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Abulkacem Saadallah –University of Algiers 2-

Faculty of Foreign Languages

Department of English

Depth of Educational Change in the LMD Reform: Investigating Teachers' Beliefs and Practices of English Language Teaching at Blida 2 University (Algeria).

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Submitted by:
Ms. Hind Sail-Terki

Supervised by:
Prof. Faiza Bensemmane

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Board of Examiners

Chair: Prof. Zoulikha Bensafi, University of Algiers 2

Supervisor: Prof. Faiza Bensemmane, University of Algiers 2

First External Examiner: Prof. Dalila Brakni, University of Blida 2

Second External Examiner: Dr Salima Maouche, University of Bejaia

Internal Examiner: Dr Samira Arar, University of Algiers 2.

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Signed: Mrs. Hind SAIL

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Dedication

*This modest work is dedicated to my most loving supporters:
my mother, my father, my husband, my only sister and my brothers.*

It is also dedicated to my angels Maria and Sirine.

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List of Abbreviations

L2: Second/foreign Language

B2U: Blida 2 University

MHESR: Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

ICTs: Information and Communication Technologies

Glossary

Agency: one's ability to act with a personal and/or a professional objective in mind.

Bologna Declaration: an agreement among some European ministers to apply a well defined programme to reform Higher Education.

Capitalism: an economic system based on the private ownership of the means of production and their operation for profit.

Continuing Professional Development: a continuous review of one's knowledge, skills and practices.

Competency-based Approach: a teaching approach which seeks to develop the competency of the learner composed of knowledge, skills and behaviours.

Electronic Networks: virtual means of communication among practitioners.

Globalisation: is the process of interaction and integration among people, companies, and governments worldwide.

Information and Communication Technologies: technologies such as Internet and different software devices that provide access to information through telecommunications

Neoliberalism: a capitalist economic approach based on the market economies.

Professional Learning Community: a group of practitioners such as teachers or tutors who meet regularly to share expertise in order to improve their teaching/tutoring and the learning of their students.

Quality Assurance: an on-going process of evaluating the quality of a teaching and learning in Higher Education institutions.

Social Capital refers to the potential of individuals, families and communities and the way they provide benefit to their groups.

Top-down reforms: are reforms initiated by higher order institutions in the country such as the government or the ministries.

Tutoring: the act of sustaining and supporting students along their process of learning.

Abstract

Any educational reform initiative is supposed to cause change and this change is deep when it proves to have an impact on the beliefs and practices of the teachers. The present mixed-methods confirmatory case study aims at examining the depth of the educational change entailed by the Algerian LMD reform of higher education in the English Department of Blida 2 University. It seeks to answer the following research questions: 1. did the reform cause change in teachers' own beliefs about teaching and learning? 2. did it cause change in their teaching approaches and practices? 3. did it cause change in the use of new instructional materials? In theory, the LMD curriculum should create change by shifting teachers' beliefs towards a more learner-centred orientation, making teachers as well as tutors adhere to learner-centred practices and encouraging the use Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in teaching and learning. Taking into consideration the failures of top-down models of reform worldwide and the absence of in-service trainings on the practice of the LMD teaching principles generated this hypothesis: a no-deep educational change situation happened in the context under study. Two research tools were utilized to triangulate the results obtained after analyzing data collected from the students, teachers and tutors. In this respect, a questionnaire was administered to both master students and teachers, an interview was conducted with tutors and a focus group interview was achieved with first year degree students. Results have revealed that the dominant orientation of the beliefs of the teachers is teacher-centred, their teaching is moderately learner-centred, tutors are completely absent from the educational scene and ICTs are not frequently used inside the classroom. These findings suggest a surface type of educational change

in the teachers' beliefs and practices and confirm the previous hypothesis. One of the main implications of the study is the need to develop agency in teachers and tutors. This can be achieved through the use of electronic networks to teachers and tutors as a bottom-up approach to implement innovations. These networks should be reflective and collaborative in nature to provide a supportive environment for the inquiry of the practitioners.

Key words: Educational Change- Algerian LMD Reform- EFL Teachers' Beliefs- EFL Teachers' Practices- Tutoring- Learner-centredness- Continuing Professional Development- Professional Learning Communities- Agency- Electronic Network

General Introduction

Since 2004, a number of universities in Algeria have implemented a learner-centered teaching approach, introduced along a wave of reform in Higher Education, known as the LMD system. Through this reform, the government's main objective was to rethink the curriculum (syllabi, teaching approaches and methods, techniques and materials, and assessment methods). They aimed also at aligning curricula, methods and materials with international standards.

Innovations were supposed to result from the introduction of the LMD reform and the adoption of a learner-centred approach in particular. Teaching and learning principles were meant to be different from traditional teacher-centred approaches that had been previously used for many years. Students were expected to be responsible and involved in their own learning; rote memorization and relying on teachers were no longer the only source of knowledge.

The fact that the LMD reform brought about certain innovations does not necessarily imply a real change situation in the terrain. Teachers as the real agents of change in any reform effort (Fullan 2016) may find it very challenging to accept innovations. These latter may constitute a major obstacle to change since they may hold beliefs that belong to the teacher-centred forms of instruction. In this respect, research should play a great role to help educationists understand better both teachers' beliefs and practices to pave the way for a successful reform.

The LMD reform has been operating in the English Department at Blida 2 University (B2U) since the academic year 2007-08. This reform involved systemic change at many levels. So, what are these teachers' new roles in teaching that they are expected to adopt in the new LMD curriculum? And what are their beliefs about teaching and learning?

A review of the relevant literature (Branson, 2010; Hargreaves, 2005; Fullan, 2007, 2016) on educational change reported the inappropriateness of top-down models of reform worldwide. In fact, across all levels of education such as schools and universities, a general picture about the failures of policy makers to cause a real educational change was often depicted.

Concerning the context of the present doctoral research, the situation is not different. In 2007, when the LMD curriculum was set up in the English Department of B2U, I started a Magister research study entitled: Exploring English Language Teachers' Teaching Style: A case study at Blida University, English Department. This research was based on the Classical English degree course since the LMD English degree course was not yet generalized to all degree levels; a few first year LMD classes only were implementing the LMD curriculum.

The results obtained from this magister research are worth being considered. They revealed a dominance of a teacher-centred teaching style among teachers and few aspects of learner-centredness in class. Learner-centred teaching practices were found to be related only to building a positive classroom climate and relating English language learning to students' experience.

Although this case study was undertaken with only ten university teachers, it helped to draw some preliminary conclusions. Seemingly, there exists a discrepancy between the ideal learner-centred approach advocated in the literature (Nunan, 2004; Tudor, 1993; Weimer, 2002) and the teacher-centred approach practised in reality (Azzi, 2012; Bensemmane, 2011; Idri, 2012). In addition, the findings suggested that teachers were not ready for change since the majority was teaching in a traditional way and none of them (including those teaching in the LMD degree course) received any training.

Since 2007, when the LMD reform was launched, no governmental decision has been issued by the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (MHESR) to

start any kind of pre-service or in-service teacher training to embrace change in the English Department of B2U.

Being a researcher and a member of the community of English language university teachers, I was concerned about the teaching and learning situation in the English Department where I am teaching. Consequently, I set up to undertake a doctoral research in order to evaluate the teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to the educational change resulting from the LMD reform. The ultimate goal was to confirm the success or failure of the LMD reform and bring suggestions to improve the EFL teaching and learning situation in this context.

Fullan (2016) considers educational change as a non-single entity involving many levels such as the teacher, the principal or administrator, the student, the parents or community and the government. Among these levels, Fullan believes that the one closest to instruction and learning is the level of the classroom or the teacher. According to him,

There are at least three components or dimensions at stake in implementing a new program or policy: (1) the possible use of new or revised *materials* (instructional resources such as curriculum materials or technologies), (2) the possible use of new *teaching approaches* (i.e., new pedagogies especially learning partnerships with students), and (3) the possible alteration of *beliefs* (e.g., pedagogical assumptions and theories underlying particular new policies or programs. (Fullan, 2016, p.28; italics in original)

The three dimensions as listed above are not put by Fullan in an order of priority. In fact, he considers the second and the third dimensions about developing new teaching skills and approaches and understanding conceptually what and why an act of reform should be done, to represent much more fundamental change. Fullan (2016) believes that change in relation to teachers' beliefs and practices takes a longer

time or years to happen. However, once they happen, they have a greater impact and can cause a real or deep Educational Change or a lasting reform.

Taking the three previous dimensions into account, I decided to examine the depth of Educational Change in the English department of B2U. In order to achieve that, the practitioners' beliefs about teaching and learning and their teaching practices within the LMD reform are explored. The concern of the study can therefore be shaped under the following research question:

Main RQ: Did the LMD reform, implemented in the English Department of B2U, result in a deep educational change?

To answer this question, three sub-questions were formulated as follows:

- a. Did the reform cause change in the teachers' own beliefs about teaching and learning?
- b. Did the reform cause change in their teaching approaches and practices?
- c. Did the reform cause change in the use of new instructional materials?

These research questions in addition to the various achieved studies on educational reforms worldwide and in Algeria led to the following hypothesis: "there is no-depth of educational change in the teachers' beliefs and practices in the English Department of B2U".

The above three questions follow Fullan (2016)'s own emphasis on the significance of change in beliefs and practices (compared to change in the use of new teaching materials) in causing a lasting educational change. Finding answers to these questions would unveil the depth of educational change in the English Department under study and provide a better picture of teaching within the reform.

In order to be able to deal with the issue of educational change in relation to the research questions above mentioned, three chapters were devoted to reviewing related literature. The first one provides Fullan's (2016) definition and analytical framework

of educational change. It attempts to trace the origin of the LMD reform in Algeria and finally, it analyses the changes resulting out of the LMD reform using Fullan's (2016) framework.

The second chapter defines the concept 'beliefs' and the factors influencing its formation. It examines some issues in relation to research on beliefs and examines the orientations and nature of EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. This chapter also considers the connection between beliefs, practices and educational change. The third chapter discusses the teaching practices of the LMD teachers using Weimer's (2002) framework. After critically reviewing relevant literature, chapter four explains the study's research design, data collection procedure and analysis. The fifth chapter presents and analyses the results of the case study. Chapter six interprets the results, discusses their implications, suggests some recommendations and points to the limitations of the study.

Chapter One:

Educational Change and the LMD Reform

Introduction

This chapter deals with educational change and its relation to the LMD reform. I will first provide a definition of educational change and a description of the framework for analysing change suggested by Fullan (2016). Next, there will be a brief historical account of the LMD reform in Algeria, tracing it back to the Bologna Process and comparing it with European models of reform. It finally analyses the changes resulting out of the LMD reform using Fullan's (2016) framework.

1.1 Fullan (2016)'s Definition of Educational Change

Educational change is a complex term to define. Several definitions (Constantinescu, 2013; Fullan, 2016; Le Fevre, 2014; McGrath, 2008) are reviewed in this chapter in an attempt to work out an operational definition of educational change for the purpose of the current doctoral research.

Educational change has been defined by Le Fevre (2014) as involving complex processes operating at different levels. She illustrates the individual level by pointing out the changes in teachers' beliefs and reactions to the overload imposed by a reform. She also refers to the organizational and systemic levels by relating them to the type of trust relationships and exchanges between leaders, teachers, parents and students. Constantinescu (2013), in his turn, provides a definition which refers to change in the educational system or the implementation of a set of methodologies, actions, arrangements, institutional commitments and instruments. The aim of the change, according to him, is to provide a better training for the executors of the reform.

Another top-down view of educational change, as provided by McGrath (2008), explains change as the implementation of international best practices that are believed to have strong theoretical and/or empirical basis and to be universally true. In fact, this

definition can explain educational change that has revolutionized the Algerian educational context lately. In Algeria, two types of reforms occurred in the educational system: the school reform (2005) which set up the Competency Based Approach (CBA) for schools and the university reform (starting from 2004) which established the LMD curriculum for university studies. In fact, both reforms stressed learner-centredness which is believed to have strong theoretical foundations and cause true learning outcomes.

The last definition of educational change is the one suggested by Fullan (2016). According to him, educational change is not a single entity; it is related to many levels such as the teacher, the principal or administrator, the student, the parents or community and the government. Fullan believes that among these levels, the one closest to instruction and learning is the level of the classroom or the teacher whereby change may occur in relation to teachers' beliefs, the teaching approaches and the use of instructional resources.

Fullan (2016)'s definition is quite useful because of its three dimensions which characterize educational change and which resonate with our research concerns. Fullan went beyond relating change to only observable phenomena such as the way teachers teach in class; he related the success of any reform initiative to the teacher's hidden, psychological and cognitive construct called beliefs. In this vein, he states: "changes in beliefs and understanding are the foundation of achieving lasting reform." (Fullan, 2016, p.37).

Fullan believes that a change in beliefs is the most difficult innovation to happen in comparison to change in the teaching approaches or the use of new materials. This is due to the fact that "they (beliefs) challenge the core values held by individuals regarding the purposes of education. Moreover, beliefs are often not explicit, discussed, or understood, but rather buried at the level of unstated assumptions." (Fullan, 2016, p. 36)

1.2 The LMD Reform: a Brief Historical Account

This section deals with the origin of the Algerian reform in Higher Education which has set up the LMD system in Algerian universities since 2004. For this purpose, it defines the Bologna Process as a top-down model of reform in Europe. It also addresses its worldwide impact and the birth of the LMD system in Algeria. It closes by discussing the differences between the Algerian LMD reform and European reforms in general.

1.2.1 Bologna Process as a Top-down Model of Reform in Europe

The Bologna Process is a top-down model of reform in the sense that it is the outcome of a policy decision or a series of debates among initially four European ministers. Some factors caused the implementation of this reform and other factors caused its spread all over Europe. The following section goes back in time to trace the source of the reform. Then, it displays the reform's most significant objectives and developments.

According to Stanilav (2011), the origin of the Bologna Process idea started in France through some university reform attempts, often referred to as the Attali's Report of 1998. The report aims at enabling transfer from universities to Grandes Ecoles through the harmonisation and segmentation of studies. It also reforms university research institutes in order to contribute to the country's economy by comparing them with their American and British counterparts. In fact, the Bologna Process started as a French issue and it was transformed into a European concern. Indeed, four ministers of France, Germany, Italy and the UK met in Sorbonne in 1998 and they agreed to sign the Bologna Declaration in Italy with 25 other European countries a year later.

The Bologna Declaration "is not a legal treaty" but "a working program with precisely defined goals, steps and deadlines." (Pechar, 2007, p.112) Basically, the declaration aimed at creating a European unification process or the European Higher Education Area by the year 2010 in addition to adopting the Anglo-Saxon (American

and British) structure of studies known as the three-plus-two or Licence plus Master degree (Stanilav, 2011).

As envisaged in the Bologna Process, a European Higher Education Area (EHEA) was indeed formed in 2010. The creation of the EHEA had direct implications in terms of developing a comparable level of higher education across countries in Europe. Another important meeting among European higher education ministers was held in Bucharest in 2012 to further underline the value of promoting mobility, employment and quality across European universities (Crosier, & Parveva, 2013). The impact of the Bologna Process was not confined to European countries; its effect went much beyond the European borders.

1.2.2 Impact of the Bologna Process and Birth of the LMD System in Algeria

Since 2005, the Bologna Process has witnessed a worldwide impact. There seemed to be a mutual interest for Europe to export the Bologna Process outside its territory and for non-European countries to embrace this reform. The adoption of the Bologna Process happened also in the Maghribian countries, including Algeria.

The first few years of the Bologna Process were concerned with establishing an intra-European coordination among European universities. However, starting from the year 2005, the Council of Ministers issued the following statement on the ‘external dimension’ of the European Higher Education Area in the famous Bergen Communiqué:

We see the European Higher Education Area as a partner of higher education system in other regions of the world, stimulating balanced student and staff exchange and cooperation between higher education institutions. We underline the importance of intercultural understanding and respect. We look forward to enhancing the understanding of the Bologna Process in other continents by sharing our experiences of reform processes with neighbouring regions. We stress the need for dialogue on issues of mutual interest. (West, 2010, p.26)

Two years later, at a ministerial conference in London, the Council of Ministers adopted a strategy called the European Higher Education Area in the Global Setting. This strategy outlined the following five priority areas: improving information on the European Higher Education Area, promoting European higher education to enhance its world-wide attractiveness and competitiveness, intensifying policy dialogue, strengthening cooperation based on partnership and finally, furthering the recognition of qualifications (West, 2010). All these priorities further assert the willingness of European ministers to consolidate cooperation among higher education systems inside as well as outside Europe.

Crosier & al. (2013) stated numerous initiatives in different regions of the world which indicate the impact of the Bologna Process worldwide. For example, in Latin America, the Inter-American Organisation for Higher Education initiated a programme to create a Latin American and Caribbean Higher Education Area. Similarly, in West Africa, 15 countries signed an agreement to promote student mobility. Initiatives were also made to create a South-East Asian higher education space. As a matter of fact, by the year 2012, 47 countries were implementing the Bologna Process.

It is significant to note that exporting the Bologna Process to other countries of the world serves Europe in the first place. According to Aristotelis (2006), this will help European education to respond quickly to the impact of Globalisation, to prevent academic migration to the USA and to make foreigner ‘consumers’ more attracted to study in Europe. Non-European countries also benefit from the spread of the Bologna Process. According to Crosier & al. (2013), they may create harmonized higher education systems and diplomas that would be mutually recognized to facilitate the mobility of students and workers, they may prevent brain drain and adopt some effective Quality Assurance (QA) mechanisms. Quality Assurance generally refers to a continuous process of evaluating and improving the quality of education in Higher Education. (Vlăsceanu, Grünberg, & Pârlea, 2007 cited in Milliani, 2013).

As a matter of fact, the European Bologna Process model had its influence on the Maghrebean countries before issuing the 2005 Bergen Communiqué statement.

Because Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco have systems of education based on the French model, the influence of the Bologna Process there was inevitable. West (2010) calls this type of influence ‘the colonial legacy factor’. In Algeria, some of the French system Bologna Process principles and tools were introduced in few pilot universities in 2004-2005 and they constituted mainly of the three-plus-two degree (Licence or Bachelor + Master) and the credit transfer systems (Bennouar, 2013; Daghbouche, 2011).

To summarise, the impact of the Bologna Process all over the world served the interests of both European and non-European countries. In reality, there were official decisions stated through the Bergen Communiqué (2005) and the conference of London (2007) to coordinate work among European and non-European countries in their commitment to the Bologna Process. The Maghreb seems to constitute an exception since the effect of the Bologna Process in those countries appeared earlier.

All three former French colonies (Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco) structured their higher education systems along similar lines to the Bologna-inspired French qualifications framework. Thus, the LMD system that is now part of the French/European higher-education landscape is being used as a model to promote higher education reform in the Maghreb in general and in Algeria in particular. Even though the LMD reform has some similarities with the European model, it has differences, too.

1.2.3 Differences between the Algerian LMD Reform and European Reforms

A comparison between the current higher educational systems in both Europe and Algeria reveals many differences despite the fact that they both derive from the Bologna Process. The two systems differ in the reasons for adopting the Bologna Process, in the funding system and in the reform’s objectives.

In Europe, the Bologna Process was considered by policy makers as a suitable choice which took an economic power aspect. In Algeria, the situation was different in the sense that the adoption of the Bologna Process or the LMD system was a self-evident political task caused by the colonial legacy which exists between Algeria and

France (West, 2010). In Europe, the Bologna Process was a projection of Neo-liberal changes or market economies in higher education. These changes reflected extreme capitalism and rejected social democratic policies. They had roots in Marketisation or what has been recently referred to as the New Public Management, a policy which supports less reliance on state and public funding or a fusion of public and private management (Stanilav, 2011). Some scholars like Aristotelis (2006) held a skeptic view about the rapid growth of the knowledge society all over the world and the focus on efficiency in European universities. In this respect, he made a call to face or reduce the impact of Globalisation and the penetration of market forces into Higher Education.

Unlike European universities, Algerian universities have relied on Public Management. This latter has roots in what is known in economy as the Centralised Policy or the Associative Sector. In fact, all Algerian universities are being financed by the central government or the Ministry which is responsible for providing free schooling for students. In reaction to this situation, some scholars like Daghbouche (2011) suggests for experts to establish a link between the Algerian University and the market place at national and international levels.

In Europe, the implications of the Bologna Process are apparent in relation to the creation of Quality Assurance mechanisms such as the European Quality Assurance Register (Crosier et al., 2013). However, in Algeria, the LMD system was superficially evaluated and insufficiently analysed especially during the first years of its application. According to Djamaa (2013), Algerian decision makers' talks set up objectives around the system's structure (i.e. Licence, Master and Doctorate degree levels) and its grading mechanisms such as mobility and credits only; they did not focus on the system's efficacy such as establishing Quality Assurance.

Quite recently, the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research acknowledged to necessity to address the issue of efficacy within Algerian higher education institutions and for that sake, an action plan was launched starting from the year 2008. In this respect, a number of international conferences and workshops were

organized. Later on, in the year 2010, Quality Assurance systems had started across some pilot Algerian universities such as Tlemcen, Constantine, Skikda, Algiers 1, Boumerdes and Oran. The government has meant this evaluative programme to be fully established in all universities by the year 2030 (Bouzid, Berrouche, & Berkane, 2013; Milliani, 2013).

The above comparison between the Algerian and the European reforms in Higher Education revealed a number of differences. Although the two systems advocate the Bologna Process, university in Europe has become an enterprise-like place and in Algeria, it has moved from a mass to 'a masser' higher educational system. And between the two, efficacy or quality will always remain the concern of both systems. What really seems not to count against the Algerian university is that it preserved what Stanilav (2011) calls the positive characteristic of social capitalism by keeping university as a right to personal development rather than an instrument of economy and investment.

Algeria, like many European and non-European countries, has committed its higher educational policy to the implementation of the LMD Scheme. The decisions to adopt this new scheme were purely top-down since they were legislated and initiated by Algerian higher education policy makers. Innovations, resulting out of the reform, may offer a possibility for implementing a real educational change process in Algeria. The next section examines aspects of educational change as defined by Fullan (2016) and seeks to find out about their presence or absence in the Algerian LMD reform.

1.3 Analysing Change in the LMD Reform Using Fullan's (2016) Framework

This section investigates the three aspects of educational change as suggested by Fullan (2016) with reference to the LMD reform. Fullan's three aspects, already defined in section 1.1 are:

1. Change in beliefs about teaching and learning.
2. Adoption of a new teaching approach

3. Use of new instructional materials

Each of these aspects is examined below.

1.3.1 Change in Beliefs about Teaching and Learning

Fullan (2007, 2016) considers change in teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning as a key aspect of any educational change initiative since it differentiates an educational change 'on the surface' from a 'deep' reform or 'a lasting' educational change. A change on the surface happens when teachers do not specifically understand the principles and rationale of the reform. Fullan argues that teachers may use new teaching materials and adopt new teaching behaviours through an imitation of some teaching practices presented to them without understanding why they should do so.

Thus, a change in teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning implies an understanding of the reasons why they should apply new teaching and learning principles and abandon old practices and it is crucial to happen if policy-makers target a deep lasting educational change. In relation to this issue, it seems important first to understand the historical development of different pedagogies in Algerian Higher Education and then to review studies on EFL teachers' beliefs in the LMD context.

1.3.1.1 Existing Pedagogies in Algerian Higher Education

In Algerian Higher Education, pedagogy (i.e. the nature of teaching methods) has gone through changes. Those changes occurred in different periods before and after Independence and they have their roots in different reforms such as the 1971 and the 2004 Reforms.

Before Independence in July 1962, the colonial French project in Algeria had a very clear policy to assimilate Algeria as a geographical area and consider it as an integral part of France through La Francophonie (i.e. creating a French speaking cultural world). As a consequence and because the majority of Algerian inhabitants continued to wish to be Muslims and Arabic speakers, they were excluded from citizenship for the totality of the period of the colonial rule (Kay, 1998). Schools at

that time were following the French model and only a very few minority of Algerians could complete a university degree especially that there was only one university in Algeria, the university of Algiers, in 1962.

Because Algerian people were so attached to their religious heritage, this provided them with incentives to develop education in order to read and learn the Quran in Quranic schools or in mosques. Such schools were among the creations of the Reformist Movement led by the Al-Umma or the Muslim nation in the 1930s. Instruction was offered in the Quran, the life of the Prophet and in the grammar, structure and forms of the Arabic Language. It provided an alternative education option to that of the French schools (Kay, 1998).

As a reaction to the above described situation, post-independence educational efforts, in general, were intended as a vehicle to restore the national heritage of popular culture and create a national identity by substituting the “Eurocentric curriculum with an Arabic/African one” (Allard, & McKay, 2002, p. 25). As a result, the educational programmes were algerianised through their adaptation to the local realities (Kay, 1998). Another effort, during this period, was to expand the system of Higher Education to give students universal access through the 1971 Reform.

The post-independence 1971 Reform in Higher Education was also characterised by Arabisation as an essential aspect of development in Higher Education (Daghbouche, 2011). Arabisation consisted of progressively replacing French with Arabic as the medium of instruction in all tertiary institutions by 2000 (Allard & al., 2002). According to Miliani (2012, p.219), this nationwide policy was backed by ideas of supranational pan-Arabism based on Islamic identity, summed up in the concepts of ‘Al-Ummah’ or the ‘Muslim nation’. This in turn created a clash or a rivalry between the supporters of Western pedagogy or ‘francophone elites’ and Islamic pedagogy or ‘arabophone elites’ (Miliani, 2012, p.219).

To summarise, the educational scene in Higher Education after independence witnessed supporters of two different pedagogies which were respectively the outcome

of different schools: Ecole Francaise and Free medersas. Ecole Francaise refers to some leading and prestigious education institutions or universities of the French Post-Revolutionary period (after the 1789 Revolution). A specific example is Ecole Polytechnique which was military in origin and retained certain of its traditions until recently. Free medersas refers to schools which were founded after independence in Algeria with the specific intention of preserving what were considered to be Muslim and Arab values against a background of French colonial education policies (Kay, 1998). Even though the two schools Ecole Francaise and Free medersas, have two different origins, they are based on the lecture-rota memorization system.

In fact, this pedagogy based on learning by heart had become woven into the fabric of Algerian education so that the fact-acquisition orientation to instruction became dominant. The teachers and their teachers were themselves products of the French and Islamic educational heritage thereby automatically perpetuating the system (Allard, & al., 2002). Despite conflicting and often contradictory sentiments towards its former colonial power, Algeria remained closely linked to France economically, politically and culturally (Yahia, 1999). In the field of education, this is apparent through the second major reform in Higher Education that marked the birth of the LMD reform system in 2004.

The objectives of the LMD reform considered the mobility of students as a priority and this priority, according to Daghbouche (2011, p.468) constituted “a shift from a more Algerianisation to a more Europeanisation of higher education.” The LMD based pedagogy proved to be different from the former existing Western French and Islamic pedagogies. Whereas the latter pedagogies are purely teacher-centred and relate to fact memorization and recall, the former LMD pedagogy is learner-centred, based on the personal work of the student to construct his/her knowledge.

To conclude, three major types of pedagogy have characterised the higher educational scene in Algeria after Independence. The first two types are the Western Colonial (French) pedagogy and Islamic pedagogy which advocate the same teaching practices; they are both teacher-centred and they much depend on rote-learning. The

third type of pedagogy is the Western European (LMD) pedagogy, currently characterizing Higher Education in Algeria. This pedagogy is based on learner-centred teaching principles and requires students to take responsibility for their own learning.

However, the Algerian university teacher seems to be the main person responsible for defining the type of pedagogy to apply in class. It has to be noted that by the time the LMD scheme was launched at B2U in 2007, EFL teachers had not yet received any in-service training; the ministry of higher education did not plan for any official training to teachers to embrace change and understand the reasons why they should apply the learner-centred LMD pedagogy and this situation can only leave us with a skeptic view about the possibility of a successful reform in the English Department of B2U.

1.3.1.2 Studies on EFL Teachers' Beliefs in the LMD Context

When reviewing studies on EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning in the LMD context, three of them are worth mentioning: Azzi (2012) and Bensemmane (2011, 2017). It was interesting that these studies were qualitative in nature since they resulted in drawing significant insights about the orientations of Algerian EFL teachers' beliefs.

Bensemmane (2011) conducted a study to inquire into university teachers' identity construction and their dual experience as learners of English and teachers of English. It addressed the following main question: What perceptions, conceptions and beliefs of English learning and teaching do the teachers bring to the classroom? Ten junior teachers from the English Department of Algiers 2 University participated in the study. Their teaching experience was between 3 and 10 years and they received no pre-service training, except for a Didactics course in the final year of their undergraduate degree for a Licence degree and a theoretical course on language teaching methodology at post-graduate level for a Magister degree.

The respondents e-mailed their narratives to the researcher after self-reflecting on six suggested questions. The analysis of the teachers' discourse revealed that they

exhibited a sense of enthusiasm and passion towards succeeding in their job. In addition, all teachers believed in continual reflective practice and they aligned themselves with contemporary education. The teachers seem to understand correctly concepts such as critical reflection, strategies, student-centred teaching, interaction, critical thinking, autonomy, teacher-centred teaching, grammar rule learning and memorizing.

According to Bensemmane, the teachers were learning to teach through teaching to forge their own sense of agency. They took as their responsibility the task of learning how to teach with the LMD curriculum and this transformed them into more motivated teachers, interested in what they do, pro-active, creative and inventive. In a more recent study within the same EFL context of Algiers 2 University, Bensemmane (2017) reported findings which corroborate with those of her previous study in the sense that teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the reform and its implied learner-centred principles remained positive.

Azzi (2012) conducted a similar study in another Algerian university context (Ferhat Abbas University, Setif) to examine the perceptions of 12 EFL teachers towards the pedagogical innovations prompted by the LMD reform. The results demonstrated that most teachers were rather pessimistic and held negative beliefs about the LMD curriculum. Teachers believed that implementing practices as described in the LMD curriculum such as designing contents, adopting a learner-centred pedagogy and using an on-going assessment would probably not add significant improvements to the quality of teaching and learning.

Azzi argues that all these beliefs might have impacted negatively on the application of the LMD curriculum since it was viewed as time and effort consuming. Teachers did not believe that the LMD curriculum would cause students to improve their learning or teachers to develop professionally because of the lack of training on the principles and application of the LMD curriculum and material design resources.

According to Azzi (2012), one of the significant issues to ponder in relation to the situation described above is nurturing a need for change among teachers to achieve quality. “They should be shown that the traditional practices are defective and that to remedy this situation they need to adopt new ones to keep pace with the developments in the pedagogical management at the university level” (Azzi, 2012,p. 1013).

The two previous studies were conducted in two different university contexts and reported contradicting results concerning teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning with the LMD curriculum. The teachers’ beliefs or perceptions in Bensemmane’s study were positive and those in Azzi’s study were negative. Despite this fact, the two researchers agreed on the necessity to make teachers understand and reflect on their teaching. In the same vein, Fullan (2007) comments:

The use of new materials by themselves may accomplish certain educational objectives, but it seems obvious that developing new teaching skills and approaches and understanding conceptually what and why something should be done and to what end, represents much more fundamental change, and as such will take longer to achieve but will have a greater impact once accomplished. (Fullan, 2007, p.36)

1.3.2 Use of New Teaching Approaches

This section attempts to establish the link between the LMD reform and its new underpinning learner-centred teaching approach. Learner-centredness, the student-centred approach or the collaborative mode is a philosophical approach to teaching which focuses on students’ needs, what and how they are learning and the conditions which contribute to their learning (Nunan, 2004; Weimer, 2002). This approach is often opposed to teacher- centredness which is based on lecturing, note taking and memorizing information (Maclellan, & Soden, 2004).

Learner centredness was informed by research into learning styles and strategies (Oxford, 1990; Willing, 1988) as well as conceptual and empirical work in the area of learner autonomy (Benson, 2002). However, the educational psychological movements

that underlie learner-centredness are both the humanistic approach (Carter, 1993; Tudor, 1993) and the constructivist approach (Jonassen, 1991; Roberts, 1998). In addition to drawing the connection between the LMD reform and learner-centredness, this section examines the major findings of research achieved in relation to EFL teachers' teaching approach in the LMD context.

1.3.2.1 The LMD Curriculum as a Learner-centred Approach

Throughout a review of the official MHESR documents and regulations, I could not come across a citation which openly states that the LMD system is learner-centred. Nevertheless, it has been noticed that the terminology which is used in those documents describes an underlying approach which centers on the learner; concepts such as 'learner autonomy' and 'responsible learners' were quite frequently employed in official texts. Moreover, a link was established between the source of the LMD system (i.e. the Bologna Process) and the learner-centred teaching approach.

As a matter of fact, a connection between the Bologna Process and student-centredness, is asserted in the following ministerial communiqué:

European higher education also faces the major challenge and the ensuing opportunities of globalization and accelerated technological developments with new providers, new learners and new types of learning. Student-centred learning and mobility will help students develop the competences they need in a changing labour market and will empower them to become active and responsible citizens (Leuven & Louvain-la-Neuve, 2009, p.1).

In addition to the established relationship between the Bologna Process and the learner-centred approach, literature (Azzi, 2012; Bensemmane, 2012; Idri, 2012) also reports the direct link that exists between the LMD curriculum and Learner-centredness. These scholars have often urged educators to innovate some of their practices and adopt a more learner-centred approach instead of the teacher-centred one.

Indeed, a link between the LMD system reform and learner-centredness was established by referring to special terminology based on the learner and used in official texts, by establishing a connection between the source of the LMD system (i.e. the Bologna Process) and learner-centredness and by stating different scholars (Azzi; 2012; Bensemmane; 2012; Idri, 2012) who openly relate the LMD system to learner-centredness. The next section attempts to examine the EFL teaching realities within the LMD context in some Algerian universities.

1.3.2.2 Studies on EFL Teaching Approaches in the LMD Context

A review of some research that examines the application of the LMD teaching and learning principles in some Algerian university contexts of English instruction is necessary. We have come across five studies by Azzi (2012), Bensemmane (2013, 2017), Idri (2012) and Sarnou (2012) and most of them reported that the LMD teaching and learning principles were not or were hardly applied.

A study reported by Bensemmane (2013), with newly enrolled students, investigated the issue of learner autonomy and learner-centred pedagogy in relation to the LMD reform at university. It was conducted in the department of English at the University of Algiers in 2010. Through interviews, the researcher sought answers to the following questions: how far is the concept of learner autonomy understood and integrated into students' learning habits? How do students react to learner-centred pedagogy and are they ready to become autonomous learners? And how do teachers react to the learner-centred pedagogy?

The results revealed that first year students like teachers who dictate their lecture, read and explain handouts thoroughly and give little or no homework. They also like group and pair-work to have fun and express themselves in English but they prefer individual work when it comes to serious work such as doing their assignments. Students also feel anxious about meeting deadlines for submitting their homework, doing extra reading, consulting and using sources and prioritizing their tasks. The

researcher concluded that first year students entering university have difficulty to take responsibility for their learning.

Bensemmane also found that tutoring sessions which were organized weekly to provide students with key skills to become autonomous learners, were not really efficient. Finally, she concluded that the concept of learner autonomy was viewed as a 'western concept', inadequate and not easily accepted in the Algerian educational context. Looking at teachers' reactions and attitudes, she asserted that teachers could not give up their teacher-centred habits of controlling the class. The few teachers that embarked on the LMD teaching experience (in 2009) did not feel that they were professionally ready to prepare a new LMD curriculum and to manage a complex assessment system involving both formal and informal tools.

In addition, a mismatch was noted between teachers' expectations to produce high standard performing students and students' main goal to pass exams. This was explained by the pressures originally generated from the influential national examination, the Baccalaureat exam which created in students an examination culture rather than a learning culture. In fact, both students' and teachers' attitudes and expectations were generally not positive and the issue of autonomous learning was rather downplayed in the reform.

Some matters of concern were highlighted by Bensemmane (2013) such as the role of the tutor in co-constructing student autonomy, the need to think about adequate means and ways to enable students to develop study and learning skills (e.g. the use of the library and cyber spaces). She also highlighted the real significance of continuous assessment in indulging students in deep learning and thinking.

Suggestions were made such as the necessity to find alternative models of language learning and teaching that would fit into the Algerian social, cultural, economic and political context and that would create a revolution in student culture. Also, the need to set up teacher development and teacher training programmes that would deal with the issues of leadership and mentoring at all levels of education. In

addition, it was suggested to put schools and universities to work together in partnerships in projects to improve learning, teaching and research (Bensemmane, 2013).

In a later study, Bensemmane (2017) interviewed eight EFL female teachers from Algiers 2 University in order to find out about their beliefs and practices concerning the learner-centred LMD reform as well as the constraints they faced when teaching and how they responded to them. The interview was semi-structured whereby teachers were prompted to narrate their teaching events and experiences with little intervention on the part of the researcher. After collection, data was analysed using a qualitative interpretive method.

The findings revealed that teachers were convinced, through their readings mainly, that the learner-centred approach embedded in the LMD reform should replace the teacher-centred traditional way of teaching at university. Their practices, even though they were not sustained by any sort of professional development programme, were marked by some attempts to develop learning groups' autonomy through the application of pair and group work. In fact, teachers were learning to teach through reflection on their action and through consultation and collaboration with their colleagues.

However, some constraints related to class size and availability of resources in addition to learners' deeply rooted idea of relying on the teacher as the knower and the only resource of knowledge hindered teachers as well as learners from becoming more autonomous and learner-centred. Those constraints left teachers confronted to an inevitable situation in which they adopted old teacher-centred modes of instruction.

In a small-scale survey, Azzi (2012) investigated one of the possible factors inhibiting Algerian EFL teachers from adopting LMD pedagogical practices, namely their perceptions. The study was conducted in the Department of English Language and Literature at Ferhat Abbas University, (Setif/ Eastern Algeria) with 12 teachers. The main research instrument was a 12-item questionnaire which was meant to assess

teachers' perceptions towards the adoption of the LMD system in comparison with the Classical one using a 5 point Likert scale (strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, strongly disagree).

The findings revealed that the LMD system's pedagogical practices such as the responsibility of teachers to develop the content of their courses, the adoption of a learner-centred approach and the provision of an on-going assessment were not perceived advantageous. Participant teachers mentioned that the situation did not change from that of the old classical system in the sense that quality of teaching did not improve and rewards like tenure and promotions were absent.

The results also demonstrated that innovative LMD practices (content of the programs, learner-centred approach and on-going assessment) were not perceived as congruent with their past teaching experiences, beliefs about teaching and needs. In other words, the three previously mentioned practices required more change in teachers' behaviour since they were perceived as different from their traditional ways of teaching. In addition, teachers did not believe that it was their responsibility to practise them or that the new LMD system could satisfy the needs of the Algerian student to become competitive at the international level.

The study revealed that the teachers' new practices were perceived as difficult to adopt. They believed that they needed to be highly qualified, to have enough time and material resources (instructional material and infrastructure), to exert an intense effort in order to be able to design by themselves the content of the programs, to adopt a learner-centred approach and to assess students continuously.

The above results revealed that teachers negatively perceived the pedagogical innovations prompted by the LMD reform in Algeria and those beliefs seemed to have a direct influence on the application of the reform in the terrain. Idri (2012) also described a similar situation at Bejaia University and listed many interfering factors. She comments:

Yet, one cannot deny that employing what the LMD System suggests remains impossible [...] These grounds are related to the unawareness of the system itself by its users, to the limited tools and means together with their employment, to the specialised teachers, to the number of full-time teachers, etc. (Idri, 2012, p.2176)

Idri (2012) offered a pessimistic and negative view about the possibility of successfully applying the LMD reform principles. But this qualitative study considered the students' views only and not the teachers' views towards the change brought about by the LMD innovation. It was conducted with twelve students enrolled in a Master's degree at the English Department of Abderrahmane Mira University in Béjaia (Eastern Algeria). They were asked to fill-in an online journal with six open-ended items. Qualitative data were collected over one month.

The results demonstrated that the teachers' teaching practices did not reflect an educational change; respondents reported a negative attitude towards the adequacy of the teaching approach and the use of ICTs. More specifically, syllabus design and content lacked quality and did not consider the students' needs and abilities due to the teachers' lack of qualification and interaction with students. These factors, according to students, prevented teachers from becoming more learner-centred in their teaching style.

Sarnou (2012)'s study uncovered more positive and optimistic attitudes of teachers and students. This qualitative study was carried out in Mostaganem University (Western Algeria). It investigated both teachers' and students' attitudes towards the implementation of the LMD reform, its contribution to EFL teaching and the difficulties and challenges met by EFL teachers to integrate ICTs in class.

In this study, thirty LMD students (from L1- L2- M1- M2 levels) were interviewed via a semi-structured interview. Also, ten Classical system students (from the 2nd-3rd and 4th years) were interviewed and ten EFL teachers were administered questionnaires. After collecting data over three academic years (from 2009 to 2011),

both LMD teachers' and students' responses revealed positive views regarding the application of the LMD reform principles.

The results demonstrated that teachers held optimistic views about the teaching situation even though they were not trained on how to meet difficulties when implementing the LMD reform. These teachers were determined to overcome obstacles and use ICTs in class. Sarnou (2012) explained that the source of the positive views of teachers lied in the efforts of the pedagogical staff in the department to improve teaching and learning.

Similar results were obtained with both LMD and Classical students who suggested also positive responses towards the role of LMD reform. For them, the LMD system offered internationally recognized degrees and newly well-designed syllabi. Sarnou concluded her study by highlighting the significant role of the LMD reform in promoting EFL teaching and learning.

In view of the studies described above, it seems that a gap exists between the theoretical approach advocated by the LMD top-down reform and its practice in reality. Indeed, research demonstrated that applying learner-centred LMD principles constituted a real challenge in the Algerian higher educational context. Similar studies, conducted in other Algerian universities, pointed out the same kind of problems faced by both students and teachers.

In fact, most Universities suffer from a lack of trained teaching staff, computers and technological means, tutorials (TD) sessions, laboratory assistants and teacher trainings on how to apply the LMD curriculum (Bouhadiba, 2013; Daghbouche, 2011; Idri, 2005). All these findings can only leave us with a gloomy picture about the possibility of an educational change in the LMD reform in relation to teachers' practices.

As a conclusion to this section, one can state that in theory, the LMD curriculum reflects change in the teaching approach and recommends a shift towards a more learner-centred pedagogy. However, a pessimistic view prevails towards a

successful application of LMD principles in EFL classes in Algerian universities. The next section is concerned with analyzing the third aspect of educational change in the LMD reform, the use of new teaching materials.

1.3.3 Use of New Instructional Materials

It has been observed that in the LMD reform, official ministerial documents recommend the use of ICTs in instruction in addition to traditional ways of teaching. In this respect, teachers are required to make the course materials available to their students by all means. They can use the traditional way and provide students with books and handouts or adopt the modern way of creating online courses (Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche Scientifique [MESRS], 2011).

It has also been noticed that official texts recommend students to use ICTs. In order to attain outcomes in learning, LMD teaching institutions should provide students with all possible learning resources such as libraries, Internet and e-learning (MESRS, 2011). In addition, all second year Licence degree students should attend a course in relation to Computing as part of their teaching programme's transversal teaching units (MESRS, 2011).

It is argued that the overall goal behind combining both traditional and technological means of teaching and learning is to encourage students to become more self-directed and autonomous in their learning by updating both the teachers' teaching methods and the students' learning skills and strategies (MESRS, 2011). Thus, one can conclude that the use of ICTs by teachers and students constitutes one of the dimensions of educational change in the LMD reform.

Nowadays, the use of ICTs in EFL teaching and learning does not seem to pose a problem anymore after the spread of the Internet. In fact, hand-held devices, social networking software and teaching and learning web-site resources have become available to teachers and learners (Kirkwood, & Price, 2005; Zuochen, & Zuotang, 2015). This will be demonstrated in detail in the next section.

1.3.3.1 Use of Technologies in an EFL Context

The use of ICTs such as language labs, videos, satellite broadcast, video conferencing and web seminars has permitted the distribution of knowledge and learning with more flexibility (AbdulMahmoud, 2010). The present section describes the shift in LMD teachers' roles when using ICTs, the different possible uses of technology in the EFL context and the obstacles preventing teachers from adopting ICTs in class.

Within the LMD reform, teachers need to cope with technological paradigm shifts from teacher-centred to learner-centred teaching and learning environments. The adoption of ICTs in teaching and learning in Higher Education has caused the roles of language teachers and students to change. According to Lam & Lawrence (2002), in the new era of technology, the teacher acts like a “facilitator, a resource person and a counselor rather than the only authority and decision-maker” (p. 305). Cronje (2016) describes these roles as follows:

There is a clear move away from lecturing towards more flexible models of information, exchange and facilitation of learning. Blogs, podcasts and even video-casting are interesting alternatives to lecturing. The role of academic as instructor has changed. Teachers are becoming writing mentors and orchestrators rather than stage performers. (Cronje, 2016:134)

Traxler (2016) underlines the significant role of mobile devices in delivering knowledge in a different way from lectures. He explains that in its earliest forms, knowledge and learning came from the lecture, in a substantial linear format from “an authoritative sage-on the stage” teacher. However, through mobile devices, knowledge is presented in a chunked, structured and connected way (Traxler, 2016:400).

In order to describe the current technologies available at universities and how they are exploited, Cronje (2016) referred to different elements of the physical university and how they are virtually represented or partly replaced in the virtual world of technology. For example, a website with a log in system can replace a university's

campus and inform students in different areas such as administrative and academic issues. Online study guides and video casts such as You Tube and podcasts may substitute lectures. Software such as spreadsheets and word processing may virtually take the place of laboratories. The same for seminar rooms which may be replaced by chat rooms and the obvious parallel for cafeteria and dormitory rooms is Facebook. All these examples illustrate the different uses of ICTs at university.

Jarvis (2004) studied the classroom applications of computers on EFL courses in 19 higher education universities in the UK which offered Non-Native Speakers (NNS) some General English, English for Specific Purposes and other courses. Results demonstrated that Internet or 'the WWW' was the mostly used computer based programme in comparison to word processor, Power-point, Excel and foreign language programmes.

Traxler (2016) discussed the use of mobile devices in learning at universities in the UK and Western Europe in general. In this context, he comments:

Mobile devices affect many aspects of the processes by which knowledge, ideas, images, information and opinions and hence learning are produced, stored, discussed, distributed, delivered and consumed. They are part now of a system that allows [...] students to generate, transform and transmit content for learning, not just passively store and consume it (p. 392).

Traxler (2016) adds that mobile learning or m-learning is characterised as contingent in the sense that teachers as well as students react on the spot to their environment and changing experiences. M-learning is also individualised and collaborative so that it is customized for the preferences and abilities of students and it joins students meaningfully in shared tasks. He argues that mobiles may enable both formal and informal support to students; for example, podcasting may come from formal institutions such as universities and from passionate podcasters or individuals. Content may also be generated by learners or teachers such as You Tube, Flickr, Wikipedia and others, in addition to the use of social networking, blogging and different applications.

In addition to mobiles, social networking such as Facebook plays a significant role in education and in facilitating virtual and collaborative learning. The results of Dogoriti, Pange & Anderson (2014)'s exploratory study demonstrated the usefulness of Facebook in facilitating the development of students' language skills, reinforcing their cognitive skills and supporting an active learning environment.

According to these scholars, the addition of Facebook as an educational tool strengthened the EFL learner's motivation and engagement; students recounted their satisfaction with learning through interaction and sharing with peers and they were comfortable with its online learning environment and felt motivated by its well-structured online tasks. Cronje (2016) states that "Facebook could be trivial, students and their instructors tend to share valuable information resources on their timelines, and students use Facebook as the venue for pre-examination study groups." (Cronje (2016, p.139).

However, a study by Nguyen, & Tri (n.d) indicated that EFL Vietnamese university students spent more time using social networking for private purposes than for English learning purposes. Another interesting study by Aydin (2014) examined how EFL Turkish students used Facebook to interact with their teachers. It demonstrated that students preferred 'passive behaviours' while interacting with their teachers such as reading their teachers' status updates and viewing their walls' posts. He interpreted these results by referring to cultural factors which influence students' behaviours in the sense that their passive behaviours were a sign of respect to the teachers. Not only this, teachers cling to their controlling and assessing roles and they did not encourage interaction because they did not act like organisers, prompters, counselors and investigators.

Despite the availability of technologies in EFL teaching, there are a number of obstacles that prevent teachers from using them. Gilakjani & Sabouri (2017) summarised some of them as follows: availability of hardware and software, lack of computer knowledge and experience (knowing how to use ICTs), inadequate computer technology support from experts, lack of time for teachers to plan technology-based

lesson and for students to sufficiently use ICTs in class, teacher attitudes, and lack of professional development trainings in computer technology integration in teaching.

In the same line, Zhiwen & McGrath (2011), who examined the use of ICTs in a national reform EFL university teaching context in China, indicated that limited ICT skills and pedagogic expertise were obstacles to the use of technology in English language teaching. These scholars found that even though teachers had held positive attitudes towards the use of ICTs, their enthusiasm was waning in the light of inadequate support and training.

Similarly, Hu & McGrath (2012) described another case study of a national reform of EFL university teaching in China which called for the integration of ICTs into English classroom teaching. The findings indicated that the reform represented a challenge for teachers and constraints were related to the availability of materials, teachers' limited ICTs skills, lack of effective communication networks and inadequate ICTs training. After examining the different uses of ICTs in EFL teaching and learning in Higher Education in different countries, it seems interesting to focus attention and study their application within some Algerian university contexts.

1.3.3.2 EFL Studies on the Use of ICTs in the LMD Context

In relation to the present section, I have come across only two studies which investigated the use of ICTs in relation to the EFL university context. The first study by Idri (2012) was conducted with English Master (M1 and M2) students from Abderrahmane Mira University of Béjaia (Eastern Algeria). It reported that what is claimed in the official LMD documents about promoting the use of ICTs in teaching and learning and their practice in the terrain “seem to be world apart” (Idri, 2012, p.2178). In fact, the results demonstrated that students viewed their classrooms as traditional; teachers gave them handouts, explained to them and the flow of exchange was mainly from the teacher to the learner.

In another study conducted by Sarnou (2012), a more optimistic view was provided. Sarnou asserted the effective use of ICTs in class in the English Department of Mostaghanem University (Western Algeria). However, she did not provide any

details about the roles of teachers when using ICTs and the types of ICTs employed in the above English Department.

To conclude this section about the use of ICTs in the LMD context, a no-clear picture can be drawn in this respect. The use of ICTs in the LMD reform is clearly advocated, however, the few available research studies (Idri, 2012; Sarnou, 2012), investigating this issue, reported contradicting views concerning the effective use of technology in class within the LMD curriculum.

Our preliminary conclusion regarding Fullan's (2016) third aspect of educational change is that the Algerian LMD curriculum should reflect change in the use of instructional materials. Despite the many factors reported earlier, which seem to inhibit the use of technologies in EFL teaching and learning contexts, I still believe that teachers are the real agents of change and they are capable of widening the scope of diffusion of ICTs.

According to Cronje (2016), teachers play a major role in the acceptance of technology and in promoting its role. In fact, a strong correlation exists between teachers' motivation and beliefs about teaching and learning and the integration of ICTs (Copriady, 2015; Mumtaz, 2000). In this respect, teachers' mindsets must change to include the idea that teaching cannot be effective and cannot facilitate students' learning without an appropriate use of ICTs. In other words, their beliefs about teaching and learning should be reviewed in an attempt to increase their agency in relation to the use of ICTs in class (Mumtaz, 2000- Pertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010).

Conclusion

This chapter attempted to define the study's key construct 'educational change'. Fullan (2016)'s comprehensive definition of deep educational change was examined. He suggested three aspects of educational change in any reform initiative. These aspects constitute change in teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning, the adoption of a new teaching approach and the use of new instructional materials. Like any

reform initiative, the LMD reform is supposed to cause changes in the above three listed dimensions.

This chapter also provided a brief historical review and traced the origins of the LMD reform to the top-down European reform in higher education called the Bologna Process. This European reform which was originally initiated in 1998 constituted a French working programme. It aimed at promoting mobility, employment and quality across European universities. Probably because of its colonial legacy, Algeria structured its higher education system reform following the Bologna-inspired French qualifications framework. However, there exists a main difference between the two systems: the European university has become an enterprise-like place serving the economy of Europe and the Algerian university has moved from a mass to ‘masser’ higher educational system enrolling more students each year.

Another important concern in the present chapter was to analyse aspects of educational change that characterise the LMD reform using Fullan’s (2016) framework. This enabled us to understand better how the LMD reform operates. In theory, the LMD curriculum is supposed to reflect change in the sense that both the teachers’ beliefs and practices should change to become more learner-centred in nature and the use of ICTs in teaching and learning should be promoted. However, the teaching situation in the terrain proved to be different since studies such as Azzi (2012), Bensemmane (2013, 2017), Idri (2012) and Sarnou (2012) revealed little evidence of a real educational change in relation to teachers’ beliefs and practices in Algerian universities.

The current study uses Fullan’s (2016) three dimensions to explore whether there is change in teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning and their practices in the English department of B2U. The final aim is to examine the depth of this change and to confirm the success or failure of the reform. In order to be able to investigate the first aspect of educational change which detects any possible change in the teachers’ beliefs’ orientation and the factors affecting their formation, a second chapter related to beliefs is added.

In this chapter, relevant literature about L2 teacher beliefs is reviewed. In this respect, the concept ‘beliefs’ will be defined and factors affecting their formation will be discussed. The next chapter will also discuss some important research issues in relation to teacher beliefs. It finally examines the connection between beliefs, practices and educational change.

Chapter Two:

Teacher Beliefs and Educational Change

Introduction

Recently, a relationship between teacher beliefs and deep educational change has been established in education in general. Evidence has indicated that teachers' beliefs play a major role in shaping their thoughts, decisions and actions (Fang, 1996; Haney, Lupe, Czerniak, & Egan, 2002). It has also been indicated that reflection on beliefs is just a starting point towards achieving a deep educational change (Fullan, 2016). As a matter of fact, researching teachers' beliefs has always proved to be complex and part of the complexity originates from the difficulty to define the concept 'beliefs'.

This chapter deals with the teachers' beliefs in relation to educational change. It includes six sections. The first section is meant to define the concept beliefs and factors affecting their construction. The second section will discuss some relevant research issues such as including or not emotions in the study of teacher beliefs as well as deciding about the most appropriate corresponding research approach. The next two sections will examine the orientation and nature of teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning and the last two sections will explore the connection between beliefs and practices and beliefs and educational change.

2.1 The Concept 'Beliefs' and its Construction

The concept 'beliefs' has received a wide range of terminology and definition. This complex and tacit construct was always difficult to research due to the fact that it does not have one source but many factors interfere in its formation. The following section is an illustration, but not a comprehensive description, of the use and evolution of the term beliefs throughout the literature.

2.1.1 Terms Referring to Teacher Beliefs

Jackson (1968, as cited in Gump 1969) is the first to mention that teachers have mental lives and he coined the term 'hidden curriculum' to explain the notion that

teaching involves norms, beliefs, and socially approved knowledge. For him, the hidden curriculum consists of implicit values and principles that the teacher acquires through the process of schooling. To explain the same phenomenon, Freeman (2002) refers to this issue as teachers 'mental lives and hidden agendas'. Freeman states that teachers' mental lives (teacher's beliefs, attitudes, and their interpretation of official theory) represent the hidden side of teaching.

Borg (1998c) who has widely published on L2 teacher beliefs used the expression 'personal pedagogical systems' to refer to L2 teacher beliefs. A year later he used the expression 'teacher theories' (Borg, 1999b) and then coined 'teacher cognition' (Borg, 2003a, 2003b) to refer to the stores of beliefs teachers hold about themselves and their teaching practices. Lately, he employed the term 'teacher beliefs' to refer to all the concepts mentioned above (Borg, 2011b).

Borg (2003b) reviewed L2 teacher beliefs studies which were carried out from the 1970s until the year 2001 and some of the terms he found that scholars used are: 'pedagogic principles' (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001), 'images' (Johnson, 1994), 'maxims' (Richards, 1996), 'pedagogical reasoning' (Richards & Pennington, 1998), 'specific pedagogical knowledge' (Spada, 1992) and 'beliefs, assumptions and knowledge' (Woods, 1996).

Since the 2000s, L2 teacher beliefs terminology has been grouped under more commonly accepted and used terms. The term 'beliefs' seems to be gaining wider recognition among EFL researchers. Recently, the most commonly used key words in L2 teacher beliefs literature are: 'teacher beliefs' (Altan, 2012; Borg, 2011a), 'teacher cognitions' (Baker, 2013), 'teacher perceptions' (Griffiths, 2007), 'pedagogical beliefs' (Borg, 2011a; Johnson, 2006) and 'teacher thinking' (Johnson, 2009).

To summarise, L2 teacher beliefs appeared under different names throughout the literature (e.g. teacher thinking, teacher cognition, hidden agendas, pedagogical knowledge etc). In most cases, these different terms refer to the same concept. Throughout this study, the term 'L2 teacher beliefs' will be used as a general term to encompass various conceptualizations used in the teacher beliefs literature (e.g. cognitions, preconceptions, teacher thinking, pedagogical knowledge, assumptions,

hidden agendas and perceptions). After deciding upon which term to use throughout this dissertation, it is important at this stage to define it.

2.1.2 Teacher Beliefs Definition in Second or Foreign Language

A distinction between beliefs and knowledge has always proved to be difficult if possible at all. Kagan (1992) states that “most of the teacher’s professional knowledge can be regarded more accurately as a belief” (p.73). He defines beliefs as a “piebald form of personal knowledge” (p.85). Thus, in this sense, beliefs and knowledge become synonymous.

Nespor (1987) gives a much broader meaning to the concept beliefs in the sense that knowledge becomes only part of beliefs in addition to other constituents. In fact, for Nespor, teachers construct or articulate their personal knowledge, theories, perceptions, assumptions, perspectives, ideologies, principles and so forth in the form of belief systems.

Borg (2001), on the other hand, adds a psychological and metacognitive dimension to the definition of the concept beliefs and views it as a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held. Beliefs are evaluative in that they are accepted as true by the individual and are therefore imbued with emotive commitment and serve as a guide to thought and behaviour.

The aim behind reviewing the above definitions is to propose an operational definition to teachers’ beliefs to be adopted throughout the current doctoral research. In the present study, beliefs about teaching and learning will be defined as a teacher’s consciously and/or unconsciously held propositions composed of a set of perceptions, perspectives, knowledge, theories and principles about the nature of instructional practices and learning. To understand better the concept beliefs, the next section will shed light on the major factors which influence their formation.

2.1.3 Factors Influencing Teacher Beliefs Formation

According to Richards & Lockhart (1994), teacher beliefs and values are built up gradually over time and they serve as the background to match the teachers’ decision making and action. Research on L2 teacher beliefs suggests that there are several sources to teachers’ beliefs.

According to Kindsvatter, Willen, and Ishler (1988), the sources of teachers' beliefs are as follows: 1) Teachers' experience as language learners: a lot of teachers know that they were previously learners and how they were taught helped them to form their beliefs about teaching. 2) Experience from teaching: teaching experience is the main source of teachers' beliefs in that how a specific method is used for a specific group of learners may result in the beliefs about that method. 3) Teachers' personality: some teachers prefer a particular method because it corresponds to their character. 4) Education-based or research-based principles: teachers can get their beliefs from learning principles of second language acquisition research, education, or schools of thoughts like psychology.

Li (2012) expressed that teachers' beliefs are shaped during their teaching processes and indicate the teachers' subjective knowledge of educational phenomenon, particularly towards their own teaching abilities and their learners. According to Li, the sources of teachers' beliefs are the result of social history and culture; he emphasized that beliefs originate from teachers' experiences. According to Richardson (1996), there are three main sources of teacher beliefs: personal experience, experience with instruction, and experience with formal knowledge. Knowles (1992) argued that teachers' beliefs are formed throughout their life and are impacted by different factors such as happenings, experiences, and other people in their lives.

According to Richards & Lockhart (1994), past experience in learning or teaching is not the sole source of beliefs. Some other sources are involved in forming beliefs. They are: established practice, teachers' personality factors, educational principles, research-based evidence, and principles originated from a method. Williams & Burden (1997) claim that individual's construction of his/her world is affected by his/her previous experiences.

Early relationships with significant others (e.g. teachers) are said to be representing a prototype that has an influence on what type of teachers individuals become (Ainscough, 1997). Borg (2003a) maintains that research in teacher beliefs provided

evidence that teachers' prior experiences as learners inform their pedagogical beliefs and influence their teaching experience throughout their careers.

Borg claimed that in order for teacher education programs to be effective, teacher trainers need to take into account student teachers' prior beliefs. He called for a need for teacher educators to uncover student teachers' prior beliefs and use them in shaping their classroom practices and behaviours. In the same vein, Williams & Burden (1997) asserted that teachers' deep-rooted beliefs about language learning would infuse into their classroom performances more than a particular methodology they have learnt during their teacher education programs.

The teacher beliefs literature also considers how teacher education programs influence and shape teachers' beliefs. Hall (2005) claimed that teacher education programs equip teachers with professional knowledge and this knowledge that teachers have on the subject matter, teaching methods and student learning guides them in adjusting their prior beliefs and determining which approaches to employ in teaching. Borg (2003a) asserted that the teaching context or conditions determine the extent to which teachers are able to implement a teaching compatible with their beliefs.

As a summary, Borg (2003a) considered the following three main factors to have an impact on teachers' belief formation: 1) prior language learning experience; 2) teacher education and 3) classroom practice. All these factors are going to be examined in the present doctoral research to understand their influence on the teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. In fact, teachers' beliefs may be difficult to be explored because it is often hard for researchers to decide upon the most appropriate research methodology. The next section will discuss some issues related to researching teacher beliefs.

2.2 Some Relevant Research Issues in L2 Teacher Beliefs

The literature has indicated that teachers' beliefs are generally investigated in relation to other variables such as emotions. They are also approached quantitatively and/or qualitatively to permit teachers' conscious and unconscious study of their own

beliefs about teaching and learning. To understand better how to research the concept beliefs in the present study, the following two important issues needed consideration:

1. The connection between beliefs and emotions
2. The best research approach to use in L2 teacher beliefs

2.2.1 Emotions, included in the study of Beliefs or Not?

As indicated in section 2.1.2, ‘beliefs’ is a concept hard to define. Pajares (1992) believes that part of the problem in its definition lies in the attempt to separate between beliefs and knowledge. According to Rokeach (1968), beliefs involve three components: cognitive (know), affective (emotional) and behavioural (action) and this distinction between knowledge and emotions is useful when one tries to examine the connection between beliefs and emotions.

There is no much research on the relationship between beliefs and emotions in education and even less with regard to teacher beliefs because beliefs are often viewed as solely a cognitive construct and research often neglected to tie emotion to beliefs (Gill & Hardin, 2015). Key psychologists such as Piaget and Vygotsky, interested in learning, have historically addressed the importance of not dissociating emotion and cognition. Gill & al. (2005) list three ways in which beliefs and emotions can be related: affect can influence beliefs, beliefs can influence affect or they interact in complex messy ways.

Initially, the idea of ‘emotions influencing beliefs’ goes back to ancient Greek; Aristotle argued that emotions must be aroused in order for certain beliefs to form. Contemporary thinkers adopting this perspective are exemplified by Forgas (2000) in his Affect Infusion Model in which emotions are postulated to infuse cognitive processes. Results of studies undertaken by Forgas demonstrated that moods biased cognitive interpretation in the sense that positive moods resulted in more positive beliefs and interpretation and the opposite happens for negative moods.

For centuries, it had been believed that emotions influence beliefs. However, recently it has been advanced that beliefs influence emotions (Lazarus, 1994). Tacit beliefs provide a framework within which appraisals such as beliefs about one's coping potential or beliefs about an event's significance occur. These appraisals are in themselves significant since they cause one to interpret a situation in a particular way which leads to an emotional response (Gill, & al., 2015).

There are a few researchers that reflect a more complex view of the relationship between affect and beliefs. Some current models of cognition based on neuroscience and cognitive science as well as social psychology hold that beliefs and emotions, though distinct conceptually, are nevertheless completely intertwined (Gill, & al., 2015). At this point of the review, it is clear that the relationship between emotions and beliefs is not always clear, direct, or easy to identify. However, overcoming this chicken/egg issue is not as important as considering and not ignoring emotions when investigating beliefs.

Emotions are part of investigating beliefs because our beliefs are related to how we feel towards people, events, and issues in our lives and our emotions shape and support our beliefs. Eventually, no researcher wants to end up understanding teacher beliefs in an incomplete or faulty way. For this reason, it seems interesting to consider later on in the present study the emotions of EFL teachers about teaching and learning in general and about their degree of satisfaction with the LMD curriculum.

In relation to the present issue of 'beliefs-emotions connection', Shavelson & Stern (1981) argued that individuals refer to their own beliefs when they lack information or knowledge and this is important to consider because teaching as a profession is full of interpersonal transactions that may respond to one's own personal impulses and intuition rather than reflection (Pajares, 1992). Schutz (2007) points out the importance of exposing teachers to relevant information since in situations where they lack useful knowledge or strategies to use, they may resort to beliefs that can be riddled with problems, inconsistencies and negative emotions.

The above situation is possible to happen with the population of teachers in the context of the present study. In fact, EFL teachers of Blida 2 University received no pre-service or in-service training on how to practise the LMD teaching principles and this lack of knowledge as predicted by Schutz (2007) may result in some negative emotions about EFL teaching and learning within the new learner-centred reform system.

2.2.2 Quantitative or Qualitative Approach?

In order to uncover EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning, some researchers (Blömeke, 2014; De Vries, Van de Grift & Jansen, 2013; Haritos, 2004) opted for the quantitative approach while others (Debreli, 2011; Erkmen, 2012; Leavy, McSorley, & Boté, 2007) used the qualitative approach. The present section reviews the strengths and weaknesses of the two approaches in order to decide about the most appropriate approach to adopt for the present study.

A critical review of the works of the above scholars revealed limitations related to the type of research based on the quantitative research paradigm. It was argued that in those studies teachers were consciously asked about the orientation of their beliefs and according to Pajares (1992), because teachers' beliefs usually remain unstated, emotional and hidden, they should be carefully and indirectly studied. Therefore, the quantitative paradigm seemed inadequate.

Haritos (2004)'s conscious study of teachers' beliefs through questionnaires only seemed inconclusive. Likewise, the questionnaires employed by De Vries (2013) and Blömeke (2014) offered more possibility for 'socially desirable response biases' (Philipps, 2009) since they tended to limit the number and type of teachers' beliefs by pre-determining the questionnaire's items. Barcelos (2003) also argued that quantitative approaches disconnect beliefs from real social contexts and are likely to lead to incomplete or incorrect accounts of informants' beliefs within an unnatural discourse. An alternative to the use of the quantitative approach is the adoption of the qualitative approach.

According to Pajares (1992), qualitative research is perhaps ideally suited to the messy construct of teachers beliefs. In this vein Olafson, Grandy & Owens (2015) comment:

Well-designed qualitative approaches have much to offer the growing field study of teachers' beliefs. A deeper understanding about the ways in which teachers develop, change or act upon their beliefs over time and in a variety of contexts requires the use of qualitative approaches in which researchers can attend fully to the lived experiences of teacher (Olafson, & al., 2015, p.128)

Taking into account the limitations of the previously mentioned quantitative studies, it is worth considering how qualitative studies (Debreli, 2011; Erkmen, 2012; Leavy, & al., 2007) can help to indirectly investigate teachers' beliefs. One important question to fix was the appropriate size of the population to study using a qualitative paradigm.

Concerning the size of the population, the previous studies aimed at achieving an in-depth analysis of the teachers' hidden and emotional beliefs and for this reason, they limited the number of the participants to 5 teachers or less. In the present study and because the purpose of the research slightly differs in the sense that it aimed at obtaining a general picture of the teachers' dominant beliefs' orientation and not to individually examine some of the teachers' beliefs, a maximum number of participant teachers will be opted for in order to be able to judge about their dominant teacher-centred or learner-centred beliefs' orientation. The next section highlights the major orientations of the teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning.

2.3 Orientations of Teachers Beliefs about Teaching and Learning

The literature in relation to the teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning employed several terms in order to refer to the orientation of the teachers' beliefs. Meirink, Meijer, Verloop & Bergen (2009) used the terms Subject Matter and Student Orientations, Van Veen, Slegers, Theo Bergen & Claassen (2001) coined the

expressions Transmission of Knowledge by the Teacher and Student Learning, Bolhuis & Voeten (2004) referred to the Traditional and Process-oriented views and Woolley, Benjamin & Wooley (2004) employed the views called Traditional vs. Constructivist orientation.

It has been noticed that all this terminology refers basically to two orientations about teaching and learning. These orientations are often known as the teacher-centred and learner-centred views and they were already defined in the previous chapter. Although these beliefs about teaching appear to be dichotomous, they may form a continuum of positions that teachers adopt depending on their views and the teaching conditions (Ching, Shuler, Lewis, & Levine, 2009).

To summarize, the literature has so far suggested two basic orientations to teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. The two views are the traditional teacher-centred and the learner or student-centred perspectives and they are both going to be investigated and referred to in the present research since one of the aims of the present study is to investigate EFL teachers' beliefs' orientations about teaching and learning. The ultimate goal behind examining teachers' beliefs is to depict whether there is change in their orientation after eight years of introducing the LMD reform in the English Department of B2U. However, in order to achieve the previous goal, it is necessary to dig deep into the nature of teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning in both orientations.

2.4 Nature of the Teacher-centred and Learner-centred Beliefs of Teachers

As demonstrated in the previous section, researchers often categorize teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning into two basic orientations: the teacher-centred and learner-centred perspectives. This dichotomy is useful in the current study since it enables me to categorize EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning in one of the two dimensions and then decide about the dominant one. However, it is questionable whether one can easily categorize teachers' sets of beliefs.

The current section is an attempt to wrap up the key differences between the two beliefs dimensions regarding teaching and learning. Different aspects of teaching

and learning are considered hereafter. These aspects relate to the teaching and learning strategies, teachers and students' roles, learning content and learning environment (Prawat, 1992). The aim is to help me achieve the beliefs categorization with more guidance.

The teaching strategies in a traditional teacher-centered classroom are characterised as being transmissionist and behaviourist in nature. The transmission metaphor views the teacher as a principle source and the students as receivers of knowledge. In this classroom, it is believed that teachers should be given more emphasis; it is the teacher who dominates the whole class and acts as an authority (Griffin, 2006). Another belief represents the teacher as the absolute knowledge provider and often the truth of that knowledge is legitimated through texts written by established authors (Preece, & Griffin, 2006).

In contrast, contemporary theory of learning puts the students' own efforts to understand at the center of the educational enterprise (Prawat, 1992). It is characterised by two main beliefs or principles: (1) students construct their own understandings and (2) the new understandings that students construct rest on their previously acquired knowledge (Dawkins, 2004).

Concerning beliefs about the role of the teacher, in traditional teacher-directed teaching, the teacher sets learning objectives, plans activities, directs students through a step-by-step process and makes sure that any difficulties they encounter during this process are resolved. Another central belief is that content coverage is one of the teachers' highest priorities. However, in modern student-centered teaching, the teacher presents the central questions, issue, case, problem, and then works as a facilitator while students determine and carry a process to develop responses or keys (Pedersen, & Liu, 2003). Thus, in all modern teaching and learning scenarios, the traditional telling-listening relationship between teacher and student is replaced by one that is more complex and interactive (Prawat, 1992).

As regard the role of the student, in traditional teacher-directed instruction, the students work to meet the objectives set by the teachers (Pedersen, & al., 2003). It is assumed that observations, listening to explanations provided by teachers, or engaging in learning experiences such as activities and practice sessions with feedback will result in learning (Fosnot, 1996). Furthermore, students are viewed as passive and they are simply tested to see where they fall on the curriculum continuum (Fosnot, 1996). In contrast, in a student-centered learning, students work to provide a response to central questions and to promote ownership over their learning process (Pedersen, & al., 2003).

Traditional teacher-directed approaches often depend, at least in part, on extrinsic motivators, such as grades, degrees, or other rewards, to motivate students' efforts to learn. However, in student-centered approaches, teachers attempt to present a question or a task that is interesting enough to motivate students and which offers a variety of avenues for exploration. As a result, student actions are driven by the goals they have set for themselves rather than external rewards promised by a teacher or an institution (Pedersen, & al., 2003). Modern approaches of teaching are also based on the belief that student interaction is important since it encourages collaborative learning and not cooperative learning. Collaborative learning emphasizes students' self-governance of their interaction, allowing them to make decisions about with whom they work, and how (Pedersen, & al., 2003).

For the learning content, two curricula beliefs or views are available in the literature: the popular view and the dynamic view. Prawat (1992) stated that the popular view of curriculum which corresponds to the traditional view of curriculum considers content as a fixed agenda, a daily course to be run that consists of preset means (i.e., a certain material to cover) and predetermined ends (i.e., a discrete set of skills or competencies). In other words, for the traditional or transmissionist view of learning, the curriculum is believed to constitute a list of things to be taught (Mansour, 2009).

In contrast, the modern view of the curriculum which corresponds to constructivist ideas favours a more interactive and dynamic approach to curriculum, believing that it should be viewed more as a matrix of ideas to be explored over a period of time and not as a road map. One would enter this matrix at various points depending on where students are in their current understanding (Mansour, 2009). This view of curriculum is more flexible in nature since it focuses on thinking and understanding through problem solving or inquiry; its main aim is not to cover a fixed content.

As far as the learning environment is concerned, in traditional teacher-directed instruction, teachers believe that all students should be treated alike and the learning group should be treated as a whole (National Research Council [NRC], 1996). Thus, the teacher focuses on whole class instruction without paying attention to students' points of view in a quiet classroom context. In contrast, understanding and responding to individual student's interests, strengths, experiences, and needs are thought to be a necessity in modern student-centered instruction (NRC, 1996).

To sum-up the findings of this review of the literature in relation to the key differences between the two beliefs dimensions regarding teaching-learning, Table 2.1 is presented on the next page. It addresses the teacher-centred and the learner-centred beliefs' orientation in relation to the following aspects of teaching and learning: teaching and learning strategies, teachers' and students' roles, learning content and learning environment.

Aspects of teaching and learning	Teacher-centred beliefs	Learner-centred beliefs
Teaching/learning strategy	<u>The teacher is the dominant figure in class:</u> he/she lectures and delivers pre-determined knowledge.	<u>The students are the dominant figures in class:</u> they set learning goals and determine resources/activities that will help them meet those goals.
Teachers' roles	<u>The teacher plays the major roles:</u> he/she dispenses accurate knowledge, sets learning goal and checks student knowledge by searching pre-determined responses.	<u>The teacher plays the role of a facilitator:</u> he/she helps students to develop their own inquiry, listen carefully to students' ideas and opinions.
Students' roles	<u>The students play a passive role:</u> they are recipients of information, they listen to the teacher's explanation, they take notes and ask questions only occasionally.	<u>The students play an active role:</u> they construct their own knowledge.
Learning content	<u>The curriculum is planned and well sequenced:</u> the content is structured and a body of predetermined knowledge is fixed.	<u>The curriculum is interactive and dynamic:</u> content involves problem-solving or inquiry tasks.
Learning environment	<u>The teacher offers a whole class instruction:</u> routine activities, more formal, calm and quiet in nature.	<u>The teacher offers a variety of avenues for exploration and learning:</u> collaboration takes place through peer or group work.

Table 2.1 Description of Teacher-centred and Learner-centred Beliefs about Teaching and Learning (Adapted from Prawat, 1992)

It has been noticed from the previous section and from table 2.1 that the two constructs 'beliefs' and 'practices' are tightly linked in the sense that one cannot examine the beliefs system of the teachers without referring to their practices in class or the practices of their students. This at least foreshadows a strong link which exists between beliefs and practices.

2.5 Relationship between Beliefs and Practices

When reviewing the literature in relation to beliefs about teaching and learning, it has been noticed that the connection between beliefs and practices is open to debate. Beliefs are often identified as precursors to behaviour in the sense that individuals enact practices based on the beliefs they hold (Pajares, 1992). Support for this view has been ascertained by identifying teachers' beliefs through surveys, interviews and written reflections during professional development and then examining them in relation to reported or observed practices (Buehl, Bech & Mason, 2015). When teachers' beliefs are correlated with or aligned to the teachers' practices, researchers such as Wilkins (2008) concluded that beliefs influence practices.

Pajares (1992) also cites several sources in support of the assumption that “beliefs are the best indicators of the decisions individual make throughout their lives” (Pajares, 1992, p.307). He sums up research on teachers' beliefs by suggesting “a strong relationship between teachers' educational beliefs and their planning, instructional decisions, and classroom practices” (Pajares, 1992, p.326) and adds that “educational beliefs of pre-service teachers play a pivotal role in their acquisition and interpretation of knowledge and subsequent teaching behavior” (Pajares, 1992, p.328). In his view, beliefs are “far more influential than knowledge in determining how individuals organize and define tasks and problems and are stronger predictors of behavior” (Pajares, 1992, p.311).

Although a large number of research studies have indicated that teachers' classroom practice is influenced by their beliefs, there is still much debate as to whether beliefs influence actions or actions influence beliefs. An alternative to the argument that beliefs are precursors to practice is the position that teachers' beliefs are shaped by engaging in specific actions and practices. Support for this connection between beliefs and practices is observed in studies on the effects of professional development on changing teachers' beliefs and the effects of field experiences on pre-service teachers' beliefs (Buehl, & al., 2015).

Another alternative to the two positions already discussed is the position of Buehl & al. (2015) and Richardson (1996). According to them, there is a reciprocal but complex relationship between beliefs and practices. That is, beliefs and practices influence one another. In fact, the strength of this relationship may vary across teachers depending on their teaching experiences, their teaching context (e.g. type of students and nature of content) as well as the type of beliefs (e.g. core or peripheral) and the practices being assessed (Buehl, & al., 2015).

Buehl, & al. add that a lack of congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices can only result in feelings of frustration and dissatisfaction among teachers. And it has been demonstrated in section (2.2.1) that bad moods can only result in negative beliefs about teaching and learning. In order to avoid this situation, the same author suggests for teacher educators to support the congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices by increasing teachers' awareness of the importance of the alignment of beliefs and practices through self-reflection and discussions among teachers. The next section related to the connection between teachers' beliefs and educational change will really demonstrate the effectiveness of self reflection and discussion in causing a change in teachers' beliefs and practices and in causing a real educational change.

2.6 Relationship between Beliefs and Educational Change

The connection between teachers' beliefs and educational change can only be established through teachers' will or agency to achieve professionalism. In the present study, it is significant to define this connection because this will help interpret better its results in the last chapter.

2.6.1 Agency Intertwined with Teachers' Beliefs

Agency is generally defined as “the capacity of people to act purposefully and reflectively on their world” (Rogers, & al., 2013, p. 63, as cited in Kayi-Aydar, 2015, p. 95). In teaching, this capacity is of two kinds: personal and professional. According to Zembylas, & Chubbuck, (2015), personal agency relates to the achievement of

one's goals and professional agency is caused by the influences of teacher education programmes or in-service professional development and both types interplay with teacher beliefs along an interactive continuum.

Zembylas & al. (2015) claim that teachers are born gifted with traits and talents that may support their teaching. Then, society in general and schooling in special may interfere again to shape teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning; those dispositions may or may not help them in creating a successful teaching. Another type of interaction along the continuum happens when teachers start exerting their profession whereby pressures of colleagues, context, students and political environment interact with their personal identity.

In his turn, Gzerniawski (2011) provided a much clearer definition of agency in relation to identity and beliefs. He attempted to draw the link by referring to a theatre metaphor whereby teachers are like social actors. These actors are supposed to give performances by using scripts written by others and by adopting roles. Agency, according to Gzerniawski, is the actors' choice to revise and interpret the scripts in the way they wish. In the teaching context, he calls this choice an 'impression management' in the sense that "teachers can manipulate the impression of the professional identities they convey to other colleagues, pupils or parents with whom they come in contact" (Gzerniawski, 2011, p.54-55).

However, the degree of teachers' agency, as Gzerniawski reported, is limited since the variety of potential identities that teachers wish to present to others depends on the cultural and social context where they work. According to him, the major factors which seem to interfere with the degree of teachers' agency to form their professional identities are the two cultures of trust and accountability. Teacher trust can be defined as "a teacher's readiness to be exposed to significant or generalized others in the belief that such exposure will be treated with compassion, capability, honesty and transparency." Accountability, on the other hand can be defined as "relationships in which one party recognizes an obligation to justify conduct to another" (Gzerniawski, 2011, p.56)

Gzerniawski added that low or high level of trust depends on the type of accountability opted for by decision makers. In other words, a low level of teacher trust will result if accountability is external, neoliberal and holds principles such as monitoring, reporting, recording and surveillance. The opposite happens (i.e. a high degree of teacher trust) when accountability is based on professional responsibility in the sense that teachers are not obliged to perform practices dictated by inspectors or others and this in its turn may enhance teachers' agency and prevent their resistance.

As a conclusion, agency, be it personal or professional, relates directly to the personal and professional identity traits and beliefs of the teacher. Influences on the degree of teacher's agency and trust are several. They may originate from inside the teacher such his/her personality, beliefs and qualifications and outside the teacher like the beliefs of colleagues, the degree of the administration's accountability and the kind of professional development programmes and trainings teachers receive. All these factors may contribute in defining the degree of teachers' acceptance of or resistance to educational change. In fact, teacher agency is suggested to be a key capability not only for facilitating student learning but also for continuing professional development (Toom, Pyhältö, & Rust, 2015).

2.6.2 Interplay between Agency and Professionalism

According to Appleby & Pilkington (2014), a high degree in teachers' agency permits them to develop professionally through individually reviewing their skills and professional capital. This latter is defined as one's "knowledge, practices, social relations and experience of being a teacher" (Appleby, & al., 2014, p.26) and it has origins in the notion of social capital. However, reviewing one's professional capital is not that easy to happen because there often exists a clash between what the teacher values and the objectives regulated by the institution or decision makers. Appleby & al., (2014) illustrate this clash by giving an example of a situation where the educational institution mobilises professional capital to achieve targets motivated by market and economic drivers and teachers understanding professional capital, due to

their values and beliefs, as based upon the principle of service and commitment to education.

In order to avoid the above described situation and resistance on the part of teachers, educationists such as Appleby & al., (2014) and Fullan, (2016) advocate negotiation and collaboration between administration or institution and teachers. In other words, the administration or staff should invest in the professional capital of its teachers rather than ignoring them or imposing on them what to do. In this vein, Appleby & al., (2014) comment:

An organization needs to invest in the skills, knowledge and expertise developed by the professionals themselves through professional learning or continuing professional development. An awareness of how this is being enacted by both organization and individual allows each to reframe tools for agency and to restructure processes that build capacity and capability (Appleby & al., 2014, p.28)

They argue that professional capital allows teachers to see themselves as both independent professionals and part of an educational organization. They add that as a critical professional, the individual practitioner needs to reflect upon his own beliefs as well as the policy's influences in order to support individual and collective agency. In this way, the institution has a responsibility to support the development of professionals who have some degree of professional autonomy and agency.

Indeed, agency and professionalism are linked. To achieve professionalism, teachers may rethink their own beliefs and practices with consideration of outside institutional processes to develop their own personal agency. The development of each practitioner's personal agency will influence the collective agency of the group. Once agency is applied in reality, it will contribute to a continuous professional development of teachers and a situation of educational change.

2.6.3 Professionalism as a Means to Achieve Deep Educational Change

The literature on the effectiveness of educational change worldwide is not promising (Hargreaves, 2005; Fullan, 2016). Hargreaves (2005) comments: “Yet even with this impressive knowledge base and expertise about the strategic and cultural aspects of educational change, too many change efforts remain disappointing and ineffective.” (Hargreaves, 2005, p. 2)

There are many reasons why successful and deep educational change is so hard to be achieved. Hargreaves (2005) suggests some reasons for that; according to him, part of the problem lies in the poor conceptualization or definition of the change process in the sense that it is not clear how to benefit students from change. In other cases, change is either too big so that teachers find themselves struggling on too many fronts or it is too limited and insignificant. Also, change can be too fast and in this situation teachers cannot cope with it or the opposite, it can be too slow and boring.

Hargreaves (2005) points to other factors that lead to an unsuccessful educational change such as the lack of materials, resources and time for teachers to plan. Namely, all the change responsibility is thrown upon the teachers’ shoulders with no additional support. Not only this, teachers are not accompanied through their first unavoidable feelings of frustration and despair when experiencing change.

Hargreaves further explains that in some cases, structures such as staff and administration are either not involved in the change or they are too committed to it in the sense that they exclude the involvement of others such as teachers. In both cases, a feeling of resistance will result. Resistance may also result from the students who will cling to their old ways of learning if they are not involved in the change and it is not explained to them. The same goes for parents; they may want to protect their children by opposing change and innovations.

Hargreaves attracts the attention of leaders to the need to avoid both the autocratic and the laissez-faire policy with their staff if educational change were to succeed,. Also, the change requires teachers to focus their efforts and in order to

achieve that, coordination between the different aspects of change is necessary. For example, the method of assessment cannot be determined in isolation from the teaching content and methodology.

As demonstrated above, the depth of educational change depends on a number of factors related to different actors such as leaders, students, parents and more significantly teachers who are the real agents of change. In this respect, Fullan (2016) openly states that “educational change depends on what teachers do and think –it is as simple and as complex as that” (Fullan, 2016, p.97).

According to Fullan (2016), from 2008 to 2015 there was degradation in what teachers were doing and thinking in the American schools in general; teachers’ satisfaction and active engagement in the profession declined dramatically. The major reason why educational change or initiatives failed is that planning for the reform did not take into account local context and culture; all it planned for was the specific change to be achieved (i.e. the action part). Thus, planning did not take into account the process of change in itself and how different actors will react to it.

Fullan (2016) identifies ten basic assumptions for leaders to a successful educational change: (1) Have good and inspirational ideas but engage others in their realities. (2) Through reflective practice, have actors of change clarify and understand the meaning of change. (3) Expect conflict and disagreement among change implementers. (4) Draw your expectations of accountability coupled with capacity building and problem-solving opportunities. (5) Take the necessary time for change; usually, reforms take from 5 to 10 years. (6) Assume that there are different reasons for the lack of implementation such as value rejection, inadequate resources, poor capacity and insufficient time elapsed. (7) Do not expect all groups to change. (8) Make a brief, focused and action-oriented plan. (9) Knowledge which informs action cannot be totally clear because it feeds on theory, political consideration, on-the-spot decisions and intuition. (10) Pay attention to whether relationship among institutions and individuals is developing.

To alleviate the situation and reverse the trend of dissatisfaction and disengagement among teachers and in line with what Appleby, & al., (2014) have suggested (see the previous section), Fullan (2016) recommends the solution of developing the professional capital of teachers and their collective efficacy through learning organizations. According to him, professional capital is composed of three components: human capital (the quality of the individual), social capital (the quality of the group) and decisional capital (the quality of what the group is doing or collective expertise).

In short, professional development programmes should not focus on the success of individual teachers but on the collective collaboration and expertise of teachers as a group within their working context. According to Branson (2010), the implementation of educational change following the external top-down approach which dictates on those involved in it what to do proved unsuccessful. On this issue, he posits: “External and authoritarian approach to the implementation of desirable educational change proved to be largely ineffectual. Often initial gains were soon lost as those involved became less efficient and effective” (Branson, 2010, p.3).

In this respect, Fullan (2016) adds: “to put it simply and powerfully, people doing the work have information that policy makers don’t have. If leaders don’t engage them in partnerships and collaborative cultures, they don’t access that information.” (p.93). In fact, this is what some policies, particularly from the Western world, have been trying to do recently through the implementation of a more bottom-up reform approach. In this approach, the experience and opinion of the change actors is used to help construct a deep change (Branson 2010).

Branson explains that in this way change would be more meaningful to the actors of change and would increase their motivation and commitment and make them more effective and efficient. He adds that the bottom-up approach to implementing educational change focuses more on human capital and collaboration among individuals. In this context, Fullan (2016) states that “no nation improved by focusing on individual teachers as the driver...they were successful because they developed *the*

entire teaching profession, raising the bar for all.”(Fullan, 2016, p., 43-44, italics in original).

In fact, Fullan focuses on the principle of social capital or the quality of group learning for any reform initiative. For this purpose, he advocates developing Professional Learning Communities (PLCs). For Kruse, & Louis, (1995, as cited in Fullan 2016), there are five elements that underpin effective PLCs: (1) reflective dialogue, (2) deprivatisation of practice (i.e collective or agreed-upon teaching practice) , (3) collective focus on student learning, (4) collaboration and (5) shared norms and values.

They also add two conditions under which the above elements may happen. The conditions are related to structural and social and human resources (culture). The structural resource is about time and place to meet and talk, collaborative teaching roles, teacher empowerment and autonomy of the institution (i.e teachers can make decisions related to their local teaching context). The social and human resources are related to openness to improvement, trust and respect, cognitive and skill base, supportive leadership and socialisation of the staff. PLCs are useful since “they build and manage knowledge, they create shared language and standards for practice and student outcomes; and they sustain aspects of their school culture vital to continued, consistent norms and instructional practice” (McLaughlin, & Talbert, (2006), as cited in Fullan (2016, p.5).

Conclusion

Chapter two discussed the following issues: (1) the concept beliefs (i.e. related terminology, definitions and factors influencing teacher beliefs’ formation), (2) the inclusion or exclusion of emotions in the study of teacher beliefs and the best approach to use to unveil teachers’ beliefs, (3) the orientation and nature of teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning, and (4) the link which exists between teachers’ beliefs, practices and educational change.

In the present study, the term ‘beliefs’ refers to the teacher’s conscious and/or unconscious held propositions composed of a set of perceptions, perspectives, knowledge, theories and principles about the nature of instructional practices and learning. In relation to L2 teachers’ beliefs research methodology, it was concluded that studying emotions is part of understanding teachers’ beliefs and using the qualitative approach is the most appropriate research paradigm to study indirectly the concept ‘beliefs’.

Examining the connection which exists between teachers’ beliefs, practices and educational change gave evidence that encouraging teachers to reflect on their beliefs and identities assists them in developing their degree of personal agency. Collective agency of the whole professional capital of teachers can also develop when teachers work collaboratively through Professional Learning Communities. This collaborative work will enable them to understand the change process caused by the reform and how it works best for them at their workplace. Through this bottom-up approach to professionalism, teachers can effectively contribute in making deep educational change a reality.

Apart from exploring the teachers’ beliefs in the English department under study, the present research has another aim; its purpose is to find about the teachers’ teaching practices. The next chapter attempts to define the teachers’ teaching practices in the LMD curriculum in order to be able to assess their occurrence in the English department under study.

Chapter Three:

Teachers' Practices in the LMD Reform

Introduction

A link between the LMD reform and learner-centredness was established in the first chapter. This was achieved by 1. referring to the learner-centred terminology used throughout the LMD Guide (e.g learner autonomy and responsible learners), 2. tracing the link between the source of the LMD reform (i.e the Bologna Process) and learner-centredness, and 3. reviewing literature such as Azzi, 2012; Bensemmane, 2011; Idri, 2012 which relates between the LMD curriculum and learner-centredness. Weimer (2002) provided a full definition of learner-centredness in higher education and she suggested five dimensions of change towards it: 1. Balance of Power, 2. Function of Content, 3. Role of the Teacher, 4. Responsibility for Learning and 5. Purpose and Process of Evaluation.

In this chapter, Weimer's five dimensions of change towards learner-centredness will be first broadly defined and then analysed with reference to the LMD curriculum. This analysis will constitute a scrutiny in some official LMD documents (LMD Guide and LMD regulations) in order to examine how learner-centred principles are accounted for in the LMD reform. This will provide a quite solid framework for defining the teachers' practices in the LMD curriculum and investigating them later in this study.

3.1 Weimer (2002)'s Dimensions of Change to Practise Learner-centredness

According to Weimer (2002), the practice of the learner-centred approach involves many changes in relation to the role of the teacher, the role of the learner, syllabus design and content and assessment methodology. She entitles those changes as follows: Balance of Power, Function of Content, Role of the Teacher, Responsibility for Learning and the Purpose and Process of Evaluation and they are

supposed to shift students and teachers from a surface teacher-centred learning to a deep learner-centred learning.

3.1.1 Balance of Power

Weimer (2002, p.25) argues that “we (teachers) do exercise considerable power over student learning but believe we do so for good reasons.” According to her, teachers often believe that students lack intellectual maturity to take decisions. However, they often forget their own possible lack of critical self-reflection in the sense that they view their role as good teachers from a traditional view. In other words, they dominate the classroom, prepare the lesson, manage time, prescribe course objectives and convey information to be quickly learnt, memorised and reproduced upon demand.

Weimer explains that teachers’ motivation to control the classroom may be due to their vulnerability when facing ambiguous and unpredictable situations. For example, teachers may feel challenged when facing resistance from the part of students and exerting control in class brings them a feeling of security. Weimer (2002) examines the negative effects of an excessive control on students’ motivation, confidence, and enthusiasm for learning.

She argues that students are more likely to become self-regulated students when they control some of the conditions of their learning. She believes that “when teaching is learner-centred, power is shared rather than transferred wholesale” (Weimer, 2002, p.29). Blumberg adds that “the amount of power sharing varies with the type of course and the level of the students.” and that “instructors may want to transition to a more learner-centred approach in an incremental way. The amount of power you give your students depends on their maturity, their motivation and your own comfort with this redistribution of power.” (Blumberg, 2009, p.187-8)

3.1.2 Function of Content

Weimer (2002, p. 46) criticises the current strong orientation of university teachers towards ‘covering’ the content they teach. According to her this thinking has

long been dominated with one assumption: ‘more is better’. This assumption may originate in the quality of course studies which teachers had previously received at university in the sense that they end-up knowing about the discipline they teach rather than about the nature of teaching or learning. Also, it may be due to the reputation allotted to the course so that “the more content there is and the more complicated that content is, the more rigorous and therefore the better that course and its instructor are” (Weimer, 2002, p. 47).

According to Weimer, allegiance to content has some bad effects on both teachers and students. Teachers, out of the assumption reported above, no longer know about how to teach less or how much content is enough. In addition, the race towards covering content teaches students learning strategies that promote rote-learning or “memorising, regurgitating and forgetting” (Weimer, 2002, p. 48) rather than making the difference between deep and surface learning. Moreover, they may be deprived from opportunities that promote learning outcomes and skills.

Weimer adds other reasons for teachers to revisit the role or the function of the content they teach. She argues that nowadays, differently from previous centuries, the nature of knowledge is changing and/or expanding. The educational system is not a setting “where we (teachers) give students a ‘dose’ [as in original] of content and hope that it will be enough to carry them through their working lives.” (Weimer, 2002, p. 49).

Weimer argues that because students are facing a life-long learning reality imposed by technological advances that put information at their hands, the type of knowledge taught in nowadays university classes needs revision to develop students’ memorization, problem-solving and critical thinking abilities. In relation to this issue, Blumberg (2009) believes that learner-centred teachers should

help the students learn why they need to know the content, convey an appreciation of the value of content to the students, and help them to learn new content in the future. They help students learn, think, and solve real problems within the discipline. (Blumberg, 2009, p.73)

3.1.3 Role of the Teacher

Learner-centred teaching requires significant changes; one of them is a change in the role of the teacher. However, as reported by Weimer (2002), today's university teachers' classes in general are characterized as being very teacher-centred. Teachers still lecture and dominate the instructional action in the classroom (i.e. teacher's talk exceeds learners' talk). She adds that even literature on pedagogy focuses on teaching or the actions teachers need to take rather than learning or how much learners learn.

Weimer (2002), herself, confesses:

To be very honest, stepping out of the spotlight has been the most difficult part of my quest to become learner-centred. And finding yourself in the spotlight is only the first step. Once you realise you are there, you must step aside and then perform different actions.(Weimer, 2002, p.74)

In fact, she found it difficult to change the whole situation and to say farewell to herself as an American university teacher who taught for years in a teacher-centred mode.

3.1.4 Responsibility for Learning

According to Weimer (2002), university teachers are often complaining from increasingly less mature and more dependent students and as a response, they are “making clearer and more explicit the terms and conditions for learning” (Weimer, 2002, p.96). In other words, teachers believe that students must be in class, meet deadlines, participate in class, follow the rules and work according to prescribed formats. Besides rules, teachers rely on extrinsic motivators such as quizzes, bonus points and check pluses to move learners to action.

She calls teachers not to abandon structure, rules or extrinsic motivators but to find out other approaches where teachers create climates and conditions conducive to learning, a learning that is described by Blumberg (2009, p. 127) as “a life-long learning...relevant in today's fast-changing, globally connected world.”

Thus, self-directed learning is becoming a common goal for higher education (Pintrich, 2000). However, many students cannot achieve responsibility for learning skills on their own. They need the support of a learner-centred teacher who provides them with opportunities to practise learning skills and with constant feedback (Blumberg, 2009).

3.1.5 Purpose and Process of Evaluation

In relation to this rubric or change, Weimer criticises current higher educational systems for overvaluing grades and assuming that learning will automatically take place. According to her, these assumptions and beliefs need to change when teachers shift to more learner-centred approaches, so that “evaluation is used to generate grades *and* promote learning” (Weimer, 2002, p.119, italics in original). She adds that focusing on grades may influence students’ behaviours in negative ways. For example, they may tend to acquire a grade grubbing mentality and by extension, cheat more. They may also, out of their efforts which do not produce good grades, believe that they should not bother trying to learn.

Weimer does not deny the importance of what she calls the short-term objectives of attaining grades such as seizing selective university entrance and job-interview opportunities. However, she also believes that learning still matters more, especially in the long run. And to promote learning, teaching needs to become more learner-centered and evaluation processes need to change, too. To achieve that, Weimer suggests for university teachers to train their students on self- and peer assessment skills.

In this vein, Blumberg (2009) suggests the use of both summative and formative types of assessment. The first type assesses students’ abilities or skills through grades and the second type integrates assessment in the learning process. In this way, students will be encouraged to justify for their answers and achieve project-work rather than go only through multiple-choice or short-answer tests. Blumberg also

recommends the use of all types of feedback such as teacher's feedback and learners' feedback through peer- and self-assessment to help students to improve.

After broadly defining the five dimensions of change to learner-centredness (Weimer, 2002; Blumberg, 2009), they are going to be thoroughly described and analysed to examine the extent of which they are accounted for in the LMD curriculum and in what degree and kind. In other words, the exact teaching/learning practices present in the LMD curriculum are going to be listed by the end of this chapter.

3.2 Analysing the LMD Reform Using Weimer (2002)'s Framework

Weimer's (2002) five major changes to learner-centredness described earlier were further elaborated seven years later by Blumberg (2009). This scholar provided components for Weimer's five changes. Grouped together, those components constituted a scale, represented in the following table 3.1, that would enable educators and researchers to assess the degree of learner-centredness and teacher-centredness of any teacher's teaching style. Using this scale, the LMD curriculum as described in the official documents is examined to find out the extent to which it reflects the learner-centred principles.

Dimensions of Change towards the Learner-centred Approach				
Balance of Power	Function of Content	Role of the Teacher	Responsibility for Learning	Purpose and Process of Assessment
-Determination of Course Content -Expression of Alternative Perspectives -Determination of How Students Earn Grades -Use of Open-ended Assignments -Flexibility of Course Policies, Assessment Methods, Learning Methods and Deadlines -Opportunities to Learn	-Varied Uses of Content -Level to Which Students Engage in Content -Use of Organising Schemes -Use of Content to Facilitate Learning	-Creation of an Environment for Learning -Alignment of the Course Components - Appropriateness of the Teaching/ Learning Methods for Student Learning Goals -Interaction of Student, Instructor and Content within Activities -Articulation of SMART (Specific-Measurable-Attainable-Relevant-Realistic- Time-oriented) Objectives -Motivation of Students to Learn	-Responsibility for Learning Learning-to-Learn Skills for the Present and the future -Self-directed and Lifelong Learning Skills -Students' Self-assessment of their Learning -Students' Self-assessment of their Strengths and Weaknesses -Information Literacy Skills	-Assessment within the Learning Process -Formative Assessment -Peer and Self Assessment -Demonstration of Mastery and Ability to Learn from Mistakes -Justification of the Accuracy of Answers -Timeframe for Feedback -Authentic Assessment

Table 3.1 Dimensions of Change to Practice the Learner-centred Approach

(As defined by Weimer, 2002 and elaborated by Blumberg, 2009)

3.2.1 Balance of Power in the LMD Curriculum

As suggested by Weimer (2002), there are four areas of potential decision making for students to make a balance of power in a learner-centred classroom: course activities and assignments, classroom policies, course content and evaluation activities. Blumberg (2009), restructured the above areas in terms of more detailed components. These components are: Determination of Course Content- Expression of Alternative Perspectives- Determination of How Students Earn Grades- Use of Open-ended Assignments, Flexibility of Course Policies, Assessment Methods, Learning Methods and Deadlines and Opportunities to Learn (Table 3.1). Each component is examined hereafter in relation to the LMD curriculum.

Concerning the first component to create a balance of power in a learner-centred classroom, Blumberg (2009) asserts that teachers or accreditation agencies (i.e commissions which evaluate teaching programmes) are the experts to determine the majority of the content the students will learn. Even when the content is prescribed, teachers still have the opportunity to relate what learners are learning towards their preferences and career interests. For example, assigned and independent projects or papers often allow students to explore additional content.

Within the LMD curriculum, teaching content is constructed initially by teachers who are grouped in a team work called ‘équipe de formation’. This team suggests, in a technical ‘cahier des charges’ document, a teaching programme which is supposed to respond to the university and /or work-place needs taking into account the country’s socio-economic demands.

The programme is then, evaluated at a regional level by commissions called Commissions Regionales d’Evaluation (CRE). Afterwards, it is validated twice: first, regionally, in regional conferences (conférences régionales), and second, nationally by a commission named Commission Nationale d’Habilitation or CNH (Ministère de l’Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche Scientifique [MESRS], n.d.). These are the steps followed in order to define the teaching content for any type of LMD study

degree. Obviously, the teaching content in the LMD curriculum is prepared by expert teachers and accredited by official and professional commissions (CRE and CNH).

The second component, as suggested by Blumberg (2009), to achieve a balance of power in a learner-centred approach is called Expression of Alternative Perspectives. Blumberg argues that disciplines vary in how much they encourage students to express alternative perspectives. For example, in the humanities, students are more encouraged to express alternative perspectives on a topic.

In the LMD curriculum, teachers are encouraged to develop learners' autonomy, to make them work on their own and to ask questions and debate in class. Apart from teaching, tutoring is another feature practiced in the LMD curriculum. The personal tutor is the person who improves the intellectual and academic ability and nurtures the emotional well-being of students through individualized, holistic support (Stork, & Walker, 2015).

In the LMD curriculum, tutors act like facilitators and resources for first year license students to help them develop critical thinking and a sense of curiosity (MESRS, 2011, p.57). Tutoring as a pedagogical activity was set forth under ministerial circular number 09/03 of the 3rd of January, 2009. It is stated that the tutoring activity constitutes of four tutoring teams: accompaniment, methodological, technical and professional but without describing the exact mission of each team. Apparently, it is the responsibility of each university to set up its own official guide to tutors. This was observed by the researcher when visiting the web-sites of some Algerian universities.

The third component to reach a balance of power between teachers and learners in a learner-centred approach is about the Determination of How Students Earn Grades. According to Weimer (2002), in a teacher-centred classroom, the teacher controls the way grades are determined; students cannot demonstrate understanding through alternative methods and have only one final exam to go through to get a mark.

However, in a learner-centred setting, instructors grant learners some control over how they earn grades and in this case, they learn more and earn higher grades.

Blumberg (2009, p.192) suggests the use of two methods of evaluation called Mastery Grading and Contract Grading to give students some control over their grades. The Mastery Grading method is used when the teacher decides to grant either full or no credit for attaining or not an acceptable level of performance which is defined by the teacher. Concerning Contract Grading, students do not receive the grade unless they achieve assignments determined by the teacher. In this case, full or partial points may be granted to students depending on the quality of work they submit to their teachers.

Within the LMD curriculum, the attainment of semesters of study is defined depending on the number of credits earned by the students. The number of credits is calculated through a software programme after the teacher grants his/her students marks or points, using continuous or formal modes of assessment or both of them (Article 18/ Decree n°137 June 20th, 2009).

Continuous assessment constitutes the chance for teachers to adopt Contract Grading since it is performed in a study session called tutorials or ‘Travaux Dirigés’ (TD) session whereby students achieve assignments such as presentations, written tests, home-work or personal work (Article 21/ Decree n°712 Nov 3rd, 2011). In this way, the LMD students are given some control over their grades when they are continuously assessed by their teachers.

The fourth component of the Balance of Power dimension is about the Use of Open-ended Assignments. According to Blumberg (2009, p.193): “assignments are open-ended in terms of the content, the methods of achievement, alternative paths to completion, or consideration of more than one right answer”. In other words, when assigned with a task, students will find their own preferred path to a solution; they will select their own resources and their own type of product. In the LMD curriculum,

teachers are indeed encouraged to give their students open-ended assignments and to work on their own in the TD session (MESRS, 2011, p.35, 57).

The fifth component concerns Flexibility of Course Policies, Assessment Methods, Learning Methods and Deadlines. Weimer (2002) argued that students are more motivated to work harder and have greater engagement in their learning when they are involved in the decision-making policies for their class. Blumberg (2009, p.194) asserts that “when teachers negotiate teaching issues relating to the governance, deadlines, and learning and assessment methods used in their courses with their students, these latter will often develop the same rules that teachers usually impose, such as coming on time and being prepared”.

In the LMD official documents, no citation was found about the negotiation of class policies and teaching methods between teachers and students. Within the LMD curriculum, some aspects of teacher-centredness such as mandated attendance is quite evident. Indeed, regulations oblige students to attend their lectures and tutorial sessions (Article 11-13/Decree[°] 711 Nov the 3rd, 2011). In fact, all decisions in relation to the policy in class or taking exams are decided by policy-makers through clearly stated official texts (Articles 25, 26, 27, 28, 30, 31/ Decree[°] 711 Nov the 3rd, 2011).

The sixth and last component in the Balance of Power change factor involves Opportunities to Learn. Blumberg (2009), like Weimer (2002), believes that instead of mandating what students should do to achieve the course objectives, teachers can help them understand that they have different types of opportunities to learn in-and out-of-class activities such as working together and learning from each other. For these scholars, it is better that students recognise and accept that there are consequences for not taking advantage of opportunities to learn than imposing on them to be on time, attend their classes and participate in class.

During first year LMD tutoring sessions, the tutor may play the role of a guide or a facilitator as he/she can inform students about some necessary pedagogical

information and respond to their inquiries. He/ She can advise and orient them throughout their learning process (Idri, 2005). Tutoring in the LMD system is a good means to expose learners to different types of learning opportunities and to understand consequences for not taking advantage of them.

3.2.2 Function of Content in the LMD Curriculum

Blumberg (2009) considered four main components that would cause a change in the function of content in a learner-centred approach: Varied Uses of Content, Level to which Students Engage in Content, Use of Organising Schemes and Use of Content to Facilitate Future Learning (Table 3.1). The possible application of each component within the learner-centred LMD curriculum is considered hereafter.

According to Blumberg (2009), Varied Uses of Content is about building knowledge base in addition to making students know why they need to learn the content, acquiring discipline-specific learning methodologies such as how to read primary source material, using inquiry or ways of thinking in the discipline and learning to solve real-world problems.

In the LMD curriculum, building knowledge base is achieved during the lecture. In the lecture, the teacher lectures or teaches about the discipline (Article 11/ Decree ° 711 Nov 3rd, 2011). The other skills are acquired during Tutorials (TD) and Practical Work (TP) sessions. In the TD session, students assimilate better knowledge presented to them in the lecture by practising different skills and activities (Article 12/Decree °711 Nov 3rd, 2011). In the TP session, students put into practice part of or all the acquired knowledge during the lecture or the TD session (Article 14/ Decree 711 Nov 3rd, 2011).

The other component to transform when shifting the function of content is the Level to which Students Engage in Content. In this context, Blumberg (2009) reports the effect of students' non-engagement with the course material: "when students learn content by memorising it without attaching meaning, they usually forget it quickly". He argues that students develop understanding and remember better "by making

associations with the new content, developing their own examples of a concept, putting concepts into their own words, or reflecting on the meaning of the content” and then, “they apply it to their own lives or real-world situations”(Blumberg, 2009,p.79).

In fact, students’ autonomy is highly advocated in the LMD guide; they are expected to achieve personal work with the resources and materials available to them (MESRS, 2011, p.54). In this respect, each teacher is supposed to provide students with a list of references in relation to the teaching content at the beginning of the semester, with the course materials (handouts or online courses) as well as teaching resources centres (libraries and Internet sites). Learning materials, referred to in the guide as ‘the textbook’ and teacher’s assignments to students encourage them to work alone and prepare thoroughly their courses (MESRS, 2011, p. 55). In this way, teachers can assist students to reflect on content to construct their own meaning.

To make the function of content more learner-centred, the Use of Organising Schemes component needs consideration. As defined and illustrated by Blumberg (2009, p. 81), an organising scheme is the syllabus/course’s “conceptual framework or objective as defined by experts”. He gave an example of an organising scheme in a Psychology course and defined it as “the ability to recognise and describe the methods used by psychologists in studying both mental processes and behaviour of humans and other species” (Blumberg, 2009, p. 81). Thus, in a learner-centred classroom, the teacher should help students recognise the purpose behind learning any discipline or course.

Even though it is clearly stated in the LMD guide that teachers should inform their students about their teaching content right at the beginning of the teaching semester (MESRS, 2011, p.54), they are not openly required to help them recognise, identify or evaluate why they need to learn different disciplines. Tutors, on the other hand, are recommended to help students to develop a sense of curiosity and critical thinking skills (MESRS, 2011, p.55). In other words, the tutor can help first year LMD students to recognise why they should exert an effort and learn a given content.

The fourth and last component to take into account when shifting the function of content to a more learner-centred teaching style is the Use of Content to Facilitate Future Learning. According to Blumberg (2009, p.79), the learner-centred approach “takes the general aim of education, of preparing students to apply the content they acquire in the future, to a further step by applying the acquired content to learn new content”. In the LMD curriculum, students are supposed to study a Study Skills course, consult extra resources and documents, use ICTs and even acquire foreign languages (Article 14/ Decree n°712 Nov 3rd, 2011). All these skills would assist students in learning additional content that is not taught in class.

3.2.3 Role of the Teacher in the LMD Curriculum

Blumberg (2009) suggests changing six components in order for teachers to step out of the teacher-centred mode of instruction. These components are: Creation of an Environment for Learning, Alignment of the Course Components, Appropriateness of the Teaching/Learning Methods for Student Learning Goals, Interaction of Student, Instructor and Content within Activities, Articulation of SMART Objectives and Motivation of Students to Learn (see table 3.1). The analysis of how each component operates within the LMD curriculum is provided below with reference to official texts.

In order to consider the first component and create an environment for learning, Blumberg (2009) suggests for teachers to organise and use material to accommodate different learning styles in order to grant students choices in their learning and encourage them to make different types of products. Learning styles are various but the most common ones are auditory, visual, tactile, individual and group learning styles. At least for these varieties, it is possible for the LMD teacher to accommodate them.

Auditory students may prefer to learn through lectures (Dunn, 1990) and in the LMD curriculum, lectures constitute one of the teaching methods (Article 11/ Decree n°711 Nov 3rd, 2011). Visual students like to read and study diagrams, charts ...etc (Reid, 1987) and in this case, LMD tutorial sessions may create an appropriate context

where students observe and understand better the knowledge presented to them during lectures (Article 12/ibid). Tactile students prefer to have hands on and do laboratory experiments (Reid, 1987) and this can be achieved in the LMD system through TP sessions and trainings (Article 14/ibid). Group and individual learning styles are both encouraged in the LMD curriculum since students are required to achieve individual and project works (Article 14/ibid).

In order to make the role of the teacher more learner-centred, Blumberg (2009) suggests the Alignment of the Course Components. To achieve this, he recommends to integrate all aspects of the course including its objectives, teaching/learning methods and assessment. He explains how these aspects can be integrated through an Urban Ecology course.

In this course, the teacher has three main types of objectives: knowledge, skills acquisition and the application of those skills to solve real-world problems. To align these objectives with the learning and assessment methods of the course, the teacher used a variety of learning activities such as reading texts to present knowledge, accomplishing assignments to develop skills and foster knowledge and realising projects outside university to apply previously acquired knowledge and skills. And in order to assess students, the teachers used the previous assignments and projects as tools of assessment.

In order to learn about the alignment of the objectives, teaching methodology and assessment methodology within the LMD curriculum, the courses' general objectives should be defined first. The objectives of the LMD curriculum constitute of the acquisition of skills and knowledge (Article 7/Decree n°712 Nov the 3rd, 2011). Those objectives can be reached through different teaching methods such as lectures, tutorials and practical work sessions, conferences, seminars, project-work and trainings or 'stages pratiques' (Article 5/ibid). The assessment of students' knowledge and skills may be achieved through continuous assessment or a formal exam or through both modes (Article 18/ibid). In this way, the LMD teacher has the

opportunity to align his/her course objectives, teaching/learning and assessment methods.

The next component which characterises the learner-centred mode of instruction is called Teaching or Learning Methods Appropriate for Student Learning Goals. Blumberg (2009, p.107) defines learner-centred teaching/learning methods as “active learning activities that instructors use with their students”. They may be “in class, online or require homework assignments or projects”. According to him, those activities should be appropriate to the learning goals of the students in the sense that they describe what they should be able to know, do, or value because of learning in the course.

In the LMD curriculum, teaching is defined in terms of units of four types: fundamental, methodology, discovery and transversal units. In a Licence or a Master degree, a teaching semester may comprise one or many of the above mentioned units depending on the teaching objectives defined by the Formation Committee. Each unit includes different subjects that may be taught using different teaching methods such as lectures, tutorials (TD), practical work (TP), trainings, seminars or any other form of teaching (MESRS, 2009). Thus, the LMD teacher has the possibility to use various teaching methods in order to match activities with students’ learning goals in each subject.

The fourth component which helps teachers move away from the teacher-centred teaching style is called Activities Involving Student, Instructor and Content Interactions. Blumberg (2009) suggests working in small groups to solve problems since this activity makes students interact with the content to do something with it rather than just hear or read about it. He believes that social interactions (students-to-students or students-to-teachers) in addition to the active engagement of students with the content leads to increased learning.

In the LMD classes, all types of interactions are possible to happen. A two-way communication may occur between teachers and students in the TD and TP sessions.

Even during lectures, all students' inquiries, questions and debates in relation to the teaching content may be addressed by teachers. Students who face learning problems may also benefit from individual consultation sessions.

Student-content interaction is another type of interaction that may be encouraged in class since promoting learner autonomy is a priority in the LMD philosophy and teachers are encouraged to enable students to work on the teaching material on their own (MESRS, 2011, p.54). LMD students may also interact with each other since they are supposed to achieve group-work or project- work assignments. Apart from teaching, tutoring also permits interaction between tutors and students when they act like facilitators and resources for students (MESRS, 2011, p.55). Presented in this way, the LMD students can routinely interact with the instructor, tutor, material and each other.

The Articulation of the Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Relevant and Timeframe (SMART) objectives is another feature of the learner-centred pedagogy. Blumberg (2009, p.110) describes SMART objectives as “the most specific types of objectives” drawn by the teacher. According to him, “a SMART objective, describing changes in the student, will state what changes will result (specific), how much change is expected (measurable), who or what will change (attainable), where the change will occur (relevant) and when the change will occur (Timeframe).” (Blumberg, 2009, p.110)

In relation to the Licence LMD curriculum, the SMART objectives are well articulated. First year students (Attainable objective) who prepare to obtain a licence degree (Specific objective) and during the first two semesters of their study (Timeframe objective) will get acquainted with life at university and will be introduced to different teaching disciplines (Measurable objective) for the sake of adaptation and discovery (Relevant objective).

Second year students (Attainable objective) and during two semesters of their study (Timeframe objective) will study different subjects (Measurable objective) in

order to consolidate their knowledge (Relevant objective) to gradually attain the third year study level (Specific objective). In the same way, third year students (Attainable objective) and during two semesters of their study (Timeframe objective) will acquire knowledge and skills relevant to a given study orientation (Measurable objective) for specialisation (Relevant objective) in order to get a Licence degree (Specific objective) (Article 16/ Decree n°712 Nov 3rd, 2011).

SMART objectives for the Master's degree can be defined in relation to its two corresponding levels. First year students (Attainable objective) who prepare to obtain a master degree in a specific specialization or option (Specific objective) and during the first two semesters of their study (Timeframe objective) will deepen their knowledge and develop their skills (Relevant objective) through the study of some subjects (Measurable objective). Second year students (Attainable objective) and during the second two semesters of their study (Timeframe objective) will obtain a master degree (Specific objective) after studying different subjects and writing a dissertation (Measurable objective) so that they finally get specialised and introduced to research methodology (Relevant objective) (Article 16/ Decree n° 712 Nov the 3rd, 2011).

The sixth and last component which makes the role of the teacher a more learner-centred is Motivation of Students to Learn. Blumberg (2009) distinguishes between intrinsically motivated students who learn because they want and have an intrinsic drive to learn and extrinsically motivated learners who learn to earn grades. Intrinsically motivated students often earn excellent grades in their courses but the grades themselves do not motivate them to learn; these students may go beyond the requirements of a course because the subject matter interests them.

However, in reality, many teachers find that their students are less intrinsically motivated and spend few out-of-class hours preparing for their courses. As a response, teachers institute more rules that require class attendance. They also rely more on extrinsic motivators, such as giving points for class participation (Weimer, 2002). Blumberg (2009) argues that the more teachers provide these extrinsic motivators, the less intrinsically motivated students will be.

Even though it is stated in the LMD guide that teachers are not supposed to spoon-feed students and get every course readymade for them (MESRS, 2011, p.55), no clear guidelines for instructors to intrinsically encourage students to study are highlighted. On the contrary, teachers are highly recommended to inform their students about what they expect them to do (MESRS, 2011, p.55).

In addition, attendance is included to determine the course grade and it is fixed by rules (Article 11-13-15/Decree n° 712 Nov the 3rd, 2011), allowing up to three unexcused or five excused absences in the semester (Article 25/ibid). Participation during TD and TP sessions is also highly recommended (Article 24/ibid). Indeed, the LMD curriculum encourages teachers to use extrinsic motivators extensively to get students to earn grades. Apparently, the tutor's psychological assistance of students during their first year of study (Article 2/ Decree n° 9-3 Jan the 3rd, 2009) is among the few possibilities to develop students' intrinsic motivation to learn. Except this, all types of motivators referred to in official documents are extrinsic.

3.2.4 Responsibility for Learning in the LMD Curriculum

Blumberg (2009) characterises the learner-centred approach in the rubric Responsibility for Learning with six components: Responsibility for Learning, Learning-to-learn Skills for the Present and the Future, Self-Directed and Life-long Learning Skills, Students' Self-Assessment of their Learning, Students' Self-Assessment of their Strengths and Weaknesses and Information Literacy Skills (Table 3.1). The operation of these components within the LMD curriculum is considered hereafter.

The first component Responsibility for Learning is about who takes responsibility for learning. Blumberg (2009) assumes that the student needs to take increasing, or at least some responsibility for learning under the guidance of the teacher. In the beginning, teachers give students more guidance and more structure and as the course progresses, they are guided less so that they end-up assuming more responsibility for their own learning.

Within the LMD curriculum, teacher's guidance and support to students is provided through tutoring sessions during the first year of study in the Licence degree (Article 3 / Decree n° 09-03 Jan the 3rd, 2009). Tutoring implies that the tutor has as mission to accompany first year students in order to help them get integrated into university life and acquainted with work possibilities for the future. To do so, the tutor helps the students in many aspects: Informative, pedagogic, methodological, technical and psychological (Article 2/ Decree n° 09-03 Jan the 3rd, 2009).

In this tutoring context, the students gradually acquire knowledge, skills and a teamwork spirit. They are accompanied in their personal work in order to learn how to manage their time-table and acquire university study skills. They are assisted in learning how to consult library and other resources for information (Article 8/ Journal Officiel de la Republique Algerienne [JORA] n° 23: 17). Thus, the LMD student is encouraged to take increasing responsibility for learning under the guidance of the tutor.

The second component is about Learning-to-learn Skills for the Present and the Future. Learning to learn skills, according to Blumberg (2009), may include time management, self-monitoring, goal setting, how to do independent reading and how to conduct original research. LMD students are supposed to learn those skills in their first year tutoring sessions; ministerial circular number 2/09-03 of the 3rd of Jan, 2009 report that students should learn how to organise their personal work, how to initiate group and/or individual university study skills, how to use different pedagogical tools and references and how to achieve their projects.

The third component is related to Self-directed and Lifelong Learning Skills. These skills, according to Blumberg (2009), may include determining a personal need to know more, knowing who to ask and where to seek information, determining when a need is met and developing a self-awareness of one's own learning abilities. In the LMD curriculum, tutors of first year university students are required to assist students in the acquisition of self-directed and lifelong learning skills or 'techniques de data-formation' (Article 8/ JORA, 2008, p.17).

The fourth component concerns Students' Self-Assessment of their Learning. Blumberg argues that "students need to be able to assess their own learning and to determine how much mastery they have, independent of someone else telling them how much they have learned" (Blumberg, 2009, p.134). In the LMD curriculum, tutors of first year university students are recommended to assist students in the acquisition of self-assessment skills or 'techniques d'auto-evaluation' (JORA, 2008, p.17). Teachers, on the other hand, are the only responsible in class to assess students' skills, competences, depict students who face learning difficulties and help them overcome their learning problems (MESRS, 2011, p.55).

The fifth component is about Students' Self-Assessment of their Strengths and Weaknesses. Blumberg comments that in respect to this component: "students assess themselves on many different types of strengths and weaknesses, including, but not limited to interpersonal skills, organisational abilities, mastery of skills including communication skills and knowledge." (Blumberg, 2009, p.134) He suggests the use of writing as a skill to promote students' self-reflection and critique. In the LMD curriculum, apart from the general recommendations to tutors, reported earlier, to assist first year students in the acquisition of self-assessment skills, teachers are not required to direct students to assess their personal points of strengths and weaknesses.

The sixth and last component concerns Information Literacy Skills. Blumberg (2009) reports that these skills are about framing researchable questions, accessing sources, evaluating content and using information legally and ethically. In other words, students need to know about specialised databases of the disciplines of their concern in order to use them to access information. They need to evaluate the source of the information and assess its accuracy. They need to learn about ethical and legal uses of information, for example, how to paraphrase and cite authors without plagiarising them.

In the LMD curriculum, students should be taught a Methodology Teaching Unit during their Licence as well as their Master degree (JORA, 2008 p.5-6) to enable them to acquire information literacy skills. They should also practise those skills when

writing their Licence degree final project and Master degree final dissertation (JORA, 2008, p.6). In this way, students have a real chance to learn to become more proficient researchers.

3.2.5 Purpose and Process of Evaluation in the LMD Curriculum

To alter assessment from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred approach, the following components, as suggested by Blumberg (2009), need consideration. Assessment within the Learning Process, Formative Assessment, Peer and Self-Assessment, Demonstration of Mastery and Ability to Learn from Mistakes, Justification of the Accuracy of Answers, and Timeframe for Feedback and Authentic Assessment (see table 3.1). Each of these components is considered in relation to the LMD curriculum.

The component Assessment within the Learning can be achieved by including opportunities for student learning during assessment activities or by using learning activities that incorporate assessment components (Blumberg, 2009). In the LMD curriculum, assessment may be incorporated within the learning activities during the teaching sessions, field trips, trainings and seminars or through students' personal work (Article 20/Decree n°712 Nov the 3rd, 11). LMD university teachers may, depending on the decision of the Pedagogical Team, integrate assessment within the learning process.

The second component is Formative Assessment. This continuous assessment mode provides the students with feedback for future improvement without necessarily putting a mark or a grade for him/her (Blumberg 2009). In the LMD curriculum, formative assessment in different courses may be achieved through classroom oral presentations, written tests, home work assignments and it is usually marked with a final grade (Article 21/Decree n°712 Nov the 3rd, 11). In other words, both summative and formative assessment modes are used in the LMD curriculum in the sense that students are provided with both feedback for future development and final marks.

The third component is Peer- and Self Assessment. Blumberg (2009) argues that the combination of peer, self-assessment and teacher assessments leads to triangulation of data and a more valid assessment. However, teachers need to train students and give them an assessment form containing specific assessment criteria in order to avoid non-objective feedback from the part of students. In the LMD curriculum, first year students are supposed to be assisted by their tutor to acquire self-evaluation techniques (JORA, 2016, p.17). However, in class, the teacher is totally responsible for evaluating his/her students (MESRS, 2011, p. 55). So, no peer and self-assessment is encouraged within the LMD curriculum.

The fourth component in order to make assessment more learner-centred is called Demonstration of Mastery and Ability to Learn from Mistakes. It is about giving students more than one opportunity to show that they have mastered the materiel. For example, teachers can only grade students' final draft after providing them with feedback on the previous drafts. Also, they can test them on not only one but several occasions (Blumberg, 2009).

The LMD curriculum offers students some opportunities to learn from their mistakes and then demonstrate mastery. For instance, Master 2 students should write a final draft of their dissertation taking into account the feedback of their supervisor; the work is afterwards demonstrated and graded during a public viva (Arreté n° 362 of the 9th of Juin, 2014). Another example occurs when students score below 10 on their semester exams; they can go through retake exams and the best mark is retained (Article 23-27/ Decree n° 712 Nov the 3rd, 2011).

The fifth component is Justification of the Accuracy of Answers. Blumberg (2009) believes that when students are asked to justify for their answers in their exams or tests, they will probably make the teacher recognise alternative answers than the ones suggested in his/her mind and they will invest more effort and concentration in assimilating the teaching content and/or checking the material. In other words, students' role, during exams, will not be restricted to crossing out wrong answers or

ticking right answers on multiple-choice questions but to defend their arguments and answers.

In the LMD curriculum, teachers are responsible for determining accuracy of exam answers (Article 35/ Decree n° 711 Nov the 3rd, 2011) and students have the right to consult their exam papers (Article 37/ibid). If they are not satisfied about their mark after correcting the exam and consulting their papers, they may have the right to a second correction of their papers (Article 37/ibid).

In this way, a negotiation of the exam correction between the teacher and the students is possible. This suggests that despite the fact that it is the teacher who determines accuracy of exam answers, students are allowed to ask why they got answers wrong during the consultation session of their exam papers. Not only this, they have the right to make claims if they are not convinced with their grades after consultation.

The sixth component is Timeframe for Feedback. Blumberg (2009) believes that a learner-centred teacher should not only provide but agree with his /her students on a deadline or a timeframe for submitting marks with constructive feedback on students' performance on tests, projects or papers. In the LMD official texts, the correction sample of the exam should be posted to the students right after each official exam (Article 35/ibid). However, no guidelines to teachers were provided on whether to put a timeframe for correcting continuous assessment assignments or to incorporate constructive feedback in addition to grades. Seemingly, except for official exams, LMD teachers are left free to provide or not their students with a timeframe for feedback.

The last component is about Authentic Assessment. Blumberg (2009) means by authentic assessment that students, during exams/tests, are required to do real-world tasks such as analysing case studies using real data or conducting realistic laboratory experiments. In the LMD curriculum, the purpose of assessment is evaluating knowledge and skills (Art 18/Decree 712 Nov the 3rd, 2011) and this can be achieved

through presentations, written tests or home work assignments (Art 21/ibid). Whereas knowledge is best assessed through tests or exams, skills are evaluated through presentations, home work assignments especially if they incorporate real world or authentic tasks. All these assessment techniques and which form or degree of authenticity to attribute to them are issues decided by the Pedagogical Team (Art 21/ibid).

Table 3.2, on the next page, summarises the findings of the scrutiny I achieved throughout this section about the dimensions of change in the LMD reform. It displays in different colours all the teacher-centred and learner-centred roles of the teachers as well as the learner-centred roles of the tutors.

Dimensions of Change in the LMD curriculum				
Balance of Power	Function of Content	Role of the Teacher	Responsibility for Learning	Purpose and Process of Assessment
<u>Determination of Course Content</u> The teacher determines course content <u>Expression of Alternative Perspectives</u> The teacher encourages students to express alternative perspectives when appropriate. <u>Adoption of Continuous Assessment</u> The teacher adopts continuous assessment <u>Use of Open-ended Assignments</u> The teacher uses assignments that are open-ended or allow alternative paths to encourage students' creativity and engagement <u>Mandating Policies and Deadlines</u> policy-makers/administration as well as teachers mandate all policies and deadlines. <u>Opportunities to Learn</u> Tutors, guide students to understand and make advantage of opportunities to learn	<u>Varied Uses of Content</u> The teacher uses content in a varied way <u>Students' Engagement with Content</u> The teacher assists students to transform and reflect on most of the content to make their own sense of it <u>Use of Organising Schemes</u> Tutors make students recognize, identify or evaluate why they need to learn different disciplines during the course <u>Use of Content to Facilitate Future Learning</u> Teachers teach students to apply the acquired content to learn a new one.	<u>Creation of an Environment for Learning</u> The teacher has the possibility to create a learning environment by organising and using material that accommodates different learning styles. <u>Alignment of the Course Components</u> The teacher has the opportunity to align their teaching objectives with their corresponding teaching and assessment methods. <u>Matching Students' Learning Goals</u> The teacher has the possibility to use various teaching methods that describe what the students should be able to know and do out of learning <u>Student, Teacher and Content Interaction</u> The teacher can routinely use activities in which students actively interact with the teacher, the material and each other <u>Articulation of SMART Objectives</u> The teacher should define the SMART objectives when preparing courses <u>Students' Motivation to Learn</u> The teacher is recommended to use extrinsic motivators	<u>Responsibility for Learning</u> The tutor guides the students to take increasing responsibility for learning <u>Learning-to-learn Skills for the Present and the future</u> The tutor guides the students to learn-how-to learn <u>Self-directed and Lifelong Learning Skills</u> The tutor guides the students to acquire self-directed and lifelong learning skills <u>Students' Self-assessment of their Learning</u> The tutor directs the students to assess their own learning <u>Assessment of Students' Strengths and Weaknesses</u> The teacher is the only responsible in class to assess students' skills, competences and find-out about their learning difficulties <u>Information Literacy Skills</u> The teacher teaches the students to be proficient in framing researchable questions, accessing information and evaluating their sources and content and using information legally and ethically.	<u>Assessment within the Learning Process</u> Teachers may, depending on the decision of the Pedagogical Team, integrate assessment within the learning process <u>Summative and Formative Assessment</u> The teacher uses both summative and formative assessment modes <u>No Self or Peer Assessment</u> The teacher is totally responsible for evaluating his/her students; no self or peer-evaluation is encouraged in class <u>Demonstration of Ability to Learn from Mistakes</u> The LMD system policy offers students some opportunities to learn from their mistakes and then demonstrate mastery <u>Justification of the Accuracy of Answers</u> The teacher determines accuracy of answers in exams <u>Timeframe for Feedback</u> The teacher sets a timeframe for providing feedback in official exams <u>Authentic Assessment</u> The Pedagogical Team decides upon which assessment techniques to use in class and their degree of authenticity.

Teacher-centred teaching practices/ Learner-centred teaching practices/ Learner-centred tutoring practices

Table 3.2 Teaching and Tutoring Practices in the LMD Curriculum

After defining all the teaching and tutoring practices in the LMD curriculum, it seems interesting to assess, from a theoretical perspective, how much change or shift to the learner-centred pedagogy is supposed to happen.

3.3 Does the LMD reform Reflect Change in Practice?

The previous scrutiny of the LMD official documents demonstrated that the principles stated in the LMD reform are quite congruent with those put forward by Weimer (2002) and Blumberg (2009). This reveals that change in practice was expected since the teachers were supposed to adopt more learner-centred roles and tutors were required to play a pivotal role in applying learner-centredness. Despite the fact that more aspects of learner-centredness characterised the LMD reform, some teacher-centered principles persisted. All the teachers' and tutors practices are listed in the sections to come.

a. Teachers' Teacher-centred Roles

- The teacher determines the course content
- Policy-makers/administration as well as teachers mandate all policies and deadlines (i.e. no flexible class decisions between teachers and students are encouraged to take place).
- Teachers adopt extrinsic motivators to get students to earn grades.
- Teachers are the only responsible in class to assess students' skills, competences and find-out about their learning difficulties in the sense that they do not direct students to assess their strengths and weaknesses.
- Teachers do not use self or peer-evaluation in class.
- Teachers determine accuracy of exam answers.

Aspects of teacher-centredness are still present in the LMD pedagogy probably because change is intended to be smoothly introduced by top-down decision makers taking into account some social and cultural factors. Seemingly, change or shift from the teacher-centred to the learner-centred approach is meant to be gradual and not to be pressed hard on teachers in order not to face resistance from their part.

In addition to the teacher-centred principles, other learner-centred aspects characterised teaching/tutoring in the LMD curriculum and they can be recapitulated in the following two lists; one concerns teachers of all disciplines/courses and the other one relates to tutors who only operate at the first year degree.

b. Teachers' Learner-centred Roles

- Teachers encourage students to explore additional content independently or through projects and to express alternative perspectives when appropriate.
- Teachers adopt Contract Grading (Continuous Assessment) and open-ended assignments.
- Teachers use varied teaching content and assist students to transform and reflect on most of the content to make their own sense of it.
- Teachers use material that accommodates different learning styles and they align objectives, teaching and assessment methods.
- Teachers use activities in which students actively interact with the instructor, the material and each other.
- Teachers define SMART (Specific- Measurable- Attainable- Relevant and Time-oriented) objectives when preparing their lessons.
- Teachers integrate assessment within the learning process (depending on the decision of the Pedagogical Team).
- Teachers use formative assessment modes (in addition to summative ones).
- Teachers offer students some opportunities to learn from their mistakes and demonstrate mastery.
- Teachers use different assessment techniques.

C. Tutors' Learner-centred Roles

- Tutors guide students to understand and make advantage of opportunities to learn (intrinsic motivation).
- Tutors encourage students to recognize, identify or evaluate why they need to learn different disciplines during the course.
- Tutors guide students to take increasing responsibility for learning
- Tutors guide students to learn-how-to learn
- Tutors guide students to acquire self-directed and lifelong learning skills.
- Tutors guide students to assess their own learning.
- Tutors advise, accompany students in understanding pedagogical and academic issues.
- Tutors support and nurture the emotional well-being of the students.

All the previously stated learner-centred roles constitute the change required in the LMD reform. All LMD teachers and tutors should shift teaching from a teacher-centred to a more learner-centred teaching style. The prevalence of these aspects in the LMD curriculum brings about another issue which is the lack of guidelines on how to practise those principles in class. Indeed, the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (MHESR) should have thought of developing teacher training programmes, in different domains or fields of study such as EFL teaching, to help teachers to bridge the gap between theory and practice or between what is required from them to do and how they should properly do it in class.

Conclusion

To conclude this chapter, it has been confirmed so far that the LMD reform reflects change in the teachers' practices since the principles or philosophy stated in the

official MHESR documents are quite congruent with a large number of principles of the learner-centred pedagogy described in the literature (Weimer 2002- Blumberg 2009). In fact, the outcome of the scrutiny and analysis achieved in the second section of this chapter proved that despite the persistence of some teacher-centred teaching behaviours, LMD teachers are supposed to adopt and put into practice more learner-centred principles.

This chapter also gave evidence of the pivotal role the tutor plays in causing change in the LMD reform. This tutor seems to bring a great contribution in assisting teachers in their mission and in shifting them and their students to more learner-centred teaching and learning principles. At this stage of the review, it seems essential to examine the depth of educational change in the LMD reform by exploring the teachers' beliefs and practices in the English department of B2U. The next chapter describes the research design and data collection procedure and analysis used for the present study.

Chapter Four :

Research Design and Procedure

Introduction

The present research study aims at exploring the depth of educational change in the English department of Blida 2 University through an investigation of the teachers' beliefs and practices within the LMD reform. The main research question and the three sub-questions of the study are:

Main question: Did the LMD reform implemented in the English department of B2U result in an educational change?

- a. RQ1: Did the reform cause change in the teachers' own beliefs about teaching and learning?
- b. RQ2: Did the reform cause change in their teaching approaches and practices?
- c. RQ3: Did the reform cause change in the use of new instructional materials?

In relation to these research questions, we put the following null hypothesis “there is no depth of educational change in the teachers' beliefs and practices in the English Department of B2U”.

This chapter accounts for the steps followed in order to investigate teachers' inherent beliefs as well as their practices (i.e. teaching approach and instructional materials). It discusses in detail the research design and procedure underpinning the study. First, it discusses the nature of the study and justifies the choice of the research paradigm. Then, it explains the adopted sampling procedures and describes profiles of the whole population as well as its participants. Finally, it examines methods of data collection and analysis.

4.1 Selecting a Mixed Methods Design

To collect data for the present research study, we have adopted a mixed-methods design. Mixed-methods design represents a mixture of quantitative and qualitative approaches (Springer 2010). These two approaches may be used in

different types of research and have both advantages and disadvantages as demonstrated hereafter.

Salkind (2008) argues that quantitative research methods allow certain researchers to measure certain behaviours and phenomena. Data are represented in the form of numbers. Measurement is necessary if the scientific method is to be used. Hypotheses must be formulated and observable and measurable data must be gathered. Data may be collected in various ways such as via the Internet, surveys, tests, inventories or written documents. Mathematical procedures are used for the statistical analyses required for hypothesis testing. If researchers are to ascertain relationships and differences between variables, data must be provided to support objective, valid and reliable conclusions.

In the same vein, Salkind (2008) adds that qualitative research methods are used typically in research projects that take a human-focused perspective in the design and implementation of the investigation. This paradigm is designed to explore the human elements of a topic under investigation ; in this context, qualitative research such as in depth interviewing or ethnographic observation are used to examine how individuals see and experience the world around them. Researchers typically talk to people directly or observe their behaviours in various contexts to understand what those individuals view as important about particular phenomena.

Johnson & Christensen (2014) specify that a mixed-methods study incorporates the relative strengths of quantitative and qualitative designs in the sense that the two approaches are integrated and interrelated rather than used to make isolated contributions to the study and this, according to them, “can make it less likely that you (researcher) will miss something important or make a mistake” (Johnson et al., 2014, p, 52). The present mixed methods study is characterised as being a confirmatory and triangulation case study. These characteristics are described in the next section.

4.1.1 Confirmatory and Triangulation Design

The present mixed-methods design is both a confirmatory and triangulation design. The focus of each design is first defined and then explained in relation to the purpose of the present doctoral research.

According to Johnson et al. (2014), the focus of a confirmatory scientific method is on hypothesis testing and theory testing. The present study is actually confirmatory since it aims at checking the validity of the present study's hypothesis formulated as follows: "there is no depth of educational change in the teachers' beliefs and practices in the English Department of B2U." and testing the extent to which EFL teachers sought to apply the teaching principles implied by the LMD reform or curriculum.

The present research is a triangulation design. According to Springer (2010), in a triangulation design, the researcher compares and integrates the results of quantitative and qualitative data collection, and perhaps bases further data collection on the initial findings. He adds that the term triangulation further refers to the consideration of multiple perspectives in order to better understand the phenomenon under study.

In the current study, a collection of quantitative data was done concurrently with qualitative data. A questionnaire to students and an interview to teachers were used to elicit data on the teaching practices in the English Department at B2U. Students were asked to define the frequency with which their teachers practised certain teaching practices and they were simultaneously asked to provide some illustrations or comments of their own. Through interviews, teachers were asked to indicate whether they practiced some teaching behaviours and then to justify their answers or illustrate them. In this way, qualitative data were meant to illuminate teachers' and students' responses of the quantitative data.

It should be mentioned that concerning the inquiry about teachers' predominant beliefs' orientation (i.e. teacher-centred or learner-centred), the qualitative research design is exclusively used to data collection (see section 2.2.2). Thus, qualitative data were gathered through the use of metaphor analysis and self-reflection activities. However, for data analysis, both the quantitative and the qualitative approaches were used (see section 4.4.1.5)

4.1.2 Case Study

A case study was used for this inquiry. It refers to “a method that involves systematically gathering enough information about some particular individual, social setting, event, group or organization” (Berg, 2008, p.829). It focuses more directly on individuals or people that are treated as a single unit and as they exist in their real-life context (Springer, 2010). The aim is to understand effectively how these individuals experience things as they operate in their context (Berg, 2008)

According to Olafson, Grandy & Owens (2015), case study methodology is well suited to the study of teachers’ beliefs and practices as it occurs in the natural setting of the classroom and this allows an investigation of the complex relationship between beliefs, practices and contexts. Johnson et al. (2014) argue that although case study research usually relies on qualitative paradigm, multiple or mixed methods research is also used.

The case in the present research consists of a population sample of teachers and students at a higher education institution (English Department) during the academic year 2015-2016. The selection of this research method is justified by the fact that I, the researcher was already a member of the teachers’ population and had a personal concern about the implementation of the LMD system and the success of the reform in the department. In addition, the choice for the above case study enabled an easier collection of data in the sense that I did not face any difficulty to get in touch with the teachers and students.

The case study method allowed a richer account of what was occurring in the department and a collection of a great deal of detailed data to be analyzed. However, case studies are limited in their generalizability (Salkind, 2008). For this reason, this study does not attempt to generalize the findings to other cases but to bring insights into the issue of educational change in teaching and learning EFL within the LMD reform. The next section describes in detail the population (teachers and students) and the sampling procedure.

4.2 Population Description

During the academic year 2015-2016, when the study started, there were 28 permanent teachers and 34 part-time teachers in the English department. Their teaching experience ranged between 27 and 1 year experience. Their academic level varied between Professor-PhD-Magister degrees to Master degree.

Concerning the population of students, there were 1200 students approx across the Licence and Master degree years. They were grouped as follows: 10 groups of first year students, 5 groups of second year students, 5 groups of third year students, 1 group of Master1 Didactics students, 1 group of Master1 Lit and Civ students, 1 group of Master 2 Didactics students, 1 group of Master 2 Literature and Civilisation students (see figure 4.1). Each Licence group contained an average of 60 students and each Master group ranged between 40 and 70 students.

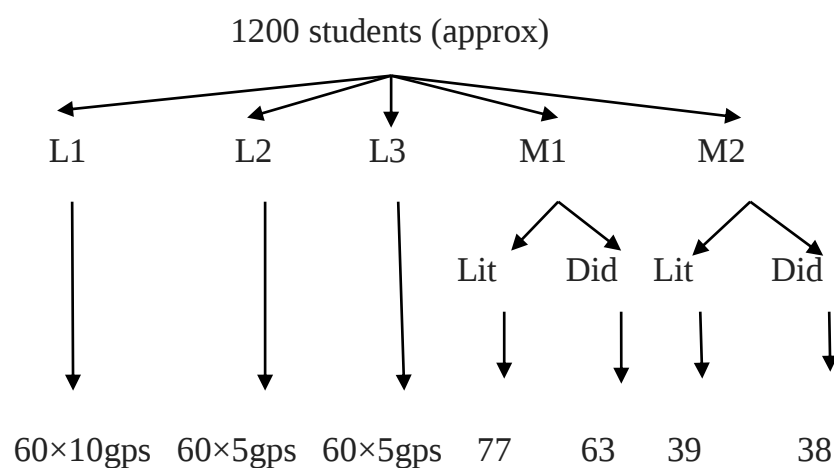


Figure 4.1 Population Distributions of the Students

The English language students were taught language skills, content and ancillary courses such as Study Skills, Sociology and Translation over 2 semesters. Table 4.1 describes in detail the degree courses of the English Licence degree with their corresponding coefficients.

Licence Degree Curriculum		
First Year Courses (Coefficient in brackets)	Second Year Courses (Coefficient in brackets)	Third Year Subjects (Coefficient in brackets)
<u>Semester 1:</u> - Human and Social Sciences (1) - Reading and Writing (4) - Listening and Speaking (1) - Morphosyntax (1) - General Linguistics(1) - Phonetics (1) - Civilisation (1) - Introduction to Literature (1) - Study Skills (1) - A foreign Language (1) <u>Semester 2:</u> The same subjects of the first semester are taught during the second semester with the same coefficients.	<u>Semester 3:</u> - An Introduction to Translation (1) - Civilisation (1) - American/ British Literature (1) - Reading and Writing (4) - Listening and Speaking (2) - Grammar (2) - Linguistics (1) - Phonetics (1) - Study Skills (1) - A Foreign Language (1) <u>Semester 4:</u> The same subjects of the third semester are taught during the fourth semester with the same coefficients in addition to Computer Technologies (1)	<u>Semester 5:</u> - Teacher Training (2) - American Civilisation (2) - British Civilisation (2) - African Literature (2) - American Literature (2) - British Literature (2) - Didactics (2) - Applied Linguistics (2) - Psychopedagogy (2) - Research Methodology (2) - Pedagogical Project (2) - Communication (2) - Information and Communication Technologies (2) <u>Semester 6 :</u> The same subjects of the fifth semester are taught during the sixth semester with the same coefficients and ICTs is replaced by Theatre (1)

Table 4.1 Courses of the Licence Degree Curriculum (year 2015-2016)

In the same vein, table 4.2 describes the courses taught to Master students in the two options of Didactics and Literature and Civilisation with their corresponding coefficients.

Matser Degree Curriculum			
Master 1 Courses (Coefficient in brackets)		Master 2 Courses (Coefficient in brackets)	
Didactics Option	Literature and Civilisation Option	Didactics Option	Literature and Civilisation Option
<u>Semester 1</u> - Psychology of the Adolescents (1) - Didactics of Reading and Writing (2) - Didactics of Listening and Speaking (2) - Didactics of Grammar (2) - Academic Writing (3) - Research Methodology (2) <u>Semester 2</u> The same subjects of the first semester are taught in the second semester with the same coefficients	<u>Semester 2</u> - Sociology (1) - African Literature (2) - American Civilisation (2) - British Civilisation (2) - English Literature (2) - Academic Writing (3) - Research Methodology (2) <u>Semester 2</u> The same subjects are taught in the second semester with the same coefficients.	<u>Semester 3</u> - Information & Communication Technologies in Language Learning and Teaching (1) - Assessment in Teaching (2) - Issues in Language Teaching (2) - Discourse Analysis (2) - Theories of Teaching (2) - Academic Writing (2) - Research Methodology (2) <u>Semester 4</u> Writing a Dissertation	<u>Semester 3</u> - Sociology (1) - Colonial Legacies (2) - English Theatre between Tradition and Modernity (2) - Intertextuality and Comparative Studies (2) - Literary Critical Trends (2) - Academic Writing (2) - Research Methodology (3) - Information & Communication Technologies in Language Learning and Teaching (1) <u>Semester 4</u> Writing a Dissertation

Table 4.3 Teaching Content for the Master Degree Levels (year 2015-2016)

The sampling procedures of both participant teachers and students are explained hereafter.

4.3 Sampling Procedure

The sample consists of the students and teachers who participated in the present study. The sampling procedures used are both probability sampling and non-probability sampling procedures. According to Springer (2010), probability sampling includes all approaches to sampling in which each member of a population has a known probability of being chosen. When a probability sampling cannot be used, the researcher may use instead non-probability sampling whereby the likelihood that each member of a population will be chosen is unknown.

4.3.1 Students' Probability Sampling

The type of probability sampling employed for students is the cluster sampling wherein entire groups rather than individuals were sampled (Springer 2010). The whole population of students (approx. 1200 students) was cluster sampled in the following way: 2 Master degree groups and 2 first year Licence degree groups. Using questionnaires and interviews to elicit data from these samples, I was able to learn about the perspectives of students on the teaching and tutoring practices in their department.

Master students (n=104) were chosen to complete the questionnaire because they had a longer learning experience and thus could provide a more realistic picture of the teaching and learning situation in the English Department under study. They were also expected to find less difficulty, than their counterpart Licence students, in expressing their viewpoints in English. Concerning the investigation of tutoring, I interviewed two first year focus Licence groups that I was teaching. In this way, getting in touch with the students was done without difficulty.

4.3.2 Teachers' Non-probability Sampling

According to Springer (2010), there are two types of non-probability sampling: convenience and purposive sampling. Convenience sampling, also known as haphazard or opportunistic sampling, is a procedure in which sampling focuses on whoever is available in a particular place at a particular time. On the other hand, Purposive sampling is a procedure in which the researcher samples whoever he or she believes to be representative of a given population.

In this study, convenience sampling was used and all available teachers were invited to contribute to fill-in the questionnaire. Concerning teachers who were supposed to be interviewed, the sampling followed the purposive procedure in the sense that they were believed to represent their population (Springer, 2010). The ten interviewed teachers constituted of 6 full timers and 4 part timers, they varied from experienced to less or non-experienced teachers (from 27 to 2 years teaching experience). They also taught different content, language and ancillary courses to different degree levels (1st, 2nd and 3rd year Licence and Master 1 classes). Table 4.3 demonstrates all the details in relation to the background information about the interviewed teachers.

Interviewed Teachers	Employment Status	Teaching Experience	Taught Courses	Degree Levels
Teacher 1	Full-timer	3 years	Psychopedagogy	Third year Licence
Teacher 2	Full-timer	5 years	Psychology of the Adolescents Didactics of Reading and Writing	First year Master
Teacher 3	Part-timer	2 years	Morphosyntax	Second year Licence
Teacher 4	Part-timer	2 years	Phonetics	First year Licence
Teacher 5	Full-timer	8 years	Reading and Writing	First year Licenec
Teacher 6	Full-timer	14 years	African Literature	First year Master
Teacher 7	Part-timer	2 years	Listening and Speaking	First year Licence
Teacher 8	Full-timer	27 years	American Literature	Third year Licence First year Licence
Teacher 9	Full-timer	3 years	American Civilisation Reading and Writing	Third year Licence First year Licence
Teacher 10	Part-timer	3 years	Communication Skills	Third year Licence

Table 4.3 Background Information about the Interviewed Teachers

The next section reports the different research instruments that were employed with the students, teachers and tutors in addition to the data collection procedure and analysis.

4.4 Research Instruments, Data Collection Procedure and Analysis

In chapter 2, some qualitative studies were reviewed (Debreli, 2011; Erkmen, 2012; Leavy, & al., 2007) and they used multiple research tools such as diaries and classroom observation to investigate teachers' beliefs. According to Creswell (2013), providing an in-depth picture of the case requires collecting rich data from multiple sources. Olafson & al., (2015) argue that many types of data collection methods are typically conducted for case studies including observation, interviews, collecting documents such as lesson plans, participants' written reflections and assignments and drawings representing beliefs.

In order to investigate teachers' beliefs, the present study used a questionnaire which included self-report activities such as Metaphor Analysis and Self- reflection. Besides, I complemented the data collection about the teachers' emotions through the use of an interview. I was not able to include other research instruments such as observation and diaries because the present research is also concerned with investigating teachers' teaching practices in class, the use of ICTs in teaching and learning and tutoring practices. In this respect, other tools in addition to the first questionnaire and interview to teachers were used including a Master students' questionnaire, a first year students' group-interview and a tutors' interview. Questionnaires first and then interviews are described in the coming sections.

4.4.1 Teachers' Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire is a retrospective and current tool since it investigates past and present time dimensions in teachers' lives, teaching experiences and beliefs. It consists of three parts and each part has its own purpose. Part one, entitled Background Information inquires about the qualifications, teaching experience and training of the teachers. The second part, which is called Teaching Metaphor Activity, aims at uncovering teachers' beliefs' orientation about teaching and learning. The third and

last part, known as Self-Reflection Activity, sheds light on the origins of teachers' beliefs and factors affecting them (see Appendix 1). Each part is described separately hereafter.

4.4.1.1 Part One: Background Information

The first part of the questionnaire provides some information about the profile of each participant. The teachers were asked to mention the following: their highest academic qualifications, their specialty and their teaching experience. They were also asked whether they received any previous teacher training at university. All this information was used when analysing the factors affecting teacher beliefs' formation.

4.4.1.2 Part Two: Teaching Metaphor Activity

The second part of the questionnaire seeks to elicit data in order to examine how a group of university teachers construct personal teacher metaphors or metaphorical statements to represent their beliefs about teaching and learning in the English Department of B2U. It was found that one of the most effective research tools that would inquire indirectly about teachers' beliefs and yield qualitative data is metaphor activity.

On this point of metaphor activity, Numby (1986) and Thornbury (1991) put a special emphasis on the analysis of the informants' language in context or the speakers' or writers' use of words, grammatical or stylistic constructions, or metaphors in researching teachers' beliefs. In fact, using metaphors was one way to use "causal explanations as actually performed in discourse or stretches of talk (or writing)" (Kalaja, 2003, p. 90) as produced by a person on relevant occasions.

There is no doubt that beliefs are better expressed by using metaphors (Mahlis, & Maxson, 1998- De Guerrero, & Villamil, 2000 –Farrell, & Ives, 2015) because as stated by Shank (2008),

In the case of metaphor, one goes beyond the mere comparisons of simile and actually equates two objects that are on the surface not related. By doing so, one often forces the reader to consider some aspect of the main object that might not come to awareness without this powerful equating process. (Shank, 2008, p.509)

Indeed, metaphors expressed by teachers provide a means for understanding their thinking about the teaching process (Munby, 1986). They play an important role in qualitative research since they provide researchers with clues into the interior lives and meaning patterns of informants (Shank, 2008).

De Gurrero & al. (2000) explain that informants' metaphors are collected either from analogical statements that arise naturally in conversation or writing (e.g., interviews or personal narratives) or via completion of a prompt involving thinking of a metaphor or simile in what is often called an "A is like B" structure (e.g. learning is like...). In English language teaching, different representations of metaphors have been suggested. Some of them, as described by Buttingnol, Jongeward, Smith, & Thomas (2008), are often associated with roles of adults or occupations such as nurturer, police officer, professor, judge, waiter, tour guide, gardner, ringleader, builder, therapist, physician and actor. Other examples, according to them, might be couched in terms of a process like teaching as gardening, conducting, acting, helping, serving, guiding, nursing, fishing, coaching, travelling, farming and knitting.

For the sake of illustration, an example of a metaphor about teaching as provided by a teacher with whom the above researchers have worked is reported below:

Coming from a family of musicians, I like to think of teaching in the context of a musical setting. Specifically, I see myself as teacher taking the role of conductor of the students each as a different instrument. Good instruments are expensive and very precious. The conductor realizes the value of his or her other charges and knows that with the right coaxing, the instruments can bring forth beautiful sounds. Each sound is beautiful, one being neither more nor less beautiful than another. When the instruments work together and are played properly, they produce a flowing melody, a result of each instrument's contribution. When the total sound lacks even one instrument, the absence does not go unnoticed. Although others may attempt to perform as a substitute, none can fully replace the missing one because it is unique unto itself. The conductor has an idea of what he/she wants the orchestra to sound like, and the sheet music provides some order. From there, the conductor works with each instrument to ensure its preparedness and develop the orchestral sound to its full potential, always mindful that each sound is different, bringing its special characteristics which are vital to the fluidity of the performance" (Buttignol et al., p. 69-70)

As demonstrated in the above quotation, different roles are assigned to teachers and learners; the above teacher considers the teacher as a musical conductor and students as different musical instruments. In the present doctoral research, metaphors will be used to unveil some of the roles of Blida 2 University teachers of English. They will allow to find out about teachers' dominant teacher-centred or learner-centred beliefs orientation and then, to assess whether there occurred any shift in the teachers' inherent beliefs in teaching and learning.

To construct this part of the questionnaire, the following prompt expression was used: 'Teaching and learning are like ...' in order to make teachers think of a metaphor or a simile. In addition to the prompt, teachers were asked to provide a personal metaphorical reasoning, explain the metaphor in detail and refer to the teacher and the student and the roles they play in their own educational context.

4.4.1.3 Part Three: Self-Reflection Activity

This part of the questionnaire to teachers aims at shedding light on the origins of teachers' beliefs. Teachers were given a number of prompt statements to make them reflect on their personal learning and teaching experiences and their teaching philosophy likely to affect the type of beliefs they held about teaching and learning.

Teachers were invited to remember their childhood to see whether they have had some passion for the profession of teaching since their early years and to justify their choice of degree studies at university. Moreover, they travelled back in time to recall their EFL secondary school teachers and also their university teachers of English, their qualities and their teaching methodologies. The next statements were meant to gain insights about the teachers' teaching philosophy, teaching circumstances and views concerning their students. All this amount of information was intended to draw some conclusions about the origins of beliefs of teachers.

4.4.1.4 Piloting the Teachers' Questionnaire

The first piloting of the questionnaire with a colleague teacher revealed an ambiguity in understanding the use of metaphors as an instrument of data collection and as a means of self reflection on teaching. The concept 'metaphor' was often associated with literature and it was hard for the teacher to visualize the use of

metaphors to express personal images of their teaching roles. In order to lift this ambiguity, a small introduction to the teaching metaphor activity was added in which the notion ‘metaphor’ was explained. The example of two teachers’ metaphors of teaching and learning, as reported by Leavy, McSorley, & Boté (2007), was added to the introduction of the activity to clarify this notion to the teachers (Appendix 1).

After revising the activity, the questionnaire was pilot tested again with the same teacher and revealed no ambiguity. Then, it was distributed to the teachers. In order to maximise the chances for the teachers’ participation, both a hard copy and a soft copy (via mail) were sent to the teachers since the researcher was afraid that they would not welcome the idea of filling out the questionnaire especially that it was quite demanding in terms of putting teachers’ own reflections about teaching and learning into words.

On January the 10th, 2016, the questionnaire was mailed to 27 permanent and part-time teachers. Just few teachers confirmed receipt and promised answering soon. One day later, it was handed to 22 teachers. Few other teachers received the questionnaire on other occasions. Some teachers preferred to fill the hard copy of the questionnaire while others were satisfied with completing the questionnaire online. Because only five teachers filled out the questionnaire after two weeks of administering it, a second individual mail invitation was sent to the teachers as a reminder.

When meeting some of the teachers face to face in the department, two teachers argued that they could not find a metaphor that spoke their minds while two others reported that they preferred questionnaires with close-ended items where they have to tick or cross the right answer and not questionnaires which require qualitative data. It is only through the above mentioned initiatives that teachers started responding so that by the end, twenty questionnaires were collected. However, two of them were not taken into consideration because they held no metaphoric image about the nature of teaching and learning.

4.4.1.5 Method of Analysis

In order to analyse teachers' metaphors about teaching and learning, they were read and analysed in order to find out whether the teachers characterised their roles and the roles of their students as being more teacher-centred or more learner-centred. Table 2.1 as presented in section 2.4 helped and guided the researcher to address the different aspects of teaching and learning such as teaching/learning strategies, roles of teachers and students, learning content and learning environment. This permitted the categorization of the metaphors according to the nature of the beliefs they held (i.e the traditional or the learner-centred beliefs' orientation). After categorizing teachers' metaphors in one of the two orientations, a dominant beliefs' orientation was sorted out.

In fact, learning about the dominant beliefs' orientation about teaching and learning among the teachers was achieved through what Johnson & Christensen (2014) call 'quantitising' qualitative data or converting it into numbers. It is true that the collected metaphors from teachers were qualitative in nature but they were quantitised after categorizing them by counting the number of the dominant metaphors' orientation.

In order to understand better factors influencing teachers' beliefs formation, data gathered from the first and the third parts of the teachers' questionnaire were analysed. A thematic analysis of data, following Glesne (2011)'s guidelines, was achieved. Themes and patterns were highlighted after carefully reading through all pieces of data and then examining how factors affecting teachers' beliefs formation changed or varied among teachers.

4.4.2 Questionnaire to Master Students

The questionnaire to 104 Master students is a retrospective and current instrument since it investigates past and present time dimensions of teaching and learning. It consists of 3 parts, described in detail in the next section and it aims to investigate teachers' teaching practices and the use of ICTs in teaching and learning (see Appendix 2).

4.4.2.1 Constructing, Piloting and Administering the Questionnaire

When constructing the questionnaire, the language that is familiar to Master students was used, avoiding complex jargon and technical terms in order not to make them feel threatened by the task of filling-out the questionnaire; concepts such as ‘learning styles’, ‘tutoring’ and ‘summative/formative assessment modes’ were explained. The questionnaire includes a 21-item Likert rating scale with the following response choices: always, often, sometimes, seldom, and never in addition to some open-ended questions. These questions are meant to capture students’ attitudes, opinions, experiences, and beliefs about EFL teaching and learning in the English Department of B2U.

In the first part of the questionnaire, students are asked to tick the frequency with which their teachers practised the teaching behaviours indicated in the 21 items. These items reflect the practice of the teacher-centred and learner-centred teaching practices characterising the LMD curriculum. The distribution of those practices in part 1 of the questionnaire is presented in table 4.4 below. Parts 2 and 3 of the master students’ questionnaire include respectively two open-ended questions (see Appendix 2). They aim at capturing students’ own description of their teachers’ as well as their use of ICTs inside and outside classroom.

Teaching Practices in the LMD Curriculum	Corresponding items in part 1 of the questionnaire
Teacher-centred Teaching Practices	Items 1: Teachers determine course content. Item 5: Teachers set up class policies (e.g. attendance and discipline) and deadlines. Item 12: Teachers use extrinsic motivators such as bonus or minus points to motivate students to learn. Item 13: Teachers are the only persons responsible in class to assess students' skills, knowledge and find out about their learning difficulties. Item 17: Teachers are totally responsible for evaluating their students; no self or peer-assessment is encouraged in class. Item 19: Teachers determine accuracy of answers in exams Item 20: Teachers set a timeframe for providing feedback in official exams.
Learner-centred Teaching Practices	Item 2: Teachers encourage students to express different points of view on a topic during the session when appropriate. Item 3: Teachers give students some control over how they earn marks when they continuously assess them. Item 4: Teachers use open-ended assignments that allow for students' personal production and creativity. Item 6: Teachers teach students knowledge and make them understand why they need to learn it. Item 7: Teachers assist students to reflect on most of the content to make their own sense of it. Item 8: Teachers teach students to use the acquired content to learn a new one. Item 9: Teachers create a learning environment by using material that accommodates different learning styles (e.g visual, auditory and kinesthetic styles) Item 10: Teachers match activities with students' learning goals. Item 11: Teachers use activities in which students actively interact with the teacher, the material and each other. Item 14: Research methodology teachers and others teach students to be proficient in framing researchable questions, accessing information, evaluating their sources/content and using information legally/ ethically. Item 15: Teachers integrate assessment within the learning process so that while learners learn in class, their performance is evaluated as well. Item 16: Teachers use both summative (official exams) and formative (continuous) assessment modes. Item 18: Teachers offer student some opportunities to learn from their mistakes and then demonstrate mastery. Item 21: Teachers relate assessment techniques to real-life tasks.

Table 4.4 21-items' Distribution in Students' Questionnaire

The questionnaire was pilot tested and its preliminary trial helped to determine whether it could operate properly or not. During the winter holidays (Dec, 2015), the questionnaire was sent to two Master 2 students. They were asked to fill out the questionnaire and make their observations in a face-to-face meeting with the researcher after the holidays.

Indeed, in the first week of January 2016, all the students' remarks and comments were discussed and taken into consideration. Part 2 and 3 in the questionnaire needed no revision; only some items in its first part were replaced to articulate better the intended meaning and avoid ambiguity. Table (4.5) displays some of the changes brought to the 21-items in the first draft of the questionnaire. The revised questionnaire was pilot tested again with the same students via mail and they reported its clarity.

Item number in part 1 of the questionnaire	Original items	Revised items
2	Teachers encourage students to express alternative perspectives during the session when appropriate	Teachers encourage students to express different points of view on a topic during the session when appropriate.
3	Teachers determine how students earn grades.	Teachers give students some control over how they earn marks when they continuously assess them.
5	Teachers mandate all policies and deadlines.	Teachers set up class policies (e.g., attendance, discipline ...etc) and deadlines.
6	Teachers use content in a varied way.	Teachers teach students knowledge and make them understand why they need to learn it.

Table 4.5 Revised Items after Piloting the Questionnaire to Students

After designing the questionnaire, it was administered to Master 1 and Master 2 students after they have completed their first term exams. 26 master 1 and 26 master 2 students of Didactics completed the questionnaire (total: 52 students) and 30 master 1 and 30 master 2 students of Literature and Civilisation completed it on a different day (total: 60 students)

4.4.2.2 Method of Analysis

The collected data from the students' questionnaire was analysed using descriptive statistics. This type of statistics describes and presents data in terms of summary frequencies (Cohen & al., 2011). Part one of the questionnaire aims at describing the extent to which teachers practise certain teaching practices and part two and three have the purpose of unfolding the different uses of ICTs by teachers and students to teach and learn inside and outside the classroom.

Part one includes a 21-item Likert scale whereby students indicate how often their teachers practise the teacher-centred and learner-centred teaching practices characterising the LMD curriculum. The mode (i.e the score obtained by the greatest number of the students) for each item was counted. This enabled the researcher to find out whether the indicated teaching practices are always, often, occasionally or rarely practised. In this part of the questionnaire, students were asked to provide a comment or an illustration for each teaching practice. Their responses were carefully examined in order to provide a better image about the reality of teaching in B2U, English Department.

In part two and three of the questionnaire, the responses of the students to two open-ended questions captured their description of their teachers' as well as their use of ICTs inside and outside classroom. The qualitative data collected from the students was carefully read by the researcher to decide about the teaching and learning technologies mostly listed by the learners. In addition to the questionnaire to the students, other research tools were used in the present study and the interview to the teachers is one of them.

4.4.3 Structured Interview to Teachers

The present study's interview to teachers was mainly developed in order to uncover their teaching practices in addition to some of their emotions and beliefs about teaching and learning in the English department under study. It was also meant as a means of triangulation of the results in relation to teachers teaching practices obtained from the questionnaire to students. Thus, the interview included many experience and

behaviour questions and few opinion/values (beliefs) questions and feeling questions (Patton 2002).

The interview was conducted face-to-face or what is called in-person interviews (Johnson, et al., 2014). The questions of the interview remained unchanged for all interviewed teachers except for some probes or prompts used to obtain response clarity and additional information such as, any other reason?, what do you mean? or why do you feel that way? In order to create a kind of a natural flow in asking questions to teachers, the interview was structured into 9 sections and each section was composed of one or more questions (see Appendix 3).

4.4.3.1 Developing, Piloting and Conducting the Interview

The 9 sections in the interview are respectively labeled: 1. Teachers' Emotions before Coming in Class, 2. Role of the Teacher, Administration, and the Learner in Determining Content of Courses and Exams, 3. Amount of Content to Cover in Class, 4. Type of Content to Teach in Class, 5. Students Interaction in Class, 6. Mandating Class Policies and Deadlines, 7. Deciding about the Teaching Methodology, 8. Deciding about the Assessment Methodology, 9. Teachers' Degree of Satisfaction with the LMD Curriculum. Answers to the questions in these sections reflect the practice of the teacher-centred and learner-centred teaching practices characterising the LMD curriculum.

Before starting the questions, the teachers were introduced first to the purpose of the interview as a whole and then, they were asked the following question of section 1 (Teachers' Emotions before Coming in Class): 'Can you tell me about your feelings a day before you come to the university?' This question was used as a warm-up question and it was meant to assess the emotions of teachers before coming in class.

The next second section (Role of the Teacher, Administration, and the Learner in Determining Content of Courses and Exams) comprises the following questions:

a- Who determines the content of your course?

- b- Do you try to relate what your students are learning with their preferences and career interests?
- c- Do you define the specific objectives of your course?
- d- How much change will result out of teaching your course?
- e- Do you define the accuracy of the answers to exams/tests?
- f- Do you allow your students to justify their exam answers when they are different from the ones suggested by the teacher(s)?

The above experience or behaviour questions in relation to the function of content aim at knowing whether teachers' teaching style is congruent with the LMD teaching principles. As concluded in chapter three, the LMD teachers should determine the teaching content and take into account their students' learning preferences and interests. They should also define the SMART objectives of their course and the accuracy of answers in exams. They should allow their students to suggest alternative answers to questions in exams. All these practices were investigated through the questions to section 2 in the interview.

The third section entitled Amount of Content to Cover in Class includes one value or belief question: Do you care about the amount of content you cover in class? It aims at uncovering whether teachers believe in the assumption 'more is better' or in 'covering' the content they teach (Weimer, 2002). The third section in the interview to the teachers is called Type of Content to Teach in Class. It has the following questions:

- a- Is the content you teach varied or not? If yes, can you give an example of the assignments you give to your students?
- b- What does the content you teach promote in your students?
- c- Do you allow your students to demonstrate mastery after they commit mistakes?

These experience/behaviour questions concerning the function of content aim at knowing whether teachers' practices reflect the LMD curriculum teaching principles (i.e. if teachers vary their teaching content, if their objective is to achieve a learning outcome and if they encourage students to demonstrate their ability to learn from mistakes).

The next fourth section in the interview to teachers is about Students' Interaction with Content. It comprises the following questions:

- a- Do you encourage your students to construct their own meaning of the content they learn?
- b- Do you encourage them to express their different perspectives when appropriate?
- c- Do they use the content they learn in future assignments?

These three questions attempted to examine the extent to which teachers applied some LMD learner-centred teaching principles related to students' engagement with content, their expression of alternative perspectives and use of content to facilitate future learning.

Section 5 in the interview is about Mandating Class Policies and Deadlines and it includes the following questions:

- a-Who decides about class policy?
- b-Do you use extrinsic motivators such as bonus and minus points with your students?
- c-Do you decide about a timeframe for providing feedback in tests and exams?

These questions were meant to investigate the practice of some of the teacher-centred LMD teaching principles related to mandating class policies, using extrinsic motivators and setting a timeframe for providing feedback in official exams.

Section 6 in the interview is labeled Deciding about the Teaching Methodology and its corresponding questions are listed below:

- a- How would you describe your teaching methodology?
- b- Do you consider your students' learning style when teaching? How?
- c- Do your students use ICTs in or outside the classroom in order to learn?
- d- Do you use ICTs in or outside the classroom in order to teach?
- e- Do your students have clear learning goals? If yes, do you use various teaching methods to match their goals?
- f- Do you consider your students' learning preferences?

The aim behind setting-up these behaviour questions was to assess whether teachers align the components of their course (i.e their teaching objective match with the teaching and assessment methodologies), accommodate their students' learning styles and match their goals (they can describe what students can do out of learning a given content). The use of ICTs to teach and learn was also investigated through questions 'c' and 'd'.

Section 8 of the interview is concerned with the teachers' decisions about the assessment methodology. Through this section, teachers were asked these questions:

- a- Do you grant your students some control over how they earn grades?
- b- Do grades matter for you? Are they a sign of good learning?
- c- Do you integrate assessment within the learning process?
- d- What do you assess in your students?
- e- Are you the only one who assesses?
- f- Do you include real-life tasks in your assessment?

The aim behind asking the behaviour questions (a, c, d, e, f) to the teachers was to examine the extent to which teachers play a role in deciding about the assessment methodology as it is required in the LMD curriculum (i.e. if the teachers use formative assessment, if they integrate assessment within the learning process, if assessment aligns with their teaching objectives and methodology, if they are the only responsible in class for evaluation and if they use authentic assessment). Within this section, there was one values/beliefs question (question b) to ask to find out if teachers overvalue grades and assume that learning will automatically take place.

To close the interview, a question which assessed the emotions of teachers was added for the sake of understanding better teachers' inherent beliefs. Following Glesne (2011)'s guidelines, this last concluding question should constitute a summary or it should be culminating and reflective in nature. In the present interview, the culminating question is about teachers' degree of satisfaction with the LMD curriculum and it is formulated as follows: 'To finish, can you tell me about your degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the LMD curriculum?'

After developing the interview, it was piloted in the first week of January, 2016 with one volunteer teacher. Following Glesne (2011)'s guidelines, the pilot respondent was urged to be in a critical frame of mind in order not to answer only the questions but more importantly, to reflect critically of the usability of the questions. During the interview, the pilot teacher did not report any ambiguity in the comprehension of questions and no question fell to the ground. No revision was brought to the final draft of the interview.

The interview was conducted with 10 teachers in the researcher's office at B2U, English Department. The interviewed teachers were believed to sample well the population of teachers in the English Department of B2U. There was a total of 6 permanent teachers and 4 part-timers. One teacher was very experienced (27years), some others were less experienced (from 5 to 14 years) and few of them were novice (2 to 3 years).

Since the interview to teachers was a structured interview, all interviewees were asked the same basic questions in the same order. In order to effectively conduct teachers' interviews, the tips for conducting an effective interview as already suggested by Johnson et al. (2014) were taken into consideration. In this respect, gentle non-verbal head nods and verbal "um-hums" were used to show interest in what the interviewee was saying leaving him/her to do most of the talk and to take sufficient time to answer each question. Each interview session was recorded and the quality and completeness of the recordings was checked just afterwards.

Interviews started on the second week of January, 2016 and ended a month later. They were recorded using a multimedia digital phone and their transcription was achieved soon after the interview had taken place. Table 4.6 displays all the details concerning the participating teachers in addition to the procedure and the transcription of the interviews.

Teachers' number (pm/pt- years of teaching experience)	Date of the interview	Duration of the interview	Date of the transcription
Teacher 1 (pm- 3 years)	14 th of Jan, 16	24 mn	15 th of Jan, 16
Teacher 2 (pm- 5years)	14 th of Jan, 16	47mn	16 th of Jan, 16
Teacher 3 (pt- 2 years)	18 th of Jan, 16	28mn	19 th of Jan, 16
Teacher 4 (pt- 2 years)	21 st of Jan,16	26mn	22 nd of Jan, 16
Teacher 5 (pm- 2 years)	21 st of Jan,16	20mn	22 nd of Jan, 16
Teacher 6 (pm- 14 years)	21 st of Jan,16	22mn	22 nd of Jan, 16
Teacher 7 (pt-2 years)	27 th of Jan, 16	20mn	28 th of Jan, 16
Teacher 8 (pm-27years)	1 st of Feb, 16	28mn	2 nd of Feb, 16
Teacher 9 (pm- 3 years)	16 th of Feb, 16	31mn	20 th of Feb, 16
Teacher 10 (pt- 3 years)	17 th of Feb, 16	24mn	20 th of Feb, 16

N.B. pm= permanent teacher- pt=part-time teacher

Table 4.6 Procedure and Transcription of Teachers' Interviews

When first transcribing the interviews verbatim, the interviewees' real first names were stated. However, after data was collected, real names were replaced with numbers (e.g. teacher 1, teacher 2 ...etc). Since the aim behind using interviews was to shed light on teachers' beliefs and teaching practices, focus when transcribing them

was on the teachers' answers to experience, emotional and attitude questions so that few irrelevant pauses and overlaps in the conversation were ignored. Appendix 6 illustrates one of the ten interviews conducted with the teachers.

4.4.3.2 Method of Analysis

Concerning the analysis of the data gathered from the interviews, they were first analysed quantitatively. Most of the questions included auxiliary questions whereby respondents needed to answer by a "yes" or a "no". These questions were similar to the ones asked to Master students through questionnaires. Results from the interview were explained better through the teachers' comments since they were prompted to illustrate or justify their answers. In addition to auxiliary questions and prompts, the interview included some beliefs and attitudes questions to teachers. These last types of questions were meant to complement data about teachers' beliefs gathered through teachers' questionnaire.

4.4.4 Structured Interview to Tutors

The aim behind interviewing tutors was to find out about their real practices in class in order to answer the second sub-research question in relation to the implementation of the LMD curriculum in the English Department at B2U. This instrument constitutes the main source of data collection whereas the group interview to first year students is a means of triangulation.

The tutors' in-person interview (see Appendix 4) includes some background, behaviour and opinion questions. It starts by explaining to the tutors its confidentiality and purpose to establish a sense of trust and rapport. The first questions in the interview can be grouped as follows:

1. What is your highest academic qualification:
2. How many years have you been tutoring first year students?
3. Have you received any kind of training from the ministry to become a tutor in the English Department, Blida University -2-?
4. If not, have you been guided by the administration of the English Department, Blida University on the general expectations from your role as a tutor? If yes, how?

These four questions are meant to investigate the tutors' academic and professional profile in relation to the highest obtained academic qualifications, tutoring experience and previous training.

Behaviour questions start with a general one (question 5) 'What is your role with first year students?' to assess whether tutors are aware of their general role as tutors. Item 6 in the interview inquires about more specific pieces of information about the roles of the tutors (i.e to accompany students psychologically and pedagogically). The 8 questions in this item are as follows:

- a. Do you guide students to understand and make advantage of opportunities to learn?
- b. Do you encourage students to recognize why they needed to learn different disciplines during the course?
- c. Do you guide students to take increasing responsibility for learning?
- d. Do you guide students to learn-how-to learn?
- e. Do you guide students to acquire self-directed and lifelong learning skills?
- f. Do you guide students to assess their own learning?
- g. Do you advise, accompany students in understanding pedagogical and academic issues?
- h. Do you support and nurture the emotional well-being of the students?

These questions aim at finding whether the tutors in the English department under study apply tutoring principles as required in the LMD curriculum (see section 3.3).

The interview's next question is a behaviour question 'How do you manage your meetings with your first year students?' which seeks to find about the tutoring procedure. Two more opinion questions 'Do you encounter any problems when trying to achieve your mission?' and 'What do you suggest as solutions to those problems?' are added to understand the problems tutors face when tutoring and their suggested solutions. The interview closes by welcoming any of the tutors' comments and by thanking them for their cooperation. After framing all the above questions, the interview was pilot-tested and it proved to cause no problems of comprehension.

During the academic year 2015-2016, the English department of B2U had two tutors who operated with 10 groups of first year students. The interviews with the two

tutors were conducted and recorded on the 16th of Feb, 2016 in the researcher's office. A day after conducting the interviews, I transcribed them in order to analyse data. In addition to the interview to the tutors, a group interview was planned with two focus groups of first year students. This interview constituted a means of triangulation so that its results were compared to those obtained from the tutors' interview.

4.4.5 Structured Focus Group Interview with First Year Students

In this study, inquiring about tutoring was achieved from both the tutors' and first year students' perspectives. The interview with first year students was planned as a focus group interview because trying an in-person interview with many first year students would be time consuming and since I was already teaching two first year groups the course of Listening and Speaking, it was easier to conduct the interview with them; these students were believed to feel more confident to speak their minds and cooperate with me.

The interview (see Appendix 5) consists of background, opinion and behaviour questions. It starts by explaining to the students its purpose and confidentiality. The first two background questions 'How many tutoring sessions did you attend?' and 'How long did the session last?' ask students about the number and duration of the tutoring sessions.

The next behaviour question 'What is the role of your tutor?' assesses whether students are aware of the role of their tutor. Item 4 inquires about some specific roles of the tutors and it is presented in the interview as follows:

4. Briefly answer the following questions in relation to the role of your tutor:

- a. Did your tutor guide you to understand your learning opportunities?
- b. Did your tutor encourage students to recognize why they needed to learn different disciplines during the course?
- c. Did your tutor guide you to take increasing responsibility for learning?
- d. Did your tutor guide you to learn-how-to learn?
- e. Did your tutor guide you to acquire self-directed and lifelong learning skills?
- f. Did your tutor guide you to assess your own learning?

- g. Did your tutor advise, accompany you in understanding pedagogical and academic issues?
- h. Did your tutor support and nurture your emotional well-being?

The remaining opinion questions attempted to find out about students' attitudes towards tutoring; they included these question:

- 5. Did you benefit from your tutoring sessions?
- 6. Did you encounter any problems during tutoring?
- 7. What solutions would you suggest to overcome those problems?
- 8. Do you encourage first year students of next year to go through tutoring sessions?

By the end of the interview, students are welcomed to add comments and the interview closes by thanking them for their collaboration.

The clarity and appropriateness of questions in the interview was checked with some first year students that I was teaching. After structuring the whole interview, it was conducted with the two first year groups two days after the tutors were interviewed (i.e. on the 18th of Feb, 2016°. Before starting the interview, I asked for only 6 students from each group (a focus group) to voluntarily participate in the interview; the rest of the students were waiting outside the classroom. I started recording the group interview with my mobile, however, the interview did not proceed in the planned way and no significant data was gathered about the practice of tutoring in the English Department of B2U. This will be tackled in detail in the chapter to come.

To summarise the tools used in this study, Figure 4.2 is drawn on the next page.

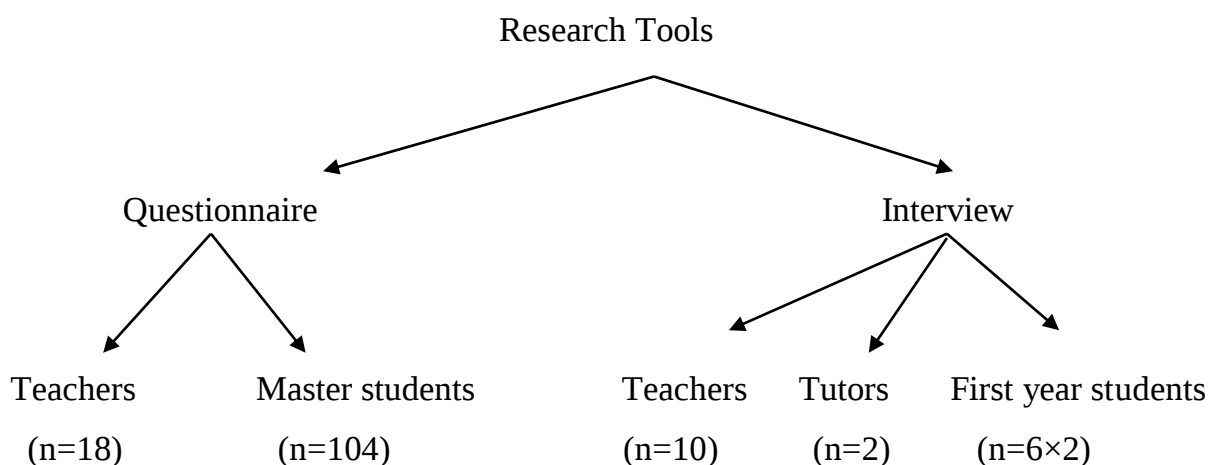


Figure 4.2 Research Tools of the Present Study

Questionnaires and interviews were the two instruments employed in the current research. Questionnaires were collected from the 18 teachers and 104 Master students and interviews were conducted with 10 teachers, 2 tutors and 12 first year students.

Conclusion

Chapter four defines the mixed-methods research paradigm of the present study which includes both quantitative and qualitative collection of data. The current research design is confirmatory since it aimed at testing the extent to which EFL teachers created an educational change in their teaching. It also seeks to test the validity of the present study's hypothesis since it was hypothesized that there was no depth of educational change in the teachers' beliefs and practices in the English department under study.

The other design adopted in this case study in addition to the confirmatory one is triangulation. This study is a triangulation since it consisted of a simultaneous collection of quantitative and qualitative data and a consideration of multiple perspectives including teachers', tutors' and students' points of view. The present case study consists of a sample population of university teachers and students teaching and studying in the English Department of B2U. The sampling procedures were probability sampling for students and non-probability sampling for teachers.

The research instruments used for this study are a questionnaire to teachers and Master students and an interview to teachers, tutors and first year students. The general aim

behind using these tools was to find out about the EFL teachers' beliefs orientation about teaching and learning and the teaching and tutoring practices in the English Department of B2U. The data analysis procedure was both quantitative and qualitative in nature. The next chapter is about the presentation and analysis of the results.

Chapter Five:

Presentation and Analysis of the Results

Introduction

In this chapter, the results obtained from the research tools used in the current study are presented. These research tools which were fully described in chapter four are both a questionnaire and an interview. In this respect, results are discussed in relation to the questionnaires to the teachers and students as well as the interviews to the teachers, tutors and students.

5.1 Analysis of Questionnaires

The questionnaire research instrument was used on two occasions in this study. eighteen teachers were administered a questionnaire in order to provide me with insights about the nature of their beliefs about teaching and learning and 104 master students completed a questionnaire about their teachers' teaching practices. In this section, results in relation to the teachers' and students' questionnaires are respectively presented.

5.1.1 Questionnaire to Teachers

As described in chapter 4, the questionnaire to teachers comprises three parts: background information, a metaphor and self-reflection activity. Part one describes the profile of each of the 18 participant teachers. The metaphor activity reports all the teachers' teaching metaphors and the self-reflection activity highlights the factors influencing the formation of teachers' beliefs.

5.1.1.1 Part One: Background Information

The profile of the 18 teachers who volunteered to participate in filling-out the questionnaire is described in table 5.1.

Teacher N°	Degree	Specialty	Teaching Experience	Taught Subjects	Prior Training
Teacher 1	Master	Didactics	2 years	Reading and Writing Study Skills	No training
Teacher 2	Magister	Literature and Civilisation	15 years	English Literature Listening and Speaking British Civilisation	No training
Teacher 3	Magister	American Studies	2 years	Americcan and British Civ Morphosyntax Reading ad Writing	No training
Teacher 4	Master	American Studies	11 years	American Literature	No training
Teacher 5	Magister	Linguistics and Didactics	15 years	Linguistics- Reading and Writing- Study Skills Research Methodology	No training
Teacher 6	Magister	Literature and Civilisation	27 years	American Lit and Civ African Literature	No training
Teacher 7	Magister	Advanced Academic and Literary Writing Studies	4 years	American Civ Academic Writing Listening	No training
Teacher 8	Magister	Linguistics and Didactics	8 years	Linguistics Reading and Writing	No training
Teacher 9	Master	Didactics	2 years	Phonectics	No training
Teacher 10	Doctor	Literature and Civilisation	14 years	African Literature Listening and Speaking Reading and Writing American Lit	No training
Teacher 11	Master	Literature and Civilisation	2years	Reading and Writing British Civilisation	No training
Teacher 12	Magister	Applied Linguistics	3 years	Didactics- Pschopedagogy Listening and Speaking	No training
Teacher 13	Magister	Literature and Civ	12 years	Culture and Civilisation American Lit and Civ Reading and Writing Colonial Legacy	No training
Teacher 14	Master	Didactics	2 years	Didactics	No training
Teacher 15	Master	Didactics	2 years	Communication Skills	No training
Teacher 16	Magister	Translation	10 years	Spanish-French- Translation	No training
Teacher 17	Magister	Translation	3 years	Translation	No training
Teacher 18	Magister	American Studies	2 years	American and British Civilisation	No training

Table 5.1 Background Information about Teachers (Questionnaire's Participants)

As demonstrated in the previous table, 12 teachers are permanent and 7 of them are part-timers. Their teaching experience varied as half of them (n=9) are novice teachers while the rest ranged from experienced to very experienced teachers. They are specialized in different specialties such as didactics, translation, literature and civilization and they teach different subjects including content, language and ancillary courses. None of the teachers received any kind of pre-service or in-service university training.

5.1.1.2 Part Two: Metaphor Activity

Concerning the second part of the teachers' questionnaire, metaphors as expressed by the 18 above teachers are presented in table 5.2.

Teacher N°	Expressed Metaphors
Teacher 1	Teaching and learning is like gardening. Teachers are the gardeners. The classroom is like a garden, and the students are the seeds that need to be cared for, and through time, each seed is transformed into a flower. The farmer does his best in order to provide the conditions to help the different plants and flowers flourish. Likewise, the teacher tries to plant a love for learning in the students or give them the basic skills and knowledge needed to be successful. Then, the teacher watches the students grow into resourceful individuals. The knowledge you give to students is like the water you give to seeds, and the teachers take the challenge of educating their students in order for the seeds to flourish. Moreover, a gardener knows that each seed has specific needs and requirements (individual differences) to grow well. Thus, s/he needs to differentiate the care s/he gives to s/his plants (students) because not all seeds like the same conditions. Some seeds need sun, water and nutrients more/less than others. If some seeds (students) are not performing well, the gardener should check the growing conditions and determine the reasons behind that. S/he knows how to supply the appropriate conditions for healthy growth of the seeds (students). That is, a gardener needs to give special care to those few seeds that are struggling and not performing well.
Teacher 2	Teaching and learning is like regulating supply and demand in the market. The teacher can be the producer who supplies knowledge for the learner who can be considered as the consumer. The success of any nation's economy depends on a successful demand management. If the teacher (producer) is quite aware of the demand, or the need of the learners (consumer), a very effective and practical knowledge is provided. Yet, if the supply is more than the demand, inflation will be an inevitable problem in the market and this will lead to an economic crisis. This means that the teacher should take into consideration the kind of learners and their abilities to acquire the knowledge provided for them. That is why; a flourishing economy depends on a balanced supply and demand so that profit is

	made for both the producer and the consumer. When teachers supply a certain required knowledge for certain learners, a profitable education will be the ending result, i.e. a successful education.
Teacher 3	Knowledge is like a huge painting that is not yet finished. A painting that educated people from different civilizations and cultures, throughout history, have been painting. The painting process will not end until the end of existence. A teacher's role is, then, to make students aware of this painting process, provide them with the necessary painting instruments, and teach them the basic rules of painting. After that, it is up to them to choose where, how and what to paint.
Teacher 4	The teacher is a professional gardener, and the learners are different sorts of plants and flowers; The teacher/ gardner waters all his plants/ students with varying amounts according to their particular needs (tailoring). Water is thus the information/data provided by the teacher, always under control and ever dependent on the type of plants/learners (i.e. learning styles: kinesthetic, visual or auditory). The well versed gardener uses hoe, spade and all instruments to air the ground around plants and maximize growth in the same way a teacher makes use of realia, props, visual aids, lesson plans etc to gear up motivation and elicit information from the learner's personal experience. The gardener works hard to establish favourable growth conditions and the teacher helps his learners help themselves. Some plants are bound to wither but success is measured by the amount/percentage of blooming flowers and blossoming foliages. Likewise, some students will fail regardless of the teacher's efforts (they are like bad seeds); yet a successful teacher knows how to make failure a rare nuisance.
Teacher 5	Teaching is like parenting. Learning is a child's/learner's journey to explore a new world. The child-learner needs guidance and support to make the journey more safely and efficiently achieved. Sometimes, teaching is about giving knowledge or helping the child learn on his own. Some other times, emotional support is needed for the child/learner to keep going. At intervals; the children/learners need feedback to know how well they are doing, what needs to be adjusted, etc. So, teaching/learning, like parenting, is a complex multi-faceted relationship and activity. Oversimplifying it by focusing on a single aspect, any aspect of it, will make the children/learners' journey less safe/successful.
Teacher 6	Teaching and learning is like being fed (having a meal). The teacher is like the table full of knowledge. The teacher's instruction consists in asking the students to feed themselves from the table. He/she is exactly as a mother whose responsibility is to attend her children's needs, health and satisfaction, by providing her family with their meals at the right time, in rations quantitatively and qualitatively well studied and well balanced in order to supply the exact number of nutrients, calories and energy. The student's learning ie represented by the students, absorbing, swallowing and digesting the food as they are appreciating the instruction they are presented. Some days, more food is necessary because the students feel hungry to learn, and the topic is new and challenging for students. There are days when overfeeding occurs and this is usually when the teacher has overloaded students with data and the learners cannot handle the amount of food coming down. The teacher just needs to figure

	out how much food is necessary on any given day, and decide to supply some students with less food, while others with a hearty appetite are more able for a heavier meal. Food is good; it is nutritious, but over feeding can cause indigestion and underfeeding serious deficiencies.
Teacher 7	Teaching and learning are like sailing in the ocean to reach a safe island. The teacher is the captain of the ship, the learners are the crew on board, the ocean is the learning environment or context, and the island is the learners' port for their future career. In the ship, the captain' guidance is essential when the ship is leaving the harbor. Similarly, the teacher needs to guide his students at the beginning of the learning process to provide them with the basics they need, and allow them to reflect upon them through giving them sufficient time, like a captain in a calm ocean. In case of a tempest which symbolizes environmental obstacles like family problems, surrounding issues that distract the learners, the teacher should try to motivate them and give them some hints to help them either solve these issues or learn to survive and succeed within them. After the storm and after all the challenges that they over pass, the crew need more guidance to show them how to anchor in the harbor of the beautiful island. The learners now need their teacher to guide them to make the decisions for their future career and leave them on that island to build their own ship and successfully travel for their own journey.
Teacher 8	In the Algerian context, the teacher is a lighting candle trying desperately to struggle with windy storms in order to spread light in "the heart of darkness". The majority of learners are shutting their eyes, making the candle's fight "non-sense". Happily, there are few among learners who try to benefit from the candle's light in order to find a way amidst darkness. Learning is knowledge, knowledge is light, and light comes from the candle. The worst that can happen to a candle is that learners close their eyes, in a deliberate act of light –refusal, making the candle's self-sacrifice worthless, almost a suicide.
Teacher 9	Teaching is like driving a car in a damaged pathway. The teacher is the driver. The teacher's instruction is like the guidance of the driver to the car through the damaged pathway to avoid holes and any barriers. The car represents the students who are going to cross this path successfully with less damage and with the guidance of the teacher. Hence, if the driver isn't sober enough or cares about his car, the latter is going to be damaged and broken because of the damaged pathway which represents the barriers and difficulties that the students may encounter during their studies. Therefore, the students will have difficulties in learning and absorbing knowledge (the driver's way of driving= the teacher's negligence). When the learners are too tired to carry on a lesson (they need a break), they won't be able to absorb any information or knowledge. This can be depicted through the car's tank when it is empty of gas. Moreover, learners need to be tested in order to see the improvement and the level. The same thing for the car when it needs to be taken to be revised and checked if everything is ok about it. Also, if the students receive knowledge of the same module from different teachers, they are going to be lost, which is the same thing when a car is driven in different ways by different drivers (each teacher has his own perceived philosophy and way of teaching). As a conclusion, the teacher has to be sober enough (a clear consciousness about teaching and its requirements) in order to give the students the suitable information and guidance.

Teacher 10	I would like to liken the processes of teaching and learning to a sport game (namely, football), because the learners undoubtedly play the role of the players, whereas teachers' responsibility is at once comparable to that of the manager (the coach) and the referee. To begin with, learning to the classroom life is arguably like performance to any game. Just as learners to improve their target language, so do players who train hard in order to heighten their performance. The learning achievements are the main yardstick upon which the entire pedagogical activity is assessed. The same thing holds true for the score in the match. No matter how you play well, the most important thing is what has been really scored. For the students, too, they are more motivated by marks than anything else. As regard the teacher, he is more likely to be compared to the coach while teaching, to the referee in his task of evaluating his learners' progress. Just as the coach, regardless of his reputation like José Mourinho, is blamed during the upsetting performance of his team, so it is often the case for the teacher following a mass learning underachievement. Much like the referees, some teachers tend to be severe while marking while others opt for leniency. Even though pedagogues see games as leisure activities hindering the most "serious" task of learning, there seems to be much in common between the classroom processes and indulging in sport acts like playing football.
Teacher 11	Teaching and learning is like baking a pizza. The teacher is both the ingredients supplier and the oven; he/she gives the students all necessary materials for their recipe as well as help them adjust the dosage, the temperature and the timing process. The students represent the cooks in the kitchen, they do the baking under the supervision of the teacher and they keep on repeating the same procedure till they reach the perfect pizza. Both overcooked and undercooked pizzas are essential for learner's skill development and improvement in general. Teachers will make sure to guide their learners and encourage them to practise constantly using the acquired knowledge (ingredients) and learn from their mistakes. Using the right ingredients with the right amount will certainly lead to baking a tasty pizza.
Teacher 12	Teaching and learning is give and take. The teacher is the source of knowledge in the classroom and the learners are the active receivers. The teacher's instruction includes both information and questions for learners to answer; the teacher always asks the students before giving them some information. The teacher should dig deep down in the students' previous knowledge and try to make them use it in order to learn new things. The teacher should build on what the learners already know and try to teach them how to correlate between the lessons for better retention. Teachers must cause motivation and push their students to do their best by keeping them engaged during class.
Teacher 13	I'd rather qualify my metaphor as a combination of both thunderstorm and sandcastles. For one good reason is that sometimes I can't control myself. Whenever the level of my students gets high, I get higher in providing them with maximum information about the topic handled. I don't care sometimes whether there's going to be a "flood", because I am a strong believer in the autonomy of a student to select the necessary material that he needs (I always consider my students as researchers first then students of a foreign language).

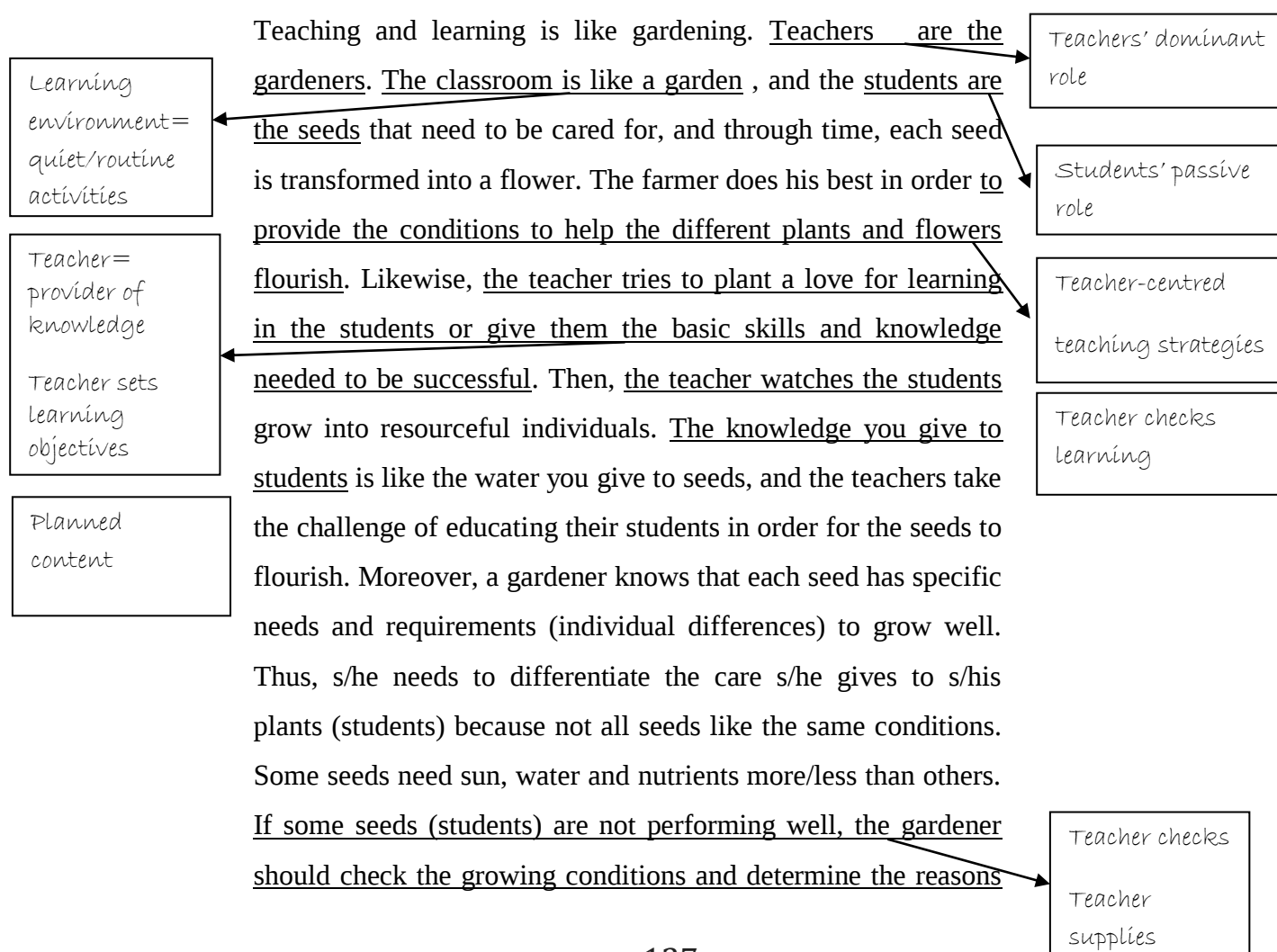
Teacher 14	The process of teaching and learning is like building a bridge. This bridge is going to link the teacher with his/her learners. Through this bridge, the teacher is going to transmit knowledge and skills and the learner is going to exhibit his/her comprehension, achievements and creativity.
Teacher 15	Teaching and learning is like building a skyscraper. The basis should be well settled by the teachers so as the construction or the students' abilities will be improved accordingly. As beginners in learning, if students get enough guidance and assistance from the teacher, they will be good performers and this, the skyscraper will be very high and gets even higher when the student works on his own and tries to be autonomous in his/her learning process.
Teacher 16	The metaphor that can be projected on my teaching methodology is found in nature: the eagle mum who feeds her birds in the nest (classroom) and who teaches them bit by bit to fly so that they can finally face the hardships of life. When I teach English, it is true that I provide my learners with a huge amount of information but truly qualitative knowledge. At the beginning, students are tortured and tired but by the end of the semester, their improvement is well perceived. So, the students are the baby birds who are waiting for their mum to feed, protect and train them for the real life.
Teacher 17	Teaching and learning are like the sun and the lifecycle on earth. The teacher is the sun, the content is the light, and the learners are the earth through the lifecycle. The sun emits its rays gradually with varying amounts, and earth gets this light to guarantee the life. When sunlight emanates intensely, the land becomes desert and arid, on the contrary, when it arrives at low quantities, the earth turns into a block of ice and dies. But overall, the light springing from the sun comes in sufficient amounts to ensure the cycle life. Like the sun with its light, the teacher needs to find a happy medium, and to decide on the amount of light to provide learners with. Also, he should go towards learners to enlighten them in such motivating and stimulating way. It is then up to the learners to use the sunlight and keep looking to develop life.
Teacher 18	Teaching and learning is like a farming field. The land or the soil is the classroom, the small seeds which are to be later big plants and then fruitful trees are the students and the teacher is obviously the farmer who is supposed to know how to grow the seeds to become fruits. To grow, the seeds need to be constantly watered. Likewise, to grow, students need also water (knowledge). This necessitates the presence of the farmer (the teacher) to water (to give knowledge to) to the seeds (the students). If the farmer works hard and provides all the necessary suitable conditions for the seeds to grow properly, s/he will later enjoy a bumper harvest that will not only benefit her/him but the others as well. Similarly, if the teacher works professionally and makes sure to provide a comfortable good learning environment for the students, the harvest would be positive good citizens who benefit their community and contribute in the well-being of their society.

Table 5.2 Metaphors about Teaching and Learning as expressed by Teachers

Data obtained from the second part of the teachers' questionnaire was then analyzed. This was achieved through a careful examination of the way teachers' metaphors portray aspects of teaching and learning. In other words, the researcher considered any of the teachers' references to 1. teaching and learning strategies, 2. teachers' and students' roles, 3. learning content and/or 4. learning environment. Table 2.1 which was already reported in chapter two provided a framework for the researcher to associate different metaphors with their corresponding teacher-centred (traditional) or learner-centred beliefs' orientation.

For the sake of illustration, two metaphors with different beliefs' orientation (teacher-centred and learner-centred), as analysed by the researcher, are provided hereafter.

Metaphor 1:



behind that. S/he knows how to supply the appropriate conditions for healthy growth of the seeds (students). That is, a gardener needs to give special care to those few seeds that are struggling and not performing well.

In this metaphor, it is clear that aspects of teaching and learning are predominately teacher-centred since the teacher (gardener) is the dominant figure in class whereas the students (seeds) are passive. Students are passive because they expect the teacher to decide on both the learning objectives and the teaching content or the amount of knowledge (water and nutrients) to provide learners with. As a consequence, the learning environment in class involves quiet routine activities (checking after the growth of the plants, assisting and supplying them). All the descriptions provided in this metaphor adhere to the teacher-centred beliefs' orientation. The next metaphor is quite different.

Metaphor 2:

Dynamic
language
content

Knowledge is like a huge painting that is not yet finished. A painting that educated people from different civilizations and cultures and throughout history, have been painting. The painting process will not end until the end of existence. A teacher's role is, then, to make students aware of this painting process, provide them with the necessary painting instruments, and teach them the basic rules of painting. After that, it is up to them to choose where, how and what to paint.

Teacher role=
facilitator

Student
role=active

Opposite to the first metaphor, this metaphor portrays learner-centred beliefs about teaching and learning. This was obvious through the dynamic nature of knowledge (an endless painting process), the active role assigned to students (they decide what, how and where to paint) and the non-dominant facilitator role of the teacher (makes students aware of the painting process and its instruments).

In addition to classifying metaphors into one of the teachers' beliefs' orientation about teaching and learning, the researcher gave each metaphor a label. In fact, some

of the metaphors were associated with roles of adults or occupations such as driver, gardener and coach whereas others were couched in terms of processes like cooking, sailing and painting. Table 5.3 sums-up all the results of the analysis of data obtained from the second part of the teachers' questionnaire.

Metaphors as ordered in table 5.2	Teacher-centred Orientation	Learner-centred Orientation
1	Gardner-seeds Metaphor	
2	Supply-demand economy principle Metaphor	
3		Painting Metaphor
4	Gardner- plants Metaphor	
5	Parenting (mum/dad and their children) Metaphor	
6	Food feeding Metaphor	
7		Ship Sailing Metaphor
8	Lightening/Burning candle Metaphor	
9	Car driver Metaphor	
10		Coach-referee-football players Metaphor
11	Pizza making Metaphor	
12	Giving and Taking Metaphor	
13	Flooding Metaphor	
14	Bridging Metaphor	
15		Skyscraper building Metaphor
16	Parenting (mum eagle and her birds) Metaphor	
17	Lifecycle (sun-earth) Metaphor	
18	Farmer/Seeds Metaphor	
Total	14 teacher-centred metaphors	04 learner-centred metaphors

Table 5.3 Orientation of the Metaphors Expressed by Teachers

Looking at these results quantitatively, they demonstrate that the number of the teacher-centred beliefs (n=14) largely outnumbered those which are learner-centred (n=4). It was also noticed that even those teachers who are classified as teacher-centred in their beliefs' orientation cared about their students; they believed it is their responsibility to build a positive learning atmosphere. In fact, many factors contribute in shaping teachers' own beliefs about teaching and learning.

5.1.1.3 Part Three: Self-reflection Activity

Through the third part of the teachers' questionnaire, we were able to dig deep into the 18 participant teachers' prior life, learning and teaching experience in order to understand better the origins of their beliefs. In light of the obtained results, we discussed three main factors that are believed to impact teachers' belief formation: prior language learning experience, teacher education and classroom practice (Borg, 2003a).

1. *Prior language learning experience*

The obtained data provided evidence that most teachers (n=10/18) held positive views and images about their prior high school teachers. These teachers were described as patient, caring, dynamic and friendly. They were considered as a source of inspiration to choose to study English at university. As asserted by Williams et al., (1997), an individual's construction of his/her world is affected by his/her previous experiences. In fact, early relationships with significant others (e.g. teachers) are argued to be representing a prototype that has an influence on what type of teachers individuals become (Ainscough, 1997).

Six teachers did not hold positive images about their teachers; they believed that they were authoritative, did not tolerate mistakes, focused on teaching written skills (reading and writing) and taught in a very traditional and boring way. As a consequence, students often felt threatened to participate in class and they did not enjoy their classes. Only two teachers viewed that their secondary school instructors were a mixture of the caring and authoritative types of teachers described above.

Prior university teachers of English, on their turn, were not differently perceived by the 18 teachers who filled the questionnaire. Most of them (n=12) positively qualified their previous teachers as skillful, knowledgeable, caring and generous and three others added that their instructors acted like model teachers to them. Only a minority (n=3/18) thought negatively of their former university teachers; they

described them as non-motivated, careless, neither knowledgeable nor skillful in their teaching.

Concerning prior university teachers' teaching methodology, one third of the respondents to the questionnaire (n=6/18) viewed that some of their teachers adhered to the outmoded teacher-centred teaching style; they were lectured, did not encourage their students to select the teaching content, expected them to reproduce what they have learnt in class and did not care about them. However, other teachers were remembered as being objective, professional and guiding students to do personal research and class presentations. The rest of the respondents to the questionnaire did not describe their university teachers' way of teaching.

As far as the choice of the degree is concerned, the majority of the teachers who completed the questionnaire (n=16/18) reported that they had willingly chosen their specialty. Fourteen of them opted for a degree in English and only two teachers pursued translation studies to become translators. Most of the teachers who were specialized in the English degree (n=9/14) envisaged a teaching career. Four of them did not have an interest in teaching but in the English language, American accent, literature and civilization. Just one teacher studied English just to avoid studying in Arabic due to the Arabisation Reform of the 1970's. Of all the participant teachers, only two teachers did not wish to study English because they had ambitions to study in other specialties such as medicine and architecture but their marks in the Bac exam did not allow them to major in those studies. Despite this, the same teachers showed no regrets and felt satisfied ending up as English university teachers.

From the above results, it seems that EFL teachers, at B2U, were either imitating their prior teacher models or reacting against those they did not like. For this reason, all teachers, including those who held teacher-centred beliefs, cared about their students and most of them had a passion for teaching. The second factor which emerged out of analysing data obtained from the first and third part of the teachers' questionnaire relates to teacher education.

2. Teacher education

When they were asked to state their teaching philosophy, 5/18 teachers were not able to do that. As a matter of fact, 3/5 teachers had no clue about the concept ‘teaching philosophy’ and they could not define their own teaching philosophy. One of the five teachers reduced the role of the instructor to that of a presenter or a knowledge provider and another one employed a more vague definition of teaching by relating it to different disciplines such as Pedagogy, Psychology, Sociology, Education and Didactics without specifically defining the roles of the teacher and the learner.

Seemingly, the type of education teachers had received at university influenced their beliefs about teaching and learning; L2 university teachers, especially those who received a degree in English Linguistics and Didactics, were more aware of their own philosophy of teaching and they were more specific about the roles that should be assigned to teachers and students in class. In addition to information about the specialty of the teachers, part 1 in the teachers’ questionnaire revealed that all teachers (n=18) did not receive any pre-service or in-service teacher training and this may explain the inability of the teachers to describe their teaching philosophy. The third aspect that emerged in relation to teachers’ beliefs’ formation is classroom practice.

3. Classroom practice

When teachers were asked whether they aspired to become teachers when they were children, they expressed different views with several justifications. 7/18 teachers dreamt of becoming teachers; they loved this job thanks to the positive influence of their former model instructors. They appreciated the noble and humane mission that characterised teaching. One of them wanted to become a teacher because he thought it to be an easy job but he realised the opposite when experiencing it. Another teacher was undecided but the fact that his father was a teacher helped him unconsciously to become a teacher.

The above situations were not the case for one of the 18 respondents since he did not wish to become a teacher due to his negative views about the teaching profession

of his mother. Ten other teachers were not interested in teaching for several reasons: they were interested in other jobs, they were afraid of the job and its demands or they had a bad learning experience based on rote and facts learning. Some of these teachers argued that they learnt how to cope and others just fell in love with the teaching profession after experiencing it. Interestingly, the point that all the teachers seemed to agree upon is the difficulty of the job; they reported different challenges in this respect.

Teachers commented about their bad teaching conditions such as overcrowded classes, lack of teaching materials and trainings and administrative obstacles. Novice teachers complained about the difficulty to assess students and plan motivating lessons that respond to students' differences (styles, aptitudes and personalities). They argued that teaching is energetic (mentally and physically) and time consuming especially with the kind of students they were teaching.

In this vein, when asked whether they believed that nowadays students are different from those in the past, nearly all teachers (n=17/18) argued that they are different indeed. Contrary to the older generation, students were thought not to be keen on learning or to believe in the worthiness of hard work. They were described as being less motivated or respectful to their teachers. They were also not attentive in class and too demanding about marks without making the necessary effort. They also relied on their teachers to spoon-feed them with the necessary knowledge to be able to pass their exams and get a degree. These students did not develop any passion for learning and on the contrary they felt unhappy and stressed because they cared a lot about marks.

Surprisingly, just one novice teacher viewed students in a different way. According to her, they adopted different materials or technologies in order to look for information themselves and they were a good outcome of the LMD system. Apparently, the type of students this last teacher was alluding to is what most of the above 17 teachers considered to constitute a minority. This minority was described as being brilliant and responsible and holding clear learning goals.

Some teachers explained the above situation by referring to the new challenges students were facing in their everyday life; they were living in a world of technology and Internet which distracted them from the task of learning. They were also living in a society which gave less value to education. One teacher added that because less value was given to their university degree, students experienced a feeling of frustration. After discussing and analyzing results obtained from the questionnaire to the teachers, turn is for the second questionnaire used with the Master students.

5.1.2 Questionnaire to Master Students

Master students' questionnaire was fully described in chapter four. It includes three major parts: part one comprises 21 items to investigate teachers' teaching practices, part two has two open-ended questions about teachers' use of ICTs inside and outside the classroom and part three with its two open-ended questions investigates students' use of ICTs inside and outside the classroom. The analysis of the data collected from the three parts of the questionnaire is presented in the coming sections.

5.1.2.1 Part One: 21 Items

The scrutiny I did in chapter three into LMD official texts and documents defined the roles an LMD teacher should play in class. This was achieved by examining the extent to which the LMD curriculum is learner-centred using both Weimer's (2002) and Blumberg's (2009) definition of learner-centredness. The outcome of the scrutiny was reported and summarized in table 3.2. It was found that in the LMD reform, the teacher's role is characterized by some teacher-centred and more learner-centred teaching practices. To investigate how often university teachers in the English department of B2U practise these teacher-centred and learner-centred teaching practices, a 21-item questionnaire was constructed and administered to master students.

a. Teachers' Teacher-centred Practices

Master students were asked to tick the frequency with which their teachers practised the teaching behaviours indicated in the 21 items (Appendix 2). Items 1, 5, 12, 13, 19 and 20 relate to the teacher-centred practices that should be practised by the teacher as indicated in section 2 chapter 3. In theory, the university LMD teacher should determine the content of the course, mandate all class policies and deadlines, use extrinsic motivators, assess students' skills, competences and finds-out about their learning difficulties, determine accuracy of answers in exams and set a timeframe for providing feedback in official exams.

Using the answers of the 104 students, the frequency of the teachers' practices as practiced in the English Department at B2U was calculated. In table 5.4, the number of students indicating different frequencies (from always to never) in relation to items 1, 5, 12, 13, 17, 19 and 20 is indicated. This allowed us to deduce the frequency with which each item is practiced. For example, the behaviour described in item 1 is often practiced since a highest number of 45 students stated so. All results in relation to the 6 above items are reported in table 5.4.

Item number and its corresponding teaching practice	Number of students indicating different frequencies				
	Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
1: Determination of Course Content	35	45	23	01	00
5: Mandating Policies and Deadlines	58	32	07	04	03
12: Use of Extrinsic Motivators	03	20	41	25	15
13: Assessing Students' Strengths and Weaknesses	46	35	11	07	05
17: No self or Peer Assessment	48	31	14	06	05
19: Justification of the Accuracy of Answers in Exams	39	46	07	02	00
20: Timeframe for Feedback	27	24	33	13	07

Table 5.4 Teachers' Teacher-centred Practices (from the perspective of students)

In the English Department under study, the teachers often determine the content of the course, they always mandates class policies and deadlines, they sometimes use extrinsic motivators, they are always the only ones to assess students' skills, knowledge and to find-out about their learning difficulties and they do not allow self or peer correction. They often determine accuracy of answers in exams and they sometimes set a timeframe for providing feedback in official exams. Thus, from the students' perspective, the teachers practise well the teacher-centred practices as required by the LMD curriculum. Each of the previous practices is further discussed in light of the students' written comments in part one of the questionnaires.

a. Determination of Course Content

Concerning the first teacher-centred practice, students' comments throughout their questionnaires revealed that it is rarely when teachers took the needs of their students into consideration even in courses related to students' own self-expression such as the module of Speaking. What teachers actually did was informing their

students about the content of their course in their first meeting session. The only reported opportunity for students to have some words to say over the teaching content was when they were invited by their teachers to make presentations.

b. Mandating Policies and Deadlines

Surprisingly, students did not complain about the fact that it was only the teachers who set-up rules in class. They listed different rules related to attendance, discipline, deadlines for presentations and submission of assignments and latecomers' penalties. They found it good for them that teachers control their classes. An M2 student commented: "If students were given such a right (the right to control or negotiate class policies), classes would be mess overtime."

c. Use of Extrinsic Motivators

Concerning students' opinion about the relevance of using extrinsic motivators or not in teaching, they split between those who welcomed this teaching practice and those who rejected it. Some considered it as a good way to motivate them to learn by creating an atmosphere of competition while others thought that it created an atmosphere of jealousy between them. In this vein, a student commented:

"In fact, I don't like this way of motivation, I like when the teacher motivates us by making us aware of the importance of what he is teaching and his way of teaching motivates us to learn." (M1/ Didactics)

d. Assessing Students' Strengths and Weaknesses

Despite the fact that teachers were the only ones responsible for assessing students in class, these latter expressed their wish to share this responsibility because they believed that self or peer-correction was useful. Students complained about teachers who were usually worried about finishing the lesson and not about understanding their learning difficulties such as their pace of learning. Some students commented:

“Sometimes even Didactics teachers do not use this. They teach students how they should diagnose their students’ difficulties, but in fact, teachers in this department do not apply it.” (M1/Lit)

“It is not fair, students should also have a say in the way they are assessed” (M1/Dids)

“Teachers are the ones who evaluate their students all the time. But they are not encouraged to assess themselves.” (M2/ Lit)

e. No self or Peer Assessment

In relation to the above issue, students’ answers in the questionnaires confirmed that self or peer assessment modes were not used in class. In this vein, a student commented: “I never heard about self or peer evaluation in this department.” (M2/Lit). Very few peer-editing opportunities were reported by students in the subject of Academic Writing.

f. Justification of the Accuracy of Answers in Exams

In relation to this practice, students reported that teachers often determined accuracy of answers in exams. Note the following quotation: “Teachers, all the time, assess a student in the exams about what they taught him. If he answers out of what the teacher is expecting him to answer, he will get a bad mark.” (M1/Did)

Not all students believed in the same way; some viewed that teachers were open minded to exam answers which were different from the knowledge they presented in class. They argued that teachers welcomed all answers that were well argued. This view is well demonstrated through the following words: “They (teachers) emphasise on students’ logical thinking and let them organize what they have in mind” (M1/Lit). Additionally, some students argued that teachers focused on assessing the correctness of language in exams as well.

f. Timeframe for Feedback

Few students admitted the utility of feedback provision in exams. In this sense, a student commented: “I’ve learnt more from teachers who provided me with feedback during the correction of exams” (M2/Did). Contrarily to what this student thought, others acknowledged the fact that the day of the exam correction, students were more interested in learning about their marks than about the mistakes they did in their exams. Note the following quotation: “Most of the teachers do that. They give us the correction before the papers. But students don’t care about it which is a problem; they don’t care about knowledge.” (M2/Didactics)

b. Teachers’ Learner-centred Practices

Through the first part of their questionnaire, Master students were asked to tick the frequency with which their teachers practised the teaching behaviours indicated in the 21 items. Items 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 16, 18 and 21 relate to the learner-centred practices that the teachers should adopt in the LMD curriculum as indicated in section 3.2.

In theory, the university LMD teacher should encourage the students to express alternative perspectives when appropriate, adopt continuous assessment and use open-ended assignments and varied content. He/she should assist students to reflect on the teaching content to make their own sense of it and to apply it to learn a new one. Also, the LMD teacher should create a learning environment which accommodates different learning styles, articulate well the teaching objectives of his/her course taking into account the students’ learning goals and aligning them with the methodology of instruction and assessment. He/ she should teach students how to frame a piece of research, integrate assessment within learning, allow students to demonstrate ability to learn from their mistakes and use both summative and formative assessment modes.

From the students’ answers, the frequency with which the above teaching behaviours were practiced in the English Department under study was calculated. In table 5.5, the number of students indicating different frequencies (from always to never) in relation to items 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 16, 18 and 21 is indicated.

This allowed us to deduce the frequency with which each item is most practised. The corresponding results are reported in table 5.5.

Item number and its corresponding teaching practice	Number of students indicating different frequencies (total number of students=104)				
	Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
2: Expression of Alternative Perspectives	25	28	41	10	00
3: Adoption of Continuous Assessment	09	23	26	24	22
4: Use of Open-ended Assignments	06	29	45	20	04
6: Varied Uses of Content	13	28	37	20	06
7: Students' Engagement in Content	05	25	39	27	08
8: Use of Content to facilitate Future Learning	06	25	38	26	09
9: Creation of an Environment for Learning	02	14	29	37	22
10: Matching Students' Learning Goals	11	35	41	25	15
11: Student, teacher and Content's Interaction	09	17	46	26	06
14: : Developing Information Literacy Skills	35	39	13	10	07
15: Assessment within the Learning Process	19	23	46	12	04
16: Use of Summative and Formative Assessment	63	26	08	07	00
18: Demonstration of Ability to Learn from Mistakes	07	28	37	29	03
21: Use of Authentic Assessment	29	26	32	11	06

Table 5.5 Teachers' Learner-centred Practices (from the perspective of students)

In the English degree course under study, the teachers occasionally encourage the students to express alternative perspectives, they sometimes adopt continuous assessment and use assignments which are open-ended, they sometimes use content in a varied way and assist students to reflect on the teaching content and apply it to learn a new content. They rarely create a learning environment which accommodates different learning styles.

When teachers articulate the objectives of their course, they sometimes take into account the students' learning goals. They often teach students how to frame a piece of research and they rely on the use of both continuous assessment (formative assessment) and official exams (summative assessment) to evaluate students. They occasionally integrate assessment within learning, allow students to demonstrate ability to learn from their mistakes and relate assessment to real-life tasks. Thus, from the students' perspective, teachers do not practise well the learner-centred principles as required in the LMD curriculum. Each of the previous practices is further discussed in light of the students' written comments added in the questionnaires.

a. Expression of Alternative Perspectives

This learner-centred practice is related to students' expression of their perspectives in class. Through students' comments, it is clear that they appreciated the fact that some teachers allowed them to express their opinions. This, according to them, built a good relationship between each other and motivated them more. However, other students described some of their teachers, especially novice ones, as being careless about them and as believing themselves to be the only experts in class. The following two comments by students summarise their opposed views concerning this issue:

“...through discussions and debates and they often welcome different opinions and appreciate convincing arguments.” (M2/Lit)

“Some teachers do not accept others' points of view. It is either caused by fear of debating on a topic or because of a lack of time management strategies.” (M2/Lit)

b. Adoption of Continuous Assessment

Students' comments revealed that teachers explained to them how they could earn marks (e.g. attendance- behaviour- participation- tests- presentations etc). Interestingly, students themselves complained about the laziness of some students who did not make any effort to deserve good continuous assessment marks. On the other hand, students complained also about some teachers who were not continuously assessing them but finding an easy way to put a final mark for this type of evaluation. Some of the students' comments were:

“Some teachers do only consider the mark of the exam as a mark of C.A (continuous assessment) so that the two marks are closer and related...” M1/lit

“It depends from teachers to teachers, some offer flexibility by encouraging attendance, participation etc, others grade students on the exam mark.” M2/lit

c. Use of Open-ended Assignments

Students judged that their teachers occasionally used open-ended assignments that encouraged their own personal production and creativity. Through their comments, students noted that it was easier in some courses to assign them with open-ended tasks than in others. To illustrate the effective use of open-ended activities, they suggested as an example the task of writing paragraphs and essays in literature and civilisation. What prevented teachers from adopting open-ended assignments in their teaching were their teaching objectives; students believed that some of their teachers did not care about their own sense of creativity but about finishing their teaching programme or planning tasks that are often guided.

d. Varied Uses of Content

Through students' comments, it appeared that students were aware of the value of receiving knowledge and knowing how to apply it; they directly linked between their awareness of the teaching objectives and motivation. For instance, Master students, specialized in Didactics, had a clear picture about the purpose behind

receiving certain knowledge in class; teachers were helping them to draw the link between acquiring knowledge and its value in their possible future teaching career as teachers. However, Master students, specialized in Literature and Civilisation, reported a less clear picture about their teachers' purpose behind teaching them certain knowledge. Some of them commented:

“They do not make it clear why it is important to learn this; they rather deliver the lecture and that's it.” (M2/Lit)

“Some teachers just present the lesson, students' understanding isn't really taken into consideration.” (M2/Lit)

e. Students' Engagement in Content

Most of the students' comments exhibited negative attitudes concerning this aspect in the sense that they believed that teachers taught them theoretical matters whereas practice was quite absent. The following comments provide illustrations:

1. “Reflection is done mostly by teachers not learners.” (M1/Did)
2. “Teachers care about finishing the lesson.” (M1/Lit)
3. “They often impose their points of view.” (M1/Lit)
4. “Some teachers prefer to see only their content repeated.” (M2/Lit)

f. Use of Content to Facilitate Future Learning

Students illustrated this practice with situations where they were given activities as a home-work in order to make the move towards the next lesson's point. In other words, teachers taught students to apply the acquired content in learning the content of the next lesson. According to their comments, students were taught also to make the link between the teaching contents of different courses such as learning about literary movements in English literature and applying that further to learn about American or African literature. Some students, on the other hand, stated that teachers did not care about teaching students how to benefit from the acquired knowledge to learn a new one but about finishing their teaching programme.

g. Creation of an Environment for Learning

Students reported that it is rarely when their teachers created a learning environment that accommodated different learning styles. According to them, except the data show, lab-top and loud speakers, teachers did not use materials to accommodate various learning styles. They believed that given the lack of materials and the big number of students, most teachers taught in a traditional way by delivering lectures, dictating lessons and giving handouts. The following comment depicts a learner's discomfort with her teacher's teaching method:

Teachers create a learning environment that accommodates their [underlined in original] learning style and this is the thing that I hate most. We used to have a teacher that from the beginning of the session, she talked without making a pause and got nervous if we interrupted her. I used to attend all her sessions but till now, I don't remember a word of what she said. (M1/Dids)

h. Matching Students' Learning Goals

Students' answers to item 10 in the questionnaire suggested that teachers occasionally matched activities with their learners' goals and some students believed that their instructors did not care about whether they were learning or not; their goal was to finish the programme.

J. Student, Teacher and Content's Interaction

Through their written comments, students reported mainly the type of interaction between teacher and students and they provided some illustrations. Teachers encouraged them to ask questions, give their opinions and get involved. Students' interaction with the content and each other happened when they were assigned pair-work and/or group-work activities. For example, on some occasions, students were required to do oral presentations and to play roles.

k. Developing Information Literacy Skills

In the English department of B2U, students had the opportunity to learn how to do research in a course called Research Methodology during the 3rd year of the Licence study scheme (see table 4.1). It has to be noted that some students complained

about the fact that teaching in Research Methodology was mainly theoretical. Some of them attributed that to the lack of time and materials. In response to this, they preferred the study of some research articles with their teachers in class to learn more about how to do research.

l. Assessment within the Learning Process

Through their questionnaires, students reported that it was only occasionally when teachers assessed them within the learning process. One of the illustrations provided by the students was about their M1 teacher of Didactics of Listening and Speaking who asked them to examine research articles at home and once in class, she checked their comprehension through Q and A exchanges and put a mark for their performance.

m. Use of Summative and Formative Assessment

According to students, teachers used both summative (official exams) and formative (continuous) assessment modes. In fact, they believed that continuous assessment provided feedback to teachers about students' understanding in class. According to them, marks obtained from both continuous assessment and exams were useful in ranking students for future selection and studies in a master or a doctorate degree. However, some students complained about teachers who asked them to give back exactly what they had been taught in class. Other students argued that continuous assessment was restricted to oral presentations only; one of their comments was: "There are presentations and official exams. Continuous assessment is quite absent." (M2/Lit)

n. Demonstration of Ability to Learn from Mistakes

Students' answers to item 18 in the questionnaire revealed that teachers occasionally offered students some opportunities to learn from their mistakes and then demonstrate mastery. For instance, through their comments, it was found that some Reading and Writing teachers gave them assignments to write paragraphs. Some of those paragraphs were corrected by the teachers and then students were asked to re-write them again based on the teachers' feedback. In addition, teachers jot down on the

board the most common or recurrent mistakes in students' drafts in order to avoid them in the future.

Interestingly, students exhibited an awareness of the importance of making mistakes or errors in order to learn. In this respect, one learner commented: "Mistakes pave the way for success." (M1/Did) However, as reported earlier, when it comes to exams, they were not interested in knowing about the nature of their mistakes as much as they cared about the marks they obtained. Students were also aware of the difficulties that their teachers were facing in order to enable them to learn from their mistakes. Examine the following comment: "Few teachers do that because they are limited by time." (M2/Did)

o. Use of Authentic Assessment

Through their questionnaires, students were asked whether teachers related the assessment techniques to real-life tasks and most of them judged that it was occasionally when this happened. Through their comments, students did not provide examples of real-life tasks used during assessment. Some of them added that teachers cared mainly about delivering their lessons and this is demonstrated through the following comment: "Sometimes teachers do that, but most of the time, they do what suits them and don't care about learners. They care just about delivering the lesson and they go out." (M2/Lit).

5.1.2.2 Part 2: Teachers' Use of ICTs Inside and Outside of the Classroom

Through Part 2 of their questionnaire (see Appendix 2), master students had expressed their perspectives concerning teachers' use of ICTs inside and outside classroom. Except for the use of the data-show in class (to project texts, videos and lecture content), Master students (especially those specialized in Literature and Civilisation) did not report any other uses of ICTs in class. In this context, some of them commented:

- 1- “Teachers rarely use or include technologies in classrooms even though they are helpful for students. Thus, they have to start using them because students will be more involved since it is the era of technologies.” (M1/lit)
- 2- “Teachers of literature and civilization do not often use ICTs in classroom. The lectures are conducted based on books, handouts and traditional ways of teaching.” (M2/lit)
- 3- “The use of ICTs is rare in this department, may be because it is the lack of equipment (hardware) in the department and also sometimes teachers don’t have enough experience in using technology.” (M2/lit)
- 4- “Teachers in our department do not rely on the use of ICTs very often due to many obstacles such as: limited time and insufficient technology materials.” (M2/lit)
- 5- “They leave it to students’ choice on whether or not to include ICTs, other than that, most teachers don’t use ICTs in their lectures.” (M2/lit)
- 6- “In Blida 2 University , laboratory which is the simplest thing that should be present in any department, is absent.” (M2/lit)

Bringing about the idea of laboratories, students reported that in listening sessions, instructors brought their PCs, digital phones and loud speakers to play authentic recordings for their students. Being a teacher of listening in the department, I confirm what students had reported. Indeed, during the first semester of the academic year 2015-2016, it was the duty of the teacher to provide the necessary materials to play listening scripts; loud speakers available in the department were few and not of a good quality. During the second semester, things changed a bit when three rooms were equipped with big loud speakers of good sound quality.

Seemingly, what was reported before by students represents the few uses of ICTs by teachers inside the classroom (i.e. the use of the data show and listening equipments). It seems interesting to learn more about the extent to which teachers use technologies outside the classroom. In fact, EFL teachers of B2U, used ICTs in teaching outside classroom in multiple ways. Students stated that teachers published

lessons on sites, via Facebook or e-mails. Not only this, they provided them with interesting links and electronic documents to consult as well as videos to watch in relation to the teaching content. Instructors also allowed students to submit their homeworks by sending them via mail and they used the Net to communicate any piece of information to their students.

The following comments illustrate better the different uses of ICTs in teaching outside classroom:

- 1- “In Lounici Ali University, English Department, our teachers sometimes use ICTs. For example, they use our facebook group to share documents with us. They also provide us with useful sources from the Internet to help us in our research. However, they rarely use visual aids in the classroom.” (M1/lit)
- 2- “Some of them are familiar with Internet as they often publish articles and suggestions on Facebook for further research. Some of them don’t even have the slightest contact with such technology.” (M2/lit)
- 3- “Teachers rely on ICTs outside classroom by preparing and sending handouts via the Net or communicating with students through the social network such as Facebook. However, inside the classroom, some teachers prefer following a classical method when dealing with the syllabus.”
- 4- “The academic writing teacher of this year provides tasks and documents in our Facebook group.” (M1/Did)

5.1.2.3 Part 3: Students’ Use of ICTs Inside and Outside of the Classroom

The current generation of learners is called the ‘net generation’ (Valtonen, & al., 2010) for good reasons. In the present study and through their answers to part 3 in their questionnaires, students stated various uses of technology in their studies inside as well as outside the classroom. In class, some students preferred recording their lectures using their mobiles in order to focus more on comprehension rather than on taking notes. Others used their PCs to take notes, write essays and prepare all sorts of assignments such as power-point presentations. They also used their tablettes to consult their electronic pdf sources. They used their smart phones frequently in class

to fulfill several tasks such as checking electronic dictionaries, taking pictures of some documents/notes or setting-up reminders.

Outside the classroom, Internet had been used, according to learners, for multiple purposes. Students stated that they used it to download pdf articles and educational videos from You-tube, to do research via Google scholar and to use Facebook group to post articles, books and even time tables, marks and tasks. They also used it when revising for their exams especially when lessons were explained only through their classmates' presentations. This is well expressed via the following comment:

For my two years of Master degree, I rely on Internet when studying all the modules except those teachers who explain the lessons by themselves without including and depending on the presentations of the students. Honestly, I never understand a course from members of my group's presentations. I think presentations by students alone never reach the goal of making other students understand the lesson. (M2/lit)

Additionally, students used e-mails and Facebook to share information with their classmates. Through the Net, they got in touch with students from all-over the world to learn from them and about their cultures. For educational as well as entertainment purposes, students used the Net to watch movies and listen to podcasts in English.

5.2 Analysis of Interviews

In the present study, interviews were used on several occasions. They were conducted with teachers working in the English department under study in order to investigate the emotions and teaching practices of the LMD teachers. Interviews were also meant to examine and understand how tutoring proceeds with first year LMD students. Data is presented and analyzed as obtained from the following three interviews:

1. Interview to teachers
2. Interview to tutors
3. Interview to first year Licence students.

5.2.1 Interview to Teachers

Ten teachers were interviewed in the current study and their face to face interview included feeling questions and behaviour questions. It consisted of 9 sections (see Appendix 3). Results as obtained from the teachers' answers to the questions of the 9 sections are presented in the coming sections.

a. Teachers' Emotions before Coming in Class

Some negative beliefs and emotions were captured when analysing teachers' answers to the first introductory question: Can you tell me about your feelings a day before you come to the university? Results revealed that all interviewed teachers (10/10) shared feelings of worry, frustration and anxiety.

Five teachers (5/10) were novice and they cared about presenting their lessons well, confronting students, warming them up and motivating them and answering students' unexpected answers. One teacher who was very experienced also worried about planning her lessons because she explained that the needs of the students were changing since they could obtain knowledge easily through Internet. That's why, according to her, teachers should not focus on theoretical issues but on how to put them into practice.

Teachers' feelings of frustration were also caused by the students themselves. For instance, a civilization teacher complained about the low proficiency level of the students and lack of background knowledge and motivation to study her subject. Another teacher worried about the lack of discipline among some students and even across whole learning groups. Factors related to the load of work such as the teaching hours, dealing with a large number of students and administrative engagements were other sources of anxiety for three teachers. Three other teachers suffered from problems of transportation and punctuality.

Interestingly, few positive emotions were depicted among teachers. Only 3/10 teachers reported some feelings of joy and satisfaction about their teaching. They enjoyed when their students got involved, motivated or performed well in class.

According to them, these nice feelings help them forget the hardships of the teaching profession.

b. Role of the Teacher, Administration, and Learner in Determining Content in Courses and Exams

In this section of the interview, six questions were asked to the 10 teachers and their answers to them are presented and analysed hereafter.

1. Who determines the objectives and content of your course?

Teachers stated that it was ‘the educational institution’, ‘the administration’ or ‘the department’ which specified the general guidelines for the content they should teach in class. Some of them added that it is the job of the coordinator teacher to suggest a detailed description of the course objectives and content. Thus, the 10 interviewed teachers did not negotiate the objectives and content of the course with their students; it was their responsibility to define what to teach in class.

2. Do you try to relate what your students are learning with their preferences and career interests?

Eight interviewed teachers (8/10) confirmed that they did not relate their teaching content to their students’ preferences and career interests. They attributed that to different factors. For instance, two third year teachers of Psychopedagogy and African Literature noted students’ limited background knowledge about the subject matter which, according to them, prevented them from deciding about their own learning preferences in the course.

The other factor was not related to students’ background knowledge but to their huge number. In this context, a first year teacher of Reading and Writing tried to learn about her students’ learning preferences by distributing questionnaires to them at the beginning of the year but she finally gave up analysing them because it was time consuming due to their huge number. Other teachers also complained about the issue of class size.

A third double-edged sword factor that appeared to sometimes prevent and other times help teachers to relate their teaching to the preferences or career interests of their students is the nature of the module. For example, a second year

teacher of Morphosyntax argued that it was difficult for her to relate content to students' preferences. The only way for this teacher to make the teaching content related to students' language learning experience was to use their large background knowledge about other foreign languages (than English) such as Spanish and German in order to finally draw contrasts/similarities with the English language.

Differently, a third year teacher of Communication Skills found it easier to suit students' needs through her teaching tasks. To illustrate, students were taught how to communicate with the learners in case they chose to become teachers in the future and how to deal with their co-workers and/or managers in case they opt to work in companies. Through these two last examples, it becomes clear that the nature of the course plays a major role in shaping the decision of the teachers on how to relate their teaching content to the preferences and interests of the students.

3- Do you define the accuracy of the answers in exams and tests?

This question received 10 positive answers which meant that all interviewed teachers (10/10) defined the correctness of exam answers. They focused mainly on language form (correctness) and content (knowledge, reasoning and arguments).

4-Do you allow your students to justify for their exam answers when they are different from the ones suggested by the teacher(s)?

Nearly all the interviewed teachers (8/10) claimed that they accepted when their students suggested keys to exam or test subjects different from the ones they provide. For instance, a third year teacher of African literature exhibited a clear awareness about the need to foster students' sense of creativity, however, he also complained about the reluctance of students in general. In this context, he argued:

In literature, we should encourage free interpretation, uniformity of ideas is to be discarded but learners are sticking to what I give them, they don't explore, they don't read, they don't even read the primary texts, how can they develop their own interpretation? ...Because normally, they are supposed to read the play or the novel and then read about it, they skip the first tool...the easy way...they stick to what has been said, to the main stream criticism of the literary work.

Exactly the same case was described by another interviewed third year teacher of American literature.

c. Amount of Content to Cover in Class

Only one question was asked in this section of the interview:

- Do you care about the amount of content you cover in class?

Analysis of obtained data revealed that it is especially novice teachers (5/10) who cared about the amount of content to cover in class. They generally argued that they felt anxious about finishing their lessons and covering the whole teaching programme prescribed to them by the administration.

d. Type of Content to Teach in Class

In this section, 3 questions were asked to the 10 teachers and the outcome of the analysis of their answers to them is presented below.

1- Is the content you teach varied or not? If yes, can you give an example of the assignments you give to your students?

The 10 interviewed teachers reported that they all provided varied uses of content in class in the sense that they taught their students knowledge and tried to make them understand how to apply it or make it useful to them. In this respect, a master teacher of Didactics of Reading and Writing stated:

“In consideration of the syllabus, I try to build a logical link and successions between lessons that will make the students think and see the logical link between the succession of the lessons and the objectives of the course.”

A third year teacher of Psychopedagogy explained that her teaching session was varied in the sense that it included lecturing, debating and some presentations from the part of the students. A first year teacher of Phonetics reported that her course included a number of theoretical lecture-based sessions (knowledge) and some practical sessions in order to learn how to transcribe (to apply knowledge).

However, a first year teacher of Reading and Writing complained about the short duration of the teaching session which really prevented her from properly teaching her students how to read and write; she said: “ If I have time, I give them assignments to do in class but sometimes, we have 1h30mn and it is not enough. That’s why I give them home-works like giving them passages to read and analyse and we discuss that in class and because of time, we are always in a hurry.”

2-What does the content you teach promote in your students?

After analysing the 10 teachers’ answers to this question, their reported teaching objectives are recapitulated in table 5.6.

Teachers (course/ level)	Course(s) Objectives
Teacher 1 (Psycho-pedagogy/ Third year)	-Knowledge about teaching and learning
Teacher 2 (Psychology of the Adolescents/ M1)	-Knowledge -Research skills
Teacher 3 (Morpho-syntax/ First year)	-Knowledge about vocabulary construction - Examining the function and meaning of words
Teacher 4 (Phonetics /First year)	-Speaking accurately
Teacher 5 Reading and Writing/ First year)	-Reading and writing skills
Teacher 6 (African Literature/ Third year)	Reading literary texts
Teacher 7 (Listening and Speaking/ First year)	-Listening and speaking
Teacher 8 (American Literature/ Third year)	-Analysing literary works/texts.
Teacher 9 (Reading and Writing/ Third year)	-Reading and writing
Teacher 10 (Communication skills/ Third year)	-Knowledge -Verbal and non-verbal communication skills -Applying communication skills to everyday life situations

Table 5.6 Course Objectives

From the above table, it appears that all the 10 teachers have pre-defined varied objectives to their teaching. Some of the objectives are restricted to building the knowledge of the students about the subject matter and others aim at developing

language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing. Only one M1 teacher targeted the development of information literacy skills.

3-Do you allow your students to demonstrate mastery after they commit mistakes?

Teachers' answers to this question demonstrated that 5/10 teachers occasionally offered their students with opportunities to learn from their mistakes. For example, a teacher of Listening and Speaking granted her students a second opportunity to deliver a presentation after they failed in doing that the first time. Another teacher of Reading and Writing assigned students with the task of writing four essays during four weeks. After writing each essay, they exchanged it with their classmates for correction and at the same time, the teacher took 10 essay samples to provide them with her own feedback and mark. This teacher asked her students to keep a portfolio in order to enable them and the teacher to examine whether recurrent mistakes were avoided or not.

However, the previous teacher complained about the difficulty of making students keep a portfolio because it was time and effort consuming given the huge number of students. Her comment was: "I don't have time to sit with my mum at home... I am all the time correcting. I have 70 students in a class, you know! Very difficult! " Another illustration concerns two first year teachers of Reading and Writing and Phonetics. They mentioned that in order to make students learn from their mistakes, they avoided confronting them individually and highlighted the most recurrent mistakes in writing or in pronunciation to the whole class. In this way, teachers believed that they would not embarrass students, save time and each student would recognise his/her error. All the previous illustrations revealed that some teachers were making huge personal efforts in order to give students some opportunities to demonstrate mastery after committing errors.

e. Students' Interaction with Content

Three questions were asked in relation to this section and teachers' answers to them are presented and analysed hereafter.

1- Do you encourage your students to construct their own meaning of the content they learn?

Concerning the 10 interviewed teachers, they all reported that they helped students to construct their own meaning of the content. For example, a first year teacher of Reading and Writing gave her students some themes such as ‘technology’ and ‘violence’ to write essays about. The same teacher gave her third year students in American Civilisation different tasks which require them to construct their own meaning out of the content. For instance, she asked them to explain some political cartoons, to watch some videos and to read some handouts and comment on them in class. Similarly, a first year teacher of Phonetics presented her lesson and she asked her students to recap in their own words what they have learnt.

A third year teacher of Psychopedagogy noticed that some of her students were able to suggest their own personal vision or theory of teaching out of the theories they examined in class. A Master 1 teacher of Psychology of the Adolescents module assigned his students with the task of reading about the topic of the lesson at home before coming in class and briefly introducing their own personal understanding of it to their classmates under the supervision of the teacher.

2- Do you encourage them to express their different perspectives when appropriate?

All the interviewed teachers (10/10) demonstrated no hesitation in encouraging their students to express themselves when the opportunity and time allows. However, they also revealed some issues in relation to the nature of students. For example, a third year teacher found herself handling situations where few students wished to impose their interpretation on everybody else in class including the teacher. This teacher thought that may be because she was young that students were trying to test her and make her doubt her capacities.

3- Do they use the content they learn in future assignments?

Teachers’ comments during the interview and through their answers to the question ‘Does learning serve learners in the future?’ asserted that all the 10 teachers

cared about teaching their students how to apply the acquired content to learn a new one when possible.

To give an example, a literature teacher argued that reading literature is useful and contrary to what most people think, it teaches students to learn something new about life. Examine her comment:

Literature helps you consent life. From what you read, you are consented to human's life. There is some human experience which is lived with the characters. For example, let's take the example of Okonkwo in African Literature. He's someone who suffered from colonialism and we live with him the course of events and at the end he commits suicide. It is a pathetic end and we feel his despair. So, we learn not to get too involved in life from the case of Okonkwo.

(Teacher 6)

Another teacher of both American Civilization and Reading and Writing argued that through the content she presented to her students in these two courses, they were able to understand better today's events and avoid problems of writing in English. A teacher of Morphosyntax argued that the content of the module she taught helped students enlarge their mental lexicon which in its turn helped them listen, speak, read and write better.

A teacher of Psychopedagogy commented that through her course, students learnt how to teach in the future. A teacher of Phonetics stated that her students learnt how to transcribe words and sentences correctly and this helped them learn how to pronounce accurately. Interestingly, one of the 10 teachers argued that sometimes even if teachers try to make students understand how to use the acquired knowledge to learn about new things, two factors related to the nature of the students hindered them from achieving this goal.

This teacher argued that students suffer from a serious problem of abstraction and a grade-grabbing mentality. To give an example of the first problem, he referred to a Psychology of the Adolescents session where he and his Master Didactics students reviewed a book on daily interactions or social life in general. The teacher was trying to teach students how to project what they have learnt from the book to learn about

daily interactions that happen in class between the teacher and learners but he found a great difficulty to make them imagine that.

The same teacher provided another example to illustrate the grade-grabbing mentality of students which, according to him, prevented them from feeling motivated to understand how to apply the acquired knowledge to learn a new one. In fact, in his course of Linguistics, the teacher was trying to explain the value of the linguistic knowledge in students' future learning but they did not seem to care; all they cared about was to know about the type of questions he could ask in the Linguistics exam.

The grade-grabbing mentality characterising students was also reported by a teacher of literature who argued that learning about different theories in literature such as Marxism made sense to a minority of students who were eager to do further research in the future. He believed that most students were content with marks and degrees and they sometimes felt they could not venture to a doctoral research.

f. Mandating Class Policies and Deadlines

The 10 teachers responded to three questions related to this section and their answers were analyzed as follows:

1-Who decides about class policy?

The majority of interviewed teachers (8/10) confirmed that they decided about all policies in the classroom and only two novice teachers did not believe in mandating class policies. One of them, a first year teacher of Phonetics, acknowledged that may be because of her two years short teaching experience, she adopted a *laissez-faire* policy with her students and she put no rules in class (e.g. no deadlines for papers' submission, no obligation to attend and no penalty for latecomers). The second teacher who had only three- years teaching experience regretted so much that she adopted what she preferred to call a 'flexible policy'. For example, she did not set up a deadline for her students to submit their assignments and this in fact ended her in a situation where only 15 students did their assigned projects.

Except these two teachers, the others strongly advocated setting-up class policies. They believed in mutual respect, listening to each other and respecting deadlines and attendance. Interestingly, one of these teachers believed also in granting students some

freedom in class. He argued: “I try to trigger in them a sense of responsibility with a hope that it will be useful later on because if we instruct them and restrict them, may be they will develop a behaviouristic tendency. They will wait to be punished.”

2-Do you use extrinsic motivators such as bonus and minus points with your students?

Through teachers’ answers and comments, it was demonstrated that few of them (3/10) added points to the continuous assessment mark to encourage students. They also used minus points to penalize students for not doing their homework. The majority of the interviewed teachers (n=7/10) believed in the usefulness of intrinsically motivating students. Some of them added that explaining well the teaching objectives of their lessons right at the beginning and relating learning to students’ own interests would achieve that.

c- Do you decide about a timeframe for providing feedback in tests and exams?

All teachers (10/10) decide about when or the exact dates when to correct tests and exams. Some of them argued that students will remind them about this issue if they forget to mention it to them because most of them cared about knowing about their marks. Teachers further explained that the administration limits a period of nearly one week after exams end to give students the opportunity to correct the exam and consult their papers.

g. Deciding about the Teaching Methodology

Five questions were asked to the teachers in relation to this section and their answers were analysed as demonstrated below.

a- How would you describe your teaching methodology?

The 10 interviewed instructors provided different descriptions of the way they teach their students in the classroom. Their different teaching methodologies are reported in table 5.7

Teachers (course/ level)	Teaching Methodology
Teacher 1 (Psycho-pedagogy/ Third year)	-Lecturing -Debates
Teacher 2 (Psychology of the Adolescents/ M1)	-Lecturing -Students' presentations
Teacher 3 (Morpho-syntax/ First year)	-Lecturing -Class assignments -Students' oral recap of the content of the lesson
Teacher 4 (Phonetics /First year)	-Lecturing -Class assignments (reading loudly texts- transcribing words/sentences)
Teacher 5 Reading and Writing/ First year)	-Reading and writing assignments -Debates
Teacher 6 (African Literature/ Third year)	-Lecturing -Debates
Teacher 7 (Listening and Speaking/ First year)	-Class assignments -Oral performances
Teacher 8 (American Literature/ Third year)	-Literary reading and analysis class assignments
Teacher 9 (Reading and Writing/ Third year)	-Class assignments -Homeworks
Teacher 10 (Communication skills/ Third year)	-Lecturing -Classroom tasks (reading texts- performing in front of an audience)

Table 5.7 Teaching Methodology of the Interviewed Teachers

The above table demonstrates that the teaching methodology of the interviewed teachers varied in the sense that different types of interactions happened in class. Many teachers (n=6/10) relied on the use of lectures to provide the students with a certain amount of knowledge in relation to the course. However, the same teachers welcomed the idea that students should interact with the content and provide their own perspective or understanding regarding it. That is why, they varied their teaching methodology by including debates and class assignments. Language skills teachers

(teachers 5-7 and 9) were adopting a teaching methodology based on tutorials whereby students accomplish different class and home tasks.

2- Do you consider your students' learning style when teaching? How?

According to teachers' interviews, 8/10 teachers confirmed that they did not consider their students' learning styles. Most teachers reported that their teaching was lecture-based. One of the ten teachers argued that she took into consideration visual learners by using videos and pictures in class. The same thing went for another teacher who argued that using pictures, video projector, texts and diagrams helped her in considering different learning styles.

When analysing data, it was noticed that teachers differed in their prior knowledge concerning the notion 'learning styles'. A very experienced teacher of literature seemed not to know or remember the meaning of 'learning styles' and couldn't answer my question until I explained the notion to her. On the other hand, a less experienced teacher, whose magister was specialised in Didactics, elaborated more on this issue by arguing that it is the responsibility of the teacher to make students aware of the notion 'learning style' and to motivate them to make shifts from one dominant to balanced learning styles. However, he considered the achievement of this goal to constitute a dream given the huge number of students. He suggested collaborative learning as a substitute in this case.

3- Do your students use ICTs in or outside the classroom in order to learn?

Through their interviews and their answers to question c in section 2.2 (see Appendix 3), teachers were very informative concerning students' use of technologies especially inside the classroom. Teachers noticed that students used their smart phones to record them when explaining and electronic dictionaries in order to check the meaning and the transcription of words. Even outside the classroom, a third year teacher of Communication Skills confirmed that her third year students shared a Facebook group page and very few teachers (to her knowledge only 2) joined it to post for their students.

On the other hand, some teachers held negative views about students since they thought that they did not attempt to use technologies in general and Internet in special in order to learn; they believed them to be passive, uninterested in their studies and looking only for fun. Some of these teachers' comments are as follows:

- 1- "I don't think so. I just think they rely on what is said in the classroom because they are kind of lazy." (Teacher 1/ Psychopedagogy)
- 2- "They use technology but not for learning...for social media purposes." (Teacher 5/ Reading and Writing)
- 3- "I don't think students are using technology in order to learn too much. It is only when they have presentations that they google. Few students ask me about interesting web-sites in order to learn how to write; they ask also about online courses." (Teacher 9/ Reading and Writing)

Just one optimistic point of view was noticed from the part of a teacher of American Literature. This teacher thought that her third year students benefited from searching information on the Net. According to her, they learnt about literary movements and theories, the thing that enabled her to spend more time discussing the literary work than explaining its theoretical foundation. Similarly, a teacher of listening noted that her first year students were very motivated and they listened to native speakers and watched videos in relation to the topic of the lesson before coming in class.

It had been noticed, from teachers' comments that they split in their views concerning the extent to which students rely on the use of technologies to learn. There were those who thought that students were not motivated enough to make advantage of using technologies (especially Internet) to learn English and study and those who believed that they were exploiting them well.

4- Do you use ICTs in or outside the classroom in order to teach?

Through their interviews and answers to question d in section 2.2 (see Appendix 3), teachers reported the extent to which they used ICTs to teach inside and outside classroom. Two teachers denied the use of technologies. The other eight teachers reported few uses similar to the ones suggested by students. In fact, instructors used their lab-tops with the projection and they used high speakers whenever necessary such as in teaching listening.

Outside classroom, teachers stated that they tried to communicate with their students using Internet. Here are some illustrations as provided by teachers:

- 1- “Via Internet, I send them (learners) novels; for example, during the civil war, we have Uncle Thom’s Coffin. I send them the novel in a pdf form to do more reading. For example, the speech of Abraham Lincoln, I send them that speech.” (Teacher 9/ Am Lit)
- 2- “I send them pdf articles because they do not have access to. I give them sometimes some pdf books.” (Teacher 6/ Afr Lit)
- 3- Teacher 9: “I created a Facebook page to post documents (that) students need to make copies of and examine in advance or to ask the teacher questions in relation to the course.” (Teacher 5/ Reading and Writing)

The above few uses of ICTs inside the classroom were well justified. After analyzing teachers’ verbal comments, it was found that they all complained about the lack of materials in the department. The following comments illustrate this:

- 1- “There is this lack of materials. I want to (use ICTs in teaching) but it is exhausting to bring your own materials.” (Teacher 1/ Psychopedagogy)
- 2- “It depends on the accessibility to the materials...” (Teacher 2/ Psychology of the Adolescents)
- 3- “Technology helps a lot but we don’t have the equipments and materials. So, I don’t rely on the use of technology. I don’t have a data show or a lab-top.” (Teacher 3/ Morphosyntax)

4- "...And for the equipments, I really have to come early (laugh) to earn the data-show." (Teacher 4/ Phonetics)

5- "In class, I don't use data show because it is not always available." (Teacher 6/ Afr Lit)

5- Do your students have clear learning goals? If yes, do you use various teaching methods to match their goals?

Teachers' answers to the question "Do students have a clear learning goals?" in the interview provided some interesting insights in relation to the teaching practice called 'Matching Students' Learning Goals'. Half of the interviewed teachers (5/10) argued that they did not match their students' learning goals because only few or some students have clear learning goals even though they explained to them well their teaching goals during the first meeting session. Teachers complained about the lack of motivation from the part of students. A teacher of literature commented:

Some of them have no interest in anything, not just literature; they don't have a clear learning objective and they are not motivated. They are here because they are supposed to be here and that's it. They have no clear goal even in their life. (Teacher 8/ Am Lit)

Another teacher added that for some students, they studied English because their parents wanted them to do so. In the same vein, another teacher argued:

They are all studying in order to get marks, in order to get a degree, in order to get jobs, in order to get money...as simple as that. I personally wish that they care about the content, what they are learning, why they are learning and how they use this knowledge in their daily life. (Teacher 5/ Reading and Writing)

Following the same tone, a teacher of African Literature added: "Whether we like or not, they (students) reduce classroom life to marks, exams, to evaluation and classification at the end. It is very reductive". All these comments as provided by some of the interviewed teachers capture a sense of frustration among them because, according to them, their students were not motivated enough to feel the joy of learning.

Though teachers felt frustrated about the lack of motivation among students and faced difficulties in making most of them interested in what they learn in class, some

of them acknowledged that it is not their fault. One teacher commented: “This is the problem in Algeria, anyway, we teach something but we never say what the aim behind that is!” Another teacher asserted: “it is our role to tell them that you need to have learning goals.”

The above situation was attributed by one of the 10 interviewed teachers to carelessness in setting-up clear objectives in the educational system. He added:

I think we (teachers) should raise their (students) awareness from the first year (why did you choose this branch?) When I set the learning objectives for my course, I did that in terms of what I want my learners to achieve by the end of teaching. It was in the first session. (Teacher 5/ Reading and Writing)

h. Deciding about the Assessment Methodology

In relation to the assessment methodology, the researcher asked the teachers six questions and then analysed their responses as presented in the coming sections.

1- Do you grant your students some control over how they earn grades?

Considering teachers’ verbatim comments, I found that all the interviewed teachers (10/10) granted students some control over the way they earned grades. In fact, they reported the same previous criteria of evaluation listed before by students (i.e. attendance, behaviour, participation, presentation and tests).

2- Do grades matter for you? or Are they a sign of good learning?

When teachers were asked whether grades mattered or if they were a sign of learning or not, 5/10 interviewed teachers considered grades as important. One of them believed that marks are a good sign of learning if students don’t cheat and it is their own personal work. A very experienced teacher of literature agreed that even though marks do not always reflect the real level of students, they do reflect the effort of the student as well as the teacher. This teacher commented:

I do not always agree with the marks because they do not reflect exactly the level of the student. Again, marks are important; you realise that students have read, have made an effort, have assimilated what they have received in class, so, you agree that he is a good student who made a good contribution and your teaching has achieved something

3- Do you integrate assessment within the learning process?

Teachers' answers in their interviews to the question 'Do you integrate assessment within the learning process?' revealed that 6/10 teachers did that. A third year teacher of Psychopedagogy assessed her students through their participation during lectures. A Master 1 teacher of Psychology of the Adolescents attempted to assess students' performance and ability to face an audience during some short presentations in relation to the topics of the lecture. A teacher of Reading and Writing put a mark for her students' participation and for writing paragraphs in class. In the same vein, a third year teacher of Communication Skills divided her students into groups and gave them class assignments.

Differently, a third year teacher of African literature argued that he did not integrate assessment within the learning process for several reasons; he commented: "Well, assessment while learning is very hard especially with the number of students [...] The more interaction there is in the classroom, the more I am predisposed to assess. But if students are passive, how can I assess them?" Another third year teacher of American literature joined the previous teacher when she complained about time. She exclaimed: "I don't have time to do all this!"

4- What do you assess in you students? How?

The 10 interviewed instructors provided different descriptions of the way they assess their students in the classroom. Their different assessment methodologies are reported in table 5.8.

Teachers (course/ level)	Assessment Methodology
Teacher 1 (Psycho-pedagogy/ Third year)	Assessing students' knowledge by putting a mark for their participation and contribution in class and administering a test to them.
Teacher 2 (Psychology of the Adolescents/ M1)	Assessing students' knowledge and research skills by putting a mark to their performances in the presentations.
Teacher 3 (Morpho-syntax/ First year)	Assessing students' performances during presentations and assignments by giving them a mark.
Teacher 4 (Phonetics /First year)	Assessing students' pronunciation skills by putting a mark for their performances in class assignments.
Teacher 5 Reading and Writing/ First year)	Assessing students' reading, writing and critical thinking skills by putting a mark for students' participation in class.
Teacher 6 (African Literature/ Third year)	Assessing students' reading skills by putting a mark for their participation in class.
Teacher 7 (Listening and Speaking/ First year)	Assessing students' listening and speaking skills by putting a mark for their participation in class.
Teacher 8 (American Literature/ Third year)	Assessing students' ability to analyze literary works without putting marks for their contribution.
Teacher 9 (Reading and Writing/ Third year)	Assessing students' reading and writing skills by putting marks to their contribution in doing class assignments.
Teacher 10 (Communication skills/ Third year)	Assessing students' communication skills by putting a mark to their participation and performance in class.

Table 5.8 Assessment Methodology of the Interviewed Teachers

From the above table, it has been noticed that the ten interviewed teachers in the present study aimed at assessing different components of the competency of the students. Two teachers assessed students' own knowledge about the subject matter while the left majority of the teachers had in their minds various skills and behaviours to evaluate such as reading, writing, listening and speaking/communication skills in addition to participation in class. Interestingly, all the teachers except one (teacher 8) put marks for the performance of their students in class.

5- Are you the only one who assesses?

When considering teachers' answers in the interview to the question: Are you the only one who assesses in class? , it was found that the majority of them (8/10) reported that they did so. However, they complained about the increased number of students which prevented them from considering their students individually and learn about their learning difficulties.

It was also found that only two teachers (2/10) of Reading and Writing who included some peer correction in their assessment methodology. Both teachers, after assigning their students with tasks to do in class, they granted them some time to discuss their answers with partners. It has to be noted that even though these two last teachers reported that they used some peer correction in class, the final mark on students' performance was exclusively decided by them.

5- Do you include real-life tasks in your assessment?

When interviewed through the following question: 'Do you include real-life tasks in your assessment?', 6/10 teachers reported that they relied on the use of real-life assessment tasks. For example, a teacher of Psycho-pedagogy stated that in continuous assessment tests, she usually attempted to relate the questions of the test to the Algerian teaching context. A teacher of Psychology of the Adolescents was examining with his students a book entitled *The Presentation of the Self in Everyday Life* and he was assessing their ability to imagine some concepts or element presented in the book in teaching. A teacher of Reading and Writing asked students to write argumentative essays on some current contemporary issues such as the use of technology and the spread of violence in society and a teacher of Listening and Speaking evaluated the oral performance of students when introducing themselves or reporting about their own personal life.

The other four teachers who did not rely on the use of real-life assessment tasks listed some of factors which prevented them from including real-life tasks in assessment. For instance, a teacher of Morphosyntax reported that the nature of her module did not help her to use real-life assessment tasks. Two other teachers of

African and American literature and another teacher of Reading and Writing found it difficult to design real-life tasks to assess students due to the restricted time for instruction and the huge number of students they had in their teaching groups.

7. Teachers' Degree of Satisfaction with the LMD Curriculum

Negative beliefs and feelings were depicted when the researcher analyzed the teachers' comments a to the last concluding request: would you tell me about your degree of satisfaction with the LMD curriculum. Results revealed that 5/10 teachers expressed their total dissatisfaction with the reform. One teacher explained that the LMD reform did not differ from the Classical system except for the added CA mark. 2/5 other teachers complained about the short duration of the 3 years Licence period. 2/5 teachers agreed that the application of the LMD system was not working well because it was affected by the general opinion of the society such as parents who wish all their children to get enrolled in a Master degree and the political decisions of the ministry obliging university departments to receive a number of first year students beyond their capacity.

According to these teachers, the good learner-centred principles of the LMD system could never be applied successfully given the huge number of students enrolled each year. Many other teachers complained about the serious problem of students' number and one teacher criticized the way the LMD system values marks since students do not go through a contest to bridge from the Licence to the Master degree but they are ranked according to their marks.

The five remaining teachers (5/10) held mixed beliefs about the LMD reform. They held positive attitudes towards the reform since they appreciated the fact that it accentuated a new teaching and learning methodology which focused on the learners' involvement in learning and achievement of their own personal work and research. In the same vein, 2/5 teachers appreciated compulsory attendance and CA as key features of the LMD reform. On the other hand, teachers were pessimistic about the success of the reform and they linked it to many factors including large-sized learning groups and the passive reluctant nature of the students.

At this stage of the data analysis, it seems useful to recapitulate in table 5.9 all results in relation to the teacher-centred and learner-centred practices of the teachers.

Results	Teachers' Practices	Number of teachers (Total= 10)	Frequency
Teacher-centred teaching practices	1. Determination of Course Content	10	always
	2. Mandating Policies and Deadlines	08	often
	3. Use of Extrinsic Motivators	03	rarely
	4. Assessing Students' Strengths and Weaknesses	08	often
	5. No self or Peer Assessment	08	often
	6. Justification of the Accuracy of Answers in Exams	10	always
	7. Timeframe for Feedback	10	always
Learner-centred teaching practices	1. Expression of Alternative Perspectives	10	always
	2. Adoption of Continuous Assessment	10	always
	3. Use of Open-ended Assignments	08	often
	4. Varied Uses of Content	10	always
	5. Students' Engagement in Content	10	always
	6. Use of Content to facilitate Future Learning	10	always
	7. Creation of an Environment for Learning	02	rarely
	8. Matching Students' Learning Goals	05	sometimes
	9. Student, teacher and Content's Interaction	06	sometimes
	10. Developing Information Literacy Skills	01	rarely
	11. Assessment within the Learning Process	06	sometimes
	12. Use of Summative and Formative Assessment	09	often
	13. Demonstration of Ability to Learn from Mistakes	05	sometimes
	14. Use of Authentic Assessment	06	sometimes
	15. Alignment of the Course Objective	09	often
	16. Define SMART Objectives	10	always

5.9 Teaching Practices of the Interviewed Teachers

Table 5.9 will enable the researcher to triangulate the results obtained from the teachers with those gathered from the questionnaires to the students (see table 5.4 and table 5.5). In this way, relatively final findings in relation to the teaching practices of the teachers in B2U, English Department (year 2015-2016) will be possible. In addition to investigating the teaching practices of the teachers, tutoring constitutes another research concern in the case under study.

5.2.2 Interview to Tutors

In order to learn whether tutors in the English Department under study practiced their assumed roles in the LMD curriculum, two tutors were interviewed individually. The interview included 16 questions (see Appendix 4) and the analysis of the results obtained from the answers to these questions is reported hereafter.

Tutors were first asked 4 background information questions:

1. What is your highest academic qualification:
2. How many years have you been tutoring first year students?
3. Have you received any kind of training from the ministry to become a tutor in the English Department, Blida University -2-?
4. If not, have you been guided by the administration of the English Department on the general expectations from your role as a tutor? If yes, how?

Results demonstrated that the two interviewed tutors held a magister degree and were novice in tutoring since they started it only during the academic year when the present study's data was collected (i.e. 2015-2016). They were neither trained by the ministry nor guided by the administration on how to practise tutoring with first year Licence students.

The next question asked to the tutors is: what is your role with first year students? And answers demonstrated that tutors played the role of 'an advisor' in the sense that they helped students on pedagogical issues such as learning how to count their average using marks and coefficients in different teaching units. Next in the interview, tutors were asked to briefly answer whether they practiced a number of

tutoring practices as recommended in the LMD curriculum. The corresponding results are reported in table 5.10.

Tutoring Practice	Tutor 1	Tutor 2
1. Guide students to make advantage of their learning opportunities	×	×
2. Help students to recognise why they need to learn different disciplines or subjects	×	×
3. Guide students to learn-how-to learn	×	×
4. Guide students to take increasing responsibility for their learning	×	×
5. Guide students to acquire self-directed and lifelong learning	×	×
6. Direct students to assess their own learning	×	×
7. Advise and accompany students in understanding pedagogical and academic issues	√	√
8. Support and nurture the emotional well-being of the students	×	×

×= not practiced, √= practiced

Table 5.10 Tutoring Practices

As shown in table 5.9, the tutors reported that they did not practise any of the roles reported above except the one of a pedagogical advisor.

Through this question ‘How do you manage your meetings with first year licence students?’, the researcher sought to know about the tutoring procedure in the English department under study. Tutors’ answers to the question revealed that each of them was supposed to supervise half of the learning groups (i/e 5/10) in the first year Licence degree. The tutors met their students once during a general meeting with all first year students of the department; a meeting which was held at the beginning of the year to explain via some power-point presentations some pedagogical issues and regulations related to the LMD system. Except this meeting, tutors mentioned that they occasionally visited most but not all first year groups during their teaching sessions when they wanted to communicate a piece of information to them.

Concerning the question: do you encounter any problems when trying to achieve your mission?, tutors complained about the huge number of students, which according

to them, prevented them from properly advising their students. Through the researcher's interview, tutors reported that it is the first time they had known about the different roles they are supposed to practise under the LMD curriculum and this resulted in their complaints about the absence of training in tutoring. As an answer to the question: what do you suggest as solutions to those problems? , tutors suggested reducing the number of the enrolled students each year and training them through ministerial in-service tutor trainings. No further remarks were added by the tutors and the interview was closed.

1.2.1 Interview to First Year Students

In order to triangulate the results obtained from the above interview to tutors, two focus first year groups were also interviewed. Both interviews to tutors and first year students were meant to inform the researcher whether tutors in the English Department under study practiced their assumed roles as recommended in the LMD curriculum. The focus group interview includes 15 questions (see Appendix 5).

Students' answer to the first question of the interview 'How many tutoring sessions do/did you attend per week?' revealed that the interviewed students were not even aware of the existence of a facilitator tutor in their study system; they reported that they had never met him/her before. Due to the fact that students ignored about the presence of the two tutors in the English department, the researcher did not carry out the rest of the interview and stopped asking the 14 remaining questions.

Conclusion

The present chapter was concerned with the presentation and analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaires and interviews of the present study. In the first section of this chapter, results as obtained from the questionnaires to teachers and master students were presented. Teachers were informative about their beliefs' orientation and the factors contributing in their formation. Master students provided some insightful data about the teacher-centred and learner-centred practices of their teachers in addition to the use of ICTs in teaching and learning in the English department of B2U.

The second section of chapter 5 presented some quantitative and qualitative data gathered from the three interviews to teachers, tutors and first year Licence students. In the first interview, teachers described their teaching practices, their use of ICTs to teach and their students' use of ICTs to learn. The other two interviews to tutors and first year students revealed the inadequately played if not mostly absent role of the tutor. After presenting and discussing the results of the present study, the next chapter interprets results in order to answer the sub-research questions and main question of the present research. It also suggests some recommendations and discusses some limitations of the study.

Chapter Six:

Interpretation of the Results, Recommendations and Limitations

Introduction

In the present study, Fullan's (2007) comprehensive definition of educational change was used as a framework of analysis. This helped to achieve the aim of analysing the depth of educational change in the LMD reform by exploring teachers' beliefs and practices as well as tutors' roles in the English Department of B2U. The three aspects of educational change as suggested by Fullan (2016) are:

1. Teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning,
2. Teaching approach, and
3. Teaching materials.

When analyzing the LMD reform using Fullan's framework (see section 1.3), it was concluded that the LMD reform should allow the following changes:

1. Shift in the teachers' beliefs orientation,
2. Adoption of learner-centred teaching and tutoring principles, and
3. Use of ICTs in teaching and learning as part of new teaching materials.

In the current chapter, each of these aspects of change will be examined with reference to the context of the present case study. This chapter will triangulate results obtained from students, teachers and tutors and attempt to interpret them in relation to the three dimensions: teachers' beliefs orientation, teaching and tutoring practices and use of new teaching materials. Analysing each of these dimensions with reference to the context under study will enable me to answer all the study's questions. This chapter will crown it all with some practical suggestions for the teachers and tutors to improve EFL teaching and tutoring in the English department of B2U. It closes with a discussion of the study's limitations.

6.1 Kind of Change in Teachers' Beliefs' Orientation

Results in relation to teachers' beliefs demonstrated that there was no change in their orientation after eight years of implementing the LMD curriculum in the English Department at B2U. In fact, teachers' beliefs were still teacher-centred. These teacher-centred dominant beliefs among teachers can be described as their core professional beliefs. The most striking point is the absence of training before and after launching the LMD reform. Despite this absence, some peripheral learner-centred beliefs emerged alongside teacher-centred beliefs such as the teachers' views about their roles in facilitating learning and creating a positive learning environment. These beliefs had probably origins in the type of education teachers received at university.

Some negative beliefs and emotions were also unveiled with the interviewed teachers. In this respect, results demonstrated that class size was among the most serious issues which caused instructors to feel frustrated, anxious and not satisfied with the LMD reform. Other issues which teachers worried about were planning and managing classes, motivating students and dealing with problems of discipline and learners' passivity in class. With all these issues in mind, teachers were left on their own to struggle through their profession.

There is no doubt that these teachers needed to be exposed to relevant and useful information such as strategies to use for teaching large-size classes within the LMD system in order to reduce their negative emotions and beliefs (Pajares, 1992; Shavelson et al., 1981). However, since no top-down decision for trainings or professional development programmes was suggested to accompany or at least support teachers throughout their teaching journey, their beliefs were negative and their spirits were low.

All these findings permit answering the first sub-research question: no change seems to have happened in the beliefs orientation of the teachers under study after eight years of implementing the LMD curriculum. The next section attempts to answer

the second sub-research question which aims at uncovering the kind of change in the use of the teaching and tutoring principles implied by the LMD system.

6.2 Kind of Change in Teaching and Tutoring Principles

In chapter 1, it was demonstrated that the LMD system pedagogy is learner-centred and it is based on the individual work of the student who is responsible for constructing his/her knowledge (Azzi, 2012; Bensemmane 2012, 2017; Idri, 2012). A detailed analysis of the LMD principles using Weimer's (2002) framework (see chapter 3) revealed some interesting insights. It was found that implementing the LMD curriculum implies the persistence of some teacher-centred teaching practices and adoption of more learner-centred practices. In addition to the teacher, the tutor plays a major role in helping to materialise the learner-centred essence of the LMD reform and in causing a real deep educational change.

One of the concerns of the present study was to find if the practices of teachers and tutors in the English department under study followed the learner-centred LMD teaching and tutoring principles. To achieve this concern, the perspectives of students, teachers and tutors will be considered in order to define:

1. Teacher-centred teaching practices
2. learner-centred teaching practices and
3. learner-centred tutoring practices.

6.2.1 Teacher-centred Teaching Practices

In the English department of B2U, teachers proved to:

a. determine the course content

Data obtained from the students and the teachers revealed some convergence in their perceptions. In fact, both of them agreed that the first responsible in determining the content of the course is the teacher. Teachers argued that it was hard for them to negotiate the teaching content in class with their students for a number of reasons such

as students' lack of knowledge about the subject matter, their large number and the nature of the course or teaching content.

b. mandate all policies and deadlines

In relation to the practice about setting up policies and deadlines, it is clear that teachers were the responsible actors for that. They set up rules such as coming on time, respecting and listening to each other and submitting assignments on time. Novice teachers appeared to be less committed in defining these rules to their students and this may be among the reasons that caused them to feel threatened by their students' dominance. Again, students' acceptance of the dominance of instructors in setting up rules in class may justify their passive nature, as already reported by teachers.

c. use extrinsic motivators

The responses of the teachers and students in relation to this practice matched in the sense that teachers did not use intrinsic motivators and used extrinsic ones occasionally. What seems to be certain from this whole situation is that students were victims of the system itself since the LMD curriculum as a system encourages teachers to extrinsically motivate their learners (see section 3.2) and according to Weimer (2002), teachers' extrinsic motivation of learners may be one of the factors that reinforces their grade-grabbing mentality and which may even lead them to cheat in exams. Then, it is not surprising that students became interested in obtaining good marks.

d. assess(alone) students' skills and knowledge but not their learning difficulties.

The LMD curriculum encourages teachers to be the only assessors of students in class and results, by students and teachers, demonstrated that they were indeed the only responsible in class to put marks for their students. Also, they were not able to diagnose their students' learning difficulties due to their increased number. Interestingly, very few students expressed their wish to contribute to their own assessment even though they did not receive any kind of training on how to assess themselves.

c. determine accuracy of answers in exams

Although teachers defined accuracy of answers in tests and exams, most of them accepted when students suggested a response different from theirs and justified it well. In fact, students acknowledged that only few of them were interested in the correction of tests and exams; all they cared about is to know about their marks.

d. set timeframe for feedback

Results demonstrated that the teachers or the administration set a deadline for providing feedback in official exams. However, most of the students were more interested in learning about their marks than about the mistakes they did in their exams; only few of them admitted the utility of feedback provision in exams.

e. teach in a traditional way without accommodating their teaching materials to students' learning styles

Both teachers and students agreed that learning styles were not taken into consideration when designing lessons or activities and many factors contributed to this. It had been revealed that some teachers, especially those who were not specialised in Didactics, forgot or just ignored the notion learning style. Even those who understood it well, they had just attempted to respond to some learning preferences such as auditory and visual learners. Other teachers gave up considering learning styles due to the increased number of students in addition to the lack of technological teaching materials.

6.2.2 Learner-centred Teaching Practices

In respect to the learner-centred teaching practices, results demonstrated that few principles were easily practiced by the instructors while others were moderately performed since it all depended on the nature of the course, number of students and other factors. This is demonstrated in detail in the following pages.

a. align the course objective with the teaching and assessment methodology.

Given the fact that students were not able to inform us about this practice since it concerns the teachers' own course planning decisions, only teachers' perspectives were taken into consideration. In order to learn about the alignment of the course components, the 10 interviewed teachers were not directly asked whether they aligned the components of their courses. Instead, I examined myself whether alignment

occurred after asking them about their course objectives, teaching methodology and assessment methodology. Obtained results are displayed in table 6.1 on the next page.

Teachers (course/ level)	Course(s) Objectives	Teaching Methodology	Assessment Methodology	Course Components' Alignment
Teacher 1 (Psycho-pedagogy/ Third year)	-Knowledge about teaching/ Learning	-Lecturing -Debates	Assessing students' knowledge by putting a mark for their participation and contribution in class.	+
Teacher 2 (Psychology of the Adolescents/ M1)	-Knowledge -Research skills	-Lecturing -Students' presentations	Assessing students' knowledge and research skills by putting a mark for their performances in the presentations.	+
Teacher 3 (Morpho-syntax/ First year)	-Knowledge about vocabulary construction - Examining the function and meaning of words	-Lecturing -Class assignments -Students' oral recap of the content of the lesson	Assessing students' performances during presentations and assignments by giving them a mark.	+
Teacher 4 (Phonetics /First year)	-Speaking accurately	-Lecturing -Class assignments (reading loudly texts- transcribing words/sentences)	Assessing students' pronunciation skills by putting a mark for their performances in class assignments.	+
Teacher 5 Reading and Writing/ First year)	-Reading and writing skills	-Reading and writing assignments -Debates	Assessing students' reading, writing and critical thinking skills by putting a mark for students' participation in class.	+
Teacher 6 (African Literature/ Third year)	Reading literary texts	-Lecturing -Debates	Assessing students' reading skills by putting a mark for their participation and contribution in class.	+
Teacher 7 (Listening and Speaking/ First year)	-Listening and speaking	-Class assignments -Oral performances	Assessing students' listening and speaking skills by putting a mark for their participation in class.	+
Teacher 8 (American Literature/ Third year)	-Analyzing literary works/texts.	-Literary reading and analysis class assignments	Assessing students' ability to analyze literary works without putting marks for their contribution.	-
Teacher 9 (Reading and Writing/ Third year)	-Reading and writing	-Class assignments -Home-works	Assessing students' reading and writing skills by putting marks for their contribution in doing class assignments.	+
Teacher 10 (Communication skills/ Third year)	-Knowledge -Verbal and non- verbal communication skills -Applying communication skills to everyday life situations	-Lecturing -Classroom tasks (reading texts- performing in front of an audience)	Assessing students' communication skills by putting a mark for their participation and performance in class.	+

+ = Components of the course are aligned.

- = Components of the course are not aligned.

Table 6.1 Alignment of the Course Components

As demonstrated in table 6.1, the extreme majority of the interviewed teachers (n= 9/10) aligned their course components. For instance, in her Communication Skills course, teacher n°10 had three main objectives: (1) building knowledge, (2) acquiring skills and (3) applying those skills to real-life situations such as teaching and working in a company. To align these objectives with the teaching and assessment methodology, this teacher adopted lecturing and text readings to foster knowledge and students' performances to apply what they learnt in class and they were assigned marks for their performance and participation in class.

b. define the course SMART (Specific- Measurable- Attainable- Relevant and Time-oriented) objectives.

Since students were not able to provide information about this practice, only teachers' perspectives were taken into consideration. Teachers confirmed that they defined well the specific objectives of their courses and this was confirmed after I was able to complete table 6.2 about their SMART objectives.

Teacher's n° (course)	Specific objectives	Measurable objectives	Attainable objectives	Relevant objectives	Time-oriented objective
Teacher 1 (Psycho-pedagogy)	-Understanding the psychology of the learner	-Acquiring knowledge about the nature of learning	Third year license students	Learn to teach	Two semesters
Teacher 2 (Psychology of the Adolescents)	-Understanding the psychology of the adolescents	-Acquiring knowledge about the nature of learning - Promoting research skills	First year Master students	Learn to teach	Two semesters
Teacher 3 (Morpho-syntax)	-Understanding the morphology and syntax of the English language	-Acquiring vocabulary -Interpreting the function and meaning of words and sentences	Second year license students	Language acquisition	Two semesters
Teacher 4 (Phonetics)	-Understanding the English language pronunciation.	-Transcribing words and sentences	First year license students	Speaking skill	Two semesters
Teacher 5 (Reading and Writing)	-Reading and writing texts	-Skim and scan texts. -Write coherent paragraphs	First year license students	Reading and writing skills.	Two semesters
Teacher 6 (African Literature)	-Reading African literary novels	-Analysing literary texts	Third year licence students	Language acquisition	Two semesters
Teacher 7 (Listening and Speaking)	-Listening to English scripts Speaking in the English language	-Listening to conversations and university lectures -Transacting and interacting in English	First year licence students	Listening and speaking	Two semesters
Teacher 8 (American Literature)	-Reading American literary prose	-Analysing literary texts	Third year licence students	Language acquisition Life experience	Two semesters
Teacher 9 (Reading and Writing)	-Reading and writing texts	-Skim and scan texts. Write coherent essays	Third year licence students	Reading and writing skills.	Two semesters
Teacher 10 (Communication skills)	-Communicating with others verbally and non-verbally	-Communicate with learners -Communicate with co-workers/boss	Third year licence students	Communication Skills	Two semesters

Table 6.2 Defining SMART (Specific- Measurable- Attainable- Relevant and Time oriented) Objectives

To illustrate the SMART objectives in the courses of the 10 teachers, Reading and Writing (teacher 5 and 9) is taken as an example. In this course, first year LMD students (Attainable objectives) read and write texts (Specific objectives). More specifically, they skim texts, scan them and write coherent paragraphs (Measurable objectives) in order to develop their reading and writing skills (Relevant objectives). These objectives are attained in two-semester duration (Time-oriented objectives).

c. enable students to interact with the teacher, themselves and content

Students' and teachers' views concerning this practice match since they believed that all types of interactions were encouraged in class. Teacher-student interaction happened during lectures and debates. Students' interaction with the material and each other occurred during class-assignments and home-works. So, it was confirmed by both students and teachers that all types of interaction happened in class (i.e. between teacher and students, between students' themselves and between students and content).

d. encourage students to express their opinions

Students and teachers seemed to agree also on the extent to which learners were allowed to express their perspectives in class. It all depended on time and the appropriateness of the topic to be discussed. In relation to this teaching practice (i.e. encouraging students to express themselves), results demonstrated that there might exist a lack of understanding and communication between novice teachers and their students. Each of them thought the opposite of the other; students believed the newly recruited teachers to think of themselves as the only experts in class whereas these teachers perceived a threat from their own students who, according to them, wished to dominate the class.

e. adopt continuous assessment

Results revealed a contradiction between students' and teachers' respective opinions. The former believed that they were occasionally continuously assessed whereas the latter confirmed that they all did that. This may be caused by the quite small size of the participant teachers in the interview (n=10) which possibly did not represent the whole targeted population. At least, there is agreement among them upon the method of CA or what Blumberg (2007) calls Contract Grading. Teachers tried to adopt continuous assessment by marking students on their attendance, behaviour in class, participation and performance in tests and presentations.

f. use open-ended assignments

When analyzing results obtained in relation to the aspect about the use of open-ended assignments, some divergence in students' and teachers' perceptions was depicted. Students viewed that teachers did not often use open-ended tasks in class due to the nature of the module and their eagerness to finish the programme. On the

other hand, teachers demonstrated a complete awareness of the value of enabling students to work individually and become autonomous despite their reluctant nature and unwillingness to take personal initiatives and assume responsibility for their own learning. The discussed situation illustrates the mismatch between students' and teachers' views so that each side was putting the blame on the other and all this may be due to the lack of communication and understanding between the two parts.

g. use content in a varied way

Data collected from the students and teachers concerning this practice revealed a certain divergence. Most students believed that it was only occasionally when teachers taught them knowledge and explained why they needed to learn it. However, all instructors reported that they used their content in varied ways in the sense that their course consisted of both theoretical (knowledge-based) and practical part and they provided different illustrations for that.

Divergence in opinions appeared among students themselves. Master students of Didactics seemed to have a better understanding of their teachers' teaching objectives because it was easier to link between the teaching objectives and students' career interests in becoming future teachers. This was not the case with Master students of Literature and Civilisation whose teachers could not clarify well the purpose behind studying their teaching programme. Consequently, they viewed the roles of their teachers restricted only to presenting or delivering knowledge.

h. assist students to reflect on most of the content

Students' and teachers' perceptions also differed in consideration of the practice of the present learner-centred teaching practice. Students perceived most of their teachers as playing the dominant role of the experts in class. They did most of the reflection by themselves, they imposed their points of view, they cared about finishing their lessons and it was only occasionally when they assisted them to reflect on content to make their own sense of it. However, interviewed teachers reported that they helped their students to engage in content and they provided various illustrations for that.

i. assist students to use the acquired knowledge to learn a new one

A non-similarity between teachers' and learners' perspectives concerning the use of content to facilitate future learning was noticed. Students believed that teachers occasionally taught them to apply the acquired content to learn a new one whereas all interviewed teachers confirmed that they did that and they suggested different examples to illustrate that. However, they faced some difficulties in making students understand the value of what they study in class and assisting them to learn because of their problem of abstraction and imagination especially in modules which require those higher critical thinking skills. In addition, most of the students cared about obtaining good grades and degrees and not about their future learning.

j. match activities with students' goals

Contradicting views between students and teachers were perceived again; students felt that teachers did not care about them and teachers experienced similar feelings because even though they explained well their teaching objectives during the first session, students were not interested in learning and they were only eager to earn good grades. Once more, the picture in which both students and teachers put the blame on each other appears again.

k. teach students research methodology skills.

Seemingly, apart from the Research Methodology teachers, very few teachers assumed responsibility for promoting their students' information literacy skills. This was related to the nature of the courses they taught in the sense that some contents were easier to relate to the field of research than others. On the other hand, this depended on the proficiency level of the students in the sense that Master teachers felt more concerned about promoting their research skills since they were supposed to achieve their own piece of research in their Master 2 level.

l. assess students within the learning process

Obtained results from teachers and students demonstrated that teachers attempted to evaluate the performance and understanding of their students while teaching or during the teaching session. However, factors such as students' large number and time limitations prevented them from applying the above learner-centred practice.

m. encourage students to demonstrate ability to learn from mistakes

Results showed that both students and teachers were aware of the importance of making errors in learning. However, the teachers' attempts to encourage students to demonstrate mastery after committing mistakes were hindered by factors related to the increased number of students and the short teaching duration.

n. use of authentic assessment

Through the examination of the students' and teachers' comments, it was revealed that teachers were trying to include real-life assessment tasks depending on the number of students, teaching duration and the nature of the subject.

6.2.3 Learner-centred Tutoring Practices

Results showed that tutors attempted to advise their first year students about pedagogical or academic issues. They were not able to help all students due to their huge number. However, due to the lack of training, tutors did not play any of their other recommended roles in the LMD curriculum. Thus, in the English department of B2U, tutors did not:

1. guide students to make advantage of the learning opportunities
2. make students evaluate why they need to learn different disciplines during the course
3. guide students to take increasing responsibility for learning
4. guide them to learn how to learn and to acquire self-directed lifelong learning skills
5. support and nurture the emotional well-being of the students.

In relation to the above teachers' and tutors' practices, the following findings can be highlighted:

1. All the teacher-centred practices which characterise the LMD curriculum were practiced by the teachers of B2U, English Department. Teachers found it probably easy to practise those practices because they do not contradict with their teacher-centred dominant beliefs' orientation.

2. Very few learner-centred practices which characterize the LMD curriculum were practiced by the teachers of the English department under study. This was probably due to the fact that teachers did not receive any pre-service or in-service teacher training on how to implement LMD learner-centred teaching principles to large size classes.

3. The tutors were nearly absent from the educational scene due to the fact that they were not trained or informed about how to tutor their over-crowded first year groups.

All these findings permit answering the second sub-research question: no significant change seems to have happened in the teaching and tutoring practices in the English Department of B2U. After answering this question, the next section deals with the kind of change in using instructional materials; this will enable me to answer the third and last sub-research question.

6.3 Kind of Change in the Use of Instructional Materials

This section attempts to answer the last sub-question which asks about the kind of change in the use of instructional materials in the English department under study. The LMD curriculum gives consideration to the use of technologies in teaching and learning alongside traditional materials. No contradiction was noticed between students' and teachers' written and verbal comments concerning the use of ICTs in teaching. They both reported few uses of technologies in class such as the use of the data-show and audio recordings. In addition, they noted the same kind of problems related to the availability and accessibility to materials. Outside the classroom, teachers (not all) seemed to make an effort to use social media networks such as facebook and emailing to communicate information and facilitate their own teaching as well as the learning process of their students.

In the LMD curriculum, students are encouraged to use technologies in learning, too. In the present study, students used ICTs not only to learn but also for entertainment and social interactional reasons. Concerning learning English inside the classroom, they used PCs, tablettes and mobiles to take notes, edit assignments,

consult Pdf resources, prepare power-point presentations, check e-dictionaries...etc. Outside the classroom, Internet, such as Google scholar, You-tube and Facebook, was used as a source of knowledge, communication among students themselves and between students and their teachers.

Facebook and e-mail services were the categories of social software mostly used by instructors and students for communication and collaboration. Other categories of social software such as Google Scholar and video sharing (e.g. YouTube) were used to achieve some research. Seemingly, taking advantage of the Net to teach and learn is the only positive change in the use of new teaching and learning materials in the case under study. However, it seems inevitable to mention that it is not the LMD reform which caused this change to happen but probably the inevitable consequence of the spread of technology use all over the world.

In the current study, results can neither confirm that teachers did not use ICTs to teach as concluded by Idri (2012) nor prove the effective use of ICTs in class as demonstrated by Sarnou (2012). Even though teachers and students held positive attitudes towards the adoption of technologies in EFL teaching and learning, some factors prevented them from effectively and frequently using them in class. Those obstacles are related to the availability of hardware and knowing how to use them.

Do the present findings foreshadow a shift towards the adoption of new materials or more technologies in EFL teaching and learning? The answer to this question can be formulated as follows: in the year 2015-2016, the teaching situation in the English Department under study was characterised by a traditional chalk/pen and board way of instruction interfered with few uses of technology (e.g. data show and audio-script). In other words, no-change situation occurred. However, it is outside the classroom that change occurred as a result of the unavoidable influence of the new technologies on teaching and learning.

In fact, a total absence of the teachers' personal and collective agency was depicted. Teachers were aware of the many advantages of using ICTs for teaching and

learning but they did not exhibit enough personal concern. They did not try to find solutions to increase the use of ICTs for teaching; all they were doing is putting the blame on ‘others’ who did not support them with the necessary materials. They chose to teach in ‘a safest’ traditional way or in the way they were taught before. Thus, no motivation to change was felt on the part of the teachers.

Teachers who taught in the English department under study found themselves in a kind of rivalry situation; they needed to be the first to seize the teaching materials (e.g. data-show) available in the department in order to teach and this was so discouraging to them. Even those teachers who had their own personal materials did not feel any responsibility in bringing them or sharing them to teach. A complete absence of collaboration among teachers characterised the scene and a reluctance to play a major role in the acceptance of technology and in promoting its role in teaching and learning .

The literature (Copriady, 2015; Mumtaz, 2000) reports a strong correlation between teachers’ motivation and beliefs about teaching and learning and the integration of ICTs in teaching. For this reason, few teachers were ready to change to include the beliefs that teaching and learning cannot be effective without an appropriate use of ICTs. According to Mumtaz (2000) and Pertmen & Ottenbreit-Leftwich (2010), teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning should be reviewed to increase teachers’ agency in relation to the use of ICTs. After examining change in relation to teachers’ beliefs, the use of new teaching materials and teachers’ teaching practices, it is possible now to describe the depth the educational change caused by the LMD reform in the English Department of B2U.

6.4 Deep or Surface Educational Change?

The present research aimed at exploring the depth of educational change in the English Department of B2U. The main question of the study is:

Did the LMD reform implemented in the English department of B2U result in an educational change?

The present mixed methods research is confirmatory since it aimed at testing the hypothesis that was put forward right at the beginning and formulated as follows: “there is no depth of educational change in the teachers’ beliefs and practices in the English Department of B2U.”

After finding answers to the three sub-questions deriving from the main research question, it is possible now to confirm or disconfirm the hypothesis and by extension answer the main question. The three sub-questions in the present study are:

1. Did the reform cause change in teachers’ own beliefs about teaching and learning?
2. Did the reform cause change in the teaching approaches and practices?
3. Did the reform cause change in the use of instructional materials?

The obtained results revealed a non significant change in all three dimensions of change: (1) teachers’ beliefs’ orientation seems to be predominantly teacher-centred, (2) teachers’ teaching practices seem to be both teacher-centred and slightly learner-centred, (3) tutors do not seem to be involved in the student development and appear to be absent from the educational scene and (4) no change happened in the use of teaching and learning materials except a few attempts to use internet technologies in teaching and learning English outside the classroom. A non significant change situation in the three dimensions confirmed the present study’s hypothesis.

A further analysis of the results demonstrates that teachers are confined to follow less learner-centred modes of instruction because they are regulated by some extrinsic factors such as time limits, group-size and the LMD system itself (e.g. the use of extrinsic motivators). However, intrinsic factors also contributed in teachers’ resistance to change. It has been noticed that most teachers are putting the blame on ‘others people’ such as the students, the administration, the ministry and the system and very few of them acknowledged their responsibility in helping students to learn. These results reflect the absence of the agency of the teachers with a high presence of accentuated negative emotions and beliefs about teaching and learning. What worsens

the situation is the complete absence of the tutors who are supposed to play a major role in helping first year students to become autonomous learners, a principle which is at the heart of the LMD reform.

The findings obtained through the present research study have important implications for teaching and tutoring at least in the context where the study has been conducted. If practitioners (teachers and tutors) aim at achieving a deep educational change, they need to challenge their beliefs in order to form new professional identities and develop agency. For this purpose, a bottom-up professional development programme is needed to enable teachers as well as tutors to take responsibility and initiative to change the teaching and tutoring situation and not expect top-down change to be imposed on them from policy-makers.

6.5 Need for a Bottom-up Approach to Educational Change

Roth (1999) stresses the important role that the university plays, during teacher education programmes, to raise teachers' sense of self-efficacy and reflection. However, in the current study, teachers did not report any kind of in-service professional development or training set up by policymakers before or after launching the LMD reform in 2007. Therefore, one can suggest an approach to professional development which does not expect change to be brought from the top but which originates from the teachers' own will to ameliorate the teaching and learning situation. Today, many scholars such as Hargreaves, 2005; Branson, 2010; Fullan, 2016 have reported the inappropriateness of top-down models of reforms worldwide. In response, educationists such as Fullan (2016) and policy-makers or governments in the western world have opted for a bottom-up approach to reform education and avoid surface educational change.

Without holding any belief in the insignificance of other actors such as administration, students and community in the educational change process, light will be spot on the major role of the practitioners (teachers and tutors) in the achievement of a deep educational change. Our understanding of a deep educational change is presented in a form of a cyclic collaborative action research. In other words, the

achievement of a deep educational change, as demonstrated in Chapter 2 (section 2.6) is based on the following actions: (1) reflecting on beliefs and practices, (2) reshaping beliefs and developing personal agency, (4) developing collective agency and (4) developing continuing professionalism.

One efficient way to make the above model or bottom-up approach prove effective in creating a deep educational change is to apply Professional Learning Communities. The latter depend greatly upon the spirit of trust, personal accountability and collegiality among practitioners. The workplace should become a learning place in which each practitioner reflects on his beliefs and identities taking into account the expectations of the reform and the teaching/tutoring realities. These self-reflections would permit an increase in the degree of agency of each individual and of the whole group.

It is only by taking into account the attitudes of the practitioners that a realistic bottom-up interpretation of the reform is possible; teachers as well as tutors are better placed to judge what works best for them in teaching/tutoring and what benefits the learning of their students. Applying Professional Learning Communities in the English Department of B2U may contribute in bridging the gap between theory and practice or between the LMD reform's teaching and tutoring principles and their application in reality.

6.5.1 Reshaping Beliefs and Developing Personal Agency through Reflection

In teaching, the term 'reflection' has its origins in Dewey's work in the 1930's and it is of two types. In 1983, Schön distinguished between 'reflection-in-action' and 'reflection-on-action'. The first one is unconscious and happens on the spot to solve teaching and learning problems whereas the second one is more conscious and retrospective since the teacher seeks to gain knowledge by considering his own prior teaching experiences.

Ford, McMahon M. & McPhre (2006), as cited in Appleby, & al., (2014), use the term 'reflection on practice' or 'reflective practice' to describe Schön's reflection on

action. They point out that professionals “must think consciously about their practice to move them towards deeper levels of awareness not just about what they do but about why they do it.”(p.66). They add that reflection helps teachers to be more open-minded and adopt more flexible approaches to their work so that they are better able to cope with change. For them, reflective practice promotes analysis of underlying beliefs and assumptions that practitioners might hold without having a full appreciation of why they hold them and what alternative beliefs might have equal credence.

In the suggested bottom-up approach to change, reflection is a conscious reflection-on-action or reflection in practice and it is simply referred to as ‘reflection’. The aim through this approach is to help EFL practitioners of the English Department, at B2U, to acquire the qualities of a reflective practitioner as defined in the literature (Zeichner & Liston, 2014). It is also to make them able to consciously examine, frame and find solutions to problems in the classroom. Thus, they become aware of and question the assumptions and values they hold about teaching and tutoring, become attentive to the institutional and cultural contexts in which they work and take part in the development of the EFL curriculum. They will get involved in the government’s efforts to bring change by adopting a more learner-centred approach to teaching and tutoring and will take responsibility for their own professional development.

There exist several tools of reflection in teaching: Appleby & al. (2014) suggest the use of logs, critical incidents, peer-review, action research and mentoring and Korthagen, Kessels, Koster, Lagerwerf & Wubbels (2001) invite practitioners to adopt certain techniques such as elaborating metaphors, drawings, paintings and photographs. Zeichner & Liston (2014) believe that the fields of literature and humanities are essential to reflection on teaching in higher education. Thus, teachers can read a variety of narratives such as teacher memoirs, rich journalistic accounts of teaching and fictional depictions of teaching and they can also watch documentary films.

In their attempts to help teachers examine their assumptions, Marx, Blumenfeld, Kraksik & Soloway (2000) used teaching journals, teacher autobiographies, action

research and teachers' written case reports of their teaching. Ford & al., (2006) argued that narrative storytelling allows the practitioners to interrogate their visions of events and so do reflective journals, critical incident techniques, reflective group discussions and problem-based learning.

The current bottom-up approach to reflection relies on a knowledgeable other as a way to help practitioners to examine their beliefs and practices about teaching and tutoring; through groups, they can discuss their beliefs and actions and the congruence between them. In this approach, teachers' reflection may go through the following stages (Boud, & al., 1985, as cited in Appleby, & al., 2014): (1) teachers associate new data represented in the LMD curriculum principles to their own existing knowledge, (2) they see relationships and integration and check the validity of the LMD teaching and tutoring principles and (3) they appropriate or make the knowledge about the LMD curriculum their own.

As argued in the literature (Marx, & al., 2000- Roth, 1999), rather than having information delivered to them, practitioners can thus examine their own beliefs about the learner-centred approach, their student learning and their teaching and tutoring in the light of the LMD reform innovations. In other words, they can assess the origins, purposes and consequences of teaching and tutoring, they can view knowledge as problematic not certain, they can consider the role of teaching and tutoring as a moral craft not a technician. Teachers can also see the curriculum as reflexive, not received and the context as a topic of inquiry rather than determined in a hierarchical manner.

Through this bottom-up approach to change, EFL practitioners are encouraged to develop their sense of agency through reflection. As suggested by Ford & al., (2006), the development of agency through reflection implies a stronger sense of self-efficacy and a more robust ability to cope with change and difficult working conditions. It also implies ability for practitioners to examine challenging situations and discuss them with others to form new understandings of where the challenge in applying the LMD principles lies and how they could approach similar situations in a more effective way.

The reflection and discussion of challenges with others has the potential of significantly contributing in shaping the identity of practitioners. Identity, as suggested by Russel & Gearon (2007), cannot be understood in isolation as claimed by the Vygotskian sociocultural theory. In other words, the identity of the EFL practitioners under study can be seen as an identity in activity or “a fluid and developmental process that involves the formation of one’s individual ‘self’ in relation to a broader set of social practices and shared cultural experiences’ (Russel, & al., 2007, p.54). As pointed by Russel, & al. (2007), when understanding their roles, practitioners may ascribe certain identities and reject others.

What is argued throughout the relevant literature (Zeichner & al., 2014, p.2) is that teachers should abandon the ‘technical teacher’ role and embrace the ‘reflective teacher’ role. It is only in that way that they will be able to define their agency. They should not focus on what happens in their classrooms only, but play an active role in determining their general teaching and learning goals in their institution. They should not submit themselves to what others prescribe to them to do. In fact, shaping the identity of each practitioner and developing his/her sense of agency may have implications for all members of their practice. The following section explains the process which should lead to collective agency and continuing development of the whole group of practitioners.

6.5.2 Developing Collective Agency and Continuing Professional Development

As claimed by Appleby & al. (2014), reflection should not stop at the individual level, but should follow ‘a dialogic approach’ in the sense that practitioners should participate within communities of practice to generate shared meanings and a sense of collective agency. Zeichner & al., (2014) call this type of reflection a ‘contextual reflection’ (p.20). Ford & al., (2006) add that there is no definitive definition of reflective practice but what is important is that reflection should focus on the individual, social and institutional context where the change happens and its implications on teachers’ teaching practices. Many scholars, as suggested by Marx &

al. (2000), argue for an increased interaction and collaboration among practitioners as ways of adding social elements to professional development.

Following Marx & al. (2000)'s arguments, we believe that interaction and collaboration among the EFL practitioners at B2U will help them to gain access to new information via for example a mediator or mentor researcher, to clarify their ideas and beliefs, examine different ways of thinking about teaching, reflect on their own practice of the LMD reform and obtain emotional support as well. Collaboration in this way is not a top-down model that constitutes good practices. Rather it is a process of group design and problem solving constructed by the participants. Practitioners cannot merely apply a set of predefined prescriptions but need to plan and learn to tailor innovation to fit their unique circumstances, anticipating possible problems and devising strategies to deal with them.

In addition to collaboration which can help practitioners construct knowledge and create solutions to the challenges situated within their context, Deppeler (2007) focuses on 'inquiry' as central to professional learning and essential for the transformation of practices. According to him, inquiry should be systematic, self-reflective, informed and achieved through open communication so that members can collectively examine assumptions and engage productively in knowledge sharing and construction.

Bray & al. (2000 as quoted in Deppeler, 2007) define collaborative inquiry as "a process of repeated episodes of reflection and action through which a group of peers strives to answer a question of importance to them."(p.6). In the case of the present bottom-up approach to change, questions of importance to the participants from the English Department at B2U can turn basically around the possibility of applying LMD teaching, learning and tutoring principles. Now instead of expecting or waiting for a funded programme of collaborative inquiry from top or ministerial policies, it is suggested for more knowledgeable teachers and researchers to act like mentors and facilitate the open conversation and collaboration among practitioners.

Marx & al. (2000)'s approach to professional learning is based on constructivist philosophies of learning. Practitioners need reassurance to support continued risk taking as they try to change practice to accommodate innovation. Therefore, comments by teachers/tutors about their intents, constraints, rationales and understandings are important to consider. In order to encourage them to alter their practices, Marx et al. suggest to watch videos and to read case reports of how other colleagues struggled and solved dilemmas.

Deppeler (2007) believes that transformation in practices can take place within a collaborative learning community, in which teachers alongside leaders, inquire into their practice and participate in shared decision making and conversation. This 'professional learning' approach is different from the 'one size fits all professional development' approach (p.73). Deppeler adds that it is always possible to apply these same principles to other learning communities when they are connected to the same network, increasing professional interaction and learning across institutions. Thus, networks seem to play a major role in spreading collaborative inquiry among practitioners and connecting them.

Basically, a teacher network, according to Moonen & al. (2000), is a group of teachers who co-operate for a longer period of time on the implementation process of a certain innovation in education. In the design of the networks for practitioners in the present study, the recommendations of Moonen & al. (2000) are taken into consideration. These scholars, after reviewing relevant literature, suggested that networks should not be too big or small; they may include 10 to 15 teachers or tutors.

In the same vein, Moonen & al. added that participants in the networks should deal with the same subject and start with a narrow topic which interests them. They should be convinced that they can learn from each other in an open environment where they take risks. They should also accept differences between each other (e.g. experience and knowledge) and make these differences productive. Finally, they need to have a word to say about proceedings of the networks (topics, working method, location, time and frequency of meetings).

By taking the previous recommendations into account, it is hoped that EFL teachers of B2U of the same subject matter and tutors as well will contribute to the collective agency and continuing professional development of the whole community of teachers and tutors. The ultimate goal would be to enhance teaching, tutoring and learning. One emerging concern was how to convince teachers/tutors to collaborate through open discussions and to form networks. This concern arose because through their interviews, it was noticed that most teachers were complaining about the work load, time constraints and the distance between where they live and university. One convenient solution to this issue is to create electronic virtual networks to teachers and tutors instead of face-to-face real networks.

6.5.3 Using Electronic Networks for Practitioners

Traditionally, access to knowledge and competence had been restricted by time, resources and technology. Practitioners rarely had time or money to visit other institutions or to attend enough conferences and workshops in order to learn new practices. Until recently, the predominant means to learn and acquire some expertise have been written publications such as teacher journals and magazines. Fortunately, things have changed since new technologies, including Internet and its different applications have helped practitioners to gain access to knowledge and competence in a much easier way (Marx & al., 2000).

There exists today a general consensus among researchers and educationists on the valuable role that technologies play in facilitating professional development (Craft 2000). According to Marx & al. (2000), new technologies can provide visions of enactment of innovations along with teachers' reflections and researchers' analysis to help their colleagues develop robust understanding of the innovation and its enactment.

Bos & al. (1995, as cited in Moonen & al., 2000) indicate that an electronic teacher network for in-service trainings is extremely suited for reflection among teachers about what they have tried and in the implementation of innovations because

it creates a supportive audience for feedback and develop into sources of new ideas. According to them, teachers can benefit from an electronic teacher network in the sense that they can easily reflect on their practice and share these reflections with their colleagues, they can obtain curriculum guidance, the opportunity for joint reflection and an ongoing contact and support.

In the same context, Moonen & al. (2000) provide researchers and educationists with a number of guidelines to the use of electronic networks. First, they should provide practitioners with some sort of homework such as preparing activities, implementing instructions and sharing experiences in order to stimulate electronic communication between them. Second, they should act like an active moderator and a content expert responsible for the organization of the network. Third, they should facilitate communication and information exchange. Fourth, they should organise occasional face to face meetings, in addition to electronic communication to know each other especially when participants are from different institutions.

Marx & al. (2000) stress the significant role the mentor plays in the whole networking operation. This operation cannot succeed and help practitioners to develop communities of practice without the guidance and support of the mentor researcher or teacher. Mentors are critical for the success of network-based communication because they are responsible for engaging practitioners in productive conversations. Their role is to facilitate and scaffold conversation by starting and sustaining it when the network first starts and provide information and resources, raise questions and offer ideas, direct inquiries and connect groups with similar interests and needs. In this vein, Marx & al. (2000) comment:

Telecommunications can help teachers and university researchers to engage in substantive conversations and share teaching artifacts []. The challenge is to help teachers engage in productive conversations. Electronic conversations must revolve around a framework for considering an innovation with a focus on issues of practice (Marx et al., 2000, p.289)

When designing the present study's electronic network for teachers and tutors, several techniques are combined such as personal reflection, action research, receiving

mentoring and teaching projects which involve participants to collaborate and share experiences and skills. The next section elaborates more on the suggested network model.

5.6.4 A Suggested Electronic Teacher/ Tutor Network

A general description of the suggested bottom-up approach to change draws on Marx & al. (2000)'s vision of professional development where teachers melded practical concerns with theoretical knowledge. The present study's approach to professional development relies on cycles of collaboration, enactment, reflection and adaptation that extend over time. The ultimate goal is to help teachers and tutors construct new possibilities for instruction and tutoring, better conceptual understanding of the subject matter, new understandings of the premised underlying the LMD reform, recognition of challenges and dilemmas and practical knowledge for strategies for meeting challenges in the classroom.

For the present suggested electronic network model for teachers and tutors, the aim is to enable them to use a range of practices that are congruent with the principles of the LMD reform or curriculum and that are tailored to their own situational constraints and personal preferences. An electronic communication is suggested in a hope to scaffold the practitioners' complex cognition in order to make them apply new understanding and exploit better their problem solving skills. Hereafter is a description of the teachers' and tutors' suggested electronic network implementation.

The practitioners' electronic network can be created following Marx & al., (2000) and Moonen & al., (2000) guidelines. In this respect, an open environment can be created by convincing the participants to take part in and by consulting them on the proceedings of the network. The last steps are to decide about the number of the participants and the topics to inquire about. Each of these stages is considered hereafter.

a. Creating an Open Environment

The mentor researcher will create Facebook group accounts named after the subject matter that teachers/tutors deal with. Possible names of group accounts may be: English Language Teaching group, English/ American /African Literature group, British/ American Civilization group, Language Skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) group, Translation group, Tutoring group...etc. Participants, depending on their specialty, can join the group(s) which interests them.

b. Convincing Practitioners to Participate and Consulting them on the Proceedings of the Network

The mentor researcher will send a mail to all teachers/tutors, working in the English Department of B2U, in order to convince them of the utility of creating an electronic teacher/tutor network. The aim behind using the network should be well explained because this procedure defines teachers'/tutors' future participation. The mentor researcher will inform the participants about the creation of the Facebook group accounts. He/she will suggest a working method for the network such as when to post topics to be addressed and the frequency of discussion among participants. Then, he/she will ask them to draw their own vision and preferences concerning the proceedings of the network.

c. Deciding on the Number of the Participants

The number of the participants will depend on the number of teachers and/or tutors who wish to join the networks in each specialty; however, it should range between 10 and 15.

d. Deciding on the Topics to Inquire About.

One of the major findings of the present study was the fact that teachers found it difficult to alter their beliefs orientation, to use ICTs in class and to apply in real ground the learner-centred teaching principles implied in the LMD curriculum. In this respect, teachers should be encouraged to discuss and inquire about two major issues:

(1) some of their inherent beliefs about teaching/learning within the LMD curriculum and (2) their roles and practices within the LMD curriculum.

Out of the present study's findings, some important themes related to the beliefs of the teachers emerged. It appeared that the personal agency of the teachers did not play its supposed role in promoting EFL teaching and learning. In fact, the teachers did not really believe they can play a role in optimising the use of ICTs or understanding better the motives and the nature of their students. Since their beliefs about teaching and learning were mainly teacher-centred, teachers could not avoid caring less about accomplishing the teaching programme; they seemed to be influenced by the way their prior teachers taught them. All these beliefs and others resulting from the study's findings can be suggest under the form of a list of inquiries for the practitioners in the suggested electronic network to them. In this respect, the teachers may be inquiring about the following:

1. Do you believe you can play a role in changing the teaching and learning situation in the English Department by increasing the use of ICTs?
2. Do you believe that the use of social media networks helps in teaching and learning?
3. Do you believe you should play a role in communicating with your students in order to understand the way they perceive your role in class?
4. How do you perceive your role in class?
 - a. Are you the one who controls?
 - b. Do you care about finishing the programme?
 - c. Do you impose your point of view and do most of the reflection by yourself in class?
 - d. Do you care about your students' learning goals?
5. Do you believe you should play a role in understanding better the nature of your students?
 - a. Are they reluctant, passive and lack personal initiatives?
 - b. Do they care about learning?

- c. Do they hold a grade-grabbing mentality?
 - d. Do they accept your dominance?
 - e. Do they lack abstraction and imagination?
 - f. Do they have clear learning goals?
6. Do you believe that planning your lessons constitutes a real challenge for you?
 7. Do you believe the more content you teach in class, the more learning will take place?
 8. Do you believe that you should create climates and conditions to lifelong learning?
 9. Do you believe that your evaluation in class generates grades, promotes learning or both of them?
 10. Do you believe that you are teaching the same way your previous (English) teachers were teaching you?
 11. Do you believe you should focus more on teaching theoretical issues/theories or on how to practise/apply them?
 12. Do you believe that the LMD system reinforces a grade- grabbing mentality in students?
 13. Do you believe that class size affects the successful application of the LMD reform?

In addition to inquiring about teachers' beliefs, another list of some teaching practices is suggested hereafter by the researcher to the teachers; it constitutes of a number of hot topics that they can reflect upon in order to consider the possibility of applying the learner-centred principles, as implied in the LMD curriculum, on the terrain. Those inquiries are formulated in the form of questions:

- 1- Do you encourage students to explore additional content independently or through projects and to express alternative perspectives when appropriate?
- 2- Do you adopt continuous assessment?
3. Do you use open-ended assignments?

4. Do you use varied teaching content and assist students to transform and reflect on most of the content to make their own sense of it?

4- Do you use teaching materials that accommodate different learning styles?

5. Do you align the objectives, teaching and assessment methodology of your courses?

5- Do you use activities in which students actively interact with the instructor, the material and each other?

6- Do you define SMART (Specific- Measurable- Attainable- Relevant and Time-oriented) objectives when preparing their courses?

7- Do you integrate assessment within the learning process?

9- Do you offer students some opportunities to learn from their mistakes and demonstrate mastery?

10- Do you use different assessment techniques such as peer or self-assessment?

In the suggested electronic network to the teachers, the mentor researcher will encourage them to reflect upon the possibility of bringing change in class. Each time (e.g. each week), she will post one of the above inquiries for reflection.

In the present case study, tutors were found to be totally absent from the educational scene; they were barely acting as academic advisors and they completely ignored the other roles they were meant to adopt. All the roles of the tutors, as defined in the LMD curriculum, helped the researcher formulate the present inquiries for the tutors:

1- Do you guide the students to understand and make advantage of opportunities to learn?

2- Do you guide them to take increasing responsibility for learning, learn-how-to learn, or acquire self-directed and lifelong learning skills?

3- Do you guide the learners to assess their own learning?

4-Do you encourage them to recognize, identify or evaluate why they need to learn different disciplines during the course?

5-Do you teach the students how to apply the acquired content to learn a new one?

6- Do you support and nurture the emotional well-being of the students?

7- Do you advise and accompany them in understanding pedagogical and academic issues?

In this respect, the mentor researcher will invite tutors to consider the possibility of adopting the above roles and bringing change taking into account their tutoring context and realities.

It is hoped that the above electronic networks to teachers and tutors would constitute an in-service training to encourage them to reflect about their beliefs and practices as a means to create a supportive environment to implement the teaching and tutoring principles of the LMD reform. The bottom-up approach to educational change suggested so far seems very promising; however, the present study has some limitations.

6.6 Limitations of the Study

Case studies encourage the use of several research techniques (Salkind 2008) but in the present case study and because three dimensions of educational change were investigated (teachers' beliefs, teachers' and tutors' practices and materials use), research tools were not varied for each dimension. In fact, other means of triangulation in addition to teachers'/tutors' and students' perspectives needed addition. It is hoped that other studies with a similar concern to the present research would adopt a variety of research instruments such as the use of classroom observation.

Another limitation of the present study is the fact that some of the teachers' practices such as 'the alignment of the course components' and 'the articulation of the course objectives' were investigated from the teachers' perspective only. In fact, students couldn't know about those issues which concern lesson planning. Another

factor which may have threatened the validity of the results is the fact that the interviewed teachers were asked to participate on a voluntary basis. This brings into question the size of the interviewed teachers; a larger and well defined sample of teachers (i.e more than 10 teachers who teach different levels and subjects) is recommended in this case since it would yield more valid results and permit a better representation of the whole population of the teachers.

Conclusion

In this chapter, results in relation to the first dimension of change indicated that the teachers' dominant beliefs' orientation was teacher-centred and many factors contributed to the formation of those beliefs such as teachers' prior learning experience, their education and classroom practice. A journey into the inner side of the teachers' life uncovered some feelings of frustration and anxiety about teaching English. Negative emotions and views about the LMD curriculum were also depicted. Concerning the second dimension of change about teachers' and tutors' practices in class, it was found that teachers were implementing easily all the few teacher-centred principles implied in the LMD curriculum. Thus, they controlled their classes by determining the teaching content. They neither considered their students' learning styles nor defined class policies. They also did not use extrinsic motivators such as marks and they were the only ones to assess in class or define accuracy of answers in exams.

Regarding the learner-centred roles, teachers proved to be successful at adopting only very few learner-centred teaching principles in the sense that they aligned well the components (objectives, teaching and assessment methodology) of their courses, defined well the SMART objectives of their courses and enabled their students to interact with the teacher, each other and content. However, other practices depended on their teaching circumstances. So, they occasionally encouraged students to express their opinions, reflect on what they learn and learn from their mistakes. They also tried to adopt continuous assessment, use open-ended assignments, teach research methodology skills and relate assessment to real-life tasks.

In the present study, the tutors did not seem to play any significant role in helping students to acquire skills that would cause them to become autonomous. They did not help them evaluate why they need to learn different disciplines and take more responsibility for their learning. Students were not taught how to learn and how to assess their learning. Tutors did not also accompany students emotionally and all they attempted to do was advising some first year students about pedagogical issues.

With respect to the intergration of ICTs which constitutes the third dimension of change in a reform initiative, teachers and students used them outside the classroom more than inside it. In fact, there were few attempts to use the data show and audio-recordings inside the classroom. Outside the classroom, some teachers attempted to use social media networks such as Facebook and email to communicate information and facilitate their own teaching and students' learning. Inside the classroom, students used computers, tablettes and mobiles to achieve their assignments and tasks. Outside the classroom, they relied on use of Internet (Facebook, Google, You-tube) to obtain knowledge and communicate with their classmates and instructors.

All these results enabled me to answer the study's sub-research questions about aspects of educational change. In relation to the first aspect of EC, results revealed that teachers' beliefs' orientation did not change since it proved to be still teacher-centred and teacher-centred beliefs could only result in teacher-centred practices. A no-change situation was also depicted in the two other dimensions of educational change (i.e. practices and materials); teachers made few attempts, depending on the realities of their context, to apply learner-centred principles of the LMD curriculum and they used technologies outside the classroom more than inside it. What diminished the chances for a change to take place was the complete absence of the tutor who was supposed to play a major role in causing students to become autonomous learners. Findings confirmed the study's hypothesis and answered its main question. In fact, a surface educational change characterised teaching and tutoring in the English Department of B2U.

The above findings have significant implications. In order to avoid the failure of the reform and to make teachers/tutors cause a deep educational change, they need to develop their agency by reshaping their own beliefs and practices. One efficient way to do that is through electronic networks to teachers and tutors initiated by a mentor researcher or teacher. These networks can provide a supportive environment for the collaboration and inquiry of the teachers. Their procedure follows the bottom-up approach to implement innovations and they are reflective in nature.

Participants in the network can jointly construct knowledge by exchanging ideas, reviewing prior teaching experiences and beliefs, obtaining information from the mentor and considering challenges to the adoption of new practices. It is only through critical reflection and constructive conversations that they can achieve professionalism and deep educational change. Despite the promising implications of the present study, this latter has some limitations related to the generalisability and degree of validity of its results.

General Conclusion

The LMD system was launched in some Algerian universities in the year 2004 and in the English department of B2U in the year 2007. Being a member of the community of teachers in this department resulted in my personal concern in investigating the depth of educational change caused by the reform. For this purpose, the present case study addressed the following main research question:

-Did the LMD reform implemented in the English Department of B2U result in an educational change?

This question was formulated using Fullan (2016)'s definition of educational change. Its corresponding three sub-questions are:

- 1: Did the reform cause change in the teachers' own beliefs about teaching and learning?
- 2: Did the reform cause change in the teaching approach and practices?
- 3: Did the reform cause change in the use of new instructional materials?

The above three questions inquire about Fullan (2016)'s three aspects of educational change that would happen within the classroom context (i.e. change in the teachers' beliefs, change in the teachers' teaching approach and change in the use of new teaching materials).

This study is confirmatory since it aimed at confirming or disconfirming a hypothesis that I set up right at the beginning. Based on a review of a number of studies which reported the failure of some top-down reform initiatives worldwide, I hypothesized a no-depth of educational change in relation to the teachers' beliefs and practices in the English department of B2U. To answer the study's research questions, a triangulation design was followed. In this respect, I achieved a simultaneous collection of quantitative and qualitative data and considered the multiple perspectives of teachers, tutors and students.

The ultimate goal of this work was to examine whether the LMD reform succeeded or failed in bringing change in teachers' beliefs and practices and to bring some suggestions to improve English language teaching and learning in the English department under study. To achieve this goal, the present thesis was organized into six chapters. Each chapter enlightens a facet of the research.

The literature review, through the first three chapters, mainly guided me to: 1. discover aspects of educational change which the LMD reform is meant to bring in relation to teachers' beliefs and practices, 2. understand the significant role of beliefs in causing a real and deep educational change, 3. construct a quite solid framework in order to investigate the practitioners' practices in the LMD curriculum.

Chapter one helped me to realise the amount of change the LMD reform is supposed to reflect in the classroom. In this respect, the teachers' beliefs and practices should change to become more learner-centred in nature and ICTs should be incorporated in teaching and learning. In theory, the LMD reform reflected change, however, the teaching situation on terrain proved to be different since studies revealed little evidence of a real educational change in relation to the beliefs and practices of EFL teachers in some Algerian Universities.

Chapter two defined the connection which exists between beliefs and educational change. It provided evidence that encouraging teachers to reflect on their beliefs and identities assists them in developing their degree of personal agency. Collective agency of the whole professional capital of teachers can also develop when teachers work collaboratively through Professional Learning Communities. This collaborative work will enable them to understand the change process caused by a reform and how it works best for them at their workplace. Through this bottom-up approach to professionalism, reflection on teachers' beliefs can effectively contribute in making deep educational change a reality.

Chapter three confirmed that the LMD reform reflects change in the teachers' practices since the principles or philosophy stated in the official MHESR documents

proved to be congruent with a large number of principles of the learner-centred pedagogy. In fact, despite the persistence of some teacher-centred teaching behaviours, the LMD teachers are supposed to adopt and put into practice more learner-centred principles. The tutor, in his/her turn, seemed to be another major agent of change in the LMD reform initiative. He/she seems to bring a great contribution in assisting teachers in their mission and in shifting them and their students to more learner-centred teaching and learning principles.

Chapter four justifies the research design in the present study and explains in detail the use of the two investigative instruments: the questionnaires to the teachers and master students and interviews to the teachers, tutors and first year students. The general aim behind using these tools was to find out about the teachers' beliefs' orientation, the teaching/tutoring practices and the use of new teaching materials in the English Department under study. The collection of data lasted for more than one month (from Jan to Feb, 2016) and its analysis followed both the quantitative and qualitative approaches.

Chapter five reported the results obtained from both instruments. Results obtained from the questionnaire to the teachers provided the researcher with some insights about the first dimension of change. They indicated that their dominant beliefs' orientation was teacher-centred and that many factors contributed to the formation of those beliefs such as teachers' prior learning experience, their education and classroom practice. A journey into the inner side of the teachers' life uncovered some feelings of frustration and anxiety about teaching English. Negative emotions and views about the LMD curriculum were also depicted.

Concerning the second dimension of change about the practices of the teachers and tutors in class, it was found that teachers were implementing easily all the few teacher-centred principles implied in the LMD curriculum. They controlled their classes by determining the teaching content and they did not consider their students' learning styles. They defined class policies and used extrinsic motivators such as marks. Also, they were the only ones to assess in class and to define accuracy of answers in exams. On the other hand, teachers proved to be successful at adopting only

very few learner-centred teaching principles such as aligning well the components of their courses (i.e objectives, teaching and assessment methodology), defining well the SMART objectives of their courses and enabling their students to interact with the teacher, each other and content.

As far as the rest of the learner-centred practices implied in the LMD curriculum, teachers were making attempts to practise them at varying degrees depending on their teaching circumstances. For example, they sometimes encouraged students to express their opinions, reflect on what they learn and learn from their mistakes. Also, they tried to adopt continuous assessment, use open-ended assignments, teach research methodology skills and relate assessment to real-life tasks.

Regarding the role of the tutors in the context of the present study, they seemed not to play any significant role in helping students to acquire skills that would cause them to become autonomous such as evaluating why they need to learn different disciplines and taking more responsibility for their learning; students were not taught how to learn and how to assess their learning. Tutors did not accompany students emotionally and all they attempted to do was advising some first year students about pedagogical issues only.

With respect to the integration of ICTs, teachers and students used them outside the classroom more than inside it. In class, only materials such as the data show and audio-recordings were operational. Outside the classroom, some teachers attempted to use social media networks such as Facebook and email to communicate information and facilitate their own teaching and students' learning. Students, on their part, used computers, tablettes and mobiles to achieve their assignments and tasks. They also relied on the use of Internet (Facebook, Google, You-tube) to obtain knowledge and communicate with their classmates and instructors.

In the last chapter, results were further analyzed and interpreted to find answers to the three sub-research questions and the study's main research question. In relation to the first aspect of educational change, results revealed that the orientation of the beliefs of teachers did not change since it was teacher-centred. A no-significant change

situation was also depicted in the two other dimensions of educational change (i.e. practices and materials). Teachers made few attempts, depending on the realities of their teaching context, to apply learner-centred principles of the LMD curriculum and they used technologies outside the classroom more than inside it. What diminished the chances for a change to take place was the complete absence of the tutor who was supposed to play a major role in materializing the learner-centred essence of the LMD reform. Findings confirmed the study's hypothesis in the sense that there was no-depth of educational change in relation to the teachers' beliefs, teaching and tutoring practices in the English Department of B2U and this foreshadowed a surface educational change and failure of the reform.

In order to avoid the failure of the reform and enable practitioners to cause a deep educational change, they need to develop their own personal and professional agency by reflecting and reshaping their own beliefs and practices. One efficient way to do that is through Professional Learning Communities and electronic networks to teachers and tutors. These networks may be initiated by a mentor researcher or teacher to provide a supportive environment for teachers and tutors to collaborate and inquire about the possibilities to apply the teaching and tutoring principles of the LMD curriculum.

The procedure of the electronic networks follows the bottom-up approach to implement innovations. Participants in the network can jointly construct knowledge by exchanging ideas, reviewing prior teaching experience and beliefs, obtaining information from the mentor and considering challenges to the adoption of new practices. It is only through critical reflection and constructive conversations that they can achieve professionalism and deep educational change. A sample of how electronic networks operate in terrain was provided in the last section of chapter six. They were designed for the teachers and tutors who work in the English department of B2U.

Despite the promising implications of the present study, this latter has some limitations related to the generalisability and degree of validity of its results. It would

be interesting if more studies from other Algerian EFL university contexts are achieved to shed more light on the local realities of teaching English. This would yield other bottom-up teacher and tutor networks which respond to the teaching and tutoring circumstances proper to each English department. In this way, an educational change across English departments in Algeria would not stay a dream but become a reality.

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Appendix 1

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear colleague

I am interested in understanding your teaching philosophy in the English Department at Blida -2- University. Your participation will be of a great help to me. Please, fill out this questionnaire and feel welcome to add as much details as you wish. Your responses to this questionnaire will be treated with utmost confidence. Thank you for your cooperation.

Signed: Mrs. SAIL Hind, researcher.

Part 1: Background Information

1. Highest academic qualifications:.....
2. Degree specialty:.....
3. Years of teaching experience:
 - a. At university:.....
 - b. Other:...../ Where?.....
4. Modules already taught:.....
5. Preceding Trainings:.....

Part 2: Teaching Metaphor Activity

Every teacher holds consciously or unconsciously a metaphor of teaching/learning in his mind. To illustrate this, two metaphors of two teachers are reported below.

Metaphor 1: Teaching and learning is like a thunderstorm. The teacher is like the cloud filled with knowledge. The teacher's instruction consists of the rain falling onto the students, who are the earth below. The students' learning is represented by the absorption of water, as they soak in the instruction that is presented. Some days, more rain is necessary, perhaps because the topic is new and challenging for students. There are days when flooding occurs, and this is usually when the teacher has overloaded students with data and the learners cannot handle the amount of rain coming down. The teacher just needs to figure out how much rain is enough on any given day, and decide for some students whether to rain more gently while others are more able for a greater torrent. Rain is good; it is nutritious.

Metaphor 2: Teaching and learning is like building sandcastles on the beach. The teacher is the ocean waves and the ocean, the content is the sand, and the students are the children on the beach. Children are building sandcastles but they need the ocean and its waves to help the construction of it. While some waves may knock the sandcastle down, but most help wet the sand so that children can build the castle bigger and higher (knowledge). Teachers try to keep the kids under control and

understand each child individually. So, the beach tries to pull kids near to the water because if you are too far from the waves or the teaching then the less chance there is to build the sandcastle or grasp the content. Teachers, as the waves, have to go towards the kids and wet their sand, reach them and motivate them. It is then up to the kids to make sandcastles and keep trying to make strong and big castles.

In light of the above comment and illustration, construct your own metaphor of teaching and learning. The metaphor should be detailed enough to incorporate reference to the teacher and the learner and their roles in the education context.

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Part 3: Self-reflection Activity

Complete the following credo according to your own teaching philosophy.

Teaching Credo

- As a child I (always/never) wanted to be a teacher so that I
- I (chose/did not chose) to get my degree in.....
- During High School, my teachers of English were
- During University, my teachers of English were.....
- There are (different/few/no) teaching philosophies that are appealing to me
- I realize that teaching (is/isn't going to be/is not) easy and that
- Nowadays, university students (are/are not) different. They.....

Appendix 2

Master Students Questionnaire

Dear Students

I am interested in understanding the realities of teaching and learning English at Blida 2 University, English Department. Your participation by filling- out the present questionnaire will be of great help to me. Your responses will be treated with total confidentiality. Thank you for your cooperation.

Signed: Mrs. SAIL Hind, researcher.

Part 1: Use a tick (✓) to show how often your teachers have taught following the below teaching practices. Feel welcome to add as many details as you wish in the last column.

Teaching Practices	Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	A Comment or An Example (if any)
1. Teachers determine course content.						
2. Teachers encourage students to express different points of view on a topic during the session when appropriate.						
3. Teachers give students some control over how they earn marks when they continuously assess them.						
4. Teachers use open-ended assignments that allow for students' personal production and creativity.						
5. Teachers set up class policies (e.g. attendance and discipline) and deadlines.						
6. Teachers teach students knowledge and make them understand why they need to learn it.						
7. Teachers assist students to reflect on most of the content to make their own sense of it.						
8. Teachers teach students to						

use the acquired content to learn a new one.						
9. Teachers create a learning environment by using material that accommodates different learning styles (e.g. visual, auditory and kinesthetic styles).						
10. Teachers match activities with students' learning goals						
11. Teachers use activities in which students actively interact with the teacher, the material and each other.						
12. Teachers use extrinsic motivators such as bonus or minus points to motivate students to learn.						
13- Teachers are the only persons responsible in class to assess students' skills, knowledge and find out about their learning difficulties.						
14- Research Methodology teachers and others teach students to be proficient in framing researchable questions, accessing information, evaluating their sources/ content and using information legally/ethically.						
15- Teachers integrate assessment within the learning process so that while learners learn in class, their performance is evaluated as well.						
16- Teachers use both summative (official exams) and formative (continuous) assessment modes.						
17- Teachers are totally responsible for evaluating their						

students; no self or peer-assessment is encouraged in class.						
18- Teachers offer students some opportunities to learn from their mistakes and then demonstrate mastery.						
19- Teachers determine accuracy of answers in exams.						
20- Teachers set a timeframe for providing feedback in official exams.						
21- Teachers relate assessment techniques to real-life tasks.						

Part 2:

1. To what extent do your teachers rely on the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in their teaching inside the classroom?

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2. To what extent do your teachers rely on the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in their teaching outside the classroom?

.....

Part 3:

1. To what extent do you rely on the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in your learning inside the classroom?

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2. To what extent do you rely on the use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in your learning outside the classroom?

Appendix 3

Interview to Teachers

The present interview aims at exploring the realities of teaching and learning at Blida 2 University, English Department. Your participation by answering the questions of the interview will be of great help to me. Your responses will be treated with total confidentiality.

1. Teachers' Emotions Before Coming in Class

- a. Can you tell me about your feelings a day before you come to the university?"

2. Role of the Teacher, Administration, and Learner in Determining Content in Courses and Exams

- a- Who determines the content of your course?
- b- Do you try to relate what your students are learning with their preferences and career interests?
- c- Do you define the specific objectives of your course?
- d- How much change will result out of teaching your course?
- e- Do you define the accuracy of the answers to exams and tests?
- f- Do you allow your students to justify for their exam answers when they are different from the ones suggested by the teacher(s)?

3. Type of Content to Teach in Class

- a- Is the content you teach varied or not? If yes, can you give an example of the assignments you give to your students?
- b- What does the content you teach promote in your students?
- c- Do you allow your students to demonstrate mastery after they commit mistakes?

4. Students' Interaction with Content

- a- Do you encourage your students to construct their own meaning of the content they learn?
- b- Do you encourage them to express their different perspectives when appropriate?
- c- Do they use the content they learn future assignments?

5. Mandating Class Policies and Deadlines

a-Who decides about class policy?

b-Do you use extrinsic motivators such as bonus and minus points with your students?

c-Do you decide about a timeframe for providing feedback in tests and exams?

6.Deciding about the Teaching Methodology

a- How would you describe your teaching methodology?

b- Do you consider your students' learning style when teaching? How?

c- Do your students use ICTs in or outside the classroom in order to learn?

d- Do you use ICTs in or outside the classroom in order to teach?

e- Do your students have clear learning goals? If yes, do you use various teaching methods to match their goals?

6- Do you consider your learners' learning preferences?

7. Deciding about the Assessment Methodology

a- Do you grant your students some control over how they earn grades?

b- Do grades matter for you? Are they a sign of good learning?

c- Do you integrate assessment within the learning process?

d- What do you assess in you students?

e- Are you the only one who assesses?

f- Do you include real-life tasks in your assessment?

8. Teachers' Degree of Satisfaction with the LMD Curriculum

- To finish, would you tell me about your degree of satisfaction with the LMD curriculum.

Thank you for your cooperation!

Appendix 4

Tutor's Interview

The present interview aims at exploring the realities of teaching and learning at Blida 2 University, English Department. Your participation by answering the questions of the interview will be of great help to me. Your responses will be treated with total confidentiality.

1. What is your highest academic qualification:
2. How many years have you been tutoring first year students?
3. Have you received any kind of training from the ministry to become a tutor in the English Department, Blida University -2-?
4. If not, have you been guided by the administration of the English Department, Blida University on the general expectations from your role as a tutor? If yes, how?
5. What is your role with first year students?
6. Briefly answer the following questions in relation to your role as a tutor:
 - a. Do you guide students to understand and make advantage of opportunities to learn?
 - b. Do you encourage students to recognize, why they needed to learn different disciplines during the course?
 - c. Do you guide students to take increasing responsibility for learning?
 - d. Do you guide students to learn-how-to learn?
 - e. Do you guide students to acquire self-directed and lifelong learning skills?
 - f. Do you guide students to assess their own learning?
 - g. Do you advise, accompany students in understanding pedagogical and academic issues?
 - h. Do you support and nurture the emotional well-being of the students?
7. How do you manage your meetings with your first year students?
8. Do you encounter any problems when trying to achieve your mission?
9. What do you suggest as solutions to those problems?
10. Would you like to add any comment or remark?

Thank you for your collaboration.

Appendix 5

First Year Students' Focus Group Interview

The present interview aims at exploring the realities of teaching and learning at Blida 2 University, English Department. Your participation by answering the questions of the interview will be of great help to me. Your responses will be treated with total confidentiality.

1. How many tutoring sessions did you attend?
2. How long did the session last?
 - a. 1H30?
 - b. More /less?
3. What is the role of your tutor?
4. Briefly answer the following questions in relation to the role of you tutor:
 - o. Did your tutor guide you to understand your learning opportunities?
 - b. Did your tutor encourage students to recognize why they needed to learn different disciplines during the course?
 - c. Did your tutor guide you to take increasing responsibility for learning?
 - d. Did your tutor guide you to learn-how-to learn?
 - e. Did your tutor guide you to acquire self-directed and lifelong learning skills?
 - f. Did your tutor guide you to assess your own learning?
 - g. Did your tutor advise, accompany you in understanding pedagogical and academic issues?
 - h. Did your tutor support and nurture your emotional well-being?
5. Did you benefit from your tutoring sessions?
If no, why?
If yes, explain?
6. Did you encounter any problems during tutoring?
7. What solutions would you suggest to overcome those problems?
8. Do you encourage first year students of next year to go through tutoring sessions?
9. Would you like to add any comment or remark?

Thank you for your collaboration.

Appendix 6

A Teacher Sample Interview

Teacher 10 /Interview recorded on the 21st of Jan, 16 at 12h15mn in the researcher's office.

Module: African Literature / Interview transcribed on the 22nd of Jan, 16

Level: Third year Licence and first year Master levels.

The researcher (R) welcomed and thanked the teacher (T) for accepting to participate in the study. She promised the anonymity and discreteness of the interview. She explained the aim of the study in general and the interview in special. She explained the different sections of the interview, then, she started asking the questions.

R: Can you tell me about your feelings or emotions a day before you come to university?

T: To be honest, I don't have any clear emotions. Sometimes I am up and others I am down. This is life ups and downs. I cannot tell I feel enthusiastic about teaching, depending on the subject I teach. You know, some lectures in my course are so boring, others are interesting. For example, in today's lecture, I felt motivated because it is something I like to discuss (the theories) but when it comes to something boring (old fashioned), I get bored. Also, the nature of my students; with some groups, I like to work, with others, I don't like to work. Needless to mention the groups with whom I feel at ease and the groups I don't feel at ease. There are some...horrible to teach.

R: Horrible, in means of what?

T: In means of discipline, interaction, enthusiasm and motivation, of creating fruitful discussions. Sometimes, the lecture is not boring but it can be enriched by discussion, by contribution, by enthusiasm, by hard work and by interaction. Teaching is not just a one way act but a two way act; we have to consider the learner.

R introduces the first section and asks: who determines content?

T: Regarding content in the licence degree, it is mostly administration-based. It is determined by the administration or by the official curriculum.

R: Do you define the specific objectives of your course?

T: They are already designed by syllabus designers. However, in the Master, we introduce the courses, so, we are free to develop/add; it is flexible. I always think of refining my course. In the licence, I am a bit confined by the objectives, number of tests and number of students in the classroom. Generally speaking, my objectives are to enable students to read and then analyse African literature novels.

R: How much change will result out of teaching your course?

T: I believe that whether learners have read 2 writers or 3, what matters is that they have learnt English through literature, which is one way to develop their skills.

R: Concerning the Master degree, since you are the one who designs the content, do you take into consideration your learners' preferences and career interests when doing that?

T: well, students who come to the Master's degree, they are not aware of African literature. So, they can't decide which writers are best, frequently tackled or not.

R: Do you mean that their teaching objectives are not clear?

T: Not clear because for them, they come from, I mean, the licence degree did not prepare them to be researchers. They were confined by what they were given. As far as African writers are concerned, they know only Achebe, they don't know other writers and suggest others.

R: and concerning the exam, do you define accuracy of answers in exams?

T: Of course.

R: Do you allow your learners to justify for their exam answers when they are different from the correct suggested answer?

T: In literature, we should encourage free interpretation, uniformity of ideas are to be discarded but learners are sticking to what I give them, they don't explore, they don't read, they don't even read the primary texts, how can they develop their own interpretation because normally they are supposed to read the play or the novel and then read about it. They skip the first tool, they chose the easy way. They are not expected to have their own reading of the text; they stick to what has been said, to the main stream criticism of the literary work.

R: How about the amount of content you teach, do you care about that?

T: I don't care about the amount of content because they are studying English. English is the primary skill that they need to develop.

R: Is the content you teach varied?

T: Not really. It is generally related to our discussion of one literary work.

R: Can you tell me what does the content you teach promote in your learners?

T: Since the nature of my subject is about literature, the skills are reading and writing; not listening, they don't have a play to listen to or speaking to perform the story in front of their classmates.

R: Any critical thinking?

T: They are supposed but they don't read to have critical thinking, they have to read the primary texts. They do this only in the second cycle (Master) when it becomes their main stream and subject of dissertation.

R: Do you allow you learners to demonstrate mastery after they commit mistakes?

T: Yes, I do, errors are part of learning.

R: R: Now, about learners' interaction with the content... Do you encourage your learners to construct their own meaning of the content they learn?

T: Yes

R: Do you allow them to express their perspectives when appropriate?

T: This year, I am happy because students are more motivated (Master degree). They show interest and enthusiasm but last year, it was very boring.

R: Why do you think it is so?

T: I cannot explain. In fact, interaction is the main criterion in order to evaluate their interests? I don't see another way.

R: And concerning the content you teach, do learners use the content they learn in the future?

T: We had this debate with teachers of literature. So, many questions come to our minds repeatedly like: what is literature? They will be school teachers... The question of literature outside their classroom is still a controversial issue. For this reason, I accord much priority to language/skills. I don't worry much about whether they have learnt theories like Marxism and so on because it is not that important unless the learner is eager to have further research... but most students are contented with marks and degrees. Sometimes, students feel that they cannot venture to a doctoral research.

R introduces the second section and asks: Do you mandate class policies?

T: I consider attendance and behaviour, that's all. For me, you need to attend, assiduity and good behaviour. These are obligatory things I have to see. Concerning deadlines, I don't ask them to do assignments very often because I believe that home assignments are copy and paste, I do prefer classroom discussion.

R: Do you use extrinsic motivators such as bonus marks with your learners?

T: No, I don't.

R: Do you decide about a timeframe for providing feedback in exams?

T: Usually, not.

R: Concerning your methodology, do you decide about the way you teach?

T: Yes, I do.

R: Do you consider your learners' learning preferences?

T: Yes, of course. I know that the teaching methodology should be discussed with the class/ students but most often, they don't care, they are passive, they are still recipient.

R: How about their learning styles?

T: Yes, I do consider learning styles especially in the way they approach a question. I don't have one answer/ one key to the question because in literature there are many answers to one question provided that the answer is well developed, well argued. The student is free to have

his own opinion because they should read outside classroom; I can't observe whether they take notes.

R: Then, if I ask you to generally describe your teaching methodology...?

T: I basically do some lecturing when necessary and we discuss together literary works. However, it all depends on the amount of reading they do at home.

R: By the way, how do you manage that, how do you manage giving them extra reading?

T: Yes, I send them pdf articles because they do not have access to. I can download some articles to them. You must know the subject matter well so as to research results. I give them sometimes some pdf books, ready made books, ready made articles...I am thinking of handouts. I have stopped with classroom presentations; Master students are no more presenting because I think it is useless, I prefer to have my own lecture, my analysis ...[and debates?] Eventually!

R: Do you use the data show?

T: I don't because it is not always available. I prefer not to take any risk.

R: How about learners, do they have clear learning goals?

T: For some of them, they enjoy literature as a subject, for others, it is a matter of having a degree, getting a good mark. Whether we like or not, they reduce the classroom life to marks, exams, to evaluation, classification at the end. It is reductive.

R: Speaking about marks, concerning your assessment methodology, are you the only one who assesses in class?

T: Yes, I decide about it very often.

R: Do learners control the way over they earn grades?

T: I can't allow that because everyone has his opinion, so, it is me who decides about the way to be assessed. Well, I do urge them to have their own self-assessment. It is part of their study skills. The problem is that the study of the module Study Skills in our department has been reduced to research methodology. It is a subject that is ill-thought, ill-percieived, it is about how to assess ourselves, to do research and study. Not only about a research paper, it is about life, students' life.

R: By the way, do you believe that grades are a sign of learning?

T: No, they are not but they are not also put at random. Sometimes, they can reflect, other times, they can't especially when there is a recurrence of good grades, it means...! When there is a recurrence of bad marks, it means...!

R: Do you integrate assessment with learning?

T: Well, assessment while learning is very hard especially with the number of students but it would be better if there is interaction because how can I assess? The more interaction there is in the classroom, the more I am predisposed to assess. But if students are passive, how can I assess them. I assess their participation, not their assimilation.

R: so, what do you assess n your learners?

T: I assess their participation because it mirrors their amount of reading.

R: Do you include real-life tasks in your class?

T: No, it is better if it is a group work but time; the first semester, exams, the second semester, Ramadhan... We should offer at least 14 courses per semester but very often, it is either 7 or 8. Time doesn't allow us to think of including real-life tasks.

R: To finish our interview, can you tell me about your satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the MD curriculum?

T: Honestly speaking, I am not fully satisfied. I am trying to improve it on my own, that is, I try to develop my methodology over again but as a system, I am not fully satisfied, there are problems: the number of students, pedagogical equipments. For the Master degree, for some teachers, it is too many students, for others (society, parents, Ministry and the administration), it is too little. We don't know what is wrong.

R: And since you were teaching in the old Classical System, can you compare between the two systems?

T: I am not sure whether we are implementing a new system, I think we are teaching the LMD system in the classical way, except for project marks. I don't think that there has been a great change; it is just a change of name but in reality, it is the same classroom. For me, classroom life is determined by the name of the syllabus, by content, by interaction. We care more about form and we neglect the most profound functions that should operate in the classroom. For me, it is not LMD or Classical. Teachers and learners are the agents of change.

R: By the way, do you think that out teachers are ready for change?

T: For the old teachers, I don't think they were ready but for the newly recruited teachers, I think that they can adapt. I think also, it depends on the responsibility, age, motivation, your future career, doctorate... Those who are on the verge of retirement; I don't think that they are willing to change. For those who start their career, they are fresh, they can... it depends on the psyche of the teacher himself. There are teachers who teach because they can't find any other job and I have experienced a teacher who for him, it was his last choice. He was reluctant.

R thanks the teacher for his valuable contribution and closes the conversation.

ملخص البحث

تهدف الدراسة إلى التعرف على مدى التغيير التربوي الحاصل نتيجة تطبيق نظام ل.م.د في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية لجامعة البليدة 2 للسنة الدراسية 2015-2016

لا يكون التغيير التربوي حقيقيا وعميقا إلا إذا مس الأبعاد الثلاثة التالية: 1- القناعات التربوية للأستاذة، 2- تبني طرائق تدريس جديدة و 3- استعمال وسائل تعليمية جديدة

من الناحية النظرية، يحدث نظام ل.م.د تغييرا بحيث تصبح القناعات التربوية للأستاذة منصبة أكثر حول المتعلم، كما أن أساليب التدريس والوصاية تكون متمركزة حول الطالب ومن المفروض على الأستاذ والطالب استغلال التكنولوجيات الحديثة في التعليم والتعلم

للتعرف على نوع التغيير الحاصل في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية لجامعة البليدة ٢، اعتمدنا الدمج بين طرق البحث الكمية و النوعية باستعمال وسائل البحث التالية: استبيان ومقابلة مع الأستاذة، استبيان لطلبة الماستر، مقابلة مع الأوصياء ومقابلة جماعية مع طلبة السنة الأولى ليسانس

وقد أسفرت نتائج الدراسة على طغيان القناعات التربوية المتمركزة حول الأستاذ رغم محاولة الأستاذة تطبيق أساليب تعليمية حديثة حسب ظروف التدريس. فيما يخص استعمال التكنولوجيات الحديثة داخل القسم فهي ضئيلة. أما الوصاية فتطبيقها منعدم تماما

كل هذه النتائج أكدت فرضية البحث وأجابت على أسئلته بحيث حجم التغيير لم يكن عميقا بل سطحيا. تستدعي هذه النتائج ضرورة تطوير حس الاجتهاد لدى الأستاذة و الأوصياء و لتحقيق ذلك اقترحنا إنشاء شبكات إلكترونية لطريقة لتحقيق الإصلاح من القاعدة. تعتمد هذه الطريقة على التفكير الذاتي للأستاذة و الأوصياء وتبادل خبراتهم حول إمكانية تطبيق منهاج ل.م.د على أرض الواقع

