indicates *“an intended or unintended (accidental) direction and function of curriculum change on aspects of teaching and learning by means of a change of public examinations.”*
- Hugh (2003, p. 53) defines washback as *“a part of the impact a test may have on learners and teachers, on educational systems in general, and on society at large.”*

Admittedly, all the aforementioned definitions draw a close relationship between teaching, learning and testing. This trip-tych orientation confirms the extent to which the washback phenomenon is influential and determinant of what and how school and classroom

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practices<sup>12</sup> ought to be and even beyond school setting. This clearly explains the fact that *“There is a natural tendency for both teachers and students to tailor their classroom activities to the demands of the test, especially when the test is very important to the future of the students, and pass rates are used as a measure of teacher success”* (Buck 1988, p. 17). What is more, as Cheng and Curtis (2004, p. 14) note *“using washback to promote particular pedagogical goals is now a well-established approach in education.”* In the same line of thought, Heyneman and Ranson noted more than two decades ago that,

*When examinations determine a child’s advancement through school and his or her later life’s opportunities, parents understandably put pressure on teachers to ensure that their child succeeds. They hold the school system and particularly teachers accountable for their child’s results on examinations. The consequence or backwash effect of this public expectation is that teachers adjust their teaching to what the examination will cover to ensure that their students score the highest marks... The backwash effect of the examination restricts what is taught and learned in school.*

(Heyneman and Ranson, 1990, p. 182)

This is another way of saying that exam washback is used as a catalyst for curriculum innovation. Research on washback has led to a greater understanding of this concept and to categorise into two types: positive, i.e. when the assessment used reflects the skills and content taught in the classroom; negative, i.e. in many cases and particularly in high stakes exam testing, such as the Baccalaureate exam, the curriculum is driven by the assessment leading to negative washback (Bachman, 1990).

### **4.6.2. Positive/Negative Washback**

Washback is an inherent quality of any kind of assessment, especially when pupils and students’ futures are affected by the examination results, regardless of the quality of the examination. When learners hear the word TESTING, they feel nervous and tense. There is often a great pressure on them to succeed and if they don’t pass, they are branded as failures. All too often these negative feelings stem from the fact that there seems to be a

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<sup>12</sup> A distinction is to be made between ‘ordinary teaching’, i.e. teaching aiming at developing general language skills based on the use of mandated textbooks and ‘intense exam preparation’ also called teaching-to-the-test approach, i.e. teaching devoted exclusively to the preparation of students for the Baccalaureate exam, aiming at developing exam techniques and skills using practice test materials, for example, use of exam-preparation techniques so that students can acquire the necessary test-taking skills needed by the exam ranging from general test-wiseness techniques to more specific teaching the test strategies.

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divorce between the way the lessons are carried out in the classroom and the types of tests our learners are expected to pass. Yet, when can washback be qualified as negative and thus harmful?

- When training for a particular test comes to dominate classroom work.
- When teachers teach one thing and the test then concentrates on another one.
- When teachers end up “teaching to the test”.

In sum then, almost all teachers spend a great deal of time on preparing their students for the Baccalaureate exam, and consequently spend little time or no time on the other language skills or other activities to develop language proficiency.

Several recommendations have been proposed in the field of Assessment and testing, and which are very likely to help teachers achieve better washback effects in the teaching/learning process. In our very specific context, a context characterised by virtually a lack of testing and assessment courses in in-service training as part of the TEFL module, we recommend that EFL teachers undertake extensive reading of the literature closely relating to testing in general and EFL testing in particular. A wealth of literature has been oriented towards handling the notion of washback from a positive angle (Anderson and Wall 1993; Bachman and Palmer 1996; Pearson 1998; Prodromou 1993; Messick 1996; Spratt 2005; Wall 1997). Also, teachers need to engage in conferences, symposia, study days and scientific meetings which invite other teachers and colleagues to discuss issues relating to the assessment of language knowledge. Finally, teachers should engage in collaborative test development projects in which they share the processes of developing test specifications, item writing, trialling and piloting in a way that ensures the consistency of the testing content and techniques with the teaching practices adopted and therefore increases the likelihood that the tests will have beneficial backwash on teaching.

### **4.7. Assessment Literacy**

Teacher training in classroom assessment has long been considered an important issue in the field of language learning. *“Few teachers are prepared to face the challenges of classroom assessment because they have not been given the opportunity to learn to do so”* (Stiggins, 2002 p. 762). The 1980s saw the start of the new journal *Language Testing*, a sure sign of the field’s growing research capacity (Davis, 2008). However, it was not till the early 1990s that language testers began to realize that there was a felt and urgent need

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to initiate teachers in language testing courses. Indeed, still at present, there are no courses on “Testing and Assessment” in our EFL Departments as part of a pre-service training programme for our would-be-teachers. As it is rightly pointed out, ***“Regrettably, when most of today’s teachers completed their teacher-education program, there was no requirement that they learn anything about educational assessment”*** (Popham, 2009 p. 5).

Consequently, many teachers, especially novices, do not know what the characteristics of a good language test are and how they are to evaluate language tests. They prefer to use ready-made tests made by other testers/teachers or the tests offered in the textbooks. It is unfortunate to note that the disadvantage of using others’ tests is that, as noted by Korsal (2006), we teach but others test what we teach. However, ***“Despite the growth of standards-based education, ..., there is no consensus on what is required or even needed for language instructors to reliably and validly develop, select, administer and interpret tests”*** (Malone, 2008, p. 225).

Some teachers have reported indiscreetly the case of the same classroom tests that have been used without any revision or editing (see Appendix VIII). One can step further by asserting that many teachers are not aware of the nature of the exam and what is really being tested. They may never have received or attended training sessions that would explain the skills language learners need to succeed at various test tasks. In overall terms, virtually all our teachers have a limited background in assessment fundamentals or know little about educational assessment (Malone, 2011; Popham, 2009); in other words, they lack what is called ‘assessment literacy’, i.e. ***“the assessment skills and understandings currently perceived as vital for conducting language assessment in educational settings”*** (Inbar-Lourie, 2009 p. 386). In the same vein, Falsgarf (2005) defines assessment literacy as ***“the ability to understand, analyze, and apply information on student performance to improve instruction”*** (Falsgarf cited in Inbar-Lourie, 2008, p. 389). Put simply, assessment literacy has been proposed to describe what language instructors need to know about assessment in order ***“to make informed decisions throughout the assessment process”*** (Malone, 2008 p. 225), and optimize learning.

It is argued that teachers’ inadequate knowledge in the area of assessment can cripple the quality of education. When teachers have a sound knowledge of the principles underlying assessment, they are able to institute a learning culture in their classroom that is

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very likely to lead to continuous improvement of teaching and learning as a result of the feedback obtained from testing. Moreover, as Hughes (2003) posits, assessment, when appropriately used can have significant positive washback, that is, positive effects on classroom practices, with the potential to improve not only teaching and learning but also the overall quality of the language education experience. Therefore, assessment literacy should be an issue of interest and professional development for all teachers. In sum then, classroom assessment is becoming in today's world a *sine qua non* and a professional requirement as important as other expected professional skills, such as content knowledge and classroom management.

Arguably, the goal of assessment has to be, above all, to support improvement of teaching and learning. Research has shown that teachers spend from one third to one quarter of their in-class time on testing-related activities. Almost all teachers do so without the benefit of having learned the principles of sound assessment (Stiggins, 2007). Assessment literate teachers understand how to utilize assessment as a tool to promote effective learning. ***“Becoming assessment literate requires the attainment of a ‘toolbox’ of competencies, some practical and some theoretical, on why, when and how to go about constructing a variety of assessment procedures”*** (Boyles and Hoyt, 2005 quoted in Inbar-Lourie, 2008, p. 389). Being literate in assessment thus means having the intellectual power and pedagogical authority to call into questions the purposes for testing, the appropriateness of the test items and tools being used, the testing conditions and ultimately what the post-test situation would be. The acquisition of assessment literacy is similar to the acquisition of other professional skills; however, it assumes a constructivist approach based on discussing, analysing, critiquing and questioning issues relevant to the context (see 1.4.). Teachers as language assessors are expected to engage in classroom assessment activities, report on learners' progress aligned with external criteria as well as prepare learners for external examinations (Inbar-Lourie op. cit.). Thus, as noted ***“it seems that assessment literacy is a commodity needed by teachers for their own long-term well-being, and for the educational well-being of their students”*** (Pophan, 2009, p. 11).

Clearly, the general purpose of language testing and assessment courses, is to train language teachers in language assessment concepts, skills and strategies. Language teachers should benefit from regular in-service training to supplement what they learned (or did not learn) in their pre-service training program. Such ongoing professional development can help them keep abreast of the latest developments in language assessment

and allow them to apply new developments to the language classroom (Malone, 2008). Professional development workshops, in the form of study days or colloquia, should become frequent approaches to help language teachers supplement their formal training to improve their classroom effectiveness at the teaching-testing level.

### **4.8. Alternative Assessment**

Alternative assessment<sup>13</sup> is a term often used in contrast with the traditional testing procedures. Actually, there is no single definition of the term. It is usually taken to mean *“assessment procedures which are less formal than traditional testing, which are gathered over a period of time rather than being taken at one point in time, which are usually formative than summative in function, are often low-stakes in terms of consequences, and are claimed to have beneficial washback effects”* (Alderson and Banerjee, 2001, p. 228). In very pedagogical terms it *“refers to procedures and techniques which can be used within the context of instruction and can be easily incorporated into the daily activities of the school or classroom”* (Hamayan, 1995, p. 213). It is strongly believed that traditional testing procedures tend to over-emphasise the marking system more than the learning function of the language learning process. In such situations, there is a tendency to make use of a normative approach to assessment rather a criterion-based testing which is likely to create a form of competition among learners rather than improving learning outcomes conducive to detachment, demotivation and a loss of confidence in the capacity to learn (Black and William, 1998). That is why students are constantly haggling over the marks.

Additionally, tests can be useful for gathering information about the learners progress, yet, as Hamayan (1994, p. 229) notes, *“they are not particularly useful for collecting information about students’ attitudes, motivation, interests and learning strategies”*. In this respect, alternative assessment is believed to strongly relate instruction to assessment by providing a *feedback loop* that helps teachers monitor, adjust and modify instruction on a regular and continuous basis in accordance with results obtained by

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<sup>13</sup> Although ‘alternative assessment’ has become the most generic term currently used in the assessment literature (Birenbaum, 1996), a variety of labels has been used to refer to ways of assessing learner’s achievement without the use of tests. The most frequent are: authentic assessment, performance assessment, continuous assessment and on-going assessment. Shohamy (1996) refines the term ‘alternative assessment’ preferring ‘complementary assessment’ as a more precise label.

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learners. The increase in calls for implementing alternative assessment has, to some extent, changed the field of assessment and testing.

It is generally agreed that alternative assessment fulfils a three-fold mission. It allows students to see their own accomplishment and progress and consequently allows them to endorse part of responsibility for their learning. For parents, it enables them to share in the pedagogical and educational processes, and therefore provides them with a clear insight into what their children are actually doing in school. For teachers, alternative assessment offers them information on the students and helps them exploit these data for in-class educational decision making. In sum, it provides data and feedback which standardized tests, for example the Baccalaureate or the BEM exam, fail to do it. Are therefore our EFL teachers ready to embark on innovative forms of assessment and eager to embrace the *alternative assessment wave* and therefore inculcate right from the very beginning the sense of shared responsibility in our learners with their teachers, peers and parents? If this initiative is to be implemented steadily and mindfully, learning outcomes will certainly improve and so do the rate of success.

### **4.8.1. Traditional Testing Vs. Alternative Assessment**

It is worth noting at the outset that assessment can be used for a variety of purposes; yet three fundamentally identified purposes are generally advanced in the literature of assessment and testing: to support and enhance learning, to provide certification for progress and to present a form of quality assurance (see 1.9.). Thus, a shift of focus from traditional testing procedures, which served a purpose of giving grades and marks and satisfying the accountability demands of the policy-maker, school administration and parental expectancies, to assessment which can be used as an integral part of teaching-learning process to support and enhance learning. This shift has led to draw a seminal distinction between ‘*assessment of learning*’ and ‘*assessment for learning*’<sup>14</sup>. However, to improve learning outcomes and indeed teaching practices, instructional assessment must be formative in both function and purpose (see 2.11) and must place the learner in the very

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<sup>14</sup> Researchers in the field of assessment and testing (Black and William 1998; Black et al. 2003) draw a seminal distinction between ‘assessment of learning’, assessment situation where not all elements of the assessment process are presented to a learner; in this case assessment serves as a monitoring device for learning either for the purpose of giving grades or satisfying the accountability demands of an externally authority/body and is given at specific time, and ‘assessment for learning’ assessment situation where elements of the assessment process are shared with a learner; in this case assessment serves as a means to improve learners’ understanding of the learning process (Wikström, 2007; see 2.4.).

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centre of the assessment process. In this very specific context, it is worth noting Gipps' (2001) comprehensive reflection on positivist and constructivist instructional procedures (see 1.4.) in terms of teaching, learning and testing. She argues that

*In the traditional model of teaching and learning [positivist], the curriculum is seen as a distinct body of information, specified in detail, which can be transmitted to the learner. Assessment here consists of checking whether the information has been received and absorbed [...] By contrast, constructivist models of see learning as requiring personal knowledge construction and meaning making, and as involving complex and diverse processes; such models therefore require assessment to be diverse, in an attempt to characterize in more depth the structure and quality of student's learning and understanding. While, for example, standardized multiple choice or short answer type tests are efficient at sampling the acquisition of specific knowledge presented by the teachers or textbooks, more intense, even interactive methods, such as essays, performance assessments, and small group tasks and projects, are needed to assess understanding and the process of learning, as well as to encourage a deeper level of learning.*

(Gipps, 2001, p. 73)

This long quotation, which draws a clear cut division between the traditional forms of assessment and the alternative ones, is in effect, an explicit bias to alternative forms of assessment. It dismisses traditional and, by extension, imposed assessment on the basis of not providing enough support to the curriculum and instructional approaches. Alternative assessment, on the contrary, *“presents a process that provides an opportunity for the meaningful integration of curriculum, instruction and assessment”* (Wikström, 2007, p. 6). Additionally, while standardized tests, Baccalaureate EFL exams for example, measure students' performance at the end of 3ème AS, and to some extent, may fail to reflect EFL learners' true skills and abilities, alternative assessment can provide a well-rounded picture of students progress and improvement in the learning process. More importantly, because alternative assessment is performance based and learner centered, it helps instructors emphasize that the overall goals of language learning is communication for meaningful purposes, not least English. In sum then, alternative assessment, from a communicative standpoint, fits appropriately well within the framework of CLT (see 3.8.).

### **4.8.2. Benefits of Alternative Assessment**

In comparison to traditional testing, alternative assessment can be beneficial in wide variety of ways:

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- It gives an evaluation of the process and product of learning
- It provides continual snapshots of where learners in relation to a programme
- It evaluates and monitor instruction
- It produces meaningful results to stakeholders
- It represents a collaborative approach to assessment
- It promotes autonomous and self-directed learning
- It provides new roles to teachers

(Adapted from Tsagari, 2004)

Worth noting at this level of analysis, is how to dare incorporate alternative assessment as a set of testing procedures into classroom activities. It is wiser that teachers plan to introduce alternative forms of assessment gradually, in conjunction with traditional forms of testing. This combined use of both alternative assessments and more traditional procedures will provide the teacher with a more comprehensive view of results and learning outcomes about students' language performance than either alternative or traditional measures alone would provide. Most teachers report that in comparison to traditional forms of testing, alternative assessment has, in a way, given them a leeway to deal, so to speak, with students' assignments, away from time constraints and administrative chores.

Many researchers point out, however, that portfolios are the most frequently identified example of alternative assessment; this assessment procedure has gained much interest in the field of language teaching<sup>15</sup>. Additionally, they are at present viewed as an attractive alternative to more traditional assessment procedures.

### **4.8.3. Portfolios**

By definition, portfolios are collections of various assignments that students have compiled over a period of time, a term, a semester or an academic year. They became popular in the mid 1980s. Pedagogically speaking, a portfolio refers to *“a purposeful collection of any aspect of the students' work which is kept in a file folder, box ... that*

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<sup>15</sup> During the early 1990s specialists in the field of assessment and testing, Black 1998, Hancock 1994, Murphy 1995, started to think deeply about conceiving alternative forms of assessment. Thus, reformed edition of the curriculum based on constructivist orientations and learning theories called for a new type of assessment; i.e. the 'best-fit' one that can be used as part of the instructional process and serves as an aid and enhancement to the learning process.

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*tells about the students' improvement, progress, and achievement*" (Javanmard and Farahani, 2012, p. 53). Unlike the traditional assessment procedures, portfolio assessment enable learners to actively participate in the evaluation process of their own work; they stand, so to speak, for a kind of learner-centered assessment. The following are regarded as the advantages that can be drawn from portfolios use in the field of assessment:

- Can be used to assess learning longitudinally, i.e. over a period of time.
- Enhance learners' motivation.
- Help learners reflect on their own learning and pedagogical achievement.
- Encourage learners to take more initiative and control of learning.
- Lead to greater learner autonomy.

In sum then, the rationale underlying the use of portfolios in English language education, as has Bullock and Hawk (2005, p. 14) have rightly pointed out *"isn't to prove something but rather to improve something"*.

Despite their popularity, it is a great misfortune that this novel form of assessment did not gain much ground and has had very limited application in the field of EFL, not least English language education. Traditional assessment procedures still continue to occupy an important place and fair status as far as reliability and validity are concerned (see 2.5.2. and 2.5.3.) in the day-to-day assessment practices and standardised tests. This is mainly due to two reasons: (1) lack of professional development as part of the in-service training of our EFL teachers and (2) adoption of a conservative attitude and resistance to change of some teachers and most frequently among the more experienced and long-servicing members of a teaching community (see 1.8.).

### **4.8.4. Portfolio Assessment**

Needless to recall that a portfolio is dynamic collection of students' work and its intrinsic value stems from the fact that it requires the learner's active participation in both the learning process and its assessment. To ensure an ideal use of portfolio procedures, a set of key elements are to be rigorously accompanied. These can be summarised as follows:

- Portfolio assessment should have clear goals to both teachers and students. These are conducive to an improvement of the learning outcomes.

- It should match teaching practices and is not to be demarked from classroom activities.
- It should enable learners to come up with a quality work done without pressure and time constraints, and with an optimal exploitation of resources and collaboration with others.
- It should demonstrate a good mastery of some study skills, such as paraphrasing, summarising, referencing, etc.
- It should be a bridge building between the teacher and learner.

(Adapted from various sources)

### **4.9. Globalization and School Reform**

Although globalisation has gained much ground, only recently have scholars in the field of education began to explore the relationship between this global radical transformation and the conditions of schooling. Thus, the globalisation era has tremendous concomitant implications for knowledge and education and learning and testing. Education will need both rethinking and restructuring if schooling is to best prepare the children and the youth of the world to engage in the globalisation's new needs and challenges. The post-war period was characterised by the emergence of a type of education which was viewed as an investment in human capital, in scientific and technological development conducive to progress.

Within the globalisation framework, education is once again called upon to take new responsibilities in developing new skills and sound capacities that enable individuals, organisations and communities to successfully contribute to the building up of the knowledge society. Teachers, more than anyone, are expected to be the builders of learning communities, the creators of knowledge societies and therefore pave the way to students to develop capacities for innovation. As Hargreaves has rightly pointed out, ***“Teachers must take their place again among society’s most respected intellectuals, moving beyond the citadel of the classroom to being, and preparing their students to be citizens of the world”*** (Hargreaves, 2003, p. 3). Where are our teachers in relation to this new status?

Arguably, the concept of ‘knowledge society’ is all too often used in a very loose sense. In this way, it is worth noting that terms such as ‘information society’ and ‘knowledge society’ are used by economists and social scientists interchangeably making a

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slightly nuanced distinction between the two notions<sup>16</sup>. The term ‘knowledge society’ is used to denote the use of information and communications technologies in the exploitation and manipulation of information. The label ‘Information Society’ has been commonly associated ***“with a particular vision arising from the growing use of information and communication technologies, in the acquisition, storage and processing of information”*** (Mansell, 2008, p. 2). A more down-to-earth and clearer definition of the concept of ‘information society’ is the one put forward by Wikipedia (2010), ***“A knowledge society creates, shares and uses knowledge for the prosperity and well-being for its people”***. Where are we in relation to this definition? Still lagging behind and a long way to go awaits us!

To possess a well-equipped infrastructure of information and communication technology is obviously an asset. However, the key to implementing a sound information society is not how people can access information, but how well they can access information. It is generally agreed that ***“the new source of power is not money in the hands of the few but information in the hands of many.”*** En passant, one may note that a good working knowledge of the English language is another important asset and this explicitly reflects the crucial and fundamental role of the EFL teacher is to perform. Within the globalization framework, English has become the linguistic tool whereby the desire not to lag behind and be left out of the world is manifested<sup>17</sup> (see 3.2.). A knowledge economy runs not on machine power but on brain power; the power to think, learn and innovate (Hargreaves, 2003). In the same line of thought, Fullan (2001) have remarked on the

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<sup>16</sup> The notion of ‘knowledge society’ emerged towards the end of the 1990s and is particularly used as an alternative by some scholars in academic circles to the ‘information society’. UNESCO, in particular, has adopted the term ‘knowledge society’, or its variants ‘knowledge societies’, within its institutional policies. ‘Global village’, ‘technotronic era’, ‘post-industrial society’, ‘information society’ or ‘information age’ and ‘knowledge society’ are just a few of the terms that have been coined in an attempt to identify and understand the extent of changes that have swept the world at various levels, political, economic, financial, educational, linguistic, cultural, and religious. The idea of a global information society can be viewed in relation to Marshall Mc Luhan’s prediction that the communications media (ICT’s) would transform the world into a ‘global village’ (see 3.4.2.).

<sup>17</sup> The following quotations clearly confirm the annotated assertion: ***“The development of globalization has been associated with the dominance of the English language”*** (Bottery, 2000, p. 6). ***“Globalisation has contributed to the spread of the English language ... the English language is itself an agent of the spread of globalization”*** (Birch and Liyanage, 2004 p. 93). ***“The power and influence of English have been widely recognized nowadays in the context of globalization”*** (Chang, 2006, p.515).

potential of teaching and schooling; he notes that knowledge-creation using the world of idea about learning including the best of brain research, cognitive science, and so on must be at the heart of teaching and schooling. High quality public education is a *sine qua non* condition to developing knowledge workers and therefore the knowledge society. This is another way of saying that ***“In an information society, education is no mere amenity; it is the prime tool for growing people and profits”*** and actually, ***“what a knowledge society needs is a lot of ingenuity”***<sup>18</sup> (Hargreaves, 2003, p. 22).

### **4.10. Conclusion**

This chapter has dealt mainly with some sensitive issues: the importance of the Baccalaureate as a high-stakes exam in the Algerian education system at a macro and micro levels, the phenomenon of the washback effect on the Baccalaureate, test anxiety, the use of tests as levers of change, the close relationship between educational reforms and language testing and ultimately the role of teachers in light of the globalisation process and in relation to the building of the knowledge society. It is no wonder that the Bac, as it is informally referred to, is the school-leaving examination that is sanctioned by a diploma that permits 3<sup>rd</sup> year AS students to make the move from secondary education, or ‘lycée’ to a tertiary educational institution, namely the university. The Algerian law is clear on this point; it gives the right to any Baccalaureate holder to qualify for tertiary education. Some strategies to overcome test anxiety have been put forward ‘to make the best of the Baccalaureate exam’.

The chapter also highlights the use of tests as levers for change by the educational authorities and how a reform, in the form of innovation or change, can be smoothly implemented against the teachers’ sense of resistance and reluctance. This instrumentalisation policy has plenty to reveal about the power of tests, not least high-stakes exams such as the Baccalaureate in Algeria. This relationship between testing and the implementation of educational reforms *de facto* proves the dominance of the political over the educational. The washback effect has had its fair share of attention in the chapter. Many aspects of the washback mechanism have been dealt with, but emphasis has been of the ‘teach-to-the test’, i.e. the fact of narrowing the curriculum by teaching to test. An

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<sup>18</sup> Ingenuity is the quality of being clever, original, and inventive, often in the process of applying ideas to solve practical, technical, and social problems or meet challenges. It includes not only true ideas, often called ‘innovations’, but ideas that though not fundamentally novel are nevertheless useful.

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important and influential agent in this ‘as ye teach so shall ye test’ approach is the teacher. This section ends with how much teachers can therefore become agents for promoting positive washback. This would lead us to claim that the time has come to develop assessment and testing procedures that are in line with a general vision of today’s world characterised by the building of a sound knowledge society.

## **General Conclusion**

The end of the Second World War heralded a new era in the field of education. The introduction of the concept of Quality Education has since then been a sign of a well-rounded, ideal and targeted benchmark. Additionally, the advent of globalisation coupled with a quality-oriented education, have markedly boosted the desire to learn foreign languages, not least English. The desire to learn English is no more for prestige purposes, but because “*English provides linguistic power*” as Kachru (1986) posited. The English language is no more an international language; it has been assigned the status of global language to rhyme well morphologically speaking with globalisation. This has given a new impetus to ELT internationally and locally and led educators to put a more accentuated focus on the different ways conducive to an improved teaching context and high learning outcomes. The proliferation and dissemination of concepts such as Learner-Centred Education, Communicative Language Teaching and Competency-Based Approach acting as ‘the sword of Damocles’ hanging over ELTM have radically transformed the teaching-learning-testing process nationwide. The post-method era is still in its infancy stage, unable then to enter into rivalry with the aforementioned approaches.

To meet the demands of Quality Education and respond positively to the challenges of globalisation, two fundamental terms, innovation and change, have become trendy and therefore come to occupy a large body of the literature in language teaching-learning-testing; the ultimate aim being to improve learning outcomes at large. Yet, who are those persons who at the practice level are in charge of implementing change and introducing innovative pedagogical procedures? In other words, what is the role of the teacher as an agent of change? And to what extent can this new mission yield fruitful results bearing in mind that the process of change in Algeria and in many parts of the world operates on a top-down basis? On the other hand, another criterion has imposed itself in the field of language education, quality assurance; its practices are viewed from various angles as fundamental and capital means for the sustainability of the project and in-school and external accountability. It has become the *raison d’être* of language education programmes worldwide. Why is it still a project in Algeria?

From a narrower vision, the introduction of qualitative research methodologies closely related to the design, description and validation of language tests has undeniably

impacted the field of testing in general and language testing in particular. Our main concern, as educationalists, test designers, and teachers, is to make the most of an EFL test. Unfortunately this cannot be realized without first and foremost a somewhat comprehensive knowledge of the criteria underlying what ought to be called informally ‘a good test’, namely practicality, reliability and validity; practicality, i.e. to account for some considerations: financial means, time constraints and ease of administration, scoring and interpretation, reliability, i.e. giving the same results if administered on different occasions and by different people and validity, i.e. the degree to which a test measures what is supposed to measure, or to be used successfully for the purposes which are intended to be measured. These basic criteria represent, so to speak, the backbone of the testing literature. Arguably, many of EFL teachers are not familiar with such terms and in many occasions have recourse to tests designed by others. In a way they test what others teach. To fulfill mindfully and come closer to the functions that are assigned to testing, teachers should turn their attention towards a set of basic principles outlined by Korsal 2006. What is more, it is a truism to assert that the mission assigned to school is to provide education to children. However, assessment loses its intrinsic value, or to a lesser extent, has little value unless it contributes fully to that mission. Teachers should schedule testing activities on a permanent and regular basis, but less obtrusively and to give a meaningful orientation to the ‘necessary evil’.

As a developing country, Algeria is bound to adhere to the new world order and therefore align her economy along that of the modern states’ lines. This perspective has, so to speak, up graded the status of the English language at the expense of French, *globalisation oblige* (see 3.4.). It is a one’s duty to say that the educational authorities have always expressed their will and eagerness to promote the teaching of English in terms of textbooks elaboration and teacher-training programmes. What is more, the decisions to include EFL courses and modules at schools and universities signals the state’s recognition that a degree of proficiency in English language is an essential part of everyone’s education. This educational perspective has given communicative language testing another dimension (see 3.8.2.). In this very specific context, it is worth noting that the oral component which is in effect the hall mark of communicative language teaching is not tested at all. This reflects a fundamental mismatch between learning activities and testing practices.

Worse still, many countries have untrained or poorly trained teachers as a result of serious resource constraints which actually is not the case for Algeria. Seldom has the education sector had to compete unfavourably with other sectors such as national defense and debt service. Admittedly, low investments conjugated with poorly qualified teachers and inadequate teaching practices systematically lead to a serious decline in school quality, i.e. low standards, high dropout rates and a high number of repeaters. In Algeria as it is the case in most developing countries, the high population growth rate has somehow limited the capacities of the existing educational potential in terms of infrastructures, teaching materials and teachers so as to keep pace with the growing demands of quality education. It is unfortunate to say that the notion of meritocracy in these very conditions systematically loses its intrinsic value, and mass education becomes the norm at the expenses of overall quality; there is no place for testing. This thesis does not argue for an elitist, ‘survival of the fittest’ approach to education, nor does it back up an ‘education for all’ policy in which a classroom which, by international standards, seats between 20 and 25 students is made to contain 40 to 45. In fact, we argue that maintaining acceptable standards of quality should be among the top priorities for educational officials. We also have argued for the role of testing to be rehabilitated at the various stages of education, not least the primary level, so that, from the very beginning, the pupils get acquainted with the testing procedures and therefore develop what would be called a ‘testing culture’.

There are still many schools which suffer from over-crowded classes, inappropriate teaching facilities and insufficient pedagogical structures, yet, there is a commitment at the highest level and among many teachers to continue efforts to improve foreign language teaching in general and ELT in particular. The TENOR era has run its course. The shift in the status of English from a language of wider communication sociolinguistically speaking to that of a global language politically speaking has given a new impetus to the EFL teaching-learning-testing situation in Algeria. A good working knowledge of the English language is more perceived as a sign or a mark of a well-rounded education as it used to be in the past, but as a must for those who want to fully enter the information age. Shakespeare’s language has become *de facto* as Kachru (1986) noted the fabled Aladin’s lamp which allows its owner to open up the linguistic gates to international business, technology, science and travel. Compared to the other foreign languages, English is the most commonly taught language.

Therefore, various types of tests in conjunction with adequate testing procedures are needed to assess our students' language proficiency, linguistic, communicative, pragmatic, etc., in the true sense of word, and it is high time our teachers should accept change at various levels from a constructive perspective and as initiatives to improve learning outcomes. They should also free themselves from the deeply-rooted traditional testing procedures and embark on what is called today in the literature of testing: alternative assessment, not least portfolios. It should be noted that the increase in calls for these modern testing practices has significantly changed the course of assessment and testing. Our teachers should dare to introduce alternative forms of assessment gradually along with traditional forms of testing. This may have a positive effect on the design of EFL Baccalaureate tests as it makes them test designers move away from the traditional test format of multiple choice questions, true-false statements, and the like. The internet is a very useful tool for consolidating and reinforcing what has been learnt in class; it is also a valuable means to deepen research about many language aspects relating to the English language, linguistic, literary, cultural, and so on. This would compel teachers and students to focus much more on building up a sound knowledge of and about the English language.

As highlighted by numerous reports, World Bank Report (2008), an important factor that is widening the gap between the skills our students ought to develop and what they are actually learning is the poor quality education. Today's labour market requires a school education that incorporates and aims to equip the country's future managers and workmanship with 21<sup>st</sup> century skills. These transferrable skills involve initiative, creativity, problem-solving, critical thinking, team work and learning how to learn, and should occupy a large part of the curriculum and in textbooks as well as in classroom practices. In other words, it is high time Algeria implemented 21<sup>st</sup> century skills-oriented education system. A system that responds in a very positive way to the growing demands of the market-oriented economy, the world financial system, and other matters related to the new world order imposed by the globalisation forces. This educational process cannot be successfully realized without a well balanced interplay between pedagogy, testing and school governance. The role of pedagogy is to dispense knowledge; testing acts a filter to mediocrity and school governance controls rigorously the good working and adequate link between the teaching-learning-testing process.

There is no doubt to assert that the Baccalaureate is a high-stakes school-leaving exam. Its passing gives right to 3<sup>rd</sup> year AS students to move from secondary education to

tertiary studies, i.e. a prerequisite to gain entrance to university and higher education institutes. From an elitist viewpoint, it acts as a filter to mediocrity and is employed as a selection instrument for tertiary education. In short, it is an achievement test which plays an important role in the Algerian education system. Its importance goes beyond the school boundaries and can be hijacked and maneuvered to serve purely political purposes. Every year in June, all the civil society and political forces are mobilized to take action and work together to provide the necessary conditions for the success of the operation.

The thesis has also presented a detailed analysis and description of the current ELT situation and the preparation, pre-service and in-service training, of the EFL teachers in Algeria in the field of language testing. Several important conclusions can be drawn from this work. Most importantly, however, is the fact that there is still much to be done to prepare our EFL teachers and qualify them to be good test developers able to generate positive test washback and bring about meaningful language learning experiences in their classrooms. Teachers should be aware that negative washback has always had pernicious effects on the language learning process; its ‘teaching-to-the-test’ approach systematically leads to the narrowing of the syllabus. Consequently, this selective-focusing teaching may have a deleterious effect on methodology as classroom teachers are under pressure to teach “exam English”

To avoid any pretentious interpretations, this research work is in no way a ‘nuts and bolts’ dissertation nor a practical guide on how to write language tests. Beyond the descriptive and analytical aspects of testing it has dealt with, this thesis has dealt with fundamental issues in language testing in general and English language testing in particular as part of the Baccalaureate examinations. In other words, one of the underpinnings of this work has been the researcher’s attempt to provide, hopefully, a conceptual basis for answering practical questions closely related to the use and development of EFL tests as part of in-class use in general and as part of the formal public examinations in particular. Ultimately, it has attempted to provide an answer to one of the fundamental questions in ELT: How can English language testing best be managed to make English language education more effective?

Needless to say teachers have stressed the need to promote assessment of the listening and speaking skills and bring them closer to the centre of attention in the language classroom focussing on their share in testing activities. However, in an attempt to

remedy this serious lack relating to testing communicative skills, a dictation should be added to the EFL test as a way of assessing the student's ability to perform listening tasks. Put differently, though many of our students can easily demonstrate reasonable command of reading and writing skills, they often fail to express themselves orally and face serious comprehension problems of oral messages. This lack of emphasis in testing speaking, as part of in-class activities and integral part of the Baccalaureate EFL test, seems to be due to a greater extent to the ever-growing number of the candidates.

Most of our informants among EFL teachers in this study have shown a high degree of awareness in assessing the needs and determining the language testing priorities and the ways they ought to implement them. However, they have stressed their desire to be well informed about the most effective language learning assessment and evaluation techniques and practices which should be presented to them in the most practical and meaningful contexts. The numerous and responsible opinions stated by EFL teachers in this study should be highly regarded by ELT methodologists and other concerned authorities in the country as they reflect true concerns and authentic needs that should be considered as precise, genuine, and meaningful guidelines for any well structured and rightly targeted preparation or training effort of pre-service or in-service EFL teachers in the most important aspect of language testing.

The benefits of moving away from traditional testing has been argued; it should encourage educators to create more practical language exams that concentrate more on speaking and understanding the target language in real situations than memorizing its rules and regulations in addition to other forms of alternative assessments. Yet, it is found that Baccalaureate EFL tests put too much emphasis on vocabulary and grammar. Dialogue-completion activities, an overused test format, cannot be regarded as part of communicative language testing; language is what one actually expresses orally his feelings, emotions and desires in a very natural and spontaneous way. A communicative language test would clearly show a student's competence level in using the target language in real-life situations, a goal that has never been realized in any EFL test. How well a student scores on in an EFL test denotes to a larger extent how he might be expected to respond outside the boundaries of the testing environment. This is obviously another way of saying that in designing an EFL test, teachers need to re-consider the characteristic of the language use situation and nature of tasks our EFL learners are to perform.

In very down-to-earth terms, we have come up to one underlying pattern is that the Baccalaureate tests, in their various forms, have a fixed format; the changes that have been introduced still remain somewhat superficial and cosmetic. The contents have been taught to the candidates, in the sense that 3<sup>rd</sup> AS students, at this level and purposefully, have always been taught to the test as the result of negative washback. It is unfortunate to note in this very specific context that the school administration, the Board of Education and to a certain extent, the pupils' parents use pass rates as a reference of teacher success. What actually matters most when it comes to talking about the Baccalaureate exam, it is worth noting that the teacher's self-esteem and pride, inside and outside school, correlate with the passing rates of his/her pupils in the formal high-stakes exam- the Baccalaureate.

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\*\*\* *The first term exam of English* \*\*\*

- \* *School: M.LOUÏD BOUMECHEA* \* *School year: 2012-2013.*
- \* *Level: First years.* \* *Time: Two hours. (14.00<sup>hr</sup> / 16.00<sup>hr</sup>).*
- \* *Streams: Literary stream.*

I) Part One: Reading comprehension.

Read the text carefully then do the following activities.

Mr. Kaddour BENRABEH,  
180 El-ahlem Avenue, 04<sup>th</sup> floor  
Adrar 01240, Algeria.

L'ENTV, 21, Rue des  
Martyrs, Alger.  
Algérie.

Wednesday, December 10<sup>th</sup>, 2008.

*Dear sir/ Madam,*

I read your advertisement in the newspaper two days ago, so I am writing to you so as to apply for a job as a radio & TV journalist in the Algerian ENTV.

My name is Kaddour BENRABEH. I am 25 years old. I have a diploma in journalism from the University of Algiers. I have finished my studies since 2007. Yet I do not have much experience. I worked only for five months as a reporter in our local radio station. I can type quickly, and I speak three languages: Arabic, French and English.

For further information about me, I will fax you my CV soon. Please send me more information about the job and its requirements. Looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Yours' faithfully,  
K. Benrabeh.

01. Are the following statements "true" or "false"? (02 pts)
- a)- The text is an e-mail.
  - b)- Kaddour can speak 03 languages.
  - c)- ENTV is an Algerian company that makes computers and televisions.
  - d)- Kaddour has worked as a reporter for five years.
02. Read the text and answer the following questions. (04 pts)
- A) Who writes the letter, and who will receive it?
  - B) Does Kaddour have a diploma in mechanics?
  - C) Where did Kaddour study?
  - D) What does Kaddour want to be?

Turn the page

03. Match with an arrow (→) the words from A with their opposites in B. (02pt)

"A" the words	"B" opposites
- Send.	- very slowly.
- Quickly.	- few.
- Too much.	- receive.
- Often.	- rarely.

04. Complete the sentences with a correct expression from the following list:  
*itself / ourselves / herself / myself / himself* (03 pts)

- a)- No one should read this letter. It's for me. I should read it .....
- b)- Kaddour and I went to a party last night. We enjoyed ..... very much.
- c)- Djamila is a very nice girl. She speaks about ..... every minute.

05. Use the words below to write correct sentences. (03pts)

- A { - wrote / she / a / letter / to / never / . / friends / her  
 - .....
- B { - write / she / to / always / ? / friends / does / e-mails / her  
 - .....
- C { . / be / Kaddour / a / will / good / not / journalist  
 - .....

II) **Part two: Written expression.** (06 pts)

A new friend from England wrote to you a letter in order to invite you to become keypals. Write to him / her reply in a form of a letter in which you tell him / her about you, your job, your families and regular activities and life in Algeria.

Use the plan below to organize your notes:

- <u>Your friend's name &amp; address.</u>	<u>Your name &amp; address.</u>
- <u>Salutation</u>	<u>The date.</u>
- <u>In the paragraph one:</u> Introduce yourself briefly.	
- <u>In the paragraph two:</u> Write about some of your daily activities.	
- <u>In the paragraph three:</u> Write about your family and hobbies.	
- <u>In the paragraph four:</u> Write a few things about Algeria.	
- <u>Salutation.</u>	
- <u>Name and signature.</u>	



*Hello my friends! I wish you a good luck.*

**The end**

Ibn Khaldoun School  
Tlemcen

The 3rd test

Academic year: 2012/2013

Level: 4<sup>th</sup> year

Pupils are different from one country to another but they have one thing in common: They all hate exams. They are generally afraid of getting bad marks because they don't want to fail. It is difficult for candidates to concentrate on an exam when they are stressed or nervous; they won't succeed if they are very anxious. And if they revise in group, they might get better results.

In order to help them face exams, teachers suggest to pupils to have a good night's sleep and to be as relaxed as possible while working through questions. Parents need to know how well their child's school is doing and what their child's strengths are, as well as where they need more help.

*"Forget past mistakes. Forget failures. Forget everything except what you're going to do now and do it."*

**Part one: (14pts)**

**A) Reading comprehension (7pts)**

**A. Read the text answer the questions: (2pts)**

1. Do pupils like exams?
2. Are pupils afraid of getting good marks?

**B. Read again and write true or false: correct the wrong statement: (3pts)**

1. The pupils go to bed late to be relaxed.
2. Revising alone is better than working in group.
3. The parents are anxious about their child' work.

**C. Lexis: (2pts)**

**1) Choose the right synonym of:**

- |                           |           |         |            |            |
|---------------------------|-----------|---------|------------|------------|
| a) anxious (adj) = .....  | a) calm   | b) fine | c) relaxed | d) worried |
| b) suggest (verb) = ..... | a) listen | b) need | c) propose | d) warn    |

**2) Choose the right antonym of:**

- |                            |             |           |             |             |
|----------------------------|-------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| a) know (verb) ≠ .....     | a) identify | b) ignore | c) revise   | d) say      |
| b) strength (noun) ≠ ..... | a) power    | b) help   | c) practice | d) weakness |

**B) Mastery of language (7pts)**

**A. Write the correct form of the verbs: (3pts)**

1. If I (to pass) the exam, I (to be) very happy.
2. You (not learn) anything if you don't listen.

**B. Add suffixes to these words to form jobs : ( 2pts)**

art - inspect - history - office

**C. Copy from the text words that have the same vowel sound as: ( 2pts)**

/ɜ:/ girl	/ɑ:/ car	/ɔ:/ short	/u:/ soon
.....	.....	.....	.....

**Part two:**

**Written expression (6pts)**

*What will you do in the future?*

Write a letter to your pen friend telling her about your future expectations.

(Credits / job / travelling)

use if and time part functions.

You can use these notes: pass - obtain - diploma - work - start a family.

*What will you do in the future?*

## Examen du baccalauréat Angoisse, stress et blocages

A. E. A.

**A** la veille des épreuves du baccalauréat, l'association des psychologues de Constantine, a organisé jeudi dernier une conférence traitant de la prise en charge psychologique des élèves candidats à cet examen tout autant que leurs parents. Car, comme le dira le psychologue et enseignant de psychologie à l'université Mentouri, M. Hakim Rahmouni, « au vu de l'angoisse et du stress qu'ils vivent tous les deux, c'est à se demander qui a le plus besoin en la matière d'une prise en charge, l'enfant qui passe l'examen ou ses parents qui s'y intéressent d'une manière quasi pathologique ».

A telle enseigne, soulignera-t-il, que l'élève développe des « blocages » qui l'empêchent de se concentrer et de donner le meilleur de lui-même lors de cet examen crucial qu'est le baccalauréat. Beaucoup de parents, sans en avoir conscience se projettent sur leur enfant pour exorciser leurs échecs antérieurs et les satisfaire « eux » surtout. D'autres encore, professeurs en médecine ou occupant des postes importants dans des organismes réputés, mettent la barre trop haut pour leur enfant passant le baccalauréat, « je veux que tu décroche une forte moyenne pour faire médecine comme moi », ou toute autre filière très valorisée socialement, pharmacie, ingénieurs etc. impose-t-on à

l'élève candidat au bac. Et de poursuivre que « ces parents oublient ou négligent l'existence de l'intelligence pratique, car certains élèves sont plus doués pour les métiers enseignés plutôt dans les centres de formations professionnelles, à l'instar du métier de plombier, d'électricien et d'autres encore très demandés dans nos sociétés, mais qui manquent terriblement ».

En tout état de cause, il est impératif de respecter le choix de l'enfant et ses penchants, les périodes post-examens ont toujours été ponctuées par une croissance de cas de fugues. Devant l'échec, l'enfant se défend en fuyant chez des proches parents ou des amis. Aussi, la préparation psychologique de l'enfant face à l'examen doit, sans banaliser celui-ci, « insister sur le fait qu'il ne s'agit là que d'une évaluation et que ce n'est pas la fin du monde », précise le conférencier. Ajoutant « qu'il s'agit d'insister également sur le fait que la peur et l'angoisse lors de l'examen, sont des choses naturelles et humaines ». De même que, dira-t-il, « il y a lieu de positiver les choses et donner la priorité à l'examen et d'éviter tous les bobos de familles et autres ». Dans le débat, les questions de la prise en charge depuis la crèche et non pas à un mois ou deux du baccalauréat, ont été réaffirmées de même que les pressions sur l'enfant, mais aussi sa « surprotection » ne pourra rien y faire, sauf à tout chambouler.

But I was still shy and half paralysed when in the presence of a crowd, and my first day at the new school made me the laughing stock of the classroom. I was sent to the blackboard to write my name and address; I knew my name and address, knew how to write it, knew how to spell it; but standing at the blackboard with the eyes of the many girls and boys looking at my back made me freeze inside and I was unable to write a single letter.

'Write your name,' the teacher called to me.

I lifted the white chalk to the board and, as I was about to write my mind went blank, empty; I could not remember my name, not even the first letter. Somebody giggled and I stiffened.

'Just forget us and write your name and address', the teacher coaxed.

An impulse to write would flash through me, but my hand would refuse to move. The children began to titter and I flushed hotly.

'Don't you know your name?' the teacher asked.

I looked at her and could not answer. The teacher rose and walked to my side, smiling at me to give me confidence. She placed her hand tenderly upon my shoulder.

'What's your name?' she asked.

'Richard.' I whispered.

'Richard what?'

'Richard Wright'.

'Spell it.'

I spelt my name in a wild rush of letters, trying desperately to redeem my paralysing shyness.

'Spell it slowly so that I can hear it,' she directed me.

I did.

'Now can you write?'

'Yes, ma'am.'

'Then write it.'

(From *Black Boy* by Richard Wright)



## SOME ENGLISH CHARACTERISTICS

by George ORWELL

Here are a couple of generalizations about England that would be accepted by almost all observers. One is that the English are not gifted artistically. They are not as musical as the Germans or Italians, painting and sculpture have never flourished in England as they have in France. Another is that, as Europeans go, the English are not intellectual. They have a horror of abstract thought,

they feel no need for any philosophy or systematic world-view. Nor is this because they are practical, as they are so fond of claiming for themselves. One has only to look at their methods of town-planning and water-supply, their obstinate clinging to everything that is out of date and a nuisance, a spelling system that defies analysis and a system of weights and measures that is intelligible only to the compilers of arithmetic books, to see how little they care about mere efficiency.

But here it is worth noticing a minor English trait which is extremely well marked though not often commented on, and that is a love of flowers. This is one of the first things that one notices when one reaches England from abroad, especially if one is coming from southern Europe. Does it not contradict the English indifference to the arts? Not really, because it is found in people who have no aesthetic feelings whatever. What it does link up with, however, is another English characteristic which is so much a part of us that we barely notice it, and that is the addiction to hobbies and spare-time occupations, the privateness of English life. We are a nation of flower-lovers, but also a nation of stamp-collectors, pigeon-fanciers, amateur carpenters, darts-players, crossword-puzzle fans. All the culture that is most truly native centres round things which even when they are communal are not official—the pub, the football match, the back garden, the fireside and the nice cup of tea. The liberty of the individual is still believed in, almost as in the nineteenth century. But this has nothing to do with economic liberty, the right to exploit others for profit. It is the liberty to have a home of your own, to do what you like in your spare time, to choose your own amusements instead of having them chosen for you from above.

*England, Your England, 1941.*

▲ kapt — ob'zə'veɪz — 'skɒlptʃə — 'flaɪft — 'juərə'piənz — fi'lɒsəfi — 'nju:zns — 'ə'næləsɪs — 'meɪəz — kəm'pɑ:ntz — 'mama — 'treɪ — 'səʊən — 'juərəp — wɒl'vevə — hau'vevə — 'praɪvətɪs — 'eməntə — 'pəzl — 'kɒltʃə — 'i:kə'nɒmɪk.

NOTES AND EXERCISES

SOME ENGLISH CHARACTERISTICS

• George ORWELL. See page 175.

gifted : doué.	mere : pure, simple.
as Europeans go : compared with Europeans in general.	whatever : at all.
to be fond of : to like.	to link up : to connect.
to claim : to pretend.	hardly : hardly.
town-planning : urbanisme.	addiction : attachment.
clinging : attachment.	spare time : free time.
out of date : old-fashioned.	pigeon-fancier : colombophile.
nuisance : something that causes trouble or irritation.	darts : fléchettes.
to care about : to attach importance to.	fan (colloquial) : short for fanatic, enthusiast.
	pub : public house, inn.

**Questions on the text** 1. Have the English a natural gift for the fine arts?—2. Are the English 'intellectual'?—3. The English are reputed to be 'practical'. Give a few examples to show that this is not always true.—4. What characterizes English gardens?—5. Name the Englishman's favourite hobbies.—6. How does the Englishman's love of his home show itself?

**Points for discussion** 1. Where do most people in Britain live—in houses or flats? Why?—2. Compare British and French spare-time occupations.—3. Give some reasons, other than those mentioned here, why gardening and flower-growing are more popular in Britain than in some other European countries.—4. This was written in 1941. Do you think that television has changed people's spare-time occupations? In what way?—5. 'The Englishman's home is his castle' is a common saying. How does this passage illustrate it?—6. Do people really choose their own amusement when they watch television?

**Essay** The American writer R. W. Emerson wrote in 1856: "The bias of the nation is a passion for utility. They are heavy at the fine arts, but adroit at the coarse; not good in jewellery, but the best iron-masters, colliers, wool-combers and tanners in Europe." Is this statement still true today?

**Translate into English** Les Anglais n'aiment pas montrer leurs sentiments et c'est pourquoi ils sont souvent accusés de froideur et de dureté. Mais si vous pouviez les voir quand ils sont chez eux dans leur jardin, vous feriez d'étranges découvertes. Auriez-vous pensé, par exemple, que l'austère M. Smith était colombophile à ses moments perdus? Auriez-vous cru que le sévère M. Johnson avait une passion pour les rosiers? Auriez-vous jamais imaginé que le maigre M. Twist était un cuisinier remarquable et que son plus grand plaisir était d'inventer de nouvelles recettes et de préparer le déjeuner de sa famille chaque dimanche?

**Grammaire** Le conditionnel, n° 1, 4, 7.

## THE ENGLISH, THE SCOTS AND THE WELSH

by Thomas BURKE

Marked differences of character and other matters exist between the English on one side, and their neighbours, the Welsh and the Scots, on the other. Wales and Scotland, divided from England by impalpable frontiers, are in physical features, moral characteristics and speech, separate nations. But both countries are partners, with Northern Ireland, in the United Kingdom; Wales since the end of the thirteenth century, and Scotland since the beginning of the eighteenth. All four countries are governed under one Crown, and represented in the same Parliament, and the people of these countries, with their distinct manners and customs, and their sarcasms against each other, live together in a humorously tolerant union, and when danger threatens any part of this island, its people show that they are indeed a united kingdom; all are British.

The most frequent criticism of the Englishman made by men of many different countries, turns on his frigidity and stiffness; a criticism that surprises the Englishman since he is not aware of anything in himself that warrants it. But one can see that to more volatile people his outward reserve would give an impression of a chilly temperament, and no indication of the rich warm character that it covers. Far from being rigid and stiff, he is highly emotional, and at the same time ashamed of showing emotion. He is keenly sensitive, but his training has taught him that to be too sensitive is to be weak. He is naturally warm-hearted and at the same time afraid of what he thinks the vulgarity of exuberance. He wants to be liked, but will never show that he wants to be liked. Far from being the hard-headed John Bull drawn by his own cartoonists, he is in truth sentimental. But he will not admit to being guided by sentiment, and so he goes about in armour, and in the presence of strangers he seldom relaxes and lays it aside. When he does eventually lay aside his armour, then you meet the real Englishman—genial, generous, and sympathetically adaptable. He does not, like the men of some warmer countries, scatter his friendship freely to all who come along, but when he does give it he gives it with all his heart.

*The English and Their Country, 1945.*

▲ di'vaɪdɪd — 'frʌntɪə — 'fɪtʃəz — 'aɪlənd — ju:'naɪtɪd — 'gʌvənd — 'pɑ:lɪmənt  
— 'fɪrɪkwənt — ə'weɪ — 'vɒlətɪl — 'wɔ:m'hædɪd — vəl'gʌerɪ — ɪg'zjʊ:bərəʊs —  
kə'tʊrnɪsts — 'gʌɪdɪd — 'næmə — ɪ'ventʃʊəl — 'dʒɪ:njəl — sɪmpə'tetɪkəli.

### THE ROYAL ARMS OF ENGLAND

The first and fourth quarters of the coat of arms show the three leopards of Richard I (1189-1199). The second quarter shows the lion rampant of Scotland, added by James I (1403-1425) who was also James VI of Scotland. The third quarter shows the Harp of Ireland, incorporated in the reign of Elizabeth I (1558-1603). 'Honi Soit Qui Mal Y Pense' is the motto of the Order of the Garter, initiated



by Edward III (1327-1377). Above the coat of arms is the Imperial Crown. The arms are supported by a lion, introduced by Henry IV (1399-1413), and a unicorn, added by James I (1603-1625). The motto of the English sovereign was originally 'God and my right shall me defend', which was shortened to 'God and my right', or 'Dieu et mon droit'.

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THE ENGLISH, THE SCOTS AND THE WELSH

• Thomas BURKE. See page 85.

**Wales** : population, 2½ million. Conquered by Edward I in 1284; politically united with England in 1535. One third of the population speaks Welsh as its mother tongue.

**Scotland** : population, 5¼ million. In personal union with England from 1603, when James VI of Scotland became also James I of England; politically united with England in 1707.

**Northern Ireland** : population, 1¼ million. The whole of Ireland was formerly part of the United Kingdom. In 1921, Southern Ireland (Éire—'Earsa) decided to become independent, but six counties in the north chose to remain in the United Kingdom.

**stiffness** : rigidity.  
**aware** : conscious.  
**to warrant** : to justify.  
**outward** : exterior.  
**chilly** : cold.  
**highly** : extremely.  
**to be ashamed of** : avoir honte de.  
**keenly** : extremely.  
**training** : education.  
**hard-headed** : not easily influenced by sentiment.  
**seldom** : rarely.  
**to scatter** : to throw on all sides.

**Questions on the text** 1. Name the four countries of the United Kingdom and their capitals.—2. Have Wales and Scotland always been parts of the United Kingdom?—3. When did Southern Ireland become independent?—4. Do the English, the Welsh, the Scots and the Irish really like each other?—5. Which institutions give England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland their unity?—6. In what circumstances does the 'United Kingdom' really deserve its name?—7. What is the most frequent criticism of the English made by people of other nationalities?

**Points for discussion** 1. Do you know of any differences in customs between the four countries of the United Kingdom? Can you, for instance, mention any specifically Scottish customs?—2. Are there areas in France which have their own 'distinct manners and customs'? Give some details and say whether or not you think this individualism is a good thing.—3. The Scots, the Welsh and the Northern Irish are all minorities. What is generally the psychological effect of being a minority group?—4. Do politeness and reserve make social and domestic life a) easier; b) more pleasant?—5. The Englishman who hides his thoughts and feelings is sometimes accused of hypocrisy. Do you think this accusation is justified?—6. What kind of people do you prefer to meet—those who 'scatter their friendship freely', or those who give it less freely, but more loyally? Give your reasons.

**Essay** Describe the appearance and character of an Englishman, or Englishwoman, whom you have met.

**Translate into English** Sur le Continent, les gens emploient souvent le mot « Angleterre » pour désigner soit la Grande-Bretagne, soit le Royaume-Uni, soit les Îles Britanniques. Qu'ils ne commettent pas cette erreur s'ils vont au Pays de Galles, en Écosse ou en Irlande, car les Gallois, les Écossais et les Irlandais ne se considèrent pas du tout comme des Anglais. En fait, chacun des quatre pays qui constituent le Royaume-Uni se considère comme légèrement supérieur aux trois autres. Il peut sembler étrange que des gens qui reconnaissent le même monarque et qui vivent dans les mêmes îles gardent encore de telles frontières. Peut-être disparaîtront-elles un jour, mais sûrement pas dans un proche avenir.

**Grammaire** Emploi ou omission de l'article défini, n° 28.



"Get me the Zoo, please, Miss Winterton."

## THE FRENCH AND THE ENGLISH

by E. M. FORSTER

The Englishman appears to be cold and unemotional because he is really slow. When an event happens, he may understand it quickly enough with his mind, but he takes quite a while to feel it. Once upon a time a coach, containing some Englishmen and some Frenchmen, was driving over the Alps. The horses ran away, and as they were dashing across a bridge the coach caught on the stonework, tottered, and nearly fell into the ravine below. The Frenchmen were frantic with terror: they screamed and gesticulated and flung themselves about, as Frenchmen would. The Englishmen sat quite calm. An hour later the coach drew up at an inn to change horses, and by that time the situa-

tions were exactly reversed. The Frenchmen had forgotten all about the danger, and were chattering gaily; the Englishmen had just begun to feel it, and one had a nervous breakdown and was obliged to go to bed. We have here a clear physical difference between the two races—a difference that goes deep into character. The Frenchmen responded at once; the Englishmen responded in time. They were slow and they were also practical. Their instinct forbade them to throw themselves about in the coach, because it was more likely to tip over if they did. They had this extraordinary appreciation of fact that we shall notice again and again. When a disaster comes, the English instinct is to do what can be done first, and to postpone the feeling as long as possible. Hence they are splendid at emergencies. No doubt they are brave—but bravery is partly an affair of the nerves, and the English nervous system is well equipped for meeting a physical emergency. It acts promptly and feels slowly. And when the action is over, then the Englishman can feel...

No national character is complete. We have to look for some qualities in one part of the world and others in another. But the English character is incomplete in a way that is particularly annoying to the foreign observer. It has a bad surface—self-complacent, unsympathetic and reserved. There is plenty of emotion further down, but it never gets used. There is plenty of brain power, but it is more often used to confirm prejudices than to dispel them. With such an equipment the Englishman cannot be popular. Only I would repeat: there is little vice in him and no real coldness. It is the machinery that is wrong.

*Abinger Harvest, 1936.*

▲ 'aɪn'ɪməʃənəl — 'rɒ'vɪn — 'dʒes'tɪkjuleɪtɪd — kɑ:m — 'deɪndʒə — fə'beɪd — 'ɪks'troɪdnəri — 'nəʊtɪs — pəʊst'pəʊn — 'ɪnədʒənəsɪz — daʊt — 'ɪkwɪpt — kəm'plɪt — 'kwɒltɪz — 'fɔ:rn — əb'zɔ:va — 'sɜ:fɪs — kəm'pleɪsnt — 'aɪn'sɪmpə'θetɪk — 'prɛdʒʊdɪsɪz — mɑ:'fɪnəri — 'seɪndʒə.

THE FRENCH AND THE ENGLISH

• Edward Morgan FORSTER (b. 1879). One of the most distinguished novelists of the century, known particularly for *A Passage to India* (1924), a penetrating study of the relations between the Indians and the British in the India of imperial days. His other works include: *Howard's End*, *Where Angels Fear to Tread*, *The Longest Journey*, *A Room with a View*, and two collections of essays.

a while : a short time.	in time ≠ immediately.
to run away : to get out of control.	to forbid ≠ to allow.
to dash : to move rapidly and violently.	to tip over : basculer.
to catch on : accrocher.	to postpone : to delay.
to totter : to be about to fall.	hence : for this reason.
to fling oneself about : to throw oneself to right and left.	emergency : unexpected and often dangerous event.
to draw up : to stop.	annoying : irritating.
to chatter : to talk rapidly about unimportant things.	self-complacent : self-satisfied.
nervous breakdown : <i>dépression nerveuse</i> .	unsympathetic : not likeable.
at once : immediately.	to dispel : to dissipate, to cause to disappear.
	I would repeat : I want to repeat.

**Questions on the text** 1. Describe the different reactions of the English and French passengers to the coach accident in the Alps.—2. Describe the reactions of the same passengers an hour after the accident.—3. Why are the English so remarkably efficient in an emergency?—4. What makes the English character annoying to the foreign observer?—5. Why is it difficult for the English to be popular abroad?

**Points for discussion** 1. Do you think this is a fair estimate of the French character? Or is it only partly true?—2. How have you gained your knowledge of Britain and the British—from newspapers, books, films, or in some other way?—3. If you are not able to visit a foreign country, what is the best way of learning something about its inhabitants?—4. Can you learn all that is necessary about a foreign country from its literature?—5. An American, R. W. Emerson, has written: "Every one of these islanders is an island himself, safe, tranquil, incommunicable." Does this statement corroborate E. M. Forster's view?—6. "There is plenty of emotion further down, but it never gets used." What misunderstandings and difficulties might this cause in the Englishman's relations with other people? Give a few concrete examples.

**Essay** Suppose that two cars have run into each other. Describe the scene and the conversation between the two drivers, a) in London; b) in Paris.

**Translate into English** Un soir de brouillard, un automobiliste anglais renversa un piéton. La poitrine du pauvre homme était coincée entre le trottoir et la roue avant du véhicule. Le conducteur descendit de sa voiture, souleva son chapeau et dit au blessé : « Je suis désolé. Permettez-moi de me présenter : je m'appelle Robinson. » — « Heureux de vous connaître, » dit l'homme. « Je m'appelle Defoe. » — « Que puis-je faire pour vous soulager? » demanda M. Robinson. « Peut-être pourriez-vous pousser un peu la voiture en arrière, si cela ne vous dérange pas, » dit M. Defoe. « La roue m'écrase les côtes. » — « Est-ce très douloureux? » demanda M. Robinson. — « Non, pas très, » dit M. Defoe. « Mais cela me fait un peu mal — quand je ris... »

**Grammaire** Le prétérit simple, nos 1, 4, 7, 13; les verbes défectifs, no 6.

**1** La conjugaison de "To Have"

	FORME AFFIRMATIVE	FORME INTERROGATIVE	FORME NÉGATIVE	FORME INTERROGATIVE-NÉGATIVE CONTRACTÉE
Présent:	I have You have He has We have, etc.	Have I? Have you? Has he? Have we?	I have not You have not He has not We have not	Haven't I? Haven't you? Hasn't he? Haven't we?
Prétérît:	I had You had, etc.	Had I? Had you?	I had not You had not	Hadn't I? Hadn't you?
Futur:	I (we) shall have You will have He will have, etc.	Shall I (we) have? Will you have? Will he have?	I (we) shall not have You will not have He will not have	Shan't I (we) have? Won't you have? Won't he have?
Condi- tionnel:	I (we) should have You would have He would have, etc.	Should I (we) have? Would you have? Would he have?	I (we) should not have You would not have He would not have	Shouldn't I (we) have? Wouldn't you have? Wouldn't he have?
Participe passé : had		Participe présent : having		

**2** La conjugaison interrogative et négative de "To Have"

**A.** Le verbe "to have" se conjugue aux formes interrogative et négative sans l'auxiliaire "do" :

- quand il signifie vraiment avoir, posséder.  
Ex. : Have you a nice flat? No, I have not enough money to buy a flat.
- quand il est employé comme *auxiliaire de temps*.  
Ex. : Have you read this book? No, I have not read any books by this author.

**B.** "To have" se conjugue aux formes interrogative et négative avec l'auxiliaire "do" dans des locutions où il signifie prendre, éprouver, faire, etc.

- |  |                                       |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| Ex. : to have tea, coffee, a drink, etc. | to have a walk, a swim, a dream, etc. |
| to have breakfast, lunch, dinner, etc.   | to have one's hair cut.               |
| to have a lesson, a bath, a rest, etc.   | to have something done, cleaned, etc. |
| to have luck, a good time, etc.          | to have something mended, etc.        |
- Ex. : What time do you have lunch? Do you have coffee in the morning? etc.

**C.** Noter les nuances suivantes :

- Ex. : Have you any snow in Scotland? (*sous-entendu : now*).  
Do you have a lot of snow in Scotland? (*sous-entendu : in general*).

**3** Le verbe "To Have", auxiliaire

On conjugue les verbes au passé composé (*present perfect*) et au plus-que-parfait (*pluperfect*) avec l'auxiliaire "to have".

- |                         |                            |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|
| Ex. : Has he gone?      | Est-il parti?              |
| What has become of him? | Qu'est-il devenu?          |
| I have cut my finger.   | Je me suis coupé le doigt. |

**NOTE :** L'auxiliaire "to be" (Voir n° 4) s'emploie parfois à la place de "to have" quand on veut insister sur le résultat de l'action et non sur l'action elle-même.

- Ex. : He said "Good-bye" and the next moment he was gone. (*... il avait disparu.*)

La conjugaison de "To Be"

4

	FORME AFFIRMATIVE	FORME INTERROGATIVE	FORME NÉGATIVE	FORME INTERROGATIVE-NÉGATIVE CONTRACTÉE
Présent	I am You are He is We are You are They are	Am I? Are you? Is he? Are we? Are you? Are they?	I am not You are not He is not We are not You are not They are not	Aren't I? Aren't you? Isn't he? Aren't we? Aren't you? Aren't they?
Prétérit	I was You were He was We were You were They were	Was I? Were you? Was he? Were we? Were you? Were they?	I was not You were not He was not We were not You were not They were not	Wasn't I? Weren't you? Wasn't he? Weren't we? Weren't you? Weren't they?
Futur	I shall be You will be He will be We shall be You will be They will be	Shall I be? Will you be? Will he be? Shall we be? Will you be? Will they be?	I shall not be You will not be He will not be We shall not be You will not be They will not be	Shan't I be? Won't you be? Won't he be? Shan't we be? Won't you be? Won't they be?
Conditionnel	I should be You would be He would be We should be You would be They would be	Should I be? Would you be? Would he be? Should we be? Would you be? Would they be?	I should not be You would not be He would not be We should not be You would not be They would not be	Shouldn't I be? Wouldn't you be? Wouldn't he be? Shouldn't we be? Wouldn't you be? Wouldn't they be?
Participe passé : been		Participe présent : being		

Les emplois idiomatiques de "To Be"

5

I am sixteen (years old).	<i>J'ai seize ans.</i>
I am five foot (or: feet) six (inches).	<i>Je mesure cinq pieds six pouces.</i>
My bedroom is twelve feet long and ten feet wide.	<i>Ma chambre a douze pieds de long et dix de large.</i>
How deep is the swimming-pool?	<i>Combien la piscine a-t-elle de profondeur?</i>
How far is it to Edinburgh?	<i>Combien y a-t-il d'ici à Edimbourg?</i>
How much is this book?	<i>Combien coûte ce livre?</i>
How are you today?	<i>Comment allez-vous aujourd'hui?</i>
I am a little better.	<i>Je vais un peu mieux.</i>
Are you hungry?—No, I am thirsty.	<i>Avez-vous faim? — Non, j'ai soif.</i>
Are you warm or cold?	<i>Avez-vous chaud ou froid?</i>
I am all right now. I am sleepy.	<i>Je vais bien, maintenant. J'ai sommeil.</i>
John was dreadfully sick on the boat.	<i>John a été affreusement malade pendant la traversée.</i>
Am I right?—No, you are wrong.	<i>Ai-je raison? — Non, vous avez tort.</i>
I am ashamed to be so angry.	<i>J'ai honte d'être tellement en colère.</i>
John is very lucky.	<i>John a beaucoup de chance.</i>
My little sister is afraid of dogs.	<i>Ma petite sœur a peur des chiens.</i>
It is fine today.	<i>Il fait beau aujourd'hui.</i>
It was foggy yesterday.	<i>Il faisait du brouillard hier.</i>
How is it that John is so late?	<i>Comment se fait-il que John soit tellement en retard?</i>
What is to be done?	<i>Que faire?</i>
It's a fortnight since I saw him.	<i>Il y a quinze jours que je ne l'ai pas vu.</i>
I am to see him on Sunday.	<i>Je dois le voir dimanche.</i>

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Les verbes défectifs

Particularités.

1. Les verbes défectifs ne se conjuguent qu'au présent et parfois au prétérit.
2. Ils ne prennent pas d's à la 3<sup>e</sup> pers. sing. du présent. Ex. : He can play the piano.
3. Ils se conjuguent aux formes interrogative et négative sans l'auxiliaire "do". Ils sont suivis de l'infinitif sans "to". Ex. : Must you go? Yes, I cannot stay.
4. Les verbes défectifs, n'ayant pas de temps composés du passé, restent au temps simple et sont suivis de l'infinitif passé, dans des phrases comme :

Ex. : He could have played better. *Il aurait pu mieux jouer.*  
 He should have spoken before. *Il aurait dû parler plus tôt.*

Tournures de remplacement pour "I can", "I may" et "I must".

1. I can (prét. could) = I am able to *Je peux, je sais, je suis capable de.*
2. I may (prét. might) = I am allowed to *Je peux, je suis autorisé à*
3. I must (surtout au présent) = I have to *Je dois, j'ai à + infinitif.*  
 I am obliged to

Ex. : 1. I don't think John will be able to translate this passage. (*...pourra traduire...*)  
 2. You would be allowed to come if you asked the headmaster. (*vous seriez autorisé à...*)  
 3. John had to leave early this morning. (*John a dû partir...*)

Sens particuliers des défectifs "may" et "ought to".

I may go to the concert this afternoon. *Il se peut que j'aille au concert cet après-midi.*  
 It may rain tomorrow. *Il se peut qu'il pleuve demain.*  
 It may happen. *Il se peut que cela arrive. (Cela peut arriver.)*

Ought to a un sens conditionnel :

Ex. : You ought to stop smoking = You should stop smoking = You *devriez* cesser de fumer.

Emplois de "shall" et "will".

Shall et will sont deux verbes défectifs que l'on emploie surtout pour la conjugaison du futur. Should et would (prétérits de shall et will) servent à conjuguer le conditionnel.

7

La conjugaison du verbe régulier "To Work" à la forme simple

	FORME AFFIRMATIVE	FORME INTERROGATIVE	FORME NÉGATIVE	FORME INTERROG.-NÉGAT. CONTRACTÉE
Présent	I work You work He works We work, etc.	Do I work? Do you work? Does he work? Do we work?	I do not work You do not work He does not work We do not work	Don't I work? Don't you work? Doesn't he work? Don't we work?
Prétérit	I worked You worked, etc.	Did I work? Did you work?	I did not work You did not work	Didn't I work? Didn't you work?
Passé comp.	I have worked You have worked He has worked, etc.	Have I worked? Have you worked? Has he worked?	I have not worked You have not worked He has not worked	Haven't I worked? Haven't you worked? Hasn't he worked?
Futur	I (we) shall work You will work He will work, etc.	Shall I (we) work? Will you work? Will he work?	I (we) shall not work You will not work He will not work	Shan't I (we) work? Won't you work? Won't he work?
Conditionnel	I (we) should work You would work He would work, etc.	Should I (we) work? Would you work? Would he work?	I (we) should not work You would not work He would not work	Shouldn't I (we) work? Wouldn't you work? Wouldn't he work?

11

La voix active et la voix passive

VOIX ACTIVE

1. This firm **makes** good cars.
2. Turner **painted** this picture.
3. The help **is sweeping** the floor.
4. The master **laughed at** the boy.
5. My sister **gave** this book to me.
6. My sister **gave** me this book.

VOIX PASSIVE

- Good cars are **made by** this firm.  
 This picture **was painted by** Turner.  
 The floor **is being swept by** the help.  
 The boy **was laughed at by** the master.  
 This book **was given to me by** my sister.  
 I **was given** this book by my sister.

REMARQUES :

1. On peut combiner la voix passive et la forme progressive. (Exemple n° 3).
2. Un verbe transitif indirect peut se mettre à la voix passive. (Exemple n° 4). La préposition gouvernée par le verbe reste immédiatement après ce dernier (called for, heard of, looked after, etc...).
3. Certains verbes comme to give, to offer, to buy, to purchase, to show, to teach, to tell (idée d'un échange matériel ou intellectuel), peuvent avoir deux constructions passives, de même qu'ils ont deux constructions actives. (Exemples n° 5 et 6). La construction n° 6 est la plus usuelle.
4. Tournures idiomatiques : I was told that.... (On m'a dit que...) — He is said to.... (On dit qu'il...) — I was ordered to.... (On m'a ordonné de...)

12

La forme fréquentative

Pour exprimer le caractère périodique, fréquent ou habituel d'une action, on emploie la forme fréquentative : **will** pour le présent, **would** ou **used to** pour le passé.

- Ex. : When the cat is away, the mice **will** play.      Quand le chat n'est pas là, les souris dansent (ont coutume de danser).  
 The children **would** laugh (used to laugh) whenever he tried to speak.      Les enfants avaient coutume de rire toutes les fois qu'il essayait de parler.

NOTE : La forme fréquentative est surtout employée au passé. Au présent, on emploie plutôt un adverbe tel que **often**, **usually**, **generally**, pour indiquer la répétition de l'action. (Voir n° 42).

13

L'emploi du 'preterite' et du 'present perfect'.

1. On emploie le 'preterite' lorsque l'action est terminée et que sa date est connue (explicitement ou implicitement) : I **drove** this car last week.

2. On emploie le 'present perfect' :

- a) lorsque l'action est terminée mais que la date n'en est pas connue : I **have driven** this car before.
- b) lorsque l'action vient de se terminer : We **have had** a nice walk.
- c) lorsque l'unité de temps dont il est question n'est pas complètement écoulée :

Ex. : I **have translated** } a difficult passage this afternoon. Is it five o'clock already?  
 I **have been translating** }

d) lorsqu'on veut insister moins sur l'action elle-même que sur la persistance de son résultat :

Ex. : I **have lost** my fountain-pen. (Mais : I **lost** my fountain-pen yesterday.)

e) lorsque l'action dure encore au moment où l'on parle :

Ex. : I **have studied** English for three years. (Voir N° 14).  
 Mais : I **studied** English for six years when I was at school.

L'article défini "the"

Emploi de l'article défini

L'article défini anglais "the" (valable pour les trois genres, le singulier et le pluriel) ne doit pas être employé systématiquement là où l'on trouverait en français les mots *le, la, les*. Bien qu'il soit difficile de formuler une règle générale fixant les conditions dans lesquelles "the" doit être employé, il est bon de retenir le principe directeur suivant :

"The" doit seulement être utilisé devant un nom commun clairement déterminé, c'est-à-dire :

- a) lorsque le nom désigne un objet unique en son genre. Ex. : the sun, the moon, the sky, the world, the sea, the horizon, the Bible, etc.
- b) lorsque le nom désigne des choses dont le nombre est exprimé ou connu. Ex. : the four seasons, the ten commandments, the three Graces, the deadly sins, the fine arts, the Muses, the Fatal Sisters, etc.
- c) lorsque le nom est suivi d'un complément déterminatif. Ex. : the cover of a book, the title of a novel, the colour of a dress, the Duke of Edinburgh, the Prince of Wales, etc.
- d) lorsque le nom est suivi d'une proposition relative, ou d'une tournure qui précise la chose dont on parle. Ex. : I have read the book that you mention.—The flowers which are on the table look lovely.—The potatoes for lunch are ready.—The sheep in that field belong to Farmer Jenkins.
- e) lorsque le contexte restreint le sens, c'est-à-dire lorsque l'on peut sous-entendre un complément déterminatif, une proposition relative, etc. Ex. : How did you like the play? (sous-entendu : that you saw yesterday).—The trees (sous-entendu : in the garden, ou : that we can see from here) are turning yellow.

Omission de l'article défini

Au contraire, quand un nom commun est employé dans un sens général ou vague, on ne doit pas employer l'article défini.

- Ex. : Books are very dear. Mais on dira : The books in this shop are very dear.
- People are hard to please. The people here are hard to please.

Dans le tableau suivant, les exemples de la colonne de gauche illustrent des cas où l'on doit omettre l'article défini "the", tandis que les exemples de la colonne de droite illustrent des cas où l'on doit l'employer (sens restreint, déterminé.)

On omet l'article défini	On emploie l'article défini
1. Devant un nom concret pluriel employé dans un sens général. Dogs are intelligent animals.	The dogs he has bought are intelligent.
2. Devant les noms de repas employés dans un sens général. We always have breakfast (lunch, tea, dinner, supper) in the dining room.	The lunch (the dinner, the supper, etc.) we had in Paris was excellent.
3. Devant les noms de couleurs, de matières, d'aliments, de boissons. Grey is a dull colour.—Nylon lasts longer than silk.—Steel is harder than brass.—I prefer electricity to gas.	I like the grey of your dress.—The silk of this scarf is very thin.—The steel made in this factory is very cheap.
4. Devant les noms de jeux. He plays football, tennis, cricket, chess, bridge, etc.	Devant les noms d'instruments de musique. He plays the piano, the flute, the violin, etc.

## 1 A Private Conversation

Last week I went to the theatre. I had a very good seat. The play was very interesting. I did not enjoy it. A young man and a young woman were sitting behind me. They were talking loudly. I got very angry. I could not hear the actors. I turned round. I looked at the man and the woman angrily. They did not pay any attention. In the end, I could not bear it. I turned round again. 'I can't hear a word!' I said angrily.

'It's none of your business,' the young man said rudely. 'This is a private conversation!'



### Comprehension Précis and Composition

Answer these questions in not more than 55 words.

1. Where did the writer go last week?
2. Did he enjoy the play or not?
3. Who was sitting behind him?
4. Were they talking loudly, or were they talking quietly?
5. Could the writer hear the actors or not?
6. Did he turn round or not?
7. What did he say?
8. Did the young man say, 'The play is not interesting,' or did he say, 'This is a private conversation!'

### Key Structures

**Word Order in Simple Statements.**

*a* A statement tells us about something. All the sentences in the passage are statements. Each of these statements contains one idea. Each statement tells us about *one thing*. A statement that tells us about one thing is a *simple statement*.

*b* The order of the words in a statement is very important. Look at these two statements. They both contain the same words but they do not mean the same thing:

The policeman arrested the thief.

The thief arrested the policeman.

*c* A simple statement can have six parts, but it does not always have so many. Study the order of the words in the columns on page 14. Note that column 6 (When?) can be at the beginning or at the end of a statement.

### Exercises

A. Rule seven columns on a double sheet of paper. At the top of each column, write the numbers and the words given in the Table. Copy out the rest of the passage. Put the words of each statement in the correct column in the way shown in the Table.

## 25 Do the English Speak English?

I arrived in London at last. The railway station was big, black and dark. I did not know the way to my hotel, so I asked a porter. I not only spoke English very carefully, but very clearly as well. The porter, however, could not understand me. I repeated my question several times and at last he understood. He answered me, but he spoke neither slowly nor clearly. 'I am a foreigner,' I said. Then he spoke slowly, but I could not understand him. My teacher never spoke English like that! The porter and I looked at each other and smiled. Then he said something and I understood it. 'You'll soon learn English!' he said. I wonder. In England, each man speaks a different language. The English understand each other, but I don't understand them! Do they speak English?



### Comprehension and Précis

Answer these questions in *not more than 70 words*.

1. Did you arrive at a railway station in London or not? Did you ask a porter the way to your hotel or not? Could he understand you or not? (*and ... but*)
2. Did he understand you at last or not? Could you understand his answer? (*but*)
3. Did your teacher ever speak English like that or not?
4. What did the porter say to you?
5. Does each man speak a different language in England or not?
6. Do they understand each other or not? Do you understand them? (*but*)

### Letter-writing

The address appears at the top right-hand corner of the page. It is called 'The Heading'. The address is always followed by the date:

14 Grafton St.,  
Croydon,  
Surrey,  
England.  
24th April, 19—

### Exercise

Write your home address. Follow the above pattern carefully.

### Key Structures

#### Word Order in Compound Statements

*a* Do you remember the six parts of a simple statement? Refer to KS 13c if you have forgotten them.

*b* We can join simple statements together to make *compound statements*. Here are some of the joining words we use: and, but, so, yet, or, both ... and, either ... or, neither ... nor, not only ... but ... as well (or also).

## 16 A Polite Request

If you park your car in the wrong place, a traffic policeman will soon find it. You will be very lucky if he lets you go without a ticket. However, this does not always happen. Traffic police are sometimes very polite. During a holiday in Sweden, I found this note on my car: 'Sir, we welcome you to our city. This is a "No Parking" area. You will enjoy your stay here if you pay attention to our street signs. This note is only a reminder.' If you receive a request like this, you cannot fail to obey it!



### Comprehension Précis and Composition

Answer these questions in *not more than 55 words*.

1. Do traffic police usually give you a ticket if you park your car in the wrong place or not?
2. When did the writer find a polite note on his car?
3. What did the traffic police want him to do?
4. Can anyone fail to obey a request like this or not?

### Key Structures

If you open the door you will get a surprise.

Study these sentences. Pay close attention to the words in italics:

a *If he is out*, I'll call tomorrow.

*If it rains* tomorrow, we shall stay at home.

You'll miss the train *if you don't hurry*.

*If you see him*, will you tell him about it?

*If he is working* I shall not disturb him.

*If I have time*, I shall be writing to him tomorrow.

He will come tomorrow *if he can*.

*If they can help* you they will.

b *If you make* a mistake, correct it.

*If you don't like* the food, don't eat it.

Please don't disturb him *if he is busy*.

### Exercises

A. How many times has the word *if* been used in the passage?

B. Give the correct form of the verbs in brackets. Do not refer to the passage until you finish the exercise:

1. If you (park) your car in the wrong place, a traffic policeman soon (find) it.
2. You (be) very lucky if he (let) you go without a ticket.
3. You (enjoy) your stay here if you (pay) attention to our street signs.
4. If you (receive) a request like this, you (cannot) fail to obey it.

## 40 Food and Talk<sup>5</sup>

Last week at a dinner-party, the hostess asked me to sit next to Mrs Rumbold. Mrs Rumbold was a large, unsmiling lady in a tight black dress. She did not even look up when I took my seat beside her. Her eyes were fixed on her plate and in a short time, she was busy eating. I tried to make conversation.

5 'A new play is coming to "The Globe" soon,' I said. 'Will you be seeing it?'

10 'No,' she answered.

'Will you be spending your holidays abroad this year?' I asked.

15 'No,' she answered. 'Will you be staying in England?' I asked.

'No,' she answered.

In despair, I asked her whether she was enjoying her dinner.

20 'Young man,' she answered, 'if you ate more and talked less, we would both enjoy our dinner!'



### Comprehension and Précis

Answer these questions in not more than 70 words.

1. Where did the writer sit at the dinner-party?
2. Did he try to make conversation or not? Was she busy eating or not? (*but*)
3. Did he talk about the new play at 'The Globe' or not? Did he talk about the holidays or not? (*and*)
4. Did she answer his questions briefly or not?
5. Did he ask her if she was enjoying her dinner or not? What did she answer? (*Then ... and*)

### Composition

Rewrite the following sentences using the joining words in brackets:

1. She refused to answer any questions. She did not ask any questions (*not only ... but ... either*)
2. She was not interested in the theatre. She was not interested in travel. (*neither ... nor*)
3. She liked eating good food. She did not like talking about it. (*but*)

### Letter-writing

Rewrite the following dates in the way they would appear on a letter:

2/3/65; 21/9/54; 13/8/61; 1/12/67; 22/1/66; 11/11/70.

### Key Structures

If you ate more and talked less we would both enjoy our dinner.

a Do you remember these sentences: (KS 43)

If he is out, I'll call tomorrow.

You'll miss the train if you don't hurry.

## 51 Reward for Virtue

My friend, Herbert, has always been fat, but things got so bad recently that he decided to go on a diet. He began his diet a week ago. First of all, he wrote out a long list of all the foods which were forbidden. The list included most of the things Herbert loves: butter, potatoes, rice, beer, milk, chocolate, and sweets. Yesterday I paid him a visit. I rang the bell and was not surprised to see that Herbert was still as fat as ever. He led me into his room and hurriedly hid a large parcel under his desk. It was obvious that he was very embarrassed. When I asked him what he was doing, he smiled guiltily and then put the parcel on the desk. He explained that his diet was so strict that he had to reward himself occasionally. Then he showed me the contents of the parcel. It contained five large bars of chocolate and three bags of sweets!



### Comprehension and Précis

Answer these questions *in not more than 65 words*.

1. Is Herbert fat or not? Has he gone on a diet or not? (*so ... that*)
2. Has he forbidden himself all the foods he likes, or has he forbidden himself all the foods he does not like? (Has he lost weight or not? (*but*))
3. What did he hide under his desk when the writer visited him yesterday?
4. Did the parcel contain chocolates and sweets, or did it contain biscuits?
5. Why did Herbert say that he had to reward himself occasionally? (*because*)

### Composition

Write two or three sentences using the ideas given below:

I invited a friend to dinner—expensive restaurant—good meal—asked for the bill  
not enough money—borrowed some from my guest.

### Letter-writing

*How to begin a letter*

If you are writing to a person you do not know very well, you should begin as follows: Dear Mr Brown, Dear Miss Williams, Dear Mrs Smith. Always put a comma after the name.

*Exercise*

How would you begin a letter to: your sister, your friend Bill, your employer, your old headmaster.

## 62 After the Fire

Firemen had been fighting the forest fire for nearly three weeks before they could get it under control. A short time before, great trees had covered the countryside for miles around. Now, smoke still rose up from the warm ground over the desolate hills. Winter was coming on and the hills threatened the surrounding villages with destruction, for heavy rain would not only wash away the soil but would cause serious floods as well. When the fire had at last been put out, the forest authorities ordered several tons of a special type of grass-seed which would grow quickly. The seed was sprayed over the ground in huge quantities by acroplanes.



The planes had been planting seed for nearly a month when it began to rain. By then, however, in many places the grass had already taken root. In place of the great trees which had been growing there for centuries, patches of green had begun to appear in the blackened soil.

### Comprehension and Précis

Answer these questions in not more than 75 words.

1. How long did it take the firemen to get the forest fire under control?
2. Had all the great trees been burnt or not? Was there danger that heavy rain would cause serious floods or not? Would the floods destroy the surrounding villages or not? (*Now that ... which*)
3. Did the forest authorities order grass-seed to prevent this or not? For how long was it sprayed over the ground by planes? (*To prevent this ... which ...*)
4. Did it begin to rain or not? Where had the grass taken root? (*By the time that ...*)

### Composition

Rewrite the following sentences using the joining words in brackets:

1. The firemen cut down trees. They prevented the fire from spreading. (*in order to*)
2. The fire raged for two weeks. It caused millions of pounds worth of damage. (*which*)
3. Forest workers planted young trees quickly. The whole area would become a desert. (*so that ... not*)

### Letter-writing

Write six sentences beginning with each of the following phrases:

I am sorry ...; Forgive me for ...; I was so glad ...; I have not heard ...; What a surprise ...; It was very kind ...

### Key Structures

The planes had been planting seed for nearly a month when it began to rain.

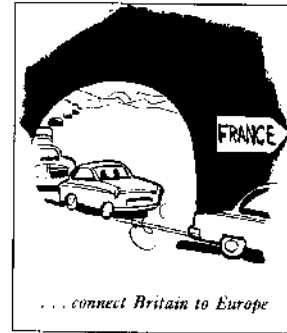
a Do you remember these sentences: (KS 97b)

He *lived* in Scotland fifteen years *ago*.

He *had lived* in Scotland for fifteen years *before* he came to England.

## 64 The Channel Tunnel

- In 1858, a French engineer, Aimé Thomé de Gamond, arrived in England with a plan for a twenty-one mile tunnel across the English Channel. He said that it would be possible to build a platform in the centre of the Channel. This platform would serve as a port and a railway station. The tunnel would be well-ventilated if tall chimneys were built above sea-level.
- In 1860, a better plan was put forward by an Englishman, William Low. He suggested that a double railway tunnel should be built. This would solve the problem of ventilation, for if a train entered this tunnel, it would draw in fresh air behind it. Forty-two years later a tunnel was actually begun. If, at the time, the British had not feared invasion, it would have been completed. Recently, there has again been great interest in the idea of a Channel Tunnel. If it is built, it will connect Britain to Europe for the first time in history.



### Comprehension and Précis

Answer these questions in not more than 85 words.

- Who planned to build a tunnel across the English Channel in 1858? How would it be ventilated? (*The tunnel, which . . .*)
- Who suggested a better plan two years later?
- How would passing trains solve the problem of ventilation in his proposed double railway tunnel? (*because they would*)
- Did work begin forty-two years later or not? Why was it stopped? (*Though . . . because*)
- Has there been renewed interest in the idea lately or not? (*However*)

### Composition

Rewrite the following sentences using the joining words in brackets:

- The English Channel separates Britain from Europe. The country has not been invaded since 1066. (*Thanks to . . . which*)
- Modern warfare is far more complex. Such fears no longer exist. (*However, now that . . .*)
- Britain would benefit enormously from a Channel Tunnel. Europe would benefit enormously from a Channel Tunnel. (*Both . . . and*)

### Letter-writing

Write opening sentences which would be suitable for letters to the following:

- A former school mistress who has just got engaged.
- A friend who has sent you a telegram on your birthday.
- A librarian who has sent you information you wanted.
- An aunt you failed to meet for an appointment.

## 75 SOS

When a light passenger plane flew off course some time ago, it crashed in the mountains and its pilot was killed. The only passengers, a young woman and her two baby daughters, were unhurt. It was the middle of winter. Snow lay thick on the ground. The woman knew that the nearest village was miles away. When it grew dark, she turned a suit-case into a bed and put the children inside it, covering them with all the clothes she could find. During the night, it got terribly cold. The woman kept as near as she could to the children and even tried to get into the case herself, but it was too small. Early next morning, she heard planes passing overhead and wondered how she could send a signal. Then she had an idea. She stamped out the letters 'SOS' in the snow. Fortunately, a pilot saw the signal and sent a message by radio to the nearest town. It was not long before a helicopter arrived on the scene to rescue the survivors of the plane crash.



*She turned a suit-case into a bed*

### Précis

In not more than 80 words, describe what happened. Write two different paragraphs using the points and connections given below.

CONNECTIONS	POINTS	CONNECTIONS
<i>but</i>	[ 1. Plane crashed—mountains. 2. Only passengers—woman, baby daughters not hurt.	<i>When</i>
<i>and</i> <i>so</i>	[ 3. Mid-winter—extremely cold. 4. Put children in case. 5. Covered them—clothes.	<i>However, and</i> <i>After putting</i> <i>and</i> <i>the woman</i>
<i>and</i> <i>When</i>	[ 6. Kept close all night. 7. Planes—next morning. 8. Stamped 'SOS'—snow.	<i>On hearing</i> <i>the woman</i> <i>which</i>
<i>This</i> <i>who</i> <i>and</i>	[ 9. Seen by pilot. 10. Message sent. 11. Rescued—helicopter.	<i>and</i>

### Composition

Write two paragraphs in about 150 words using the ideas given below:

1. A light aeroplane with a heavy cargo—sudden storm—high winds—the pilot made a crash landing in the snow.
2. The pilot was unhurt—roped the plane to a rock—spent the night in a tent—next morning—found that the plane had been swept away by the wind—smashed to pieces—cargo and wreckage in the snow.

## 88 Trapped in a Mine

Six men have been trapped in a mine for seventeen hours. If they are not brought to the surface soon they may lose their lives. However, rescue operations are proving difficult. If explosives are used, vibrations will cause the roof of the mine to collapse. Rescue workers are therefore drilling a hole on the north side of the mine. They intend to bring the men up in a special capsule. If there had not been a hard layer of rock beneath the soil, they would have completed the job in a few hours. As it is, they have been drilling for sixteen hours and they still have a long way to go. Meanwhile, a microphone, which was lowered into the mine two hours ago, has enabled the men to keep in touch with the closest relatives. Though they are running out of food and drink, the men are cheerful and confident that they will get out soon. They have been told that rescue operations are progressing smoothly. If they knew how difficult it was to drill through the hard rock, they would lose heart.



### Précis

Make a summary of the passage in not more than 80 words. Write two different paragraphs using the points and connections given below.

CONNECTIONS	POINTS	CONNECTIONS											
who	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>1. Six men—trapped—seventeen hours</td> <td rowspan="10">}</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2. May lose lives.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3. Rescue difficult.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>4. Explosives—collapse.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>5. Drilling—hard rock.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>6. Progress slow.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>7. Microphone lowered.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>8. In touch—relatives.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>9. Running short—food.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>10. Good spirits.</td> </tr> </table>	1. Six men—trapped—seventeen hours	}	2. May lose lives.	3. Rescue difficult.	4. Explosives—collapse.	5. Drilling—hard rock.	6. Progress slow.	7. Microphone lowered.	8. In touch—relatives.	9. Running short—food.	10. Good spirits.	and
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8. In touch—relatives.													
9. Running short—food.													
10. Good spirits.													
because	as												
Since	Because of this												
but	yet												
Two hours ago	Now that												
and	Though												
but													

### Composition

Continue the above passage. Write two paragraphs in about 150 words using the ideas given below:

1. During the rescue operations there was a loud noise—collapse of mine—microphone silent—the men's voices were heard an hour later—they were all right.
2. Drilling began again—the collapse had made things easier—the men were brought to the surface—the scene on their return.

## 2 Thirteen Equals One

Our vicar is always raising money for one cause or another, but he has never managed to get enough money to have the church clock repaired. The big clock  
5 which used to strike the hours day and night was damaged during the war and has been silent ever since.

One night, however, our vicar woke up with a start: the clock was striking the  
10 hours! Looking at his watch, he saw that it was one o'clock, but the bell struck thirteen times before it stopped. Armed with a torch, the vicar went up into the clock tower to see what was going on. In  
15 the torchlight, he caught sight of a figure whom he immediately recognized as Bill Wilkins, our local grocer.

'Whatever are you doing up here Bill?' asked the vicar in surprise.

'I'm trying to repair the bell,' answered Bill. 'I've been coming up here night  
20 after night for weeks now. You see, I was hoping to give you a surprise.'

'You certainly did give me a surprise!' said the vicar. 'You've probably woken up everyone in the village as well. Still, I'm glad the bell is working again.'

'That's the trouble, vicar,' answered Bill. 'It's working all right, but I'm  
25 afraid that at one o'clock it will strike thirteen times and there's nothing I can do about it.'

'We'll get used to that Bill,' said the vicar. 'Thirteen is not as good as one, but it's better than nothing. Now let's go downstairs and have a cup of tea.'



### Comprehension and Précis

*In not more than 80 words describe what happened from the moment the vicar woke up. Do not include anything that is not in the passage.*

Answer these questions in note form to get your points:

1. What woke the vicar up?
2. What was the time?
3. How many times did the clock strike?
4. Where did the vicar go?
5. What did he take with him?
6. Whom did he see in the clock tower?
7. What did Bill Wilkins say he was trying to do?
8. Had Bill Wilkins succeeded in repairing the clock or not?
9. Was the vicar pleased or angry?
10. What did he offer the grocer?

### Vocabulary

Give another word or phrase to replace the following words as they are used in the passage: vicar (l. 1); repaired (l. 4); damaged (l. 6); silent (l. 7); with a start (l. 9); caught sight of (l. 15).

### Composition

Write a composition of about 200 words using the ideas given below:

*Title:* A Sticky Business.

*Introduction:* A small village—the church clock suddenly stopped—no one could explain why.

*Development:* The vicar climbed into the clock tower—found that the clock had been invaded by bees—full of honey and wax.

*Conclusion:* A bee-keeper was called—removed the queen bee—the other bees followed—the clock was cleaned—working again.

### Letter-writing

Write six phrases which could be used to begin letters to friends.

### Key Structures

What is happening? What always happens? (1 KS 188)

Note that with the word *always* we can sometimes say:

Our vicar is always raising money. (l. 1)

He is always getting into trouble.

She is always writing letters.

#### Exercise

Underline the verbs in the passage that tell us *what is happening* now. Note how they have been used.

### Special Difficulties

Phrases with *in*. Compare 1 SD 108, 200.

Study these examples:

'Whatever are you doing up here Bill?' asked the vicar *in surprise*. (l. 18)

Please write *in ink*, not *in pencil*.

We have a great deal *in common*.

The swimmer seemed to be *in difficulty*, but he managed to reach the shore *in the end*.

I didn't feel well so I spent the day *in bed*.

We have received fifty applications *in all*.

The thieves were disturbed and left *in a hurry*.

I can't borrow any more money; I'm already *in debt*.

Mary's *in love* with a sailor.

There wasn't a person *in sight*.

He didn't realize that he was *in danger*.

The little boy was *in tears*.

#### Exercise

Use a phrase with *in* in place of the words in italics.

1. I left home *very quickly* so as not to miss the train.
2. I suppose I shall finish this *eventually*.
3. In the early morning there was not a person *to be seen*.
4. Shall I write *with a pen* or *with a pencil*?
5. They haven't many interests *which they share*.
6. Why is that little girl *crying*?

## 6 Smash and Grab

The expensive shops in a famous arcade near Piccadilly were just opening. At this time of the morning, the arcade was almost empty. Mr Taylor, the owner of a jewel-  
 5 lery shop was admiring a new window display. Two of his assistants had been working busily since 8 o'clock and had only just finished. Diamond necklaces and rings had been beautifully arranged  
 10 on a background of black velvet. After gazing at the display for several minutes, Mr Taylor went back into his shop.

The silence was suddenly broken when a large car, with its headlights on and its  
 15 horn blaring, roared down the arcade. It came to a stop outside the jeweller's. One man stayed at the wheel while two others with black stockings over their faces jumped out and smashed the window of the shop with iron bars. While this was  
 going on, Mr Taylor was upstairs. He and his staff began throwing furniture out  
 20 of the window. Chairs and tables went flying into the arcade. One of the thieves was struck by a heavy statue, but he was too busy helping himself to diamonds to notice any pain. The raid was all over in three minutes, for the men scrambled  
 back into the car and it moved off at a fantastic speed. Just as it was leaving,  
 Mr Taylor rushed out and ran after it throwing ashtrays and vases, but it was  
 25 impossible to stop the thieves. They had got away with thousands of pounds worth of diamonds.



### Comprehension and Précis

Write an account of the smash and grab raid in *not more than 80 words*. Do not include anything that is not in the last paragraph.

Answer these questions in note form to get your points:

1. Did a large car enter an arcade near Piccadilly or not?
2. Where did it stop?
3. How many thieves got out of the car?
4. Did they smash the window or not?
5. Where was the owner of the shop?
6. What did he and his staff throw at the thieves?
7. Did they hit any of the thieves or not?
8. How long did the raid last?
9. Did the thieves drive away or not?
10. Did the owner run after the car or did he stay in the shop?
11. What did he throw at the car?
12. Did the thieves get away or were they caught?
13. What had they stolen?

### Vocabulary

Give another word or phrase to replace the following words as they are used in the passage: expensive (l. 1); almost (l. 3); assistants (l. 6); gazing (l. 11); several (l. 12); stayed (l. 17); smashed (l. 18).

### Composition

In not more than 200 words continue the above passage using the ideas given below. Do not write more than three paragraphs.

*Title:* They Got Away.

*Introduction:* The thieves' car joined the traffic—Mr Taylor took a taxi—followed the thieves' car.

*Development:* A mad chase through the streets—the thieves' car hit another car—did not stop—the police chased both taxi and thieves—Mr Taylor's taxi stopped at traffic lights—the thieves got away—the taxi-driver was stopped by the police—he had been speeding—Mr Taylor explained the situation.

*Conclusion:* The thieves' car was found ten minutes later—side street—abandoned—the thieves escaped on foot.

### Letter-writing

Suppose that you had witnessed an incident similar to the one described in the passage. Write a letter of about 80 words to a friend describing what you saw. Supply a suitable Introduction and Conclusion. Use the following ideas to write the *Purpose*: Tuesday morning—busy street—a man smashed the window of an antique shop—chased by passers-by—you joined in—the man was caught.

### Key Structures

What happened? What was happening? (1 KS 198)

#### Exercises

A. Underline the verbs in the passage which tell us *what happened* and *what was happening*. Note how they have been used.

B. Write sentences using the following words and phrases: just as; used to; while.

### Special Difficulties

#### Word Building.

Study these sentences:

It was possible to stop the thieves.

It was impossible to stop the thieves. (ll. 24–25)

Note how the opposite of 'possible' has been formed. We can add *dis*, *in*, *im*, *un*, *il* or *ir* to certain words to make opposites.

#### Exercise

Write these sentences again giving the correct opposites of the words in italics:

1. He was extremely *polite*.
2. I *agree* with you.
3. His handwriting is quite *legible*.
4. This report is *accurate*.
5. Have you *locked* the door?
6. Have you learnt these *regular* verbs?

12 Life on a Desert Island

Most of us have formed an unrealistic picture of life on a desert island. We sometimes imagine a desert island to be a sort of paradise where the sun always shines. Life there is simple and good. Ripe fruit falls from the trees and you never have to work. The other side of the picture is quite the opposite. Life on a desert island is wretched. You either starve to death or live like Robinson Crusoe, waiting for a boat which never comes. Perhaps there is an element of truth in both these pictures, but few of us have had the opportunity to find out.



Two men who recently spent five days on a coral island wished they had stayed there longer. They were taking a badly damaged boat from the Virgin Islands to Miami to have it repaired. During the journey, their boat began to sink. They quickly loaded a small rubber dinghy with food, matches, and tins of beer and rowed for a few miles across the Caribbean until they arrived at a tiny coral island. There were hardly any trees on the island and there was no water, but this did not prove to be a problem. The men collected rain-water in the rubber dinghy. As they had brought a spear gun with them, they had plenty to eat. They caught lobster and fish every day, and, as one of them put it 'ate like kings'. When a passing tanker rescued them five days later, both men were genuinely sorry that they had to leave.

Comprehension and Précis

In not more than 80 words explain how the two men came to spend five days on a desert island and say what they did there. Do not include anything that is not in the last paragraph.

Answer these questions to get your points:

1. Was the men's boat damaged or not?
2. Where were they taking it?
3. What happened to it on the way?
4. What did the men load on to their rubber dinghy?
5. Where did they row?
6. Where did they arrive?
7. Where did the men collect water during their stay there?
8. How did they catch fish and lobster?
9. Did they eat 'like Kings' for five days or not?
10. How were they rescued?

Vocabulary

Give another word or phrase to replace the following words as they are used in the passage: picture (l. 2); wretched (l. 9); starve to death (l. 10); opportunity (l. 14); repaired (l. 18); loaded (l. 19); dinghy (l. 19).

### Composition

Imagine spending two weeks on an uninhabited desert island. In not more than 200 words, describe what you did there. Use the ideas given below. Do not write more than three paragraphs.

*Title:* Shipwrecked.

*Introduction:* Shipwreck—everybody drowned—I clung to a plank—washed up on island.

*Development:* Slept for a long time—woke up—hungry and thirsty—explored island—uninhabited—found plenty of fruit—fresh-water spring—tried to hunt wild animals—failed to catch anything—spent days swimming, lying in sun.

*Conclusion:* Boat on horizon—signalled and shouted—rescued.

### Letter-writing

In not more than 60 words, write a suitable *Purpose* and *Conclusion* to follow this introductory paragraph:

Dear Judy,

We arrived here late last night and are staying at a charming little hotel by the sea. The weather is perfect and I am sure we are going to enjoy our holiday.

### Key Structures

If. (1 KS 216)

#### Exercise

Complete the following:

1. If you had told me earlier . . .
2. If I were you . . .
3. You will be disappointed if . . .
4. You would change your mind if . . .

### Special Difficulties

They wished they had stayed there longer. (II. 16–17)

Wish and If only. Study these examples:

I wish you would do as you are told.

If only the weather would change.

I wish she could see me now.

I wish I had more time to spare.

If only you would try a little harder!

I wish I hadn't said anything about it.

If only we could have gone to the party!

I wish you hadn't spent so much money.

#### Exercise

Complete the following:

1. It was silly of me not to buy that dress. I wish I . . .
2. You are making a lot of noise. I wish you . . .
3. It's a pity John's away. If only he . . .
4. He plays the piano so well. I wish I . . .
5. I never studied at all when I was at school. I wish I . . .
6. I'm sorry I mentioned it to him. I wish I . . .

## 17 The Greatest Bridge in the World

Verrazano, an Italian about whom little is known, sailed into New York Harbour in 1524 and named it Angoulême. He described it as 'a very agreeable situation  
 5 located within two small hills in the midst of which flowed a great river.' Though Verrazano is by no means considered to be a great explorer, his name will probably remain immortal, for on November  
 10 21st, 1964, the greatest bridge in the world was named after him.

The Verrazano Bridge, which was designed by Othmar Ammann, joins Brooklyn to Staten Island. It has a span  
 15 of 4260 feet. The bridge is so long that the shape of the earth had to be taken into account by its designer. Two great towers support four huge cables. The towers are built on immense underwater platforms made of steel and concrete. The platforms extend to a depth of over 100 feet under the sea. These alone took  
 20 sixteen months to build. Above the surface of the water, the towers rise to a height of nearly 700 feet. They support the cables from which the bridge has been suspended. Each of the four cables contains 26,108 lengths of wire. It has been estimated that if the bridge were packed with cars, it would still only be carrying a third of its total capacity. However, size and strength are not the only  
 25 important things about this bridge. Despite its immensity, it is both simple and elegant, fulfilling its designer's dream to create 'an enormous object drawn as faintly as possible'.



### Comprehension and Précis

Describe the Verrazano Bridge in *not more than 80 words*. Do not include anything that is not in the last paragraph.

Answer these questions in note form to get your points:

1. What is the name of the bridge which joins Brooklyn to Staten Island?
2. What is its span?
3. How many towers has it got?
4. What do these towers support?
5. What are the towers built on?
6. How far under the sea do the platforms go?
7. How far above the surface do the towers rise?
8. What is the bridge suspended from?
9. How many lengths of wire does each of these cables contain?
10. Is the bridge very strong or not?
11. Is it simple and elegant or not?

### Vocabulary

Give another word or phrase to replace the following words as they are used in the passage: agreeable situation (l. 4); midst (l. 5); considered (l. 7); remain immortal (l. 9); span (l. 14); taken into account (ll. 16-17); support (l. 17).

### Composition

Describe any bridge you know well. Expand the following into a paragraph of about 150 words.

The bridge I know best is called . . . It joins . . . to . . . From far away it looks . . . but when you get near . . . It is made of . . . and supported by . . . which . . . If you stand on the bridge early in the morning, you can see . . . At this time everything is quiet. During the day, however, . . . I enjoy standing on the bridge at night when . . . In the darkness, you can see . . . In the stillness . . . are the only sounds that can be heard. (77 words)

### Letter-writing

A friend who is coming to visit you has written to you asking for detailed information on how to get to your house. Write a reply in about 80 words. Supply a suitable Introduction and Conclusion. Use the following information to write the *Purpose*: which train to catch—where to get off—which bus to catch and where—any familiar landmark—where to get off—which road to take—where your house is.

### Key Structures

The Verrazano bridge was designed by Othmar Ammann. (1 KS 226)

#### Exercise

Change the form of the verbs in these sentences. Omit the words in italics. Do not refer to the passage until you finish the exercise:

1. Verrazano is an Italian about whom *we* know little.
2. *They* do not consider Verrazano to be a great explorer.
3. *They* named the greatest bridge in the world after him.
4. *He* had to take into account the shape of the earth.
5. *They* have estimated that if the bridge were packed with cars . . .

### Special Difficulties

He is by no means considered to be a great explorer. (ll. 7–8) Compare 1 SD 208.

*Instead of saying:* I find that he is quite unsuitable for the job.

*We can say:* I find him to be quite unsuitable for the job.

#### Exercise

Write these sentences again changing the form of the phrases in italics:

1. I believed *that he owned* property abroad.
2. The Minister declared *that the treaty was* invalid.
3. I know *that he is* a person of high integrity.
4. I guess *that he is* about twenty-seven years old.
5. We estimated *that this picture is* worth at least £500.

forty potential answers in this exercise. Clearly no teacher will go to the length of asking every student every question, but the principle of permutating the number of questions against the number of students should be kept in mind.

There are two ways of drilling from this kind of exercise. The first is to repeat the first question many times with different students, and then to go on to the second question many times with different students, and then to go on to the third question many times with different students, and so on. The other way is to work through the questions without repetition, but possibly to put them all to one student, then to put them all to another, and so on. Both are useful and it is good to combine the two. With Exercise 9 of Unit 8 the teacher might start by asking the first question – *Have you any brothers?* – of several students in turn. Then he might do the third of several of his classmates. A development is for individual students to play the asking role, always with several people answering the same question.

It is possible for the teacher or an individual student to work the exercise the other way, putting all the questions to one learner. But the most effective activity, when this exercise is being used in this way, is for the class to work in groups, all asking and answering at the same time.

**'Practise with somebody' exercises**

These are similar exercises, but rather more complicated. Look for instance, at Exercise 4 of Unit 20. Here we have a number of questions with a closed list of choices to vary the questions. Each question has alternative answers to be selected according to the question and the situational context they refer to. The best introduction to this type of exercise is a slow run-through with the teacher asking individuals of the class.

(Notice incidentally that in challenging an individual in a class, we can do two things. We can name the student first and then put our question. Alternatively we can put the question before challenging an individual. In the first case, all the class knows who is going to do the work, and therefore there is a tendency for that person only to do the thinking. But if the teacher puts his question, pauses slightly while every member of the class thinks of his answer, and then names a student, then his exercising is more effective. It goes without saying that no one must be allowed to shout out answers.)

But to return to Exercise 4 of Unit 20. When the class is familiar with the working of this type of exercise, they can run through it again with groups or the whole class answering. Now the teacher puts the question and indicates who is to reply. If it is the whole class, the teacher makes a circular arm gesture while he is speaking the last part of the question. If he wants a group to answer, he makes a gesture indicating a row of students or a half of the class.

A word about group answers. They should not be practised until the whole class is familiar with the answers. Otherwise there will be individuals

**Broken sentences**

who cannot join in, or who wait to hear what their quicker friends say. Most teachers are familiar with the slow, ragged group answer, which is both wearisome to hear and to take part in. Therefore group answers should only be asked for when they can come confidently. Secondly, it is useful for the teacher to beat time with one hand so that all speakers keep together and the answer is made in a natural English rhythm and at a natural speed. A short downward movement of the teacher's hand on the stressed syllables of the answer is all that is necessary. But here is another reason why this practice should only be done when the class is familiar with the material. If they still need to look down at their books, they cannot follow the teacher's hand signals. It is useful to ask the class to turn their books over for this kind of drill, then they are more likely to watch the teacher.

As well as group practice, drill by individuals in the class is useful for the 'Practise with a friend' exercise, and later the class can work in pairs as they do for other types of exercise.

**Broken sentences**

Look at these Broken sentences from Exercise 4 of Unit 29.

- |                        |                     |
|------------------------|---------------------|
| Martin's mother always | drives dangerously. |
| Aunt Myra always       | dances prettily.    |
| Tom always             | reads carefully.    |
| Uncle George always    | works quickly.      |
| Iz always              | speaks sadly.       |
| Bill always            | walks quickly.      |
| Mary always            | climbs slowly.      |
| Peter always           | helps kindly.       |
| Alison always          | writes easily.      |

In fact the exercise is designed to practise adverbs and (by a disguised transformation drill) to give an insight into the relationship between pairs of adjectives and adverbs. But in order to give no chance of error in the use of adverbs, these are given, and the problem of the exercise removed. The student must make a decision about meaning and unknowingly practise the language point. Repetition of the exercise, therefore, is no less important than with what are more obviously drills.

A classroom strategy, then, should start with the teacher reading the left-hand halves, in sequence, asking individual students to complete the sentences. (Only full sentences should be accepted as answers, otherwise incomplete patterns are being practised, of a kind which is completely unnatural.) The next step is for individual students to read from the left-hand column in sequence, challenging someone else in the class. After this individuals should select from the left-hand column at random, and challenge a friend at random. Notice however that it is wise for only one new problem to be added at a time: random selection should only follow working of the

Substitution tables

Such exercises should be worked slowly at first, the teacher reading the pairs and asking for volunteer answers. A second working of the exercise should move from volunteers to students named by the teacher. Then random working by students challenging other individuals may follow.

Substitution tables

Since *Success with English* is essentially a structure-based course, it is almost inevitable that substitution tables should play a very important part in both presentation and teaching. But since there are several kinds of table, varying in complexity, and since there are several techniques involved in their use, it is important to discuss them in some detail.

The substitution table is a well-known and well-tried teaching device which implies that pattern sentences have certain slots into which we can drop a variety of alternatives which have grammatical features in common. Here is a table from Unit 8.

Is there any	metal fur plastic wood wool cotton glass	in this room? in your house? in a bus? in a train?
--------------	--	---

The teacher recognizes that into the 'metal' column we can drop a wide range of uncountable (or mass) nouns referring to concrete things. Seven have been chosen here, all of which make grammatical sense. They have also been chosen to make sense within the contexts of the phrases in the last column. This particular table, then, has been designed so that a large number of sentences can be made from it, and that whatever choice is made the student produces a good sentence. To decide how many possible sentences can be made, we multiply the number of alternatives in each column. So,  $1 \times 7 \times 4 = 28$ . There are twenty-eight sentences to be made from this table. Obviously the substitution table is a very economic way of setting out a great number of similar sentences, it demonstrates the important fact that we can build sentences by analogy with a pattern, and it is an admirable vehicle for drilling.

Notice, however, that the table above was said to make both grammatical and contextual sense. It is an example of a fool-proof table, from which students can only make acceptable sentences. There are times, however,

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when we want to drill a pattern and use a table which is not fool-proof. In Unit 9, we find this:

The girl	is sitting in	the shoe shop.
The little boy	is running to	the car.
The dog	is walking away from	the Fire Station.
The man	is going to	the bus.

In theory, this table contains  $4 \times 4 \times 4$  sentences, that is sixty-four sentences. It is true that we can choose anywhere in the three columns and make good grammatical sentences. There is nothing grammatically wrong with:

- The dog is running to the bus.
- The little boy is sitting in the shoe shop.
- The girl is walking away from the Fire Station.

But the table is referring to a picture and none of these sentences are true of the picture. In fact there are only six good sentences here, if we are thinking of context. And that is why the book says: *How many true sentences can you make?* So this kind of table cannot be said to be fool-proof. (There is, of course, no reason why the teacher should not invite a large number of grammatically good sentences from such a table, and then ask 'Is that true?' This would be good pattern practice.)

In other places, the book contains tables which cannot be used automatically for grammatical reasons. Here is a table from Unit 14.

That's		books.			
Those are	my	keys.	Please give	it	to me.
		scissors.		them	
		cup.			
		milk.			
		slacks.			

In theory, this table should provide  $2 \times 1 \times 6 \times 1 \times 2 \times 1$  sentences, that is twenty-four. But if we try to use it this way, we produce:

- Those are my milk. Please give them to me.
- That's my keys. Please give it to me.

and many more grammatically wrong sentences, although the context is clear. So in this table there are only six good sentences, and the table is not

Substitution tables

fool-proof. It is designed, of course, to help students gain that insight – whether conscious or unconscious – that if they say *that's*, they must continue with *it*, and that *those are* pairs with *them*.

Occasionally a table is used which includes a refinement, an optional element which may or may not be included. This is shown in brackets as in this table from Unit 16:

In	tennis bowling cricket football	you (don't)	hit throw hold	the ball with	a bat. your hand.
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Here, the word *don't* is to be selected or rejected according to the meaning of the sentence. And this table, though in theory capable of producing forty-eight sentences, must be used to produce only those true sentences which refer to actual fact.

Here, then, is a teaching device which is first used mechanically in our course, but later is found to contain traps for the unwary. But by its very nature, too, the substitution table has another danger. Because it is set out in vertical columns, there is a danger that the sentences are split up by the divisions between columns. Learners who are not fluent readers and those for whom the table is strange often break up the sentences they read from tables into the columns they are reading from. We have tried to reduce this danger by using broken lines to separate the columns, rather than solid lines.

It can be taken as a rule in working from substitution tables that we can cross a vertical line, but we must not cross a horizontal line. This becomes clear when more complicated tables are seen. For example, this one from Unit 25.

Can	you your friends your father		ride a bicycle? play tennis? make a cake? drive a car? write in English?
Do Does	you your friends your father	often	

The student who crosses the central horizontal line may produce sentences like:

Can your friends often ride a bicycle?

which is not a good sentence with the meanings used here.

Coursebook 1

Sometimes the alternative words which may be dropped into the slots of a pattern are so obvious that they are not all given, but the word 'etc.' is used instead. As in this table from Unit 31, where we print 'Monday, etc.' to stand for the seven days of the week. The number of good grammatical sentences we can produce from this table is  $1 \times 5 \times 1 \times (7 + 3)$ , that is fifty.

I haven't	been to the cinema	since	Monday, etc.
	seen my favourite actor		last
	read a good book		week, month, year.
been in a bus	been in a bus	since	Monday, etc.
	read a good book		last
	seen my favourite food		week, month, year.

But if we are working on the principle of learning in context, the number of true sentences must be much smaller than fifty, and will vary with the individual. So from this example alone we can see that substitution tables are not boring, mechanical devices, nor need they be impersonal and meaningless.

How are substitution tables to be used in the course? Teachers will notice that the first kind of substitutions are made in structure drills, using a bracket instead of a box. And this seems to be the best introduction to the principle. So, for those students who can read, a drill like the following should be put on the board.

That isn't a { horse,  
bird,  
girl.

Then it should be converted into table form, to show how the principle carries over:

That isn't a	horse, bird, girl.
--------------	--------------------------

The blackboard is certainly the best place to develop the idea of the substitution table. Exercise 6 of Unit 2 contains the first actual tables of the book and it is advisable that students should meet them on the board before they turn to them in their books. The teacher should start with:

This is my arm.

Substitution tables

Then add to it:

This is my { arm,  
leg,  
head.

Then:

This is my	arm.
That is your	leg, head.

always, of course, speaking with gestures and in context.

Incidental drilling from the material of the book, for example, from the ten pictures of Unit 3, Exercise 3, should give new examples of tables which the teacher builds up on the board from answers supplied by individuals

They are his horses.

grows into a table, thus:

They are	his her	horses, stockings.
----------	------------	-----------------------

and then:

They are	his her	horses, stockings, cars, shoes, shirts, socks, tables, skirts, blouses, slacks.
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Notice that it is necessary for the teacher to imagine in advance how much space he is going to need on the board for a given table.

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Teacher-student activity is often at its most productive when a table is built up on the blackboard from answers by the students. There is no reason why a table from the book should not be reproduced in this way. Looking, for example, at Exercise 6 of Unit 12, the teacher says, 'Give me a sentence from the table.' The first offer might be:

My uncle is not as strong as I am.

This is written on the board and a new sentence invited. The answer might be:

My cousin is not as old as you are.

So the growing table now reads:

My uncle	is not as	strong	as	I am.
My cousin		old		you are.

More and more student answers are added until the table from Unit 12 has been reproduced – a much more meaningful and interesting table than that in the book, because each sentence has been provided by a member of the class.

With a table in front of everyone, whether on the board or in the book, rapid oral drill can be practised. Suppose we have on the board (this table from Unit 15 (and there are 441 potential sentences here)).

I'm	working	Monday	morning.
My parents are	getting some new clothes	Tuesday	afternoon.
That girl is	practising the guitar	Wednesday	evening.
	going to	Thursday	
	a party	Friday	
	the cinema	Saturday	
	the theatre	Sunday	
	the hairdresser's		

The teacher can drill individuals, simply by naming a student, who then reads any sentence he likes. Or again the teacher can name a student and at the same time point to a word or phrase in the table. The student then makes a sentence which must include the part indicated. A more difficult drill follows – one type of drill found on the tapes. That is for a sentence to be

Substitution tables

repeated but with the alteration of an element indicated by the teacher. Like this:

TEACHER	I'm getting some new clothes on Monday evening.
CLASS	I'm getting some new clothes on Monday evening.
TEACHER	Monday morning –
CLASS	I'm getting some new clothes on Monday morning.
TEACHER	Friday afternoon –
CLASS	I'm getting some new clothes on Friday afternoon.

And so on.

Notice that, at least to start with, it is advisable to substitute only in one or two adjacent columns. But when a class has got the idea, then the teacher's substitutions can jump about:

CLASS	I'm getting some new clothes on Friday afternoon.
TEACHER	Going to the hairdresser's...
CLASS	I'm going to the hairdresser's on Friday afternoon.
TEACHER	That girl is –
CLASS	That girl is going to the hairdresser's on Friday afternoon.
TEACHER	Practising the guitar –
CLASS	That girl is practising the guitar on Friday afternoon.

Now we are practising really sophisticated drilling and the class which can do such exercises at speed has really mastered the pattern of the table. But nobody can keep up such drill for long, neither students nor teachers. Three or four minutes intensive work on such a table is quite enough. There is also the point that this type of drill is mechanical and without context. It is necessary, like the swimmer's arm drill on dry land, but it should represent only a small fraction of the work of a class.

Sometimes the exercises in the book ask students to write down a small number of examples from a table. There is no reason why the teacher should not change this number, and where individual learners need more practice in a pattern, the teacher can tell him to write out several extra. But remember we are teaching and not punishing students: extra examples must be set with discretion. Substitution tables are so effective a drilling device that many teachers prepare work cards on which are extra tables. These are prescribed for individual written work according to need, as a written assignment for class or home work. But the teacher should always take great care in making up tables: it is unfortunately very easy to produce a table which can train learners in bad habits. For this reason, inexperienced teachers should think twice before building up on the board a table they have not thought out in advance.

**The story of each Unit**

A feature of *Success with English* is the central dialogue or narrative into which we have written the language points under study. These should never be read before the work which precedes them. They aim to give a natural context to the new language items. But there are several ways of handling them.

These stories present exercise in silent reading, in reading aloud, in listening to a native speaker reading them from the tape, they give sub-conscious pattern practice, introduce and revise vocabulary in a grammatical and situational context, give incidental knowledge of English spelling and sometimes reflect aspects of English social life. Some of these activities are more important than others: we believe, for example, that the ability to read English silently with understanding is more important than the very difficult skill of reading it aloud. (Reading aloud in chorus is a positively bad practice, because it inevitably slows up and distorts the natural stresses and intonation patterns of English.)

Perhaps the best approach is for students to listen first to the tape recording of the passage, whilst following it in their books. (Or the teacher can do the reading instead.) By this means the pronunciation, rhythm and intonation associated with the printed word is controlled. The next stage is for students to listen to the reading with closed books. Listening practice is just as important as more active drills. Later the tapes should be played in an exploded form, that is with pauses in which students repeat what has been read. This activity avoids the dangers of uncontrolled group reading aloud and is good pronunciation practice.

The teacher should remember, however, that those central stories are intended to be fun to read and listen to. It is possible to kill them by too much repetition. They are not drill in the sense that the exercises are, and it is unlikely that anything can be gained by going over any story more than three or four times in a Unit. There is, however, no reason why the reading of an old story should not be set as homework or for revision.

Some teachers sometimes ask students to learn by heart, but the central stories of this course are not designed for this. Indeed, we believe that such a practice is not necessary in *Success with English*, since language items are practised in so many different ways in the various components of the course.

Lists of new vocabulary items in the central stories are given at the end, rather than at the beginning, because we believe that they should first be met in context. Therefore it is not advisable to anticipate such difficulties until they arise. These lists, in order of appearance, give only the new items from the story, not from the whole Unit. They are intended as a reminder of what has been met, and are not intended to be learned by heart. Care has been taken to ensure that the great majority of these new words are used again as early and frequently as possible, so that they are learned almost without effort. And for this reason alone we recommend that the Units are worked in

**Practice with a friend**

the sequence in which they are printed; exercises following the stories should not be worked before the stories are read.

**Practice with a friend: short dialogues**

From Unit 8 onwards the last exercise of each Unit is a short dialogue or dialogues between two people. But, instead of writing a sample dialogue, we have worked on the substitution principle. The two students using this exercise, therefore, are given a choice in certain places. Notice that the selection they are asked to make is sometimes one of vocabulary and sometimes one of grammar. The easier kind of dialogue avoids grammatical choices, and it is good to let students have simple practice in these dialogues before difficulties of grammatical selection are introduced.

Let us look at some examples. The first exercise of this kind is at the end of Unit 8. The first speaker has two selections to make, one from a list of colour adjectives, the second from a list of accompanying nouns:

<p>A</p> <p>Have you any</p>	<p>blue grey white black brown</p> <p>gloves shoes socks</p> <p>please?</p>
------------------------------	---

As this is the first dialogue of its kind, we have avoided a grammatical selection: whatever choice is made from the adjective and noun columns, the student cannot make a grammatical error.

The second speaker, however, in making his choice must follow the lead of the first speaker and select a suitable reply. His table is:

<p>B</p> <p>Yes, here are some</p>	<p>blue grey white black brown</p>	<p>gloves shoes socks</p>	<p>They are very</p>	<p>cheap strong warm expensive</p>
------------------------------------	--	-----------------------------------	----------------------	--

Therefore he must repeat the adjective and noun chosen by the first speaker, selecting a suitable adjective in the last column.

When we come to the third sentence of the dialogue and the first speaker has an open choice in two columns: in this case it does not matter which adjectives and noun group he selects. But in his reply, the second speaker must again follow his lead.

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A	Oh, but have you a pair as smart	big little smart	as	my pair, here? your pair, there? the pair in this picture?
B	No, I'm sorry, I haven't any	gloves shoes socks	big little smart	as those. Goodbye.

In fact, in this dialogue, speaker A has to make simple situational decisions about what he is buying, and B must make suitable situational decisions about what he is selling. It is common in these exercises for the initiative in the dialogue to be with the first speaker.

In the dialogue at the end of Unit 34 the first speaker again has the initiative, because he is deciding on the particular item in the last column of his first table.

A	Please can you lend me Please may I borrow	some money? a pair of scissors? your dictionary?
B	Yes, I can lend you you may borrow	it them for a short time, a few days.

But B must not only follow his lead in talking about the same item. He must make a suitable choice in his third column (*it* or *them*) which is a grammatical selection. This kind of dialogue, then, is rather more difficult and only appears in the later units.

There is a third type of dialogue, and this is only found later in the book, when more language is available. It has been designed to show and practise different ways of expressing the same thing. Exercise 10 of Unit 36 is of this kind.

BOSS	You said yesterday was going to be sunny, You gave a sunny forecast for yesterday,	didn't you?
------	---	-------------

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Practise with a friend

WEATHER FORECASTER	Yes, I thought it was going to be a fine day.
--------------------	---

BOSS	But it rained all day, didn't it? it was very wet all day, wasn't it?
------	--

WEATHER FORECASTER	I was wrong, I made a mistake.
--------------------	-----------------------------------

BOSS	But I went fishing and got very wet, took my wife out and we both got wet.
------	---

WEATHER FORECASTER	I'm sorry, we can all make mistakes, can't we? we are all wrong sometimes, aren't we? we all make mistakes sometimes, don't we?
--------------------	---

BOSS	It must never happen again, You must never make any more mistakes.
------	---

What's tomorrow's forecast? What will it be like tomorrow?
---

WEATHER FORECASTER	Oh, I'm sure tomorrow will be fine, I know it will be very warm.
--------------------	---

I'm going fishing, I'm going out with my wife.
---

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الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية  
وزارة التربية الوطنية

الجزائر

الجزائر في 31 جانفي 2013

4 - 02 - 2013  
736

رقم مقرر: 31/2013

31/1/2013

## السيدات والسادة مديري التربية

الموضوع : تنظيم عملية التقييم المرحلي للتعليم الإلزامي.

الغرض من هذا الميثاق: وضع ترتيبات الخاصة بعملية التقييم المرحلي للتعليم الإلزامي على مستوى المؤسسات التربوية وعلى المستوي الولائي والجهوي والوطني.

### المرفقات:

- ملحق 1: هيكل الموضوعات المقترحة للاستشارة.
- ملحق 2: بطاقة منهجية سير العمليات وتصميم التقارير.

يهدف إصلاح المنظومة التربوية الذي شرعت فيه الدولة مع بداية الدخول المدرسي 2004/2003 إلى وضع منظومة تربوية وطنية، عصرية وناجعة تستجيب للتحديات المشروعة وكذا الحاجيات الحقيقية للمجتمع، لا سيما ما تعلق بمطلب تعميم وتكوين ذي جودة مع تحسين المردود الداخلي والخارجي للمنظومة.

تمثلت الإستراتيجية المعتمدة في التوابع مسار تغيير متدرج وداويل المدى من أجل منح الوقت اللازم للمنظومة التربوية لكي تتمكن من إدراج المستجدات المنظمة وفتح مجالات تنمية الكفاءات المتكاملين وتكثيف المواهب التي تسمح بتحول نوعي.

ومن هذا المنطلق لا يعتبر الإصلاح التربوي عملية ظرفية مؤقتة محصورة في فترة زمنية محدودة، بل هو ضرورة متواصلة، ديناميكية ودائمة تتضمن مراحل المناجحة والتقييم والتعديل على أساس نتائج التقييمات.

اليوم، وبعد عشر سنوات من انطلاق تنفيذ إصلاح المنظومة التربوية يجدر بنا التوقف من أجل التفكير والتقييم الموضوعي والمنتصر وهيبس الأخطار المتوقعة من أجل الوصول إلى تشخيص يتقاسمه مجموع أعضاء الجماعة التربوية حول الوضعية الراهنة لمدرستنا ونقدر نقاط القوة والتطورات المحققة ونتائجها كما ونوعاء وكذا التعرف على نقاط الضعف والقياس والمواضع التي حالت دون التطور المأمول لضرورة الإصلاح.

وتتعلق الأمر بتطبيق الأهداف الهيكلية التي أدت إلى الاختلالات المسجلة والقيام بالتدخلات الضرورية مع تحديد العمليات حسب الأولوية في إطار ضيقة إصلاح المنظومة التربوية واستثمارها.

ولهذا العزم، وفي مرحلة أولى، يقوم قطاع التربية الوطنية في الفترة الممتدة من 01 فبراير إلى 11 أبريل 2013 بتفتح حوار وشارع مع مجموع الفاعلين والشركاء في قطاع التربية الوطنية في مختلف مستويات تنفيذ السياسة التربوية: الوطنية، الولائية والوطنية.

يهدف هذا المنهج إلى تحديد الإطار المنهجي وكذا الإجراءات التنظيمية لهذه العملية الاستشارية.

تتمثل هذه الاستشارة حسب الأولوية وفق أربع موضوعات حاسمة بالنسبة لمواصلة سيرورة الإصلاح، شريطة إبقائها في إطار المتطور الشامل والمنسجم لإصلاح المنظومة التربوية في مجملها.

وتخص الموضوعات المطروحة للنقاش أساسا البرامج التعليمية للتطور الإقليمي (الابتدائي والمتوسط) وتكوين المعلمين وظروف التمدرس وتكافؤ فرص النجاح وكذا عصنة التسيير البيداغوجي والإداري للمؤسسة التربوية.

من أجل تناول كل موضوع من هذه المواضيع اقترحت مجموعة نقاش للمناقشة في وثيقة مرافقة بهذا المنهج (انظر ملحق 1).

ووفق هذه الكيفية يتعلق الأمر بتوفير الظروف الملائمة لبروز حوار بناء واستشارة واسعة وحرية حيث يشارك في إطار متكامل مختلف الفاعلين والشركاء المرتبطين بالمسألة التربوية دون أن ننسى التلاميذ الذين يدعون أيضا للمشاركة في هذا الحوار لأن نجاحهم لا يتحقق بدونهم.

ينبغي أن يؤصل الحوار والتشاور إلى جملة مقترحات وأراء وتوصيات تعطي دفعا جديدا لسيرورة الإصلاح الجاري.

يجب أن ندرك أن هذا التقييم المرحلي لا يعني بأي حال من الأحوال إعادة النظر في الأسس والمواد الأساسية للسياسة التربوية المطبقة للتسيير الجزائري والقانون التوجيهي التربوي الوطنية، كما أنه لا يعني إعادة النظر أو تعديل الهيكلية العامة للنظام التربوي الحالي.

من حيث الجانب التعليمي، تشمل الاستشارة مستويات مختلفة لتنفيذ السياسة التربوية:

- المؤسسات التربوية؛
- على مستوى الولايات؛
- أسلاك التدريس؛
- مديريات التربية؛
- الخدمات الوطنية.

تضبط قوائم المشاركين المدعوين لهذه الاستشارة وكيفية استغلال التقارير واعداد تذاكر ومن الحوايات وكذا الرزنامة الخاصة بالعمليات المطلوب إنجازها كما يلي:

1- المشاركين :

1.1. على مستوى المؤسسات التربوية :

-- المدارس الابتدائية :

• التنظيم والتنسيق :

-- مدير المدرسة.

• المشاركون :

المدرسون

-- ممثلو أولياء التلاميذ (جمعية أولياء التلاميذ).

-- ممثلو هيئات موظفي المؤسسة.

-- المتوسطات :

• التنظيم والتنسيق :

-- مدير المتوسطات.

• المشاركون :

الأستاذ.

-- أعضاء مجلس التربية والتوجيه.

-- ممثلو أولياء التلاميذ (أعضاء مكتب جمعية أولياء التلاميذ).

-- ممثلو هيئات موظفي المؤسسة.

-- أربعة (4) ممثلين للتلاميذ ( مندوب قسم لكل مستوى تعليمي).

-- الثانويات :

• التنظيم والتنسيق :

-- مدير الثانوية.

• المشاركون :

الأستاذ.

-- أعضاء مجلس التسيير والتوجيه.

-- ممثلو أولياء التلاميذ (أعضاء مكتب جمعية أولياء التلاميذ).

-- ممثلو هيئات موظفي المؤسسة.

-- ثلاثة (3) ممثلين للتلاميذ ( مندوب قسم لكل مستوى تعليمي).

-- مستشار التوجيه والإرشاد المدرسي.

يرفع مدير المتوسطات والثانويات تقاريرهم إلى مدير التربية التربوية رئيس لجنة الدائرة.

2.1.1 مستوى الولاية:

- استشارة ملك المستثمرين؛
  - التنظيم : - مدير التربية؛
  - التشييد : - مسبق التفويض البيداغوجي لكل مرحلة دراسية: الابتدائية، المتوسطة والثانوية؛
  - مسبق التفويض العام لإدارة الثانويات والمتوسطات؛
  - مسبق التفويض العام للتسيير المالي الثانويات والمتوسطات؛
  - المشاركون : المهتمون العاملون في الولاية.
- يرفع كل مدير للتفويض تقرير أعمال الاستشارة إلى مدير التربية الولاية.

- الاستشارة على مستوى مديريات التربية؛
- الشتام والتأطير مدير التربية للولاية.
- المشاركون : - رؤساء المصالح او ممثل عن كل مصلحة.
  - ثلاثة مستند من كل طور.
  - ثلاثة مديري المؤسسات من كل طور.
  - ثلاثة مفتشين عن كل طور.
  - ثلاثة ممثلين لملاك مديري مراكز التوجيه المدرسي والمعاهي أو مستشارين للتوجيه والإرشاد المدرسي.
  - ثلاثة أعضاء من مكتب المدير لولاية الولاية لجمعيات أولياء التلاميذ.
  - ممثلين عن كل نقابة معتمدة.

2- مستويات استغلال التقارير وإعداد التلخيص:

تستغل التقارير وتلخص على المستويات التالية :

- مستوى مقاطعة التفويض المدرسي الابتدائية: يجمع كل ممثل مقاطعة تقارير مديري المدارس الابتدائية التابعة له ويشكل لجنة بيداغوجية للقيام بحوصلة هذه التقارير ويرفع هذه الحوصلة إلى مدير التربية بالولاية.
- مستوى الدائرة بالنسبة للمتوسطات والثانويات : يرفع تقارير المؤسسات إلى ممثل مدير التربية الذي يرأس اللجنة البيداغوجية الدائرة، حيث تقوم بحوصلتها وتحولها إلى مدير التربية الولاية.

- مستوى مديرية التربية للولاية : يقوم مدير التربية للولاية بجمع تقارير الدوائر ومناقشات المفتشين ومنسقي أسلاك التفتيش وبعد حصيلتها لينا لاستغلالها في الانتشار التي يقوم بها على مستوى مديريته. وبعد ذلك يقوم مدير التربية باعداد تقارير شامل حول الانتشار بالولاية وفق المحاور الأربعة المحددة للتفتيش، وهي :

- البرامج التطويرية للتطور الإلزامي :
- تكوين المفتشين وتحسين مستواهم :
- ظروف التمدن و تكافؤ فرص النجاح :
- عصرية التدبير البيداغوجي والإداري.

ويساهم مدير التربية بتقريره الشامل إلى رئيس الندوة الجهوية :

- مستوى الجهة: رئيس الندوة الجهوية + مدير التربية المعتمدين. في هذا المستوى تحق ندوة جهوية لدراسة حوصلة تقارير مختلف الولايات التي تعدها لجنة تقنية يعينها رئيس الندوة الجهوية. وبعد اعتماد التقرير الجهوي المعد وفق المحاور المحددة للتفتيش ويرفع إلى وزارة التربية الوطنية.
- مستوى وزارة التربية الوطنية.

تقرير لجنة المتابعة

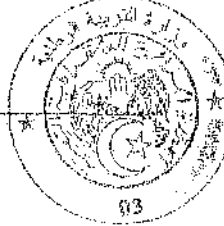
الأجال	تلاخيص التقارير	الاجراء الاستشارية
من 02 فبراير 2013		- التمرير على لائحة أسبوعي التربية
من 03 إلى 11 فبراير 2013		- المؤسسات التعليمية
من 03 إلى 11 فبراير 2013		- مراكز التفتيش
من 13 إلى 21 فبراير 2013	مقاطعات التفتيش الابتدائي (المدارس الابتدائية)	
من 13 إلى 21 فبراير 2013	دوائر الولاية (المتوسطات، الثانويات)	
من 24 إلى 28 فبراير 2013	مديريات التربية	
من 5-6 و 7 مارس 2013		- الولايات
من 10 إلى 11 مارس 2013	مديريات التربية	
من 18-19 و 20 مارس 2013	الندوات الجهوية	
من 24 إلى 25 مارس 2013	وزارة التربية الوطنية	
من 10-11 أبريل 2013		- الخدمات الوطنية

إن المقصود بهذه العملية هو إجراء تقييم مرحلي للإصلاح حسب الأهداف المتعمدة له في القانون التوجيهي للتربية الوطنية وذلك بغرض الوصول إلى تشخيص مشترك للوضع الراهن بمدارسنا ومعرفة نقاط قواها وضعفها ونجاحاتها وكذلك صعوباتها أثناء السنوات العشر الأخيرة (انظر ملحق 3).

ومن خلال الملاحظات والاقتراحات و التروس الهامة التي تستخلص من الحوار سيكون السعي إلى نقل أفكارنا من أجل تطوير منظومتنا التربوية في الاتجاه السليم.

ولأجل هذا التوضيح المذكور فإننا نولي بالغ الأهمية لإجراء الاستشارة وفق الرزمة المصعدة وتوسيع مجال التفكير إلى مجموع أعضاء الجماعة التربوية، فاعلمين وشركاء، و عموم الأشخاص الراغبين في المساهمة في نجاح هذه العملية الأساسية بالنسبة لمستقبل بلادنا وشبابنا.

رئيس الديوان  
عبد الحكيم بلعابد



ماتحتي ١٤

### مشكلة الموضوعات المقترحة للاستشارة

الموضوعات البرامج التعليمية المتعلمين الإثرائي:

يشكل فعل التطوير البيداغوجي المورد الأساسي والعنصر المحرك لكل عملية إصلاح. توجه العمل في هذا الإطار إلى البدء في تطوير البرامج التعليمية أولاً. لذا كان الإصلاح من خلال مركبة البرامج مياراً استراتيجياً باعتبارها الرافد الأساسي للتحويل النوعي للتعليم والأداة المفضلة لتسيير القيادة التربوية في الاتجاه الذي يترجم ميدانياً غايات المنظومة التربوية إلى ضمانين.

إن إعداد البرامج المدرسية والنشاط التربوي الذي يرافق تنفيذه يكتمل بهذه الكيفية كل أهمية ويبرز الاعتماد على أنواع التعليم التي جاءت بها علوم التربية وكذا مكتسبات المنظومات التربوية الأكثر نجاحاً في العالم. ومن هذا المنطلق، فإن فعالية المنظومة التربوية تقاس أكثر فأكثر بحصول الكفاءات المسقطة لدى المتعلمين بالرجوع إلى الغايات والطلب الاجتماعي والاقتصادي. إن هذا التحول الهام في توجيه التربية والتكوين قد أدى بنا إلى تفضيل مقارنة البرامج بالكفاءات المركزة أكثر على تجنيد المعارف باعتبارها موارد لحل الوضعيات المشكلية القريبة من الوضعيات المعيشية.

ومن الطبيعي فإن اختيار مشغل الكفاءات لا يمر بدون أثر على تصور البرامج ومنهجية إعدادها (بمنظور النتائج) وعلى المقاربات التعليمية ومكانة الوسائط التعليمية، وكذا تكوين المتعلمين مع التمكن من التكوين وممارسة وظائفه.

وبهذا المنظور وبمضاد عن خصوصية ميادين المعارف ومجالات المواد التي تتكفل بها، فإن البرامج السعدية التنفيذ في إطار التطوير البيداغوجي يجب أن تجسد بالتكامل مع المكونات الأخرى للمنظومة التربوية أهداف اكتساب المعارف وتنمية المواقف والتحكم في الكفاءات وتنمية القيم والنحى بها مع ضمان تطور شامل للمنظم. ما هو الحال في الواقع العملي الميداني؟

موضوعات فرعية للمناقشة :

- ضمانين البرامج المدرسية (الشمولية، الاتساق، قابلية الاجاز، قابلية القراءة، قابلية التقويم، الوجاهة أو الملاءمة).

- تنظيم الزمن المدرسي.

- الملاءمة بين مضامين البرامج والحجم الزمني.

- المعاملات المسند للمواد.

- جهاز مراقبة البرامج.

- الوثائق المرافقة

- عمليات الإثراء والتكوين

- مساهمى التعليم - التعلم.

- الوسائل التعليمية.

- التقويم البيداغوجي.

تخصيص (البرامج)  
تخصيص أوقات التعليم البيداغوجي  
تخصيص مساحات للتعليم  
المشاركة بالاداءات

F

## الموضوع 2: تكوين المعلمين وتحسين مستواهم :

لقد ثبت أن قيمة البرنامج مرتبطة بنوعية المدرس الذي يطبقه وبالتالي تتجلى ضرورة وضع نظام تكوين وتحسين الأداء يكون مستقرا ومنسجما وملائما من أجل التكفل الفعال بالإصلاح في الميدان العملي لممارسة القسم، وبناء عليه يتوج بفرص نجاح أكبر للتلاميذ.

إن هذا النظام المبني على ضرورة رفع مستوى تأهيل موظفي التعليم والتأطير والتزامهم يهدف إلى تجسيد مهنية مختلف الوظائف التربوية (التدريس، التقويم، التفويض، السراقة، التأطير، التوجيه، الإرشاد والعلاج) ويمثل أحسن ضمان لنجاح الإصلاح وتحسين جودة الخدمات التي تقدمها المنظومة التربوية.

إن استشارة مختلف فاعلي السبورة التربوية ستساهم في إعداد استراتيجية فعالة ومنسجمة للتكوين تأخذ بعين الاعتبار الوقائع الميدانية والنقائص المسجلة وتتكفل بجميع التجهيزات المدرجة في إطار الإصلاح.

موضوعات فرعية للمناقشة:

1. توظيف المدرسين.
2. تكوين المعلمين وتحسين مستواهم.
- 1-2. التكوين الأولي للموظفين المنتمين للأسلاك المختلفة :
  - من حيث التنظيم ؛
  - من حيث توجيه المضامين (ملمح التخرج).
- 2-2. التكوين أثناء الخدمة
  - جهاز التكوين الأكاديمي عن بعد ؛
  - التحسين المستمر: للمدرسين.
  - لموظفي التأطير.
- 2-3. التكوين المتخصص لموظفي التأطير التربوي والإداري.

الموضوع 3 : ظروف التدريس وتكافؤ فرص النجاح :

أن التحدي المزدوج لجودة التعليم ونمقرطته باعتبارهما مفتاح التنمية المستدامة هو خيار استراتيجي يسمح بالالتقاء من حق التدريس إلى حق النجاح ويجعل من المدرسة الجزائرية مدرسة للجميع تلبي لكل واحد فرصة النجاح.

والتمييز عن النجاح المدرسي يعني أن لا يعرفه التفاروت بين فرص التدريس وتباين نوعية المؤسسات الرسمية والفوارق التي يمكن أن توجد بين الجنسين أو بين المجموعات الجغوية والمناطق أو بين الأفراد أنفسهم.

وتلخيص من المطلوب أن يكون العمل على تبهني المساواة والإلصاف مع اتخاذ تدابير وآليات بإمكانها التخفيف من اللامساواة و الفوارق وتساعد على ضمان تكافؤ فرص النجاح.

إن تحسين ظروف تدريس أستاذنا يمر حتما بالحفاظ على وتيرة المجهودات التي تبذلها الدولة وباحترام أهالي إنجاز هياكل التنظيم والدعم المبرمجة، ومن أجل الوصول إلى رفع قدرات استثنائي التلاميذ و التفرغ من مؤشرات التدريس التي استهدفها الإصلاح، لابد من مواصلة بذل الجهود من حيث وتير : الإنجاز الخاصة بالبرنامج الجاري.

ويبني التأكيد بأن الجزائر سجلت نسبة تدرس تفوق 98% من التلاميذ البالغين سنوات ونسبة تفوق 95% من فئة من 6 سنوات إلى 15 سنة، وهذه نسب ذات اعتبار قياسا بالنسب المسجلة في نظم ثانوية أخرى مدفوعة في العالم، غير أن ما يؤثر سلبا على مؤشرات التدريس وتدهيب في تفاوت بين الولايات وبين المؤسسات في نفس الولاية يكمن في مشكلة الضغط الناجم عن ارتفاع معدود التلاميذ خاصة في السنة الأولى ثانوي وعن وجود نظام النوام المزروح بالمدرس الابتدائية يجب مواصلة المجهودات من أجل بلوغ أهداف الإصلاح من هذا المجال وتحسين نسبة امتثال المعلمات.

ونؤكد أيضا على ضرورة تجديد التجهيزات المخبرية العلمية والمعلوماتية مع الأخذ بعين الاعتبار جانب الجودة بغية ضمان إنجاز الأعمال التطبيقية، وكذا التجهيزات الملحقة مثل ملاعب الرياضة والمكتبات وأجهزة التكييف في الجنوب والندفة...

موضوعات فرعية المناقشة :

- ظروف التدريس :
- إمكانية التدريس المدرسي ؟
- التكفل بالأطفال ذوي الحاجات الخاصة 2008
- الأقسام متعددة المستويات بالمادة الابتدائية
- عمليات الدعم المدرسي :
- اليد الفرجية المتساوية (أو الفارقة) والمعالجة الشبه (شوجية) :
- الاستفادة من التجربة المغربية.

الموضوع : مسرعة التغيير البنيادي والإداري :

إن التغييرات البنيادية التي جاءت في إطار الإصلاح تترجم إعادة تحديد مهنة المدرسين ودورهم الأولياء، ومجال الاستقلالية والمبادرة التي تتمتع بها المؤسسات ذلك لأن قدرة المدرسة على أداء مهامها بفعالية مرتبطة بتحقيق جودة سير المؤسسات التعليمية.

تتجلى مسؤولية المدرسة في مجال التربية ونجاح التلاميذ وفق عدد من التوجيهات من بينها :

• تبني مسمى مشروع يتضمن تحديد الإيرادات والطاقات والمهارات في المؤسسة. يعتمد هذا المسمى على التغيير الشاركي والاستعمال التقني الوسائل الموفرة والالتزام بالنتائج.

إن الأهداف المشتركة بين جميع أعضاء الجماعة التربوية في المؤسسة وكذا أنماط العلاقات بين المتعلمين والشركاء يجب أن تكون مسجلة ضمن عقد جماعة. يستلزم الإطار التقني لمشروع تربوي تحمل المسؤولية المتقاة على عاتق المؤسسة التعليمية وكذا مسيرتها، وتنمية روح الانتماء للجماعة التربوية والانسجام داخل المؤسسة مع تحسين جودة الحياة فيها وترقية ثقافة التقويم والمعالجة.

• بروز قيادة عن قرب للمؤسسات باستطاعتها تحسين سياسة تميز إيجابي وفارقة مميزة عندما يتعلق الأمر بنشاطات مستهدفة ومكيفة مع واقع مؤسسات ذات مردود مدرسي ضعيف.

• استعمال تكنولوجيايات الإعلام والاتصال في التغيير البنيادي والإداري للمؤسسة التربوية .

إن تعلم هذه التكنولوجيايات خارج ضمن المناهج يندرج أداة تغيير أساسية ووفق مادة تعليمية متميزة أو أداة في خدمة تعليم بقية المواد.

بإسهام تكنولوجيايات الإعلام والاتصال في التنمية المهنية للمدرسين وتحسين تسيير المدرس بتولد تطور نمط تسيير المؤسسات التعليمية والمنظومة التربوية وبذلك تدعم رقي المدرسة.

موضوعات أخرى للمناقشة -

- إعادة تشييع المجالس؛
- خطة المشروع في مختلف المستويات تنفيذ السياسة التربوية: المؤسسات المدرسية، المنظمات التأسيسية لاتحادتي، منبريات التربية؛
- مشروع المؤسسة،
- مشروع المقاطعة التأسيسية،
- مشروع المصالحة
- استعمال تكنولوجيايات الإعلام والاتصال في التغيير البنيادي والإداري ؛
- إخراج تكنولوجيايات الإعلام والاتصال في تعليم المواد ؛
- تعليم الإعلام الآلي ؛
- تحسين الحياة المدرسية.

ملحق 2

مطابق منهجية عمل الجلسات وتصميم التقارير

- اجراء الاستشارة وتقديم التقرير -

- 1- الوضعية الميدانية:
- الملاحظات، نقاط القوة :
  - جوانب التصميم :
  - عوامل ضعف نقاط، نقاط ضعف، اختلالات.
- E. J. de la...*
- ملاحظات الورقة رقم 10 من 10  
المستوى: المحور الثاني والخامس

2- تحديد أسباب التفتت، الملاحظة

3- اقتراحات إجراءات تعالجية والتحصين:

فيما يخص :

- استراتيجيات التدبير
- آليات التخطيط والتسيير :
- شروط الإنجاز :
- تسيير الموارد البشرية والمادية والمالية :
- المراقبة، المتابعة، التقييم والتقييم
- خطوط التطوير الممكنة والمأمولة على المدى المتوسط والبعيد الطويل.

ILTA Code of Ethics

*Principle 1*

Language testers shall have respect for the humanity and dignity of each of their test takers. They shall provide them with the best possible professional consideration and shall respect all persons' needs, values and culture in the provision of their language testing service.

*Principle 2*

Language testers shall hold all information obtained in their professional capacity about their test takers in confidence and they shall use professional judgement in sharing such information.

*Principle 3*

Language testers should adhere to all relevant ethical principles embodied in national and international guidelines when undertaking any trial, experiment, treatment or other research activity.

*Principle 4*

Language testers shall not allow the misuse of their professional knowledge or skills, in so far as they are able.

*Principle 5*

Language testers shall continue to develop their professional knowledge, sharing this knowledge with colleagues and other language professionals.

*Principle 6*

Language testers shall share the responsibility of upholding the integrity of the language testing profession.

*Principle 7*

Language testers in their societal roles shall strive to improve the quality of language testing, assessment and teaching services, promote the just allocation of those services and contribute to the education of society regarding language learning and language proficiency.

*Principle 8*

Language testers shall be mindful of their obligations to the society where they work, while recognizing that those obligations may on occasion conflict with their responsibilities to their test takers and to other stakeholders.

*Principle 9*

Language testers shall regularly consider the potential effects, both short and long term on all stakeholders of their projects, reserving the right to withhold their professional services on the grounds of conscience.

NB. The annotations, some quite lengthy, have been omitted here for reasons of space. They may be consulted on the ILTA home page: [http:// www.ilta .com/](http://www.ilta.com/)

However, it is worth remembering, that *“What a code of ethics does is to remind us of what we already know, that language testers are a serious organization, committed to a social purpose, to maintaining standards, to upholding the rights of all stakeholders and to working professionally with colleagues. It is important to spell out in a code of ethics what this means, but there is something to be said for the conclusion that Alderson, Clapham and Wall. (1995) came to, that being ethical in language testing could be guaranteed by the traditional precepts of reliability and validity”* (Davies, 2008, p. 441).

## About the iBTOEFL Test

The *TOEFL iBT*® test, administered via the Internet, is an important part of your journey to study in an English-speaking country. In addition to the test, the ETS TOEFL Program provides tools and guides to help you prepare for the test and improve your English-language skills.

### What Is the TOEFL iBT Test?

The TOEFL iBT test measures your ability to use and understand English at the university level. And it evaluates how well you combine your listening, reading, speaking and writing skills to perform academic tasks.

### Who Takes the TOEFL Test?

More than 27 million people from all over the world have taken the TOEFL test to demonstrate their English-language proficiency. The average English skill level ranges between Intermediate and Advanced.

- Students planning to study at a higher education institution
- English-language learning program admissions and exit
- Scholarship and certification candidates
- English-language learners who want to track their progress
- Students and workers applying for visas

### Who Accepts TOEFL Test Scores?

More than 8,500 colleges, agencies and other institutions in over 130 countries accept TOEFL scores. For more information, including using your scores to satisfy visa requirements in Australia and the United Kingdom, how to find institutions that accept TOEFL scores, and more, see [Who Accepts TOEFL Scores](#).

### Where and When Can I Take the TOEFL iBT Test?

The TOEFL test has more test dates (more than 50 per year) and locations (**4,500 test centers in 165 countries**) than any other English-language test in the world. You can retake the test as many times as you wish, but you cannot take it more than once in a 12-day period. If you already have a test appointment, you cannot register for another test date that is within 12 days of your existing appointment.

## TOEFL iBT® Test Content

The TOEFL iBT® test is given in English and administered via the Internet. There are four sections (listening, reading, speaking and writing) which take a total of about four and a half hours to complete.

### Combining All Four Skills: Listening, Reading, Speaking and Writing

During the test, you are asked to perform tasks that combine more than one skill, such as:

- Read, listen and then speak in response to a question
- Listen and then speak in response to a question
- Read, listen and then write in response to a question

### TOEFL iBT Test Sections

Section	Time Limit	Questions	Tasks
Reading*	60–80 minutes	36–56 questions	Read 3 or 4 passages from academic texts and answer questions.
Listening	60–90 minutes	34–51 questions	Listen to lectures, classroom discussions and conversations, then answer questions.
Break	10 minutes	—	—
Speaking	20 minutes	6 tasks	Express an opinion on a familiar topic; speak based on reading and listening tasks.
Writing	50 minutes	2 tasks	Write essay responses based on reading and listening tasks; support an opinion in writing.

The test you take may include extra questions in the Reading or Listening section that do not count toward your score. These are either questions that enable ETS to make test scores comparable across administrations or new questions that help ETS determine how such questions function under actual testing conditions.

Please read the timing instructions for the Reading Section carefully. The instructions will indicate how many passages you will receive and the amount of time you have to respond to questions for those passages. Be sure to pace yourself so that you have time to answer all the questions.

A standard English language (QWERTY) computer keyboard is used for the test. We recommend that you practice typing on a QWERTY keyboard before taking the test.

### **Native-speaker English Accents**

Beginning in March 2013, the Listening and Speaking sections of the TOEFL iBT test include other native-speaker English accents in addition to accents from North America. You may hear accents from the United Kingdom, New Zealand or Australia.

ETS is adding these accents to better reflect the variety of native English accents you may encounter while studying abroad.

Below are examples similar to what you might hear in the Speaking and Listening sections.

#### **Listening Section**

Listen to a talk about the [greenhouse effect \(MP3\)](#). The lecturer is from Great Britain.

#### **Speaking Section**

In the Speaking section, only items 1 and 2 of the six tasks may have accented speech. Below are two examples similar to what you might hear. The speakers are from Great Britain. In each instance, the example is 15 seconds long, and you would have 45 seconds to respond.

Audio File	Transcript
<a href="#">Item 1 (MP3)</a>	If friends from another country were going to spend time in your country, what city or place would you suggest they visit? Using details and examples, explain why.
<a href="#">Item 2 (MP3)</a>	Some people enjoy taking risks and trying new things. Others are not adventurous; they are cautious and prefer to avoid danger. Which behavior do you think is better? Explain why.

Do you think that dictation has a place in the modern English language classroom?

In my classes I use dictation as listening practice. If a student is able to recognize "spelling" based on a sound he hears, he is likely to become more independent and to infer meaning more easily. Understanding the phonetic structure of a language is an important step on understanding pronunciation patterns. For Brazilian students that is very important, seen that Portuguese has a completely different phonetic structure. Also, when watching a film, listening to the radio, or even talking to someone on the street: if a student is unable to infer the meaning of a word, or expression, but is able to spell this word or expression (even if it has some little mistakes) it becomes easier for this student to look this expression up in a dictionary or reference book.

I believe all techniques play a very important part in the learning of a foreign language. Teachers must only be aware of the implications of a certain technique. What are the pros and cons of that technique? what do teachers want to accomplish with that technique? Dictation, in my opinion should not be used as a precision technique, students do not need to spell all words correctly. In my opinion, the goal of dictation is to give direction, to provide the learner with tools that will help him succeed in the foreign language.

I often use short (9-12 words or word combinations) dictations to make children learn spelling and meaning. It usually takes 5-7 minutes at the beginning or at the end of the lesson. At the beginning we just write English words to check spelling or make English-Russian/Russian-English translation. But at the end of the lesson I prefer making up sentences with new words.

Well, I don't use dictation owing to time constraints, classes are shorter than ever and this practice is quite time consuming. But I agree that it may be helpful in some cases. Specially in the case of a student who has spelling problems...

Yes, I think that dictation has a place in the modern English language classroom. We need to use it every time to see the meaning of something.

It is clear that the skills of reading, listening, writing and speaking are needed to acquire languages either mother tongue or foreign language. A major question to be considered is the role of dictation in the learning of languages in the classroom.

For most of us, it is rarely to hear the word "dictation" in the English tests as well as English courses. If looking into its function, however, it is a combination of skills of reading, listening and writing. Therefore, it is necessary to be dictation while studying English language in the classroom. There are many ways to conduct dictation, one of them is a teacher or student gives dictation while other students take it. Alternatively, a cassette or MP3 player can be used to replace the teacher to give dictation.

Thus, it is important to have dictation sessions in the classroom, I would argue that, at least, dictation helps to improve crucial skills for English learners.

In my opinion, I think using dictation is very important for teaching and learning English. We don't need big dictations to make students confuse. In fact, if we have free time, just simply use the small tests before starting lessons. Make them funny. I think they will help students to learn deeply!

I think dictation does have a place in the modern English classroom even though it may be seen as a rather traditional type of task. English spelling is tricky but one needs to have a grasp of the basics, whatever one does with one's English. Even if the message gets across in a company, e.g. in an e-mail, dreadful spelling does not give a very good impression of one's firm.

Students need, moreover, to learn about how word stress and spelling are linked to one another, by this I mean there are word pairs which can only be differentiated from one another by their stress pattern, e.g. although/also or laboratory/lavatory. Get the stress wrong and the brain is getting wrong messages. The brain needs to hear the right words as quickly as possible.

I don't use dictations as a means of testing as such, i.e. that a dictation is tied to a grade system.

Two activities I particularly like are:

- the running dictation, which is fun and spreads the pressure as the whole team is trying to get it right and shares responsibility
- dictogloss. I think this is a good way of teaching students to reformulate language. It is not important to get every word down but rather the gist. Students need to learn that they don't need to take a message down verbatim and thus keep having to ask "could you repeat that, please?". In one's native language, one can reformulate sentences quickly whereas in a foreign language it takes a bit of time but can, nevertheless, be practised. Short note-taking exercises help. And again, done in a small group means the stress is spread and students are working together and helping one another.

Dictation can be a very useful tool for teaching a foreign language for every learner except for elementary-level learners, perhaps. The level and volume of the passage for dictation can easily be adjusted to meet the level of the students. It can be an article from a newspaper. It can be a story from a book, or it can be something you make up. It doesn't even have to be a complete dictation, which requires the students to write down every word. It can be a partial dictation, where the students just have to fill in the brackets in the story they listen to and do not have to write down the whole story. Of course, the number of the brackets can be anything to suit the students. When I give dictation, the students concentrate a lot better than simply have them listen to a story for comprehension. I honestly do not understand why there should be a question at all about whether dictation has a place in modern English language classroom or not. Of course, it has. The question should be how can it be best used.

In my classroom dictation plays a major role in which I find what level my students are up to. Particularly when I check their books I find that they have made many mistakes and thus dictation is a sort of indirect feedback to me.

I use dictation regularly to reinforce a student's learning. It's usually short text, a sentence or two at most. Listening, repeating, summarising and writing. This uses hearing, speech, active thought and written output. We then correct the spelling and

grammar of the written text, so the student learns on that level too. The student can then use his or her own notes, the dictation, to study after class.

I use dictation regularly in my classes and find my students benefit in many ways. One Slovakian student told me how much her English had improved since I'd introduced dictation into each lesson. So what are the benefits?

Firstly, it helps students to listen carefully to the sounds of the English language, the pronunciation, the tone and intonation. It is surprising how good they are at picking up the sounds, even if they can't spell the words correctly. I always congratulate them if they have interpreted the right sound, even though the spelling is wrong.

Secondly, they have the opportunity to grasp the meaning of the words used in context. I try and choose a topical and interesting subject which will, I hope, encourage them to fully understand the text.

Thirdly, I always introduce new words above their present competence because they will meet these words in everyday living. Most of my students are long-term residents in the town where I teach, so extending their vocabulary is essential for them and welcomed by them.

Fourthly, some students have difficulty in forming letters and words and dictation aids their improvement. If they choose (as some do) they can take home the text and practise their writing skills in between lessons.

I sometimes use dictations in my classes and I consider them a very good activity not only as a listening task, but also as a writing one. I generally use them as a warm up and spend from 5-10 minutes of my class. I can assure that they really work if the teacher is able to make it a fun experience to the students encouraging them to exchange ideas during the correction.

N.B. Please note that we were not able to publish all comments

Bait Park Secondary School - hennaya - 2011/2012

Level: 3<sup>rd</sup> Year Classes

Scientific stream - GE - TM - M

Time allocated: 2 Hours ENGLISH THIRD TERM EXAM

PART ONE: reading comprehension (10pts)

Our solar system

Our solar system consists of an average star we call the sun, the planets Mercury, Venus, Earth, Mars, Uranus, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, Neptune and Pluto. It includes: the satellites of planets; numerous comets, asteroids and meteoroids; and the interplanetary medium. The sun is the richest source of electromagnetic energy (mostly in the form of heat and light) in the solar system. The whole solar system, together with the local stars visible on a clear night, orbits the centre of our home galaxy, a spiral disk of 200 billion stars we call the Milky Way. The Milky Way has two small galaxies orbiting it nearby, which are visible from the southern hemisphere. They are called the Large Magellanic Cloud and the Small Magellanic Cloud. The nearest large galaxy is the Andromeda Galaxy. It is a spiral galaxy like the Milky Way but it is 4 times as massive and is 2 million light years away. Our galaxy, one of billions of galaxies known, is travelling through intergalactic space.

The planets, most of the satellites of the planets and the asteroids revolve around the Sun in the same direction, in nearly circular orbits. When looking down from above the Sun's north pole, the planets orbit in a counter-clockwise direction. The orbits the Sun in or near the same plane, called the ecliptic. Pluto is special case in that its orbit is the most highly inclined (18 degrees) and the most highly elliptical of all the planets. Because of this, for part of its orbit, Pluto is closer to the Sun than is Neptune. The axis of rotation for most of the planets is nearly perpendicular to the ecliptic. The exceptions are Uranus and Pluto, which are tipped on their sides.

1. Are there any passive sentences in the first paragraph? If so, how many?

2. Are the following statements True or False?

- The solar system consists of ten planets.
- Our planet earth doesn't belong to the solar system.
- The sun is a star which gives light and heat
- The planets orbit the sun in different directions.

3. Answer the following questions according to the text.

a) In what way are the planets similar to the satellites of the planets?

b) • Why is Pluto closer to the Sun than Neptune?

5. Match the words with their synonyms

- a. consists                      1. many
- b. numerous                    2. almost
- c. revolve                       3. Is composed
- d. nearly                         4. orbit

section two: (14 pts)

1. Fill in the table with the missing word category

VERB	NOUN	ADJECTIVE
	Energy	
		circular
Reflect		
		Inhabited

2. Rewrite sentence (b) so that it means the same as sentence (a).

1/ a. the Earth is more remote from the sun than Mercury.

b. Mercury is.....

2/ a. the solar wind can be measured by spacecraft.

b. Spacecraft.....

3/ a. "scientists believe that the Solar System evolved from a giant cloud of dust and gas," he said.

b. he said that.....

3. Fill in the gaps with only six words. (Take, length, to, how, orbit, around, way, top)

All the planets take different amounts of time to get all the way around the Sun. our Earth takes a year to make one complete orbit. In fact, that's how we decided how long a year should be - it's the length of time it takes us to get all way around the Sun.

4. Classify the following words according to the pronunciation of their final "s"

Includes- Stars - Takes - Galaxies - Billions - Gases

/s/	/z/	/ɪz/
-----	-----	------

Part two: Written expression. Choose one subject: (5pts)

Subject 1. The super powers: America and Russia have been sending expensive missions to the space to explore the solar system.

Do you think the money is well spent? Should there be more expensive space researches carried out for more discoveries of other planets?

Subject 2. Imagine what will happen if an asteroid (small rocky body) hits our planet Earth?

Samuelia Secondary School The 3<sup>rd</sup> Term English Exam

Form: 3AS / 3<sup>rd</sup> Gest / E

3M / 3TM

**PART ONE: Reading**

**A. Comprehension (8pts)**

Read the text carefully then do the activities.

Working children lives are difficult not just because of their work. Their families are poor or they have no families and no resources. Because they have no education, they are condemned to be poor all their lives.

The British charity Save the Children says that it is important to talk to child labourers to find solutions. Not all work is bad or dangerous. In some cases, if children can't work, they or their families can't survive. Boycotts of products made using child labour result in the children being forced to do more dangerous work. Save the Children supports projects that give young workers access to education and better working conditions.

For example, in the Democratic Republic of Congo, teenagers from poor families receive some money to start businesses. They can buy products to sell at the market and make some money. Because they are the bosses, they can choose when to work and they have money to pay for school.

Embroiderers like Nancy can go to classes organized by Save the Children. The charity also helps them get reasonable pay for their work. Nancy says, "Now we know that our products sell very well in Europe. Before, I didn't know how much money I received. It was written down. I couldn't read it. I used to think it was a good idea to ban products made by children. But I live in the practical world, and I'm very concerned about my family. For large families, it's very important for at least one or two children to work. If we don't work, our families won't survive."  
Adapted from Easy Going, summer 2003

**1. Are the following statements true or false?**

- a. Working children have bad education.
- b. The only reason why children work is that their families are poor.
- c. Work is not always dangerous for children.
- d. In the Democratic Republic of Congo, all the families with teenagers receive money.

**2. Answer the following questions according to the text.**

- a. Why is the boycott of products made by children not good for them?
- b. Before Save the Children's help, what wasn't Nancy able to do?
- c. Nancy knows that the boycott is not a good thing to do. Explain her awareness.
- d. What happens if children do not work?

**3. What or who do the underlined words refer to in the text?**

- a) Their (§1):
- b) we (§4):

**4. Which title is the most appropriate for the text?**

- a) Teenagers and Poor Families
- b) Working Children
- c) Nancy, the Embroider

