



University of Algiers 2

Faculty of Foreign Languages

Department of English

**Evaluating the Competency-Based EFL
Teaching in the Algerian Secondary
School Textbooks and Syllabuses**

Dissertation Submitted in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree
of Doctorate-ES Sciences in English (Linguistics & Didactics)

Submitted by:

Mr. Slimane BOUKHENTACHE

Supervised by:

Prof: Fatiha HAMITOUCHE

Academic Year: 2018-2019

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the substance of this dissertation is entirely the result of my investigation and that due reference or acknowledgement is made, whenever necessary, to the work of other researchers.

I am duly informed that any person practicing plagiarism will be subject to disciplinary sanctions issued by university authorities under the rules and regulations in force.

Date: 20/06/2018

Signed: Slimane BOUKHENTACHE

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Dedication

I dedicate this work to the other person who is equally affected by its writing, my wife.

Abstract

The universal use of competency-based education (CBE) to reform educational syllabuses appears effective in many European and some African countries (Roegiers, 2010a), yet its implementation in the Algerian 2005 secondary school reform seems less successful (Miliani, n.d.). This study examines whether the Algerian secondary school English language syllabuses and textbooks actually apply competency-based teaching in two contextually different secondary schools (i.e. Slimani Slimane in Djelfa and Maouche Idriss in Bejaia). More specifically, it evaluates the use of the precepts of the pedagogy of integration in the syllabuses and textbooks. In so doing, the study identified the objectives of secondary school English language syllabuses and surveyed their attainment. Then, it explored the application of the principles of the pedagogy of integration in the syllabuses and textbooks. Finally, the major impediments to the achievement of the objectives of the syllabuses were examined. Four research tools (i.e. questionnaire, document analysis, classroom observation, and follow-up interview) were implemented with 115 students, 15 teachers, and 6 teacher inspectors, belonging to the aforementioned schools. The findings show that the English secondary school syllabuses and textbooks do not fulfill the expected standards. Second, while the syllabuses are approximately congruent with the pedagogy of integration, the textbooks seem less aligned with this active pedagogy. Third, students' lack of learning pre-requisites, overload of the syllabuses, and lack of adequate teacher training have been found problematic to the application of the pedagogy of integration in the abovementioned schools. A rationale for the design of competency-based syllabuses and textbooks is provided along with a unit sample. For instance, it is suggested stating explicitly the learning objectives in the syllabuses and the textbooks, indicating clearly the final competencies, and lowering the bar of learning standards. Consequently, the Algerian education authorities should make the textbooks and the syllabuses more aligned with the fundamental precepts of the pedagogy of integration and address adequately the aforesaid hurdles to reach the competency leaning targets.

Keywords: Competency, Competency-Based Approach (CBA), Competency-Based Education (CBE), integration, pedagogy of integration, Algerian school reform.

List of Abbreviations

- AEF:** Algerian English Framework
- AFD:** Agence Française de Développement (French Agency of Development)
- ALTE:** Association of Language Testers in Europe
- APL:** Adult Performance Level
- APLS:** Adult Performance Level Study
- BEST:** Basic English Skills Test
- BIE:** Bureau International de L'Éducation
- BIEF :** Bureau d'Ingénierie en Éducation et Formation
- BRP:** Banque de Ressources Pédagogiques
- CBA:** Competency-Based Approach
- CBAE:** Competency-Based Adult Education
- CBE:** Competency-Based Education
- CBI:** Competency-Based Instruction
- CBLT:** Competency-Based Language Teaching
- CEFR:** Common European Framework of Reference
- CLT:** Communicative Language Teaching
- CNP:** Commission Nationale des Programmes (National Commission for the Programmes).
- CRT:** Criterion-Referenced Testing
- EFL:** English as a Foreign Language
- ELT:** English Language Teaching
- ENT:** Environnement Numérique de Travail
- ESL:** English as a Second Language
- FAD:** Formation à Distance des Enseignants
- FL:** Foreign Language
- GSD :** Groupe Spécialisé des Disciplines (Specialised Group for Disciplines)
- HOTS:** Higher Order Thinking Skills
- ICT:** Information and Communication Technology
- INRE:** Institut National de Recherche en Éducation (National Institute for Education and Research)

IPN: Institut National de la Pédagogie (National Pedagogical Institute)

IRF: Initiation-Response-Feedback

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LMD: Licence, Master, Doctorat

LOTS: Lower Order Thinking Skills

MSA: Modern Standard Arabic

NCEST: National Council on Education Standards and Testing

NCLB: No Child Left Behind

NEPAD: New Partnership for African Development

NVQ: National Vocational Qualification

OCDE: L'Organisation de Coopération et de Développement Economique

OII: Objectif Intermediaire d'Intégration (Intermediary Objective of Integration, in English)

ONPS: Office National des Publications Scolaires (National Authority for School Publications)

OTI: Objectif Terminal d'Intégration (Terminal Objective of Integration, in English)

PARE: Programme of Support for the Reform of the Algerian Educational System

PBL: Project-Based Learning

PBTE: Performance-Based Teacher Education

PES: Professeur d'Enseignement Secondaire (Secondary School Teacher)

PPP (3Ps): Presentation, Practice, Production

SE1: First Year Secondary Education

SE2: Second Year Secondary Education

SE3: Third Year Secondary Education

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TBL: Task-Based Learning

TESOL: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

TIO: Terminal Objective of Integration

UCL: Université Catholique Louvain-la-Neuve (Catholic University of Louvain-la-Neuve)

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation

USAID: United States Agency for International Development

WIDA: World-class Instructional Design and Assessments

Table of Contents

	Pages
Declaration.....	iv
Acknowledgement.....	v
Dedication	vi
Abstract	vii
List of Abbreviations	Viii
Table of Contents.....	xi
List of Figures.....	xvi
List of Tables.....	xvii

General Introduction

1. Background of the Study	1
2. Research Problem	6
3. Purpose of the Study	8
4. Research Questions	9
5. Significance of the Study	10
6. Research Methodology	11
7. Organisation of the Study	12
8. Definition of Key Terms of the Study.....	13

Chapter 1: From Behavioural Objectives, to competency-Based Education, to Standards Movement

Introduction.....	15
1.1. Behavioural Objectives	16
1.1.1. Background of Behavioural Objectives	16
1.1.1.1. Behaviourist Psychology and Scientific Management.....	16
1.1.1.2. Bloom’s Taxonomy	18
1.1.2. Components of Behavioural Objectives	19
1.1.3. Criticism of Behavioural Objectives.....	21
1.1.4. Objectives Movement and Foreign Language Learning/Teaching	24
1.2. Competency-Based Education	25
1.2.1. On Competence	27
1.2.1.1. Role Competence	28
1.2.1.2. Functional Competence	28
1.2.2. Language Teaching/Learning and Competency-Based Education.....	30
1.2.2.1. History of Competency-Based Language Teaching	30
1.2.2.2. Definition of Competency-Based Language Teaching	31
1.2.2.3. Conception of Learning in Competency-Based Language Teaching	33
1.2.2.4. Assessment Procedures in Competency-Based Language Teaching	34
1.2.2.5. Theoretical Basis of Competency-Based Language Teaching	34
1.2.2.6. Major Tenets of Competency-Based Language Teaching	39
1.2.3. Criticism of Competency-Based Education	45
1.3. Beyond Competency-Based Education: Standards Movement	46
1.3.1. Standards Movement in the United States	47
1.3.1.1. Criticisms of the American Standards Movement	51
1.3.1.2. Standards Movement in English as a Second Language	52

1.3.2. The Common European Framework of Reference	53
1.3.2.1. Definition and History of the Common European Framework of Reference.....	54
1.3.2.2. Approach Adopted in Common European Framework of Reference.	56
1.3.2.3. Common Reference Level for Language Proficiency	57
1.3.2.4. Language Learning and Teaching	59
1.3.2.5. Language Assessment	59
1.3.2.6. Criticism of a Common European Framework of Reference	61
1.3.2.7. A Common European Framework of Reference Syllabus: Functional Notional Syllabus	61
1.3.2.10. Criticism of the Notional Syllabus	62
Conclusion	62
Chapter 2: From Competency-Based Education to Pedagogy of Integration	
Introduction	64
2.1. The Pedagogy of Integration	64
2.2. Background of the Pedagogy of Integration.....	64
2.2.1. An Alternate to Objectives Pedagogy	64
2.2.2. Operationalisation of Competency-Based Education	68
2.2.2.1. Situations-as-End Points	69
2.2.2.2. Continual and Regular Skill Integration	69
2.2.2.3. Maintenance of Objective-Based Approach at Early Stages	70
2.2.2.4. Use of a Class of Situations	71
2.3. Definition of the Pedagogy of Integration	71
2.4. Objectives of the Pedagogy of Integration	72
2.4.1. Learning Essentials for Practicality	72
2.4.2. Making Sense of the Learning Process	72
2.4.3. Certification through Complex Situations	73
2.5. Attributes of the Pedagogy of Integration.....	74
2.5.1. Efficiency	74
2.5.2. Equity	75
2.5.3. Contextualisation	77
2.6. Key Concepts the Pedagogy of Integration	78
2.6.1. Resources.....	78
2.6.2. Integration	81
2.6.3. Competence	83
2.6.4. Family of Situations	86
2.6.5. Terminal Objective of Integration	87
2.6.6. Competence and Performance	88
2.6.6.1. Anglo-Saxon View	89
2.6.6.2. Francophone View	90
2.6.7. Situations.....	91
2.6.7.1. Didactic Situations	92
2.6.7.2. Problem-Solving Tasks (Integration Situations)	93
2.6.7.3. Characteristics of Integration Situations	93
2.6.8. Project Work and Copybook of Integration.....	95
2.7. Conceptualisation of Learning in Integration Pedagogy	97

2.7.1. Practice of Resources	97
2.7.2. Integration Module	97
2.8. Assessment in the Pedagogy of Integration	99
2.8.1. Assessment through Complex Situations	99
2.8.2. Designing an Assessment Task	99
2.8.3. Characteristics of Assessment Situations	101
2.8.4. Correction of Complex Productions	104
2.8.4.1. Criteria of Assessment	105
2.8.4.2. Guidelines for the Choice of Assessment Criteria	105
2.8.4.3. Two Types of Criteria	106
2.8.4.4. The Rule of Two out of Three	106
2.8.4.5. Indicators	106
2.8.5. Assessment of Resources	107
2.9. Evaluations of the Pedagogy of Integration	107
2.10. Criticism of Integration Pedagogy	108
Conclusion.....	109

Chapter 3: School Reform and Issues of Curriculum Design and Competency-Based Education

Introduction	111
3.1. History of Educational Reforms in Algeria	111
3.1.1. The French Colonial Era	111
3.1.2. Post-Independence Era	112
3.1.2.1. The First Education Project (1962).....	112
3.1.2.2. The Second Educational Project (1970s).....	114
3.1.3. Postmodern Era: School Reform (2002).....	117
3.2. Teaching of English in Algeria from 1962 to 2002	119
3.3. The Technical Support for the School Reform	123
3.4. National Commission for the Reform of the Educational System	123
3.5. Information and Communication Technologies	124
3.6. Physical Restructuring of School	125
3.6.1. Introduction Pre-schooling	125
3.6.2. Integration of Tamazight into the Educational System	126
3.6.3. Creation of Private Schools	126
3.6.4. Strong Bilingualism	127
3.7. Methodological Assistance: Competency-Based Education.....	128
3.8. Curriculum	131
3.8.1. Algerian School Curriculum	133
3.8.2. Algerian English Language Curriculum	136
3.8.3. Syllabus	139
3.8.3.1. Types of Syllabuses	140
3.8.3.2. Algerian English Language Syllabuses	141
3.8.3.3. Algerian English Competency-Based Syllabuses	143
3.8.3.4. Preliminary Evaluation of the Algerian Syllabuses	145
3.8.4. Textbooks	145
3.8.4.1. Elaboration of Textbooks	146
3.8.4.2. Secondary School English Language Textbooks	146

3.8.4.3. Preliminary Evaluation of Secondary School English Textbooks.....	149
3.9. Conclusion	150
Chapter 4: Research Methodology and Findings of Document Analysis	
Introduction.....	152
4.1. Research Methodology	152
4.1.1. Setting	152
4.1.2. Population and Sampling	154
4.1.2.1. Learners	155
4.1.2.2. Teachers	156
4.1.2.3. Inspectors	156
4.1.3. Research Paradigm	157
4.1.4. Type of Study: Programme Evaluation.....	159
4.1.4.1. Definition of Programme Evaluation	159
4.1.4.2. Aspects of Programme Evaluation	160
4.1.4.3. Principles Underlying the Current Programme Evaluation	161
4.1.4.4. Programme Evaluation and Hypotheses.....	162
4.1.5. Preliminary Work and Pilot Study	164
4.1.6. Research Instruments and Procedures of Data Collection and Analysis....	166
4.1.6.1. Document Analysis	167
4.1.6.2. Questionnaire	171
4.1.6.3. Classroom Observation	175
4.1.6.4. Follow-up Interview.....	178
4.1.7. Limitations of the Study	181
4.2. Findings of Document Analysis	182
4.2.1. Results from Textbooks Analyses.....	182
4.2.2. Results from Syllabuses Analyses	189
4.2.3. Results from Analysis of the BAC Test	196
4.2.3.1. Measurement of Resources and Competencies	196
4.2.3.2. Rule of Two Thirds	197
4.2.3.3. Multifaceted Format of Assessment Test	198
4.2.3.4. Meaningfulness of the task.....	199
4.2.3.5. Complexity of the Task (integration)	199
4.2.3.6. Use of the Rule of Three out of Four	199
Conclusion.....	200
Chapter 5: Analysis of Results from Questionnaire and Classroom Observation	
Introduction.....	202
5.1. Analysis of the Questionnaires.....	202
5.1.1. Results from Teacher Questionnaire	202
5.1.2. Results from Students Questionnaire	215
5.1.3. Results from Inspector Questionnaire	223
5.1.4. Global Comparison of the Questionnaires Findings	238
5.2. Classroom Observation.....	239
5.4. Conclusion	248
Chapter 6: Data Interpretation	
Introduction	249

6.1. Secondary School English Learning Objectives.....	249
6.2. Attainment of Secondary School English Language Objectives	250
6.3. The Major Hurdles for a Successful Pedagogy of Integration.....	250
6.4. Competency Orientation of the Syllabuses and Textbooks.....	253
6.5. Recommendations for Competency-Based Syllabuses and Textbooks	278
6.6. Conclusion	292
General Conclusion	294
 Bibliography.....	 299
 Appendices	 319

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: <i>Bloom's taxonomy</i>	19
Figure 2.1: <i>Family of situations</i>	86
Figure 2.2: <i>Progressive integration</i>	98
Figure 2.3: <i>Integration module</i>	98
Figure 2.4: <i>Place of feedback in integration</i>	98
Figure 3.1: <i>Map of At the Crossroads</i>	148
Figure 3.2: <i>Map of Getting through</i>	148
Figure 3.3: <i>Map of New Prospects</i>	149
Figure 4.2: <i>A Comparison between the BAC test and a competency test</i>	197
Figure 5.1: <i>Teachers' evaluation of competency-based extent of Algerian secondary school English programmes</i>	238
Figure 5.2: <i>Learners Evaluation of Competency Component of Algerian Secondary School English Programmes</i>	238
Figure 5.3: <i>Inspectors' evaluation of competency component of Algerian secondary school EFL programmes</i>	239
Figure 6.1: <i>Competency-based appropriateness of the BAC test items</i>	274
Figure 6.2: <i>Emergence of learning targets in the first year textbook</i>	280
Figure 6.3: <i>Competency-based diary</i>	285
Figure 6.4: <i>Peer-assessment grid</i>	290

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Common Reference Level: Global Scale	57
Table 1.2: Other Names for Level of CEFR	59
Table 2.1: Examples of Situations	93
Table 3.1: Stages of Decision-Making Roles and Products in the Algerian National Curriculum	135
Table 3.2: Algerian English framework of reference	144
Table 4.1: Sampled Population	155
Table 5.1: Teachers' Academic Background	202
Table 5.2: Teachers' Professional Training	203
Table 5.3: Place and Topics of Teacher Training about CBE	203
Table 5.4: Teachers' Evaluation of Students' Achievements	204
Table 5.5: Teachers' Reported of Non-Achievement Target Competencies.....	204
Table 5.6: Teachers' Objectives for Teaching English	205
Table 5.7: Teachers' Statement of Learning Objectives for Each Lesson	205
Table 5.8: Teachers' Evaluation of their Use of Individual and Group Activities	206
Table 5.9: Teachers' Evaluation of their Use of Critical Thinking.....	206
Table 5.10: Teachers' View about the Inclusion of Integration Situations in the Textbooks.....	206
Table 5.11: Teachers' Evaluation of their Use of Remedial Activities	207
Table 5.12: Teachers' Evaluation of the Extra Textbook Activities.....	207
Table 5.13: Teachers' Evaluation of their Use of Assessment Procedures	207
Table 5.14: Teachers' Evaluation of their Use of Active Pedagogy	208
Table 5.15: Teachers' Evaluation of their Use of Class of Situations	208
Table 5.16: Teachers' View about the Focus of the Textbooks.....	208
Table 5.17: Teachers' Design of Integration Situations	209
Table 5.18: Teachers' Reasons for Non-Design of Integration Situations	209
Table 5.19: Teachers' View about the Convergence of Unit Activities to a Single Objective.....	209
Table 5.20: Teachers' Evaluation of their Use of ICTs in Class	210
Table 5.21: Teachers' Evaluation of Meaningfulness of Textbook Activities.....	210
Table 5.22: Teachers' Opinion on the Contribution of Project Work to the Learning Process.....	210
Table 5.23: Teachers' View on the Usefulness of Teacher's Books	211
Table 5.24: Teachers' Familiarity with the Syllabuses	211
Table 5.25: Teachers' View about the Helpfulness of the syllabuses	211
Table 5.26: Teachers' View about the Specification of Competencies in the Syllabuses.....	212
Table 5.27: Teachers' Evaluation of Project Guidance in Syllabuses	212
Table 5.28: Teachers' View about Explanation of Competencies in the Syllabuses	212
Table 5.29: Teachers' View about the Helpfulness of Syllabuses for Assessment	213
Table 5.30: Teachers' Suggestions for Making the Syllabuses and Textbooks More Competency-Based.....	214

Table 5.31: Students' Extra School Courses	215
Table 5.32: Students' Evaluation of their Attainment of Learning Objectives ...	216
Table 5.33: Students' Justifications for Non-Achievement of Learning Objectives	216
Table 5.34: Students' Objectives for Learning English	217
Table 5.35: Students' Evaluation of Statement of Learning Objectives.....	218
Table 5.36: Students' Evaluation of Use of Individual and Grouping Activities....	218
Table 5.37: Students' Evaluation of their Use of Critical Thinking	218
Table 5.38: Students' Evaluation of Methods of Assessment	219
Table 5.39: Students' Evaluation their Active Agency	219
Table 5.40: Students' Evaluations of Use of Remedial Activities.....	219
Table 5.41: Students' Opinion on Inclusion of Integration Situations in Textbooks	220
Table 5.42: Students' Use of a Class of Situations.....	220
Table 5.43: Students' Evaluation of Use of ICTs in Classroom	220
Table 5.44: Students' Evaluation of Meaningfulness of Activities.....	221
Table 5.45: Students' Opinion on the Contribution of Project Work to Learning.	221
Table 5.46: Students' Suggestions for Making their Classes More Active	222
Table 5.47: Inspectors' Academic Background	223
Table 5.48: Inspectors' Professional Experience	223
Table 5.49: Inspectors' Training about Competency-Based Approach	224
Table 5.50: Inspectors' Professional Training Programme	224
Table 5.51: Inspectors' District Seminars	225
Table 5.52: Topics of Inspectors' District Seminars	225
Table 5.53: Inspectors' Evaluation of Students' Achievements.....	226
Table 5.54: Inspectors' Justifications for Students' Non-Achievement of Standards.....	227
Table 5.55: Inspectors' Objectives for Teaching English.....	229
Table 5.56: Inspector's Evaluation of the Teachers' Statement of Objectives.....	229
Table 5.57: Inspectors' Opinion on the Teachers' Use of Individual and Grouping Activities.....	230
Table 5.58: Inspectors' View on the Teachers' Use of Critical Thinking	230
Table 5.59: Inspectors' Evaluation of the Teachers' Use of Assessment	230
Table 5.60: Inspectors' Evaluation of Use Active Pedagogy	231
Table 5.61: Inspectors' Evaluation of the Teachers' Use of Class of Situations ...	231
Table 5.62: Inspectors' Evaluation of Teachers' Use of Remedial Activities.....	231
Table 5.63: Inspector's View about the Focus of Textbooks	232
Table 5.64: Inspectors' View about Inclusion of Integration Situations in Textbooks.....	232
Table 5.65: Inspectors' Evaluation of Layout of Units of Instructions	232
Table 5.66: Inspectors' Evaluation of Teachers' Use of Information and Communication Technology	233
Table 5.67: Inspectors' Attitudes towards Meaningfulness of Textbook Activities	233
Table 5.68: Inspector's View about Efficiency of Project Work.....	233
Table 5.69: Inspectors' Perceptions of Helpfulness of Teachers' Books	234
Table 5.70: Inspectors' Familiarity with Syllabuses	234

Table 5.71: Inspectors' Opinion on Helpfulness of Syllabuses..	234
Table 5.72: Inspectors' Evaluation of Syllabuses Specification of Competencies..	235
Table 5.73: Inspectors' Opinion on syllabuses Explanations about Project Work..	235
Table 5.74: Inspectors' View on Syllabuses Explanations of Competencies	236
Table 5.75: Inspectors' Evaluation of Syllabuses explanations of Assessment ...	236
Table 5.76: Inspectors' Proposals for Making Syllabuses and Textbooks more Competency-Based	237
Table 5.77: Unit Opening Observations	240
Table 5.78: Target Situation Observations	242
Table 5.79: Observations of Teaching of Resources	244
Table 5.80: Observations of Closure of Unit	246
Table 6.1: Assessment of Language Complex Tasks	276

General Introduction

General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

In 2005, the Algerian educational authorities introduced competency-based education (CBE) as a major methodological innovation to reform the old secondary school syllabuses and textbooks. CBE seems to have been selected for its popularity as a pedagogical instrument for making schools more active and focused on competency-getting. In fact, CBE is a mainstream teaching/learning paradigm which developed in USA in the late 1960s and the early 1970s. It focuses on teaching functional skills (such as problem-solving, computation, and interpersonal relations) which are embedded in the contents of the subject matters.

This Algerian competency-based reform intervened at the time when the old school syllabuses and textbooks, which were waiting for a radical reform since the 1990s (Tawil, 2005), needed to be updated in a way to take into account the use of information and communication technologies (ICTs), practice of life skills, and intercultural values (e.g., respect, empathy, and tolerance). Besides, the old objective-based approach applied in the Algerian schools since the 1980s seemed inadequate for implementing modern teaching contents such as attitudes, research skills, critical thinking, and problem-solving.

CBE has been applied earlier in many other countries before its implementation in the context of the Algerian School Reform. As early as the 1970s and 1980s, countries such as the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, Australia, France, Switzerland, and Belgium implemented CBE to reform their schools. Likewise, since the 1990s and the turn of the 21st century, several African countries (such as Benin, Mauritania, Djibouti, Gabon, Rwanda, Madagascar, Tunisia, and Morocco) have espoused and applied enthusiastically this teaching/learning approach.

Apart from addressing the inadequacies of the objective-based pedagogy, these African countries have adhered to this promising instructional paradigm to prepare competent workforce for the job market, and thus incorporate new components such as the teaching of values of modernity (e.g. openness and tolerance) and the use of

information and communication technologies (ICTs) into their curricular frameworks. CBE seems more congruent with the new societal and educational demands than its antecedent pedagogy (i.e. objective-based pedagogy) because it opens venues for the use of new technologies and, above all, permits forming citizens for the tasks they will do outside the school.

Additionally, CBE supports democratic learning in that it offers equal opportunities for students regardless of their different learning or social backgrounds. Beckers, Crinon, and Simons (2012) have pointed out that CBE attempts to teach all students ambitious problem-solving tasks and targets higher order cognitive skills through a focus on the quality of teaching (e.g. through explicit objectives and individualisation of instruction-pp.13-14). Accordingly, such a system of teaching/learning could benefit even students from underprivileged social backgrounds. The focus on mastery learning equally guarantees an equitable system where all students work towards mastery (that is, all students reach mastery at their own pace of learning).

The first results from the applications of CBE in various African countries such as Madagascar have shown significant gains in the mastery of school contents. Rajonhson and his colleagues (2005) have claimed in their Madagascan experimental study that CBE has procured significant improvement in equity and effectiveness (p. 8). Likewise, Roegiers (2010a) has reported that CBE has shown to be effective in other African countries such as Rwanda and the Comorian Islands where attendance rate has increased significantly; additionally, in Morocco, this new teaching paradigm has grabbed students from private schools (p. 105). Moreover, dissemination of CBE at national wide school systems in Djibouti and Gabon has indicated empirically important increases in success rates and equity of gains among students (Roegiers, 2010a, pp. 102-103). Furthermore, Didiye et al. (2005) have affirmed in another systematic study that CBE in Mauritania has outdone the old teaching approach in terms of acquisition of knowledge and problem-solving skills (p. 11).

However, despite these empirical and international positive evaluations, satisfaction with the application of CBE is not universal. 14 years after the inception of this approach in the Algerian curricula at all levels of the educational system,

educational authorities themselves have started repackaging the School Reform because of its perceived failures. In fact, many Algerian scholars (Miliani, Imerzoukéne, 2009; and Benadala 2012) showed that the implementation of CBE in the Algerian secondary school English language classes faces many challenges in achieving its learning targets. This has led us to ask whether this competency teaching approach that has succeeded elsewhere is failing in Algeria context.

So far, we have talked of CBE as one single approach, yet this educational movement has many realisations. It is worth noting here that the competency-based curriculum applied in most African countries and equally in Algeria is a distinct realisation of the broad American competency-based movement (Boukhentache, 2016). It is termed the *pedagogy of integration*. The latter is a sub-composite of CBE that equally teaches competencies, but it uses different syllabus specifications such as integration situations, integration module, and family of situations. The concept of integration situations refers to the application of the newly-acquired knowledge and skills in a complex task after, for instance, three weeks of ordinary teaching. With regard to the integration module, it is a blocked week in which the students are given only integration tasks to practice after 7 or 8 weeks of teaching. Concerning the notion of the family of situations, it is a group of integrative tasks that belong to one competency that are applied at the end of a sequence or unit or year of instruction to test whether the pupil could solve a problem in different contexts.

Moreover, this version of CBE has distinct teaching guidelines that make it different from CBE in its strict sense. For example, it uses intermediary integration situation after three to four weeks of teaching; that is, unlike CBE, the pedagogy of integration allows the learners to practice the skill of integration before acquiring all the elements of the target task (i.e. the task or the competency being taught for learners). Additionally, this instructional approach allows teachers to use their own teaching style for implementing competencies.

A leading advocate of this instructional approach, Roegiers (2010a), has rightly warned against the misconception of regarding the pedagogy of integration as synonymous with CBE (p. 111). Actually, he has claimed that the pedagogy of integration constitutes a radical shift in the conceptualisation of learning as compared

to the Anglo-Saxon competency-based approaches such interdisciplinary or standards competency-focused approaches (Roegiers, 2011, p. 15).

Unfortunately, curricular designers, textbook writers, teachers, and even scholars (e.g. Aouine, 2011; Chelli, 2010; Bacher, 2013) in the Algerian context tend to obliterate the difference between CBE and the pedagogy of integration. Consequently, such studies that have worked on the evaluation of competency-based approach (CBA) in Algeria might suffer from the validity issue. For instance, there is no reference in the aforementioned studies even to the fundamental concepts of the pedagogy of integration such as integration situations, class of situations, and terminal objective of integration (OTI)¹. The fact of the matter is that syllabus designers and textbook users should obey to the guidelines set up in the pedagogy of integration for a proper application of this CBE model. Similarly, the evaluative studies that deal with CBE in the Algerian context should use the curricular framework set up in the pedagogy of integration, rather than rely on or interconnect it indiscriminately with the Anglo-Saxon model of competency.

Another difficulty that could hamper the effective application of the pedagogy of integration, in Roegiers (2010a) view, is a partial application of the principles of the pedagogy of integration (p. 112). Accordingly, a myriad of factors could impede its strict or acceptable implementation. Among these factors are political factors, economic factors, scientific factors, human factors, and organisation factors. For instance, and more specifically, opposing tendencies within a ministry of education, lack of didactic materials, and deficiency in teacher training might distort the intents outlined initially in a school reform.

The pedagogy of integration constitutes an entirely new paradigm to instruction, and it is distinguishable from the variants of competency-based education (such as standards-based approach applied in Anglo-Saxon settings), though it also contains the teaching of competencies. From competency-based perspectives, much like the other variants of competency-based curricula (e.g. standards movement), it involves new components and novel teaching systems such as life-skills and attitudes, functional

¹ The French abbreviation of the concept of terminal objective of integration. It stands for Objectif Terminal d'Intégration

grammar, and criterion-based assessment. Distinctly, this pedagogy involves defining the student exit profile in terms of a class of situation, focusing on integration skills, and using intermediary integration situations.

The Algerian secondary school English language syllabuses set up for their competency-based approach ambitious aims that reflect the requirements of modern societies. They target (1) integrating learners harmoniously into modernity; (2) using English functionally; (3) learning to share and cooperate; (4) accessing modern sciences, technologies, and foreign cultures; (5) promoting critical thinking, tolerance, and openness; (6) inculcating national values; (7) equipping learners with the necessary tools to pursue their studies; (8) promoting autonomy, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation skills; and (9) exploiting the documents that the learners will need in their university courses or professional careers (SE1 Syllabus, 2005, pp. 4-6). All these objectives are in line with competency-based teaching.

As far as the competency-based approach chosen for substantiating the above educational purposes, the preliminary review of the English language syllabus documents showed that it is the pedagogy of integration, and this label appears explicitly in the syllabuses (SE2 Syllabus, 2006, SE3 Syllabus, 2007). Besides, the terminology used for defining the learning objectives and processes (e.g. OTI and OII²) is reflective of this form of instruction than any other realisations of competency-based teaching. All this jargon and methodology of learning/teaching are distinctive features of the pedagogy of integration.

Consequently, since the competency-based model applied in the Algerian syllabuses and textbooks is the pedagogy of integration, these syllabuses and course books should exhibit the driving principles of this particular instructional paradigm, and not an amalgam of competency-focused precepts. In order to give justice to the competency-based system applied in Algerian secondary school English language classes and to make value judgments on its effectiveness and efficiency, it should be examined through the set of teaching guidelines and principles it purports to use to come to fruition.

² French abbreviation of the concept of intermediary objective of integration. It stands for Objectif Terminal d'Intégration.

Despite the interest in the Algerian competency-based School Reform, no study to the best of the researcher's knowledge has evaluated either partially or fully the Algerian English language syllabuses or textbooks from the standpoint of the pedagogy of integration. For instance, Aouine's (2011) study has evaluated, among other topics, the place of assessment in the secondary school textbooks with no reference to the pedagogy of integration; similarly, Bacher (2013) has explored teachers' attitudes towards textbook design and writing with clear reference to an interdisciplinary CBE. A further study by Chelli (2012) has explored the benefits of writing under the competency-based approach, but again indication is made to the Anglo-Saxon model.

Therefore, this study taps at this gap that has marked the Algerian competency-based literature. It intends to explore mainly whether the Algerian secondary school English language syllabuses and textbooks implement acceptably the principles of the pedagogy of integration.

For the sake of this study, the pedagogy of integration is defined as another distinct composite of the broad competency-based teaching approach that interprets competency-based principles in a different way incorporating specific teaching guidelines. A more elaborate definition will be worked out in the review of the literature.

2. Research Problem

CBE, at last as it is presented in the literature, involves a complete paradigm shift in the design of syllabuses and textbooks; yet, this change is not always concretely achieved. Firstly, with regard to syllabus specification, it has been noticed elsewhere (e.g., Australia) that competency-based teaching is only partially implemented. Some important components (such as assessment and survival skills) of competency-based instruction are sometimes downplayed. By way of example, Grove (2008) has raised the issue of syllabus designers' disengagement from the task of assessment in the design of English second language (ESL) competency-based teaching syllabuses. This might have negative consequences on the efficiency of these syllabuses. He has questioned the validity of the assessment tasks designed and implemented by teachers and urged syllabus designers to fully take the responsibility of assessment by

providing teachers with sample tasks and explicitly specifying the criteria for task assessment.

From the researcher's professional experience as a secondary school teacher who operated under competency-based teaching for more than 8 years and his experience as Magister student who investigated project work in the Algerian competency-based context, it seems, firstly that syllabus designers have been selective and reluctant to fully implement a competency-based pedagogy. They appear to be more inclined towards teaching and assessing subject content at the expense of real-world competencies. However, although these impressionistic remarks have been supported by other writers (e.g. Roegiers, 2006a), they need to be submitted to a systematic investigation in the view of supporting or refuting them.

Throughout this study, the term syllabus is used in accordance to the Algerian context in which the study is conducted to refer to the following specification; learning objectives, content, methodology, assessment methods, and materials and media; it is used distinguishably from the term curriculum, which denotes a broader framework including planning, implementation, and evaluation.

Secondly, as far as the role of the textbook in a competency-based framework is concerned, a dysfunctional textbook might jeopardise the syllabus agenda. Unfortunately, it has been noticed especially in English foreign language (EFL) contexts that instead of scaffolding teachers to carry out innovative pedagogies, textbooks rather reinforce and revitalise traditional and more familiar teaching practices. In fact, textbooks, which are far removed from a performance-based pedagogy, encourage teachers' resumption of old objective-and time-based teaching methods. For instance in Indonesia, Marcellino (2005) has reported that the textbooks do not fully substantiate the competency-based language teaching (CBLT) requirements in that they do not offer opportunities for assessing competencies and they do not include life tasks; also, he has indicated the conspicuous absence of clear national standards for assessment known to all stakeholders.

Similarly, in Benin, Hounkpe (2015) has reported that competency-based teachers are only supported with poor syllabus documents which lack uniformity and clear specification of the kind of competencies the students should learn (p. 151).

Furthermore, in the Algerian context, according to Bacher (2013), the way textbooks themselves are written affect the teacher's professional attitude (p. VII).

The textbook is actually one of the key interventions that could make a school reform successful (Tawil, 2005, p. 36). Given the importance of this document, if a textbook does not clearly define the kind of competencies targeted in the syllabus, if it does not outline effectively the teaching of competencies, and if it does not support the teachers to comply with the new requirement of the new pedagogical norms, the new educational approach might fail easily in completing its objectives. According to Gerard and Roegiers (1997), many so-called competency textbooks are still operating at the level of knowledge transmission, failing to take the fundamental function of integration (p. 11).

Consequently, these personal anecdotal observations and reports derived from the review of the literature with regard to the variables of the syllabus and textbooks require to be submitted to a scientific investigation in order to establish empirically whether these documents are indeed problematic in achieving the target competencies set up in the syllabuses.

3. Purpose of the Study

This study mainly examines the competency-based extent of the Algerian EFL syllabuses and textbooks in two secondary schools, namely, Maouche Idriss (in Bejaia) and Slimani Slimane (in djelfa). The aim is to view CBE in its various versions as an approach that focuses on the teaching of competencies, and thereby should depart from traditional content-and linguistic-driven teaching paradigms. It is widely held that CBE sets off from the analysis of real-world tasks that are reconstructed into teaching units and assessable standards (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 147). Learners learn for and advance upon mastery at their own pace, practise only the content that is of interest to them, and above all transfer competency to similar real- life contexts. It is these characteristics that make CBE an enviable and a prominent approach to syllabus and textbook design. Unless these fundamental underpinnings are demonstrated in syllabus and textbook documents and in actual classroom routines, the competency learning objectives might not be reached.

Additionally, this study considers the application of the pedagogy of integration as requiring the inclusion of a number of syllabus and textbook specifications such as the concepts of integration module, resources, and integration situations, which constitute its distinctive features in comparison to CBE in general (Roegiers, 2001, 2003, 2010a, 2018).

4. Research Questions

As mentioned above, the pedagogy of integration should be properly embraced to guarantee its efficiency; or, at least, there are certain principles which could not be left out merely because they are foundation stones of competency-based practices; thus, their status is non-negotiable. Chief among these principles are work on complex tasks, precise designation of the student entry and exit profiles, integration work, and competency assessment. This study attempts to test whether the secondary school teaching textbooks and syllabuses apply these fundamental principles of the pedagogy of integration in Maouche Idriss and Slimani slimane Schools. Accordingly, it poses the following research questions:

1. To what extent are the existing secondary school English language syllabuses based on the pedagogy of integration?
2. To what extent are secondary school English language textbooks based on the pedagogy of integration?

Apart from these main research questions, three more secondary research questions are used to support the primary research questions. It is deemed appropriate to identify the objectives of the textbooks and the syllabuses and examine whether these documents, as they stand, achieve these objectives. Thus, the following questions are applied:

3. What are the objectives of English language learning/teaching in the Algerian secondary school syllabuses and textbooks and in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary schools?
4. Do the secondary school Algerian EFL syllabuses and textbooks meet these objectives in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane schools?

Furthermore, if it appears that the English language syllabuses and textbooks fail to achieve their objectives, the researcher will turn to investigate the hurdles that might impede a correct application of the pedagogy of integration in the Algerian context through the following fifth question:

5. What are the hurdles that might impede the application of the principles of the pedagogy of integration in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary schools?

Finally, in case the existing Algerian EFL secondary school textbooks and syllabuses are found defective in achieving their learning targets in the aforementioned schools and on the basis of the information that might be derived from the investigation of the hurdles that could impede a proper application of the pedagogy of integration in the target English language classes, the research would attempt to come up with a contextually relevant rationale for designing more competency-based syllabuses and textbooks and supply its unit sample.

5. Significance of the Study

This work might be significant in a number of ways. Firstly, it hopes to add to CBLT literature by expanding our understanding of the basic requirements of competency-based textbooks and syllabuses. It attempts to unveil how competency-based principles are translated and substantiated in language teaching syllabuses and textbooks. For instance, it endeavours to find out how communicative functions are translated into competencies and tied up to real-world contexts. This might be shown by designing a sample competency unit that would substantiate the fundamental precepts of the pedagogy of integration.

Secondly, this study can be relevant because it may throw light on the major hurdles in applying competency-based component in the Algerian EFL setting. Many previous research studies in the Algerian learning/teaching context have raised the problems of large classes, lack of technological means, lack of teacher training, and students' low level of proficiency in English (Ameziane & Guendouzi, 2005; Boudouda & Khelkhal, 2012; Bouhentache, 2012; Chelli & Khouni, 2014). Apart from these widely cited hurdles, this study could unveil more problematic factors especially

in relation to the textbooks and the syllabuses, and consequently address them adequately in the design of these curricular documents.

Thirdly, the fact that the researcher has a reasonable mastery of French in addition to English could make the study significant in attempting to reconcile the Anglo-Saxon competency-based model with Francophone model to establish a more comprehensive competency-based framework that would enlighten syllabus and textbook designers. A review of competency-based literature in both English and French languages has shown that the English-speaking version of competency is different from the French-speaking competency model. Actually, the pedagogy of integration retains the word competency because, according to Roegiers (2010a, p. 178), it is the only way to teach real-world skills; otherwise, the methodology of teaching is significantly different. Hence, this study tries to throw light on the major differences between the pedagogy of integration and CBE in general.

Finally, the current study could be significant because it seeks to establish a contextually relevant rationale for the design of more competency-based language teaching syllabuses and textbooks for Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary school EFL classes. By investigating the potential hurdles to the application of genuine competency-based syllabuses and textbooks from various educational parties (e.g. students, teachers, and inspectors) perspectives and considering their suggestions, the researcher might be in a well-informed position to suggest alternatives to overcome the possible weaknesses of the existing competency-based model and its potential shortcomings in applying it in the aforesaid schools.

6. Research Methodology

The current study is a programme evaluation that primarily investigates the application of the competency component in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary school textbooks and syllabuses. It uses four research tools to answer the research questions (i.e. Document analysis, questionnaire, classroom observation, and follow-up interview). Document analysis is of primary importance; it will be applied to identify the objectives for teaching English in the Algerian EFL secondary school syllabuses and textbooks, as well as in the aforementioned schools; determine the competency-based extent of the secondary school syllabuses and textbooks; and

analyse the BAC test. In order to evaluate the textbooks and syllabuses, as well as the BAC test from the competency-based perspectives, evaluative checklists will be designed and applied to these documents.

Document analysis will be supported with three close-ended questionnaires and classroom observation. The first questionnaire will be addressed to 115 students in the target secondary schools (Maouche Idriss secondary school in Bejaia and Slimani Slimane secondary school in Djelfa), which belong to different socio-economic contexts and geographical locations. The second questionnaire will concern 15 teachers working in the aforesaid lycées. The third questionnaire will be submitted to 6 inspectors of English in charge of supervision of teaching in these target districts and in other districts of Algeria. These survey questionnaires will be basically used to crosscheck the results that are to be gathered from document analysis as regard to the syllabuses and textbooks alignment with CBE's principles; they will equally endeavour to determine the achievement of the objectives of the syllabuses and to investigate the potential classroom hurdles to the application of a genuine competency-based pedagogy.

As for classroom observation, it will be employed to explore how the textbook and syllabus recommendations are interpreted in practice and unveil potential hurdles to their implementations. 4 sessions, representing key steps in the implementation of the pedagogy of integration, will be observed in each of the target schools.

Finally, an interview will be conducted with the teachers to elaborate more on the questions that could come up from the implementation of the closed-ended questionnaires. Hopefully, the study will formulate a rationale for designing a competency-based unit sample, which would enhance competency-based practices in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary school EFL settings.

7. Organisation of the Study

Apart from the general introduction, which sets the context of this study, this thesis includes six chapters and a general conclusion. The chapters of the review of the literature are ordered following a chronological and spatial model of discourse structure. They trace the development of CBE since its appearance in the United States until its proliferation to Europe and to Africa. The first chapter will give an overview

of developments of CBE in its various forms over a period of a century. The core argument to be developed in this basic chapter is that CBE started in a form of behavioural objectives in the early decades of the 20th century, acquired its fundamental form in the 1960s and 1970s, and finally broadened in its conception in the most recent model (i.e. the standards movement). The second chapter will take up again the developments of CBE in Europe, particularly in Belgium. It will be argued that attempts have been made to operationalise CBE through a new competency-based model—namely, the pedagogy of integration. The latter is competency-based, but it adopts a more concrete and doable methodology to the teaching of competencies. The third and last chapter in the review of the literature will look at the context in which CBE has been implemented in Algeria and explain questions of curricula, syllabuses, and textbooks, which constitute the focal points of this research work.

The practical part will equally include three chapters (chapters 4-6). The fourth chapter is divided into two main sections; the methodology of research and document analysis. The methodology section will present and defend the research design that is to be implemented to investigate the topic at hand. It will include the population, setting, research tools, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures, and limitations of the study. The second section of this chapter will start the analysis of the results through the examination of findings to be obtained from document analysis grids. The subsequent chapter will take up data analysis through the presentation and analysis of the findings that are to be produced from the execution of the questionnaires and classroom observation grids. The last chapter will interpret the most significant findings stemming from data analysis and place them in their context in relation to the review of the literature. Finally, the general conclusion will sum up the major milestones in the whole research process and briefly present the most significant outcomes of the study.

8. Definition of Key Terms of the Study

CBA: Competency-based approach is a common label of competency-based teaching used in the Francophone literature. It is used interchangeably in this study with the terms CBE and CBI (competency-based instruction).

CBE: Competency-based education refers to the competency-based movement in general, which includes various composites. It is a term commonly used in the Anglo-Saxon literature.

CBLT: Competency-based language teaching refers to the application of competency-based principles to language teaching.

Competence and Competency: These terms are used interchangeably in this study to refer to the individual's capacity to combine and reuse knowledge, skills, and attitudes in a given task.

Pedagogy of Integration: The pedagogy of integration refers to a Francophone version of competency-based teaching, mainly associated with the Belgian competency-based movement.

Chapter 1: From Behavioural Objectives, to Competency-Based Education, to Standards Movement

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Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present CBE in its proper context and throw light on its nature. Because of the strong rhetoric that advocates the use of CBE and the ongoing controversy on its applicability and utility, people might think that it is an entirely new approach that proposes a panacea for schools' and societies' ills. The reality is that this instructional approach has been around for more than one century, and it has existed in various forms. However, the uniqueness and constant manifestations of this approach lie in its flexibility, adaptability, and dynamism. It has been first applied in a form of specific objectives, then in a form of competencies, and finally, in a form of standards; this without enumerating its sub-realizations at each stage.

This chapter shows mainly that CBE is in constant change. The concept of competency is evolving and assuming different meanings, arguably, to disentangle it from its behavioural orientation and respond to the requirements of modern times. Each time this perennial pedagogy is criticised, it takes a new form to respond to novel demands and address its weaknesses.

The first section of this chapter discusses the objectives movement that has set up a scientific managing of learning objectives and unwittingly a strong basis for CBE. The objectives movement had dominated complacently education through its revolutionary approach to formulating precise educational objectives and designing coherent curricula. These strong points have unquestionably hidden its glaring weaknesses and left adversaries incapable of suggesting a stronger model.

The second section shows how the objectives movement has been transformed into a competency-based model, despite its existence and advocacy in new modified forms. The third section, again, accounts on how competency or objectives have been transformed into standards syllabuses. It is mainly argued throughout that the constant changes in CBE are a response to criticisms of its behavioural orientation, which, at the same time, constitutes its strong asset; and it is equally shown that its maintenance

is mainly due to the support and mandate it receives from educational policy-makers and business and army leaders.

1.1. Behavioural Objectives

Behavioural objectives are set up within a movement of rationality (rational) and systematicity (systems), that is, standardising the teaching business. The intent of the objectives movement or pedagogy is to match the learning intentions with the outcomes. More to the point, educational planners set up clear and precise objectives that would guide instructional experiences and assess their achievement. This strategy or educational technology substitutes to the general goals and the intuitions of teachers while executing a teaching programme.

1.1.1. Background of Behavioural Objectives

Behavioural psychology, scientific management, and Bloom's et al. (1956) taxonomy of educational objectives have significantly influenced the development of behavioural objectives.

1.1.1.1. Behaviourist Psychology and Scientific Management

Behavioural objectives had burgeoned in the 20th century during two major stages until they started to be questioned in the 1970s and rejected acidly in the 1980s. The first stage goes back to the turn of the 20th century when scientificity dominated the spirit of the times at the expense of humanism and began to be infused within education. The work of Taylor (*The Principles of Scientific Management*, 1911) marked the first attempt to make learning goals more precise and more akin to the world of labor. Bobbitt's (1918) work equally adhered to this movement that was further reinforced with Tyler's (1934) publication of *Constructing Achievement Tests*. The latter work has argued that instructional objectives "will be numerous, definite, and particularized" (p. 42). This means teaching objectives should be well-defined and specific.

Behavioural objectives rest on two major philosophies which are behaviourist psychology and scientific management (Hameline, 1979; Tumposky, 1984). Thorndike was a pioneer in establishing a link between behavioural psychology and pedagogical management; he has argued that education should be conceived in a more measurable way (Tumposky, 1984). The progressives' emphasis on specificity and measurability

gave a solid justification for the use of behavioural principles in the conceptualisation of learning outcomes. In this perspective, the methods of Taylor (1911) and Thorndike (1913) were taken up and refined by Bobbitt (1924, cited in Tumposky, 1984, p. 296). Bobbitt (1924) set up a long set of standards to verify the success of any educational endeavour and introduced this syllabus practice to the world of education. Furthermore, the work of Skinner (1957) and his teaching technique of operant conditioning refined the methods of scientific management through programmed instruction or the prespecification of learning objectives in priori.

The second stage in the development of instructional objectives started during the 1950s with the publication of Tyler's (1949) book *Achievement Testing and Curriculum Construction*. The latter has considered the formulation of learning objectives in terms of observable and measurable behaviours as one potential means to construct an efficient curriculum.

The move now is from the teaching of the content of the subject-matter to the teaching of specific and precise series of objectives. The terminal objective is subdivided into intermediate objectives, and these intermediary objectives are in turn subcategorised into specific objectives which are then operationalised (Roegiers, 2010a, p. 62). Banks of objectives are created and prescribed for teaching courses and for building up curricula in different subject domains. Since the inception of this scientific management of the learning targets, teachers have reacted vigorously to the multiplicity of specific objectives (Lunetta, 1972, p. 6) and to the sense of imposition exercised on them.

One of the perpetual effects of this pedagogical management system is the firm link established between education and the world of labour and industry. Since the advent of behavioural objectives, industrial actors have become partners of the schooling activity. Producers have started to take part in the elaboration of learning objectives and actively involve themselves in exploiting and maximising the performance of human resources (Hameline, p. 81). It seems that this tendency serves well the affairs of educational authorities. Mass schooling and democratic learning require finding financial partners; also, the role of the school has changed from the

transmission of knowledge and contents to the preparation of able citizens and competent workforce.

The need for accountability has undoubtedly encouraged the spread of behavioural objectives and performance-based objectives. Indeed, defining precise and measurable teaching outcomes makes the task of assessment more objective. The Sputnik event in 1957 accelerated the need for accountability and objectivity in the U.S. educational system (de Landsheere, 1966; Lunetta, 1972; Hodge, 2007). Since this landmark incident, it became a priority and a question of National Defense that all scientific and modern progress should be fully employed to develop more adequate educational opportunities.

Consequently, the 1960s had witnessed the heyday of the objectives movement. The work of Mager (1962) and Gagné (1965) have popularised this pedagogy. Mager (1962) study, in Nunan's (2007) words, has adhered to the systems approach championed by Tyler (1949), but he has always rejected the label of behaviourism; for him, what matters is making educational goals more precise and achievable (p. 422). As for Gagné (1965), he has further developed and sharpened the work of Skinner (1957) by supplementing instructional conceptualisation with the analysis of terminal tasks; but, in so doing, he has moved on to a superior level in the pursuit of behavioural and normative instruction. Terminal tasks are divided into sub-tasks which are prerequisite for the achievement of this macro task. This constitutes the frontiers between objectives pedagogy and competency-based instruction.

1.1.1.2. Bloom's Taxonomy

In 1948, Benjamin Bloom and a team of educators joined forces to formulate a classification framework for three educational domains: the cognitive, the affective, and the psychomotor. The work on the cognitive domain was completed in the 1950s and published in Bloom et al.'s (1956) *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: The Cognitive Domain*. The other books concerning the affective and psychomotor domains were published few years later.

Bloom's team outlined three domains of educational activities or learning (Bloom et al. 1956):

Cognitive: intellectual abilities and skills.

Affective: changes in attitudes and values.

Psychomotor: manual or physical skills. (Bloom et al., 1956, pp. 7-8)

The didactic components of knowledge, skills, and attitudes are exercised in relation to these three domains of human activities. However, the cognitive domain seems to receive the share of the lion probably because educational institutions are more interested in intellectual skills and that other skills are also difficult to teach and ultimately assess.

Bloom et al.'s (1956) taxonomy has classified the different levels of thinking and learning in a hierarchical order from the simplest cognitive process to the most complex. The levels are portrayed in a form of a pyramid and understood to be successive, that is, one level must be mastered before the next level can be reached. In a way, this order represents the difficulties of learning that studying at higher levels is dependent upon having attained prerequisite knowledge and skills at lower levels. The original levels worked out by Bloom and his team are ordered as follows: *knowledge*, *comprehension*, *application*, *analysis*, *synthesis*, and *evaluation*. The taxonomy is presented graphically below showing at the top the lower order thinking skills (LOTs) and at the bottom the higher order thinking skills (HOTs).

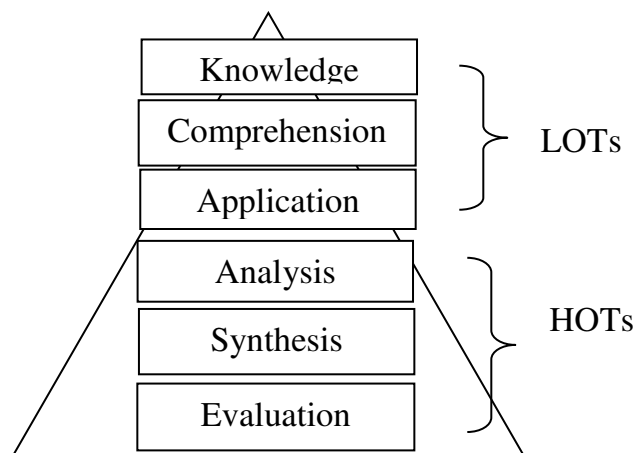


Figure 1.1: Bloom's taxonomy (adapted from Bloom et al., 1956, p. 18)

1.1.2. Components of Behavioural Objectives

Behavioural objectives should fulfill at least three characteristics, which are the use of behavioural verb, the conditions of execution, and the standards.

- **Behavioural Verb**

The first component of behavioural objectives is the use of a performance/action/behavioural verb in the statement of the objective. An objective verb should not be ambiguous as to describe mental states or cognitive processes. Verbs such as ‘to know’, ‘to understand’, and ‘to appreciate’ are not exploitable since they are not amenable to observation or measurement. Instead, such behavioural verbs like to ‘list’, ‘write’, and ‘construct’ are more appropriate.

This part is the strong point of systems approach; in fact, it moves the focus from knowing to doing. It is so crucial to devise educational objectives in terms of what people could do as a result of instruction. Knowing is then demonstrated through doing.

- **Conditions**

The second characteristic of a well-defined objective is the condition of performance. This variable contributes effectively to the formulation of precise and reliable objectives; without specifying the conditions of execution of a task or behaviour such as the use of dictionary, texts, or any electronic devices, the objective would be open to various interpretations and standards. Consequently, a well-designed objective specifies time, materials, and difficulties that constrain the learner’s performance.

- **Standards**

The third characteristic of performance objectives is the standards of the expected performance; that is, how-well the student should perform. This quality specifies the assessment criteria or at least serves as a benchmark for operationalising the measured behaviour.

The following quote illustrates an example of an EFL classroom performance-based objectives:

In an authentic interaction (condition), the student will request prices of shopping items (task). Utterances will be comprehensible to a sympathetic native speaker (standard). (Nunan, 2007, p. 423)

The above discussion of the criteria of behavioural objectives is relevant to the topic of this work because later it will be shown that competency statement almost

borrowes these criteria and it also supports the argument developed throughout this work that CBE and pedagogy of integration are an extension of systems objectives. Moreover, among the criticism MacDonald-Ross (1973) has leveled against this structuring of behavioural objectives is the neglect of the criterion of meaningfulness, that is, how tasks relate to real life. It is this gap that is exploited in CBE through describing the relevance of one's learning or learning task.

Furthermore, of relevance to this current work with respect to behavioural objectives is Gagné's (1965) suggestion of terminal objective. The idea is that any subject matter could be considered as one single or terminal task that could be subdivided into enabling objectives. As a starting point, the target task is described, the components or prerequisites are practised, and finally the whole task is performed at the end of instruction to show how the objectives relate to each other. For the present purposes, what needs to be said is that Gagné has propelled the conception of behavioural objectives through showing how specific objectives relate to each other in connection to a given task. Later, it will be shown how this idea is further developed in the pedagogy of integration.

1.1.3. Criticism of Behavioural Objectives

Behavioural objectives have been subject to a hot debate in the 1970s, and many criticisms have been levelled against this pedagogy. The articles *Behavioural objectives? No!* and *Behavioural Objectives? Yes!* written by Ferguson (1971) and Blake (1971), respectively, testify to the harshness of arguments and the heated controversy.

Obviously, the first objection raised to objectives pedagogy is the use of behaviourism in education, and particularly in language teaching. Ferguson (1971) has objected to the transposition of the techniques of teaching used in physics into language teaching. More specifically, he has refuted both the use of operant conditioning and reductionist approach to language instruction. The label of behaviourism has always strained the popularity of objectives-based pedagogy. In response to this weakness. Mager (1984) has asserted:

During the early sixties, we talked about behaviour rather than about performance. This turned out to be an unfortunate choice of terms. A number of

people were put off by the word, thinking that objectives necessarily had to do with behaviourism or with behaviourists. Not so. Objectives describe performance, or behaviour, because an objective is specific rather than broad or general and because performance, or behaviour, is what we can be specific about. (Mager, 1984, p. 23, cited in Nunan, 2007, p. 422)

Clearly, Mager (1984) has attempted in this quote to dissociate scientific management from behavioural psychology. In fact, Mager (1962) has allied himself with the work of Tyler (1949) in the systems approach (i.e. refining educational goals). Nunan (2007) has subtly labeled this objective movement as behavioural not behaviourist, that is, it advocates behavioural or performance objectives, but not behaviourist teaching techniques.

Second, many opponents (e.g. Ferguson, 1971; MacDonald-Ross, 1973) of this pedagogy have pointed out to the triviality of specific objectives and their neglect of important learning items that are not easy to operationalise in behavioural terms. Consequently, this instructional approach results in inferior education. Lunetta (1972) has responded to this point arguing that any learning goal, when reduced to specific behaviours, appears insignificant.

However, this approach overlooks the affect domain and results in incomplete education. Although humans draw on the three fundamental domains of cognition, affect, and psychomotor in dealing with life activities, objectives pedagogy neglects interior feelings such as interest and motivation simply because they are not amenable to observation. In his rejection of over-emphasis on the cognitive domain and in response to Blake's (1971) advocacy of objectives movement, Ferguson (1971) has objected to the neglect of, for instance, appreciation of poems in Blake's outline of instructional objectives for teaching poetry. But, again the inclusion of the domain of affect is still highly contentious even today because there are no formalised or standard tools for its assessment.

Third, content specification in priori is dehumanising and stifling to creativity and to learning opportunities that arise in the classroom. Objectives are prespecified in advance and handed in to teachers for application, and then, according to Ferguson (1971), the learning process is ignored, that is, how learners will achieve the objectives

well. According to Nunan (2007), this problem is more acute in language teaching because of the creative nature of language proficiency. There are, for instance, no fixed language exponents to achieve any communicative functions, and therefore prior specification of language items is dubious. Lunetta (1972) has retorted to this point saying that a classroom is not a *laissez-faire* place; it is, rather, a learning environment in which the learning targets have been set up by society.

Fourth, it can be conceded that not all human knowledge could be described in terms of skills. The latter are action-based, mechanical, and observable; knowledge, on the other hand, is abstract in its nature and it cannot be demonstrated as it refers to understanding and linking ideas which are important for a flexible employee to deal with new situations. To quote MacDonald-Ross (1973), the existence of the words knowledge and skill testifies their distinctiveness. Consequently, training an individual for operating an apparatus simply through the mastery of mechanical skills implies neglect of the volatility of human activities, which constantly need new skills and knowledge. It goes without saying that certain disciplines like philosophy or literature are knowledge-oriented and reliant on thinking and conceptually organising ideas. MacDonald-Ross has suggested supporting skills with understanding in task analysis to make it worthwhile and justifiable.

Fifth, over and detailed specification does not work in the classroom. Only when the teacher is confronted with the realities of the classroom that he/she manages to see his/her objectives clearly and modify them consequently. Allwright and Bailey (1991) have argued that a classroom is a black box; no matter how one's plan is sophisticated, it is undermined by contextual factors and the learners' pedagogical intentions or their underlying interlanguage (pp. 18-19). Thus, detailed pre-specification of the learning objectives is useless, but still, a minimum plan serves to guide the teaching process until it reaches its unpredictable outcome.

Sixth, the list of limitations of this pedagogical approach is longer than can be included in the scope of this study, but it is deemed of high relevance to the current study to include the discussion of the normative nature of instruction in objectives movement. More specifically, this pedagogy of objectives attempts to instill a set of predetermined behaviours that are thought of as appropriate to all teaching contexts. Yet,

for instance, a series of objectives prepared for training teachers in Algeria might not be pertinent for preparing other teachers in Iran (Hameline, 1979). Consequently, the dangers of imitation and transplanted objectives from one setting to another needs reconsideration.

Finally, it could be said that despite these limitations, objectives pedagogy has improved the quality and systematicity of both teaching and assessment. It has (1) brought real life tasks to the forefront of educational agenda, (2) improved the quality of assessment, (3) made learning targets explicit to all their stakeholders, and (4) moved the focus from teaching to learning.

1.1.4. Objectives Movement and Foreign Language Learning/Teaching

The nature of language use makes the pedagogy endorsed in objectives movement inconvenient for reaching language mastery because of its hierarchical segmentation of language proficiency. The atomistic approach to language instruction does not guarantee the successful use of language. Learning discrete grammar rules and lexical items might not result in language mastery; experience with Audiolingualism has shown that learners fail to transfer the automatised behaviours learned through continual and intensive practice to real-life situations (Tumposky, 1984). This is also regarded as the foremost argument advanced by the proponents of the pedagogy of integration to justify the advent of their alternative teaching model.

Peyser et al. (2006) have considered the reductionist view of subject domains as a kind of concoction of discontinued elements that are hardly synthesizable. Language proficiency is an integrated expertise involving a simultaneous activation of cognitive, affective, and psychomotor knowledge and skills. It is not a sequential process in which the performance of a linguistic item depends on the attainment of prerequisite sub-items. It seems that objectives pedagogy is more convenient for learning basic linguistic acts, but then it does not solve the problem of the acquisition of language proficiency (Tumposky, 1984).

In the subsequent section, it will be shown how behavioural objectives have been reinterpreted in a form of competencies.

1.2. Competency-Based Education

Ainsworth (1977) has summed up succinctly the argument developed in this section in the following citation: “Competency-based education is the latest manifestation of the behaviourist movement which has occupied educational theory for the past twenty years or so” (321-322). This excerpt establishes the undeniable link between the behavioural objectives, which are inherent to systems pedagogy, and CBE; this author has held an extreme position and adopted a highly criticising stance towards CBE, but he has unveiled the marred trait of this instructional system.

Basically, CBE is an outcome-based teaching/learning approach, but as it lacks a sound and consistent theoretical framework and it has grown in governmental and institutional spheres, it is viewed and implemented differently in various settings. Many writers have pointed to the lack of agreement in regard to its basic tenets. For instance, Spady (1977) has designated it as a bandwagon that lacks a clear definition. A decade later, Auerbach (1986) has argued that there is no reference approach to be called competency-based. Again, nearly three decades later Boutin (2004) has referred to it as a pedagogical amalgam. This is to say that CBE is subject to various interpretations and applications.

In his attempt to work out a prescriptive definition of CBE in the 1970s, Spady (1977) has formulated the following comprehensive, but dense definition:

a data-based, adaptive, performance-oriented set of integrated processes that facilitate, measure, record and certify within the context of flexible time parameters the demonstration of known, explicitly stated, and agreed upon learning outcomes that reflect successful functioning in life roles. (Spady, 1977, p. 10)

The first point implied in this definition is that CBE is a kind of storehouse for selecting a given way of competency teaching. The Flexibility of CBE in this definition refers to two major trends of viewing competency in the 1970s: A more radical approach that teaches life-roles that is performance-based and that requires school restructuring; and a moderate, but reductionist model that teaches capacities and that fits in existing educational schemas.

Secondly, the definition states that instruction, assessment, and certification are performance-oriented. Naturally, it excludes frontal instruction; rather, learning occurs through actions and skills using. Many writers (e.g. Auerbach, 1986; Savage, 1993) have agreed that the process of teaching is subject to problem-solving, but other writers such as Findley and Nathan (1980) have considered a competency as a capacity that is only assessed in a performance-based context, thereby leaving the procedure of to the teacher. Richards (2006) has equally held that CBE does not specify any given methodology. Actually, CBE does not prescribe any given way of teaching in a strict sense; nevertheless, the American version of CBE lends itself mainly towards the use of the problem-solving approach. Savage has stated that enabling skills could be taught independently, yet they should be contextualised and followed by their applications. The universal consensus is that assessment or certification should be performance-focused.

Third, CBE implies time flexibility; however, this trait is the most difficult principle to manage in applying this outcome-based model. It means that the learner's progress is measured against criteria of mastery, not the time spent in a course. In other words, the learner could move from one unit of instruction to the next only when acceptable mastery of the learning skills is reached. This involves restructuring and reviewing the static examination calendars, which are constant in most schools throughout the world. Additionally, the student is not bond to coursework; he/she could achieve a competency through various routes (Ainsworth, 1977). Probably, this system could work better in higher education than in basic schools where learners need to acquire the basics. Unfortunately, for practicality reasons, this principle, as Ainsworth maintained, is the most ignored in CBE.

Fourth, Spady's (1977) definition makes it clear that the objectives of a competency programme should be agreed upon and explicit. This trait is inherent to behaviourism and it serves for guiding the teaching process and assessment practices.

Fifth, as implied in the above definition, learning objectives should be stated in terms of life skills. CBE teaches world tasks that learners will encounter in real life.

On the basis of the above traits, CBE could be defined as a flexible and demonstrable out-come-based system that defines publicly the learning targets; it is

student-centered in that it is based on students' needs and relies on their active agency, and teaches competency through problem-solving activities or through the achievement of lists of learning targets.

After defining CBE as it is commonly used in various teaching programmes, it seems convenient to distinguish it from other interpretations that are applied in some particular contexts, especially in vocational training.

1.2.1. On Competence

A distinction could be made between competency as a life-role that burgeoned through the movement of minimal competency, which started in Oregon in 1975 and spread to other states (Findley & Nathan, 1980), and the competency as a capacity. The minimal competency-based movement is more oriented towards preparing citizens to perform a set of life tasks, while CBE, in general, seeks to instill a capacity that is demonstrable in a domain of knowledge. The most frequent definition of a competency in the American literature that is pervasive in schools is the following: “a combination of skills, abilities, and knowledge needed to perform a specific task” (U.S. Department of Education, 2001, p. 1 in Voorhees, 2001, p. 32). This definition indicates that the ultimate aim of teaching/training is to solve a given task, and this means that this form of CBE is oriented towards employability.

However, the term competence has known extensions since the 1980s. Pressure from companies for a flexible workforce that could cope with the exigencies of the workplace has led educational authorities in charge to formulate competency guidelines to characterise the concept of competency with the changing technology and professional mobility (Jessup, 1991). For instance, an employee who occupies a job could be equipped with new machines that he/she could operate without requiring additional training; similarly, in case of job cuts, he/she could be able to shift to another activity.

Furthermore, the setting of national standards means implicitly the breadth of the concept of competency (Jessup, 1991). In order for employees to be able to perform a job in different national companies, they need quality training that will provide them with a repertoire of knowledge, skills, and understanding. This new conception of competency is opposed to the preparation of employees for immediate specific tasks.

This discussion takes us to differentiate between these two types of competences that are subject to the conflict of interests between employers: Role competence and functional competence

1.2.1.1. Role Competence

Training for a profession which has resulted from terminal task analysis is mainly concerned with behavioural actions. It completely ignores other unobservable behaviours that a learner would need to perform the task. This mechanical training overlooks, for instance, how to get well with fellow mates, solve other job-related problems, and cope with unexpected events. The behavioural objectives are at the heart of the problem; although the advocates of CBE (see van Ek, 1976, p. 5; Mager, 1984, p. 23) have disclaimed their adherence to behaviouristic psychology, they are unwilling to include in their objectives unobservable behaviours.

1.2.1.2. Functional Competence

Specification of competence in terms of functions is a new conception of competence that is broader than task analysis. The focus shifts from the teaching of mechanical acts required by a job to capacities involved in performing an activity in a broad sense (Jessup, 1991). This inclusive view of competence naturally involves more capacities and knowledge. Prevalent among these indispensable components of competence are knowledge, preparation for change, and core skills.

- **Knowledge**

Knowledge has been ignored in the framework of competence despite its crucial significance; its role has been instrumental and demonstrable in performing skills, but this does not solve the problem because many types of knowledge are underplayed within this framework or they do not fit within the mechanical acts of a performance. Roegiers (2010a) has admitted this weakness of instruction through competencies and has suggested incorporating general knowledge as an enrichment support for a competency. However, the issue of knowledge is far from being solved and its status is a long way from being appropriately recognised in both the Francophone and the Anglo-Saxon competency-based models.

- **Preparation for Change**

Another ambitious orientation in the broadening of the status of competence is preparation for change. Technology changes, but the core elements of tasks do not change. A description of the functions of a task would secure valid competence despite the constant changes affecting world tasks. Probably, the best example in this regard is the work of Council of Europe's threshold level (van Ek, 1976), which has operationalised language proficiency of European languages in functional terms. This new direction has led National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) to orient the assessment of a competency to varied context, rather than one simple specific task. In this way, the Anglo-Saxon view is becoming broader than the Francophone, which so far restricts the applications of a competency to a class of situations, belonging to a single competence. Arguably, linking competency to a large range of families is an exaggeration (Chenu, 2005, p. 167).

- **Core skills**

Core skills refer to an inclusionary view of competence that encompasses all the elements of a competency rather than the mechanical acts required by a specific task. Chief among these nucleus skills are "problem solving, communication, numeracy, personal effectiveness, and so on" (Jessup, 1991, p. 140). These are generic competencies which could operate on a broader level.

In summary, the concept of competence is broadening and departing from the systems objectives, but there are still problems in operationalising certain types of knowledge and including them in assessment or in the statement of competence. It seems that CBE should depart from the behaviourist view of the observable to solve most of its shortcomings. The statement of a competency now includes knowledge/understanding, skills required by the task, routine and non-routine skills associated with the desired task such as recording-keeping, interpersonal skills (Thomson, 1991, p.144), and the conditions under which the performance occurs. This, of course, renders the competency statement more general than behavioural objectives and more problematic for systematic assessment practices. There is then a trade-off between scientific management of objectives and a real embodiment of real world-tasks. But, there is a further problem lurking here, that is, if CBE allows

assessment of theoretical knowledge, this will undermine one of its fundamental and useful principles-namely, performance-based demonstration of outcomes.

1.2.2. Language Teaching/Learning and Competency-Based Education

CBE is a general movement in mainstream education and training; it is a movement that encapsulates various interpretations. Many teaching models claim to be competency-based. Of these approaches, one could cite minimal competency, career education, adult education, and standards model. Another further approach that applies the principles of CBE is competency-based language teaching. Because of the nature of language teaching and its desired applications, this version of competency has developed its own history for specific incentives.

1.2.2.1. History of Competency-Based Language Teaching

CBLT developed gradually from the Adult Performance Level (APL) project initiated at the University of Texas in 1975. This project, initially developed to help adults to function successfully in real life settings, identified five areas of competence; occupational, consumer, health, government and law, and community resources (Savage, 1993, p. 17). These broad areas of competence are accompanied by subordinate skills such as listening and speaking, reading and writing, interpersonal relations, problem-solving, and computation.

The flux of immigrants from South East Asia to the United States in the 1970s led the American government and curricular designer to devise programmes in second language teaching with the intent of socialising these refugees into the American socio-economic order. Consequently, the minimal competencies developed in Oregon were exploited to develop an ESL programme named *Teaching from ESL to Competencies* (Language and Orientation Resource Center, 1982 as cited in Savage, 1993, p. 17). This new approach to language teaching was mandated by the State and promoted nationwide that it became in the 1990s the state-of-the-art approach to adult ESL (Auerbach, 1986, p. 411, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 141).

Parallel to this development in the context of CBLT, the work of the Council of Europe that has developed the threshold level for the European languages in functional terms (Findley & Nathan, 1980) has equally defined language learning objectives in competency terms. The new conception on both sides of the Atlantic is that speaking

or communicating in a language is not enough; rather, the learner should be able to demonstrate that he/she can use language to perform life tasks. New tests were developed to satisfy not only the standards of school authorities, but also the requirements of potential employers who were exercising pressure for accountability. The Basic English Skills Test (BEST) was developed by the Center of Applied Linguistics in 1982 on request from Office of Refugee Resettlement (Savage, 1993, p. 18). The innovation concerned with the development of performance-based tests.

1.2.2.2. Definition of Competency-Based Language Teaching

CBLT is a sub-set of competency-based movement, that is, it is the use of competency system to language teaching. Thus, CBLT equally focuses on the outcomes of learning rather than teaching/learning processes or the type of input (Richards, 2010). Traditional language teaching methods and approaches (e.g. Grammar-Translation, and even traditional Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approaches such as notional syllabuses) put a stress on certain types of input (i.e. grammar rules and lists of vocabulary or sets of communicative functions); other more recent approaches such as task-based learning (TBL) and Natural Approach underscore the value of learning processes. CBLT moves the locus of attention to the ‘product’, that is, what the learner will do with the language once learned.

Accordingly, this form of instruction follows a backward design in the description of learning targets (Richards, 2010). In other words, the content of learning is not based on the description of the subject matter content (topics and situations) or linguistic content (grammar and lexis); rather, it is concerned with the description of skills and attitudes required by the domain in which the student is expected to operate. From the description of a particular social domain (e.g. teaching), the basics, life skills, attitudes, as well as language functions and forms are specified, and thereby forming the main core of the syllabus. According to Richards (2010), the process consists of:

- Identifying target tasks;
- describing the required competencies;
- identifying language demands for each competency;
- developing syllabus;
- and, designing teaching methods (Richards, 2010, p. 24)

The definition of CBLT is adapted to ESL as follows:

A competency-based curriculum is a performance-based outline of language tasks that lead to a demonstrated mastery of the language associated with specific skills that are necessary for individuals to function proficiently in the society in which they live. (Grognet & Crandall, 1982, p. 3, as cited in Richards & Rodgers 2014, p. 151)

Implied in the definition is that the teaching and assessment are performance-based. Also, it suggests that this approach is selective; only those language skills keyed to the desired behaviours are sampled from the body of knowledge. These basic guidelines suggest redefining curriculum design which has come to include the following fundamental steps:

- **Needs Analysis**

This component of the curriculum is formalised by the Council of Europe as a starting point for the design of competency-based language curricula. On the American side, Northrup's (1977) APL had a large influence on basing language curricula on a prior survey of the learners' future needs; it identified sixty-five competencies with sub-competencies (as cited in Auerbach & Burgess, 1985, p. 477).

Technically, after a survey of students' needs, a sum of language functions is selected and transposed from the large body of knowledge. In private institutions and small-scale classes, a questionnaire could be submitted to students to identify their needs or the instructional institution could determine the students' needs on the basis of age, level, residence, and length of time (Savage, 1993, p. 20). Usually, curriculum designers when operating at nationwide contexts resort to a well-established frame of references such the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR- Trim, Coste, & North, 2001) established by the Council of Europe. Early American adult ESL syllabuses relied on APL topics such as post office, house, and recreation. But the use of needs analysis imposes certain primary functions, notions, and topics that the learner should master to reach the threshold level. Specification of individual needs comes later after establishing general proficiency needs.

- **Identification of Objectives**

The second step in the process of syllabus design is the interpretation of needs into learning objectives stated in behavioural tasks. In other words, the objectives should describe a life task or a sub-competency. Behavioural words are used like in systems pedagogy. From these general objectives, sub-objectives are formulated by the instructor (Findley & Nathan, 1980; Savage, 1993). Their function is to specify the language forms or skills needed to achieve life skill competencies. These basic skills are called enabling skills; they are synonymous with the term resources widely used in Francophone literature. For instance, if the teacher is to teach making a phone call, he/she should first prepare his/her learners to read phone numbers correctly.

1.2.2.3. Conceptualisation of Learning in Competency-Based Language Teaching

The first step that CBLT outlines is the clear and explicit identification of the learning objectives. In this regard, CBE adheres to behavioural objectives. More specifically, CBLT categorises the domain or the real-life tasks into sub-categories stated in a form of sub-tasks and in behavioural or action terms. Hence, learning objectives are made public to both students and teachers, and this allows defining the appropriate methodology to achieve those goals.

Continual assessment feeds the teacher's knowledge about the achievement of the objectives and allows him/her to overcome the weaknesses displayed by students in achieving the target objectives. Objectives are operationalised in a form of descriptors as indicators of progress or achievement of learning targets.

As CBLT adheres to mastery learning and individualisation of instruction, it uses panoply of learning materials. If a student does not master a rule through a given medium, alternative materials and procedures are used to cater to the heterogeneity of learning styles (e.g. auditory, visual, and kinesthetic). For instance, if the workbook does not fit the student learning style and preferences, video aids, slides, and games could be used (Findley & Nathan, 1980). However, individualisation of learning does not involve a teacher-student instruction, but group-pacing, that is, students work in groups and assist each other.

1.2.2.4. Assessment Procedures in Competency-Based Language Teaching

Assessment in CBLT starts with a pre-test. The latter determines the student familiarity with the skills of the desired performance. The pretest is useful in that it diagnoses the points on which both the teacher and the students should focus more. Continual assessment follows during the learning process to regulate teaching and cater for different learning modalities.

This formal measurement is naturally performance-based and criterion-referenced. Findley and Nathan (1980) have outlined the following attributes of a performance-based task:

- It directly measures outcomes in a real world situation if at all possible;
- it simulates the performance in its real setting if condition 1 above is impossible;
- it includes all the elements described in the objective;
- and, it does not include elements not in the objective. (Findley & Nathan 1980 p. 228)

All these criteria converge into the idea that the assessment task should reflect as much as possible, within the limits of feasibility, real-world tasks.

Findley and Nathan (1978) have illustrated the above criteria in the following example:

Learner prepares a written card which has his/her name, street address, city, state, and telephone number before an interview. The interviewer uses oral requests with wh-questions and “How do you spell . . . ?” and records the data on a card. Learner presents his/her card at the end of the interview. (Findley & Nathan, 1980, p. 228)

The task in the above quote draws closer to authentic tasks that individuals perform in real life situations. More importantly, the task is performance-oriented, rather than being linguistic.

1.2.2.5. Theoretical Basis of Competency-Based Language Teaching

CBLT has no clear theoretical basis; it draws on a variety of educational learning theories. These pedagogies are considered below.

- **Behavioural Objectives**

CBLT states language teaching objectives in behavioural terms; however, unlike behavioural teaching, which divides teaching units into a set of discrete objectives that will never equal the learner's functionality in real-life tasks, CBLT makes a firm link between different types of objectives to form a composite whole, say a competency. For example, a competency can be described in these terms: the student can/will be able to use the telephone in English. From this competency, short term behavioural objectives can be derived; but they should all of them converge to achieve the targeted competency. To take up the above example, the competency of telephoning can include structural objectives such as 'the student will be able to read numbers appropriately'.

- **Mastery Learning**

Another teaching approach that underpins CBLT is mastery learning. This form of instruction also relates to behaviourism of Skinner (1968). Assumingly, each student can learn any learning target when given appropriate activities and enough time (Crawford-Lange, 1982). Mastery learning, hence, aims at teaching 'mastery' of language and skills being taught. Because students, according to Bloom and Webster (1960), learn differently, it is unfair to teach in a linear way. Rather, teaching should be personalised to suit learners' differences in learning styles and to adjust differences in their background knowledge.

Mastery learning rests on teaching, testing, and re-teaching. Students start a unit of instruction, and then they are tested on their achievements, and finally, re-taught to achieve the prescribed level of success. Those students who fail to attain the satisfactory level of success are provided with correctives while those who reach an acceptable level of achievement are given enrichment activities in a form of more complex and challenging tasks. The move from one unit of instruction to the next is done only after the majority or all students have shown the mastery of learning objectives.

CBLT breaks down a competency into smaller components (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Each element of a competency is dealt with and practised in a single sequence or teaching unit. At the end of an instructional sequence, the learner assesses

his/her progress and mastery of the sub-set elements of the targeted competency. Only if the learner successfully acquires that element, he/she is allowed to move on the next element. Progress is, then, based on mastery rather than on time initially allotted for learning and mastering a particular item of a competency.

- **Criterion-Referenced Assessment**

CBLT adheres to criterion-referenced assessment (CRA). According to Docking (1994), CBLT assesses what learners will be able to do with language, rather than what they know about it. In this approach, learners are assessed on the extent to which they can perform a particular target task (that is, there is no yes or no answer). Defining levels of performance, first involves operationalising the construct of proficiency (that is, test developers identify the skills and abilities that constitute in their view how language should be used); then, criteria and descriptors of performance are agreed upon and established (Brindley, 1991). This type of generic assessment is sometimes referred to in CBLT as domain-referenced assessment since it is applied for assessing the whole domain (i.e. language proficiency).

However, in the classroom, according to Brindley (1991), criterion testing can be less formal. Assessing learners' achievements for diagnosing difficulties involves specifying the behavioural task (e.g. telephoning in English), identifying the objectives which have been covered (e.g. listening intently to the caller, introducing oneself when starting a call), and establishing standards upon which students will be judged. Besides, the attainment of pedagogical objectives can be stated in terms of mastery or non-mastery (Brindley, 1991). To take up the instance of the competency of telephoning, an example would be to state categorically whether the learner has mastered reading phone numbers or not. Nevertheless, the advantages of criterion-referencing assessment are still there. It can, for instance, tell us what specific instructional objective the learner has mastered, rather than how well a student performed in comparison to his/her mates, as it is the case in norm-referenced testing (Cooper, 1981).

- **Functional Approach**

A simple definition of functional theory would be to say that language is a set of functions, rather than a set of structures. The primary aim of such a theory is to teach

speech acts that relate to the learner's needs in real-life situations. Wilkins (1976) notional syllabus and the threshold level (van Ek, 1975) are an example of syllabuses based on the functional view of language. This theory is influenced by the work of British linguists J. R. Firth and his eminent student M.A.K. Halliday, who underscored the functional (meaningful) nature of language and the context of situation.

However, although CBLT evolved at about the same time as the development of functional syllabuses in Europe, it did not flourish within this functional view. Rather, it evolved within the American context, mainly in ESL survival settings. Mostly, it was used as the basis for Adult Basic Education programmes. Teaching ESL survival competencies was approached in the same way as teaching language functions that most British applied linguists like Widdowson (1979) and Breen and Candlin (1980) have backed up. In a way, competencies are the expression of language functions. In fact, the 65 competencies identified by the Texas Adult Performance Level study, which served as the basis for teaching ESL adults, are expression of language functions ESL adults require to function successfully in real-life situations (Auerbach & Burgess, 1985). Hence, it could be said that the functional theory has shaped CBLT in teaching language functions (real-world language skills), rather than language per se.

- **Cognitive Objectives**

CBE addresses the question of connections between tasks (i.e. sub-parts of a competency), allowing the learner to work on high order cognitive skills. The division of a target task during the learning process is used for mastering the elements of a whole in a more practical way; what is important, is the combination of the sub-parts of a competency in a novel way. Integration or problem-solving leads the learner to think and analyse the task, evaluate the process, and find an original and personal solution (Roegiers, 2010a, 2018). Thus, this instructional approach targets more the higher order cognitive skills such as analysis, synthesis, evaluation, and creativity.

- **Constructivism and Socio-Constructivism**

This is probably the most controversial principle of CBE. Constructivism is an educational movement mainly associated with the work of the Swiss psychologist Piaget (1896-1980); and socio-constructivism is credited to the Russian Lev Vygotsky

(1896-1934). Basically, constructivism holds that knowledge is constructed more efficiently through problem-solving when the learner is involved in the process of observation, hypothesis making, correction, and deduction. Socio-constructivism, in a different way, affirms that knowledge is actively constructed by individuals when assisted by a more knowledgeable other. Accordingly, concepts are better understood and acquired when individual efforts are involved than when directly transmitted from another person.

Advocates of CBE, especially of the French version (e.g. Bosman, Gerard, and Roegiers, 2000) have claimed that CBE is based on problem-solving, which matches with constructivism, that is, learners deal with situations in which they have to confront their existing knowledge to external representations, which might result in confirmation or re-adjustment of their hypotheses. In the following quote, Roegiers (2006a) has explained this link between the tasks that CBE promotes and socio-constructivism:

Unlike integration situations, which are tasks of re-investment of the learner's acquired knowledge, didactic situations are made-up to introduce new notions, new knowledge, and new techniques. They suggest for the learner to solve challenges, mainly through small group research. Students build up gradually their representations through comparing their findings or their hypotheses to those of their peers. This procedure refers to the principles of socio-constructivism. (Translated from French by the researcher, Roegiers, 2006a, p. 74)

However, some writers object at the fact that CBE borrows the principles of constructivism. The major criticism made by Hirtt (2009) is that while constructivism aims at building knowledge, CBE uses knowledge as an instrument for the attainment of competencies. Besides, according to Hirtt, CBE bases all the learning process on problem-solving tasks, and thereby stigmatising other types of teaching such as the transmission mode. Roegiers (2003) has disagreed with this view, insisting that CBE does not completely rely on problem-solving activities. Accordingly, the transmission model is inherent to competency-based teaching, but this technique should be

supplemented with other techniques such as problem-solving (pp. 5-6) to develop the learner cognitive skills and allow horizontal transfer of skills.

1.2.2.6. Major Tenets of Competency-Based Language Teaching

CBE is viewed differently and applied in various forms. The purpose of this section is to identify the principles of this movement in relation to the pedagogy of integration, which is actually applied in the Algerian English language textbooks and syllabuses. Additionally, the discussion of the major tenets of CBE are related and linked firmly to language teaching which differs from mainstream education because of the nature of language proficiency. The discussions are framed round the basic tenets of the pedagogy of integration, all of which are explicated in relation to the Anglo-Saxon ESL literature that provides a more explicit framework for teaching ESL competencies. This outline of the principles of CBLT is based on the most widely quoted French-speaking and the Anglo-Saxon authors.

- **Focus on Terminal Competencies**

The pedagogy of integration advocates that competency teaching should focus on few competencies (i.e. two or three competencies per year of instruction- Roegiers, 2010a). This view stands in opposition to the standards movement that sets up a list of criteria or objectives. Savage (1993) a fervent advocate of CBLT has argued that programmes may prefer to condense the sum of competencies for a given purpose, but this is not typical of CBE. Here lies the first disagreement between the Anglo-Saxon and the Francophone version of competency; at the heart of this controversy, is that the pedagogy of integration attempts to instill a capacity rather than a set of survival skills. Here is, for instance, an example of a terminal competency for EFL students:

In a communicative situation and on the basis of a descriptive written/oral/illustrated message with simple words and of three to four lines, the learner produces a descriptive oral/written message of four lines. (Adapted from Roegiers, 2006a, p. 67)

The pedagogy of integration, accordingly, states that a written or oral message of three to four lines could constitute a terminal competency; then this could take two forms of sub-competencies, for instance, descriptive or narrative skills. It is this competency

that should be divided into operational objectives and determine the materials, teaching procedures, and assessment (Richards, 2010a, p. 24).

- **Outcome-Based**

Outcomes are the foremost feature of any competency-based syllabus. The outcomes in a competency-based language programme are not stated in terms of knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, or understanding; rather they are worded in terms of actions/skills or behaviours that reflect a competency (Spady, 1977). The term outcome is restricted to the performance of a competency /skill/standard, not showing understanding of any particular learning item. Furthermore, assessment criteria should appear in all outcome-based teaching models.

In the pedagogy of integration, the outcome means the use of the learned items in an integrative way to demonstrate competence (Roegiers, 2001, 2010b, 2011). The learner should be able to combine interdependent elements in a meaningful context.

- **Public Behavioural Objectives**

Much like the objective-based pedagogy, any competency model identifies clear cut sub-objectives from the statement of the competency in order to make learning manageable. These objectives should be stated in behavioural terms and made public to all their stakeholders (Schmieder, 1973; Auerbach, 1986; Blank, 1987; Burke, 1989; Voorhees, 2001). This educational practice is one of the features inherited from systems approach.

- **Association of Competency with a Class of Situations**

A competency in the pedagogy of integration is not solving one complex task, but solving other complex tasks that belong to a family of a competency (equivalent situations). These tasks are of the same level of difficulty, but presented in a novel context. This means that a competency is not a life role task; it is a capacity to be exercised within a given domain. Relatively different, CBE does not necessarily specify or restrict the definition of a competency to a class of situation or at least a group of situations (Chenu, 2005, p. 167; Poumay, Tardif, Georges, & Scallon, 2017, p. 20). A CBE syllabus could include various survival competencies such as “taking notes during an academic lecture”, “following direction for a work-related task”,

“explaining one’s position on an issue”, “or distinguishing between facts and opinion in a newspaper editorial” (Savage, 1993, pp. 15-16).

- **Definition of the Learner Exit Profile**

The pedagogy of integration defines the student exit profile for each year and stage of schooling. This precise statement is translated into corresponding competencies in terms of performance, and competencies give concrete evidence for the attainment of the exit profile. Besides, this active pedagogy uses the notion of terminal integration objective and intermediary integration objective as a reflection of the student exit profile. Any competency-based approach has to identify the exit profile or draw on a framework of reference to make its terminal objectives clear to all (Spady, 1977). In standards competency-based syllabuses, the student exit profile is defined in terms of a set of criteria.

- **Identification of Cognitive and Socio-Professional Competencies**

A competency-based curriculum includes the teaching of universal and local values, some of which are related to the tasks to be executed and others are transversal values and skills (Miled, 2005). In a language programme social and cognitive values such as critical thinking and collaboration are incorporated into linguistically functional competencies. They constitute crucial ingredients for the performance of a competency. The pedagogy of integration contends to focus more on the cognitive and metacognitive processes such as integration, whilst CBE is more vocational oriented. CBAE/ESL, for instance, focuses only on language functions that the learners will require in the society in which they need to operate (Auerbach, 1986). Taken all the views together, any competency-based curriculum should present its learning aims in terms of functional and meaningful activities.

- **Resources as Means to Achieve Competencies**

The teaching of knowledge and skills is still practised like in traditional teaching approaches, but these components of teaching should not constitute the ultimate end of the teaching enterprise. More clearly, comprehension of a rule of grammar and use of a tense is not enough, the learner should be able to integrate them with other skills and knowledge to perform a communicative act. The move is from isolated/categorised

learning to integrative learning (Miled, 2005). In the same vein, Savage (1993) has argued that language “skills such as grammatical structures are means to an end, not an end in themselves; and learning should be directly related to application” (p. 19). Likewise, Voorhees (2001) has held that ‘good fo information’ should be eliminated. What matters are applications, rather than theoretical knowledge.

Nevertheless, the pedagogy of integration allows room for the learning of general cultural knowledge, but as enrichment activities (Roegiers, 2010a). On the whole, any curricular entry should be justified by the type of competencies to be achieved.

- **Working Individually on Complex Situations**

This characteristic is fundamental in the pedagogy of integration. Complex tasks (integration situations), whether applied during the learning process or assessment moments, should be carried out individually (Miled, 2005). This is because group work does not attest attainment of individual competencies. However, Roegiers (2010a) has asserted that there are times in which learners could work in groups or pairs and there are times when they should work individually. Accordingly, during the learning process, some integration activities could be implemented collaboratively. In general, unlike CBE, the pedagogy of integration recommends individual application of integrative tasks.

- **Inclusive Pedagogy**

CBE is a flexible framework that accepts almost any pedagogy (Spady, 1977; Findley & Nathan, 1980; Savage, 1993; Harris, Hobart, & Lundberg, 1995; Trim et al. 2001). Richards (2006) has rightly remarked that CBLT does not care for any methodology being used in as much as it delivers the desired outcomes. Similarly, Harris et al. (1995) have argued that delivery means should be flexible to enhance learner-centredness. Furthermore, Schaffer & Van Duzer have (1984) have held that “This approach does not advocate one particular methodology over another, although there are certain implications for methodology” (1984, p. 67). Indeed, even though CBE does not impose a specific methodology, it advises certain methodological practices such as self-paced and individualised learning, continual assessment, and mastery learning.

- **Meaningful Learning**

The pedagogy of integration promotes the use of meaningful tasks (Miled, 2005; Peyser et al., 2006; Roegiers, 2010b). This point will be discussed at length in section 2.4.2 in the second chapter.

- **Modularised Instruction**

Any competency-based model unquestionably uses modularised learning/teaching (Auerbach, 1986; Foyster, 1990; Voorhees, 2001). That is, it subdivides the target task or class of situations into sub-competencies, which are then formulated in a form of skills. According to the Center of Applied Linguistics (1983), "Language learning is broken down into manageable and immediately meaningful chunks" (p. 2, cited in Auerbach, 1986, p. 415). In so doing, both the learners and teachers could clearly perceive the objectives of learning and make them manageable. After the work on separate objectives, the learner is led to integrate most of these skills in a terminal task.

- **Continuous and Ongoing Assessment**

Ongoing assessment is another crucial element in competency-based programmes (Schmieder, 1973; Cooper, 1981; Auerbach, 1986; Burke, 1989; Harrison et al., 1996; Brolin, 1997; Spady, 1994; Roegiers, 2001, 2010b; De Ketele, 2010). This form of assessment which has been brought by systems approach is strengthened through mastery learning. It is central in CBE to assess the attainment of every single sub-competency before the learner is invited to reconstruct the composition of the targeted competency in a complex task. The major function of assessment at this stage is to guide the attainment of competencies and inform the learning process (e.g. what activities should be used and what areas need further work?).

- **Learner-Centeredness**

CBE is learner-centered (Harris et al. 1995; Paquay, 2002; Tudor, 2013). The attainment of competencies is the responsibility of the student with the teacher acting as the facilitator of the learning process. Crandall (1990) has argued that CBE involves the learner at all stages of planning, teaching, and assessment cycle. It involves students' needs, their participation in the negotiation of outcomes, their implementation of tasks, and their assessment of outcomes. CBE equally caters to

different learning styles, cultures, and pace of learning. Assessment from this angle plays an engineering role in regulating teaching in accordance to the learner psychological, cognitive, and social profile. Every time a student fails to appropriate competency, new teaching pathways and materials are envisaged. The standards movement complies to this logic; as a matter of fact that, the statement of competence starts with the first person -“I can do” (Tudor, 2013, p. 26).

In curricular terms, the shift in focus in CBE is from content-centered curriculum to a learner-centered. Instead of teaching the content of language, students are taught only those functions they need either to cope with real-life complexities or to continue their academic career.

- **Demonstrated Mastery of Performance**

Summative assessment in CBE and equally in the pedagogy of integration should be carried out through performance-based tasks. CBE ESL requires demonstration of visible behaviours rather than pencil-and-paper tests (Auerbach, 1986). However, the pedagogy of integration does not reject traditional test format, but its focus should be on generating a communicative linguistic production, than responding to discrete language questions. Besides, according to Miled (2005), a competency-based test could involve minimum assessment of discrete objectives. Generally speaking, competencies should be assessed through complex, meaningful, and performance-based tasks.

- **Task-Based**

CBE delivers teaching and assessment through tasks or situations (Auerbach, 1986; Savage, 1993; Roegiers, 2001, 2003, 2010a; McCowan, 1998; Hodge, 2007). The word task is used in this context distinguishably from exercise in that a task or situation focuses on meaning and an exercise emphasises a linguistic performance. CBE uses tasks that are reflective of real life activities; hence, these activities could take diverse forms from the simplest tasks to the most complex large-scale tasks such as projects.

CBE lends itself to TBL, that is, it uses a task framework to achieve its content specifications. Much like task-based learning framework, CBE starts by teaching enabling skills for learners before they are invited to solve complex tasks. TBL’s pre-

task stage introduces and teaches the prerequisites and the resources of the task proper in a similar manner that CBE teaches resources needed to accomplish a complex task. The difference is in the orientation of the learning process; while TBL is process-oriented, CBE is product-oriented. In other words, the extent of specifications are more detailed in CBE and expectations on their return are higher, whereas a TBL framework provides a minimum of preparation to trigger a process for acquiring knowledge or language proficiency through cooperation and interaction.

1.2.3. Criticism of Competency-Based Education

CBE is a controversial teaching approach; the fact that this approach has grown in governmental circles and in hands of business and industrial communities raises multiple of questions essentially as to whether it is suitable in the first place to education. Nevertheless, when compared to TBL, which has grown out of SLA research, CBE seems more popular and widespread. This is because CBE guarantees accountability to the fund donors. Nunan (2007) has regrettably confirmed that outcome-based approaches will continue to be favoured as long as they permit to evaluate more accurately educational entities; this condition seems a prerequisite for allotment of funds.

By the same token, Roegiers (2010a) has conceded that the monopoly of education by international firms could lead to the marketing of schools, that is, knowledge or certification will become a commodity of these financial and economic entities. Consequently, the type of knowledge presented to learners is only useful for increasing productivity and serving the needs of these entities. Hirtt (2009), the foremost critic of this pedagogical orientation, has deplored the neglect of knowledge or understanding in favour of integration skills or reinvestment of all types of knowledge in concrete situations. Although Roegiers has agreed with the worries raised by Hirtt, he has argued that teaching for individual and narrow industrial needs is easily distinguishable from teaching for common good. More specifically, the school project that has a short vision and a quick implementation usually serves the interest of the consumer's good, while a long-term school plan entrenched in the traditional educative culture of a country, as could be investigated in the sociology of curricula, serves the common interests of the public.

Narrowly linked to the above criticism, is the behavioural and vocational orientation of the teaching endeavour in CBE. This point has been discussed in relation to the systems approaches to education described above; what could be said in regard to CBE is the fact that although this approach is reductionist in nature, it seeks meaningful applications of all types of knowledge constituting human activities. Besides, CBE is not just normative in nature; it could simply provide students with tool competencies while it is open to negotiation of learning objectives (Bell, 2009); in other words, not all types of CBE seek to show learners how to think and to behave. In support of this view, Auerbach (1986) has argued that when competency teaching is just a tool, among many other tools for enabling students, it is acceptable. What is rejected universally among academics is the total specification of learning targets.

Auerbach's (1986) seminal article, *Competency-Based ESL: One step forward and or Two Steps Back?* has eloquently summed up the critiques of CBE ESL. Fundamentally, this approach is criticised for its prior definition of given social norms, modularisation of learning, specification of precise outcomes, lack of focus on critical thinking and creativity, and lack of collaborative negotiation of needs. Certainly, all these criticisms relate to the behavioural orientation of CBE, its outcome inclination, and its atomistic view of the world.

The next section of this history of the development of the competency movement will discuss the latest form of CBE (i.e. the standards movement).

1.3. Beyond Competency-Based Education: Standards Movement

To complete the full description of CBE in its various adaptive forms, this section exposes the newest demonstration of this system of education. Again, a quote from the expert literature is used below to establish the firm link between the behavioural approach, objectives movement, competency movement, and standards movement. In Nunan's (2007) view, the standards movement "is the latest iteration of the behavioural approach to instructional design, and thus has close links with both the objectives movement and the competency movement" (p. 428). This quote explicitly shows that the standards movement is the most recent development in the path of behavioural approach and that it is narrowly linked to both its antecedent pedagogies of objectives and competency.

The coverage of the standards movement in the frame of this chronological development of CBE is justified on the ground that the Algerian English language competency-based component has been based on the standards of achievement derived from CEFR. Additionally, the standards movement is considered a competency-based approach (Nunan, 2007; Richards, 2010; Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

The standards movement has begun to evolve in the United States in the 1990s, but quite earlier in Europe. It bears resemblance to competency-based teaching and systems objectives in that it starts with a clear identification of standards (objectives) that define the learning experiences, and ultimately assessment criteria.

There are two major standards models that developed concurrently throughout the world in the 1990s. Each of these movements has a separate background, but they share a common trait, which is their competency-based orientation. In what follows, the American model will be first presented to continue the story of the competency-based approach in a chronological order, and then the European model will be discussed.

1.3.1. Standards Movement in the United States

Standards movement is the broadening and repackaging of CBE in a new form. In the same way that the Sputnik event led to the refinement of behavioural objectives, which culminated in competency-based syllabuses, the publication of the Nation at Risk report in 1983 by the National Commission on Excellence in Education led to the set up of standards movement syllabuses. Among the worries and risks that have been reported by the Commission are:

- Mediocrity of students' achievement in comparison to international standards;
- functional illiteracy;
- decline of students achievements in English, physics, and mathematics;
- dissatisfaction of business and military leaders with the performance of the new graduates;
- and technology invading all occupations (Summed up from: Bell, 1983, pp. 9-10)

The call for a school reform in the 1980s is a further step in the quest for educational betterment that had marked the history of the United States throughout the

20th Century. A common feature of these educational landmarks in the progress of pedagogical practices is the maintenance of behavioural objectives throughout. Common to all these consecutive reforms is the focus on outcomes since the first generation of behavioural objectives at the turn of the 20th Century (Taylorism). Brown (1994) has called this new approach as the fifth generation of objectives-based pedagogy (p. 10).

The Nation at Risk report has suggested mainly:

- Strengthening contents and graduation requirement;
- adopting more rigorous and measurable standards;
- extending school day and year;
- improving teacher preparation;
- and, allotting more federal financial aids to education (Bell, 1983, pp. 22-28)

The report mentions the word ‘standard’ several times as a solution to ensure educational objectives are achieved to the fullest. The roots of the standards movement, which have not been openly supported in the document, have already been considered in academic spheres. CBE has to be extended for it has not solved the the ambiguity of behavioural objectives. Consider the following passage quoted from Ainsworth’s (1977) abstract:

The argument is advanced that the concept of competency attainment and the supporting behavioural methodology has a limited utility, and that for many subject areas the concept has done nothing to reduce ambiguity of educational objectives, has not proved useful as a tool for determining curricular content, and has seriously debased educational standards...It is suggested that in order to implement this feature [focus on outcomes] successfully, an institution's testing or accreditation function must be disestablished from its teaching function, and that this can be done entirely within the framework of setting standards of desirable achievement, exclusive of the concept of competency attainment and behavioural philosophy. (Square brackets added, Ainsworth, 1977, p. 321)

This quote clearly suggests that CBE has failed to improve on objective-based pedagogy and strengthen achievement of outcomes; it equally proposes the setting up of target standards of outcomes outside the framework of the competency-based

system. This reinforces the modern tendency in education which focuses on outcomes and tries to disambiguate them from the behaviourist procedures.

The gloomy *A Nation at Risk* report led academics and educational policy-makers to formulate national performance goals and operationalise them in a form of teaching objectives. In 1990, the US government modified the initial six educational goals and added 21 new objectives. Later, these aims and objectives were codified in the *Goals 2000: Educate America Act*. The six national educational aims read as follows:

1. All children in America will start school ready to learn.
2. The high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90 percent.
3. American students will leave grades four, eight, and twelve having demonstrated competency in challenging subject matter, including English, mathematics, science, history, and geography; and every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our modern economy.
4. U.S. students will be the first in the world in science and mathematics achievement.
5. Every adult American will be literate and will possess knowledge and skills necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship.
6. Every school in America will be free of drugs and violence and will offer a disciplined environment conducive to learning. (Harnischfeger, 1995, p. 109)

At this first developmental stage of the movement, the national standards for instruction and assessment had not been set up yet; the reform of the school had been guided by the formulated aims and objectives, which were to be achieved by 2000. Schools and States were convened to apply the new standards in their existing schemas. Indeed, before the formulation of national standards, each state had the right to craft its own standards in accordance to national aims and objectives. Besides, national teacher association, national organisations, and academics started to develop national standards. However, the old rivalry between the Democrats and the Republicans on the issue of education, especially with regard excellence and equality has hindered the application of the 2000 Educate America Act (Brown, 2009).

Accordingly, the Republicans seek to improve education through the rise of the bar of standards, while the Democrats want more social and economic help for the learners to achieve better at school.

Before the advent of the standards movement, assessment was based on standardised tests, teacher-made tests, and norm-referenced tests that relied on multiple choice questions and a few open questions (Harnischfeger, 1995). In contrast, the innovative national standards call for new means of measurement of such skills as reasoning, problem-solving, and communicating. Hands-on task procedures, portfolios, and performance-based tasks started to grow to assess the learner's mastery of the domain; but, when it comes to valid certification decisions, these testing procedures have been found little valid in showing the overall mastery of a defined content area (Madaus & Kellaghan, 1991; Nuttal, 1992, as cited Harnischfeger, 1995, p. 113). Added to this, alternative means of measurement are time-consuming for both teachers and students and difficult to implement especially at a national level.

Once the states' standards were ready, they were compared to national standards. The National Council on Education Standards and Testing (NCEST) indicated that this would allow setting high-stake national standards for decision-making on graduation, entry to college, and employability; also, they could be used for local and state accountability (Harnischfeger, 1995, p. 114). However, High-stake standards were harshly criticized and considered as a return to centralised federal education and as inequitable since all states do not possess the same delivery resources (Brown, 2009). The national goals, stated above, indicate that they are oriented towards performance and demonstrated mastery. NCEST then suggested the national standards as voluntary and tried to assume the state of an adviser. This was the first step in the lifespan of the standards movement.

The second stage is linked to George W. Bush controversial act of 2001, *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB). This law constrains all American schools to demonstrate their success through the performance of their students, with no exception even for newly arrived immigrants. The most controversial component of NCLB is accountability. Teachers, administrators, and students were to be evaluated through standardised tests administered to students. These measurements could even determine

whether the school is to open or shutdown and whether a student will graduate or not (Pratte, 2001). The act contains four basic education reform principles:

- Accountability for results.
- Increased flexibility and local control.
- Expanded options for parents.
- Emphasis on teaching methods that have proven to work. (Bush, 2001, p. 2)

The states that failed to comply with these principles and provide records of students' progress are inflicted funding sanctions. The second principle of flexibility and locally driven purposes refers to the freedom given to each state to build its standards in accordance with its context. The third principle allows different instructional pathways as long as the student could display mastery in accordance to the state standards, that is, the student is not constrained to the coursework imposed in traditional forms of teaching.

On the whole, the standards movement focuses on accountability and the outcomes of learning, rather than classroom processes.

1.3.1.1. Criticism of the American Standards Movement

This innovative movement has grown within the sphere of politicians and governmental agencies and organisations than in the field of academia. The drive for accountability that has marked the modern history of the American school reforms has resulted in the government focus on outcomes rather than delivery procedures (teaching methods) or resources. Assumingly, administrators, teachers, and learners are not doing enough; then if they are all held accountable for the results, schools will do better. This assumption explains the focus on efficient teacher education from the era of systems movement, to competency-based education, to the standards movement. In this context, Horn (2004) has argued:

...design flaws in NCLB such as overinvestment in testing accompanied by an underinvestment in capacity building, ungrounded theories of school improvement, and weak knowledge about how to turn around weak schools, perverse incentives for quality and performance, and policymaking by remote control. (Horn, 2004, p. 21)

After focusing on delivery procedures in different teaching/learning methods, now the focus is on outcomes, neglecting the teaching processes that could vary from one context to another.

1.3.1.2. Standards Movement in English as a Second Language

The standards movement has been implemented gradually since 1990. It proliferated progressively from one state to another and from one discipline to another, despite the challenges relating to rigorous accountability. ESL has known a relatively late entry in the standards movement (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The Washington-based center of applied linguistics developed the K-12 standards for ESL only in 1997. The national standards have sought to establish a coherent national English language proficiency framework and outline the academic and social uses of English for non-native speakers of English.

The ESL standards are derived from three major goals; they are nine standards, which, in turn, are divided into descriptors, progress indicators, and classroom vignettes with discussions (Richards & Rodger, 2014, p. 163). The standards are organised and categorised into grade level clusters (i.e., k-3; 4-8; and 9-12). In 2006, TESOL organisation developed the TESOL Pre-K 12 English Language Proficiency Standards, which include five proficiency standards; they are as follows:

Standard 1: English language learners communicate for social, intercultural, and instructional purposes within the school setting.

Standard 2: English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of language arts.

Standard 3: English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of mathematics.

Standard 4: English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of science.

Standard 5: English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of social studies. (TESOL, 2006, p. 1)

Furthermore, the English proficiency framework identifies five major levels of proficiency that could determine progress in the mastery of English. These levels are named as follows: Starting, Emerging, Developing, Expanding, and Bridging.

The revised version of the English proficiency framework in 2006 makes provision For No Child Left Behind; its aims are to:

- Expand the scope and breadth of the ESL content standards by bridging them to specific core curriculum content areas, namely, English language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies;
- use of students' first languages and cultures as the foundation for developing academic language proficiency;
- and, provide an organisational structure that is synchronised with federal legislation. (TESOL, 2006, p. 3)

As can be seen in the above objectives, the English proficiency framework substantiates the goals of the school reform institutionalised in No Child Left Behind Act. It provides clear guidance of a nationwide vision of English language teaching throughout K-12 grades.

Furthermore, the framework aligns itself with the recommendations of the core content standards of “the World-class Instructional Design and Assessments (WIDA) Consortium’s English language proficiency standards for English language learners in Kindergarten through grade 12” (Wisconsin, 2004, as cited in TESOL, 2006, p. 5). The WIDA is an organisation of ten states, which is formed to build core English language content standards.

The broadening of standards is similar to the process of competency breadth. Nunan’s (2007) view, which fully matches with the line of argument developed throughout this chapter, has stated that the broadening of content standards is an attempt to avert the criticisms made to behavioural objectives.

Naturally, the standards movement is still challenged for the traces of behavioural practices. It is a reductionist approach that relies on task analysis; it uses performance indicators to measure proficiency; and it is undemocratic since it starts with content pre-specification.

1.3.2. The Common European Framework of Reference

Corresponding to the development of the standards movement in the United States, a European standards model started to evolve equally in the 1990s.

1.3.2.1. Definition and History of the Common European Framework of Reference

The CEFR for languages is a descriptive model that accounts for language ability; it describes language from a functional viewpoint. More specifically, it determines what learners can do with language once they acquire it, how they can use it in different contexts, and what they should understand when interpreting other people's messages. Moreover, this model describes with precision the levels of achievements. It indicates the objectives, the methods, and the content of teaching, which are presented in a taxonomic manner (Trim et al., 2001).

The post Second World War era brought a new context that required more cooperation among European nations. New waves of immigrants from the colonised countries needed to be socialized into the European economic and social order to function successfully in society. This mostly adult population needed in the first place to appropriate a functional language that they could use to perform jobs and get personal things done. Besides, professional mobility among European citizens rendered the linguistic barriers intolerable (Matthies, 1983). The new linguistic landscape required common linguistic qualifications that could be recognized throughout Europe.

Moreover, with the foundation of the Common European Market, Europeans felt the need to regulate language teaching and make European languages more accessible to each member state (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). This gave impetus for a joint effort to establish a common strategy to describe, teach, and assess the languages of the member states of the Common European Market. The first intergovernmental conference on European co-operation on the development of language teaching was held in 1957, and in 1963 the first project on languages was launched.

The Council of Europe, a cultural and regional mechanism for cooperation among European states, was instructed to develop the feasibility of unit credit system for adult language learning (Matthies, 1983). This system recommends an organisation of language teaching in a form of sequences (benchmarks of progress) which would build coherently on each other in a taxonomic order. Each credit achieved by the learner is followed by an official credit recognizable throughout Western Europe and

Great Britain. Thus, the Council of Europe launched a large-scale investigation on adult needs for learning foreign languages throughout Europe. In 1971, this cultural organisation started the modern language project. The first results on needs assessment and unit credit system culminated in 1975 in the publication of threshold level, the first functional/communicative syllabus (van Ek, 1975, as cited Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 165).

Naturally, the unit credit system requires a descriptive scale which resulted in the formulation of the first proficiency level, viz, the threshold level. The latter is a conceptual framework that is applicable to many European languages. This model was successful because it was framed round language use than language organisation.

Within this cooperative work, Wilkins (1976) has developed a functional-notional syllabus couched in the “can do model”. Instead of describing language proficiency in terms of grammar and lexis, he has described it in terms of notions (e.g. space, time, and quantity) and functions (e.g. agreeing, requesting, and inviting). This was the first communicative syllabus; its innovation lies in the introduction of language functions as building blocks for language instruction.

Parallel to Wilkins’ functional syllabus, a team of experts (including John Trim, Bryan North, and Daniel Coste) worked together to develop the Common European Framework of Reference. John Trim worked on the description of language proficiency; Bryan North worked on the scale of proficiency; and Daniel Cost was concerned with questions of curricular development.

Since the design of the threshold level in 1975 (van Ek, 1975), eagerness had grown for more levels for language qualifications. 1977 had known the publication of a further proficiency level, namely, the Waystage level (van Ek, Alexander, & Fitzpatrick 1977, as cited in Cambridge TESOL, 2011, p. 6). The development of communicative language teaching in the 1980s and the shift of focus from language form to language function urged for a change of attitudes and practices. A common framework that could establish a consensus among professionals of language teaching and assessment was needed more than ever to speed up the transition to the what-can-do model. Furthermore, the workshops of the Council of Europe and its active work in changing attitudes throughout Europe in the 1980s led to the universal consensus for

establishing a common framework for teaching and assessing foreign languages (John Trim, 2016, June 2).

This spirit culminated in the organisation of the Rüschtikon intergovernmental symposium ‘Transparency and Coherence in Language Learning in Europe’ (Cambridge TESOL, 2011, p. 6). Central to this conference was the design of a common framework which would facilitate communication between different teaching bodies than presenting scales of achievements in language teaching. Furthermore, the Council of Europe joined forces with the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE), which developed separately and devised its own assessment framework.

In the 1990s, the development of the CEFR speeded up; it had known the publication of the extended version of Threshold and Waystage levels and the first publication of Vantage, Pre-Waystage, and Breakthrough scales (Council of Europe Ek and Trim, 1990a/1998a, 1990b/1998b, 2001-as cited in Cambridge TESOL, 2011, p. 6). The final draft was published simultaneously in English and French in 2001. Later, the framework was translated into 37 languages.

1.3.2.2. Approach Adopted in Common European Framework of Reference

CEFR adopts a functional view of language in that language is viewed as a medium to achieve tasks in social environments. These tasks “are not exclusively language related” (Trim, 2001, p. 9). Language use is action-based, and so should be language learning. More specifically, CEFR specifies what the learner should do with language in certain circumstances and in a set of contexts related to a given field. Much like CBI or objectives pedagogy, CEFR also specifies the standards of achievements through clear and well-defined objectives as well as the conditions or the domain under which a given behaviour is to be performed.

This definition of language use and learning draws close to the concept of competence. The authors of the CEFR use the concept of competence explicitly, but the definition of competence is relegated to a subordinate function, representing only one element among a set of other components involved in language use or learning. It is defined as “the sum of knowledge, skills and characteristics that allow a person to perform actions” (Trim et al., 2001, p. 9). Next to the concept of competence, the following dimensions are involved in language learning and use: general

competencies, communicative competence, texts, domains, strategies, language processes, and tasks. CEFR specifies the aforementioned elements as indispensable elements of any social communicative event.

1.3.2.3. Common Reference Level for Language Proficiency

CEFR also describes the levels of performance in a vertical fashion. The following table presents the sixth levels of the taxonomy:

Table 1.1: *Common Reference Levels: Global Scale* (Trim et al., 2001, p. 24)

Proficient User	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
Independent	B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex texts on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on

User		familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected texts on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
Basic User	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others, and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

Prior to this description of the graded levels of language proficiency, the traditional division of beginner, intermediate, and advanced were not precisely defined especially for the boundaries of an intermediate level (John Trim, 2016, June 2). Now, this innovative scale could be used to rank more objectively the students' levels in European countries and increase the possibility of communicating a common scale of measurement.

The above levels are also known as:

Table: 1.2: *Other Names for CEFR Levels (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 165)*

Mastery	C2
Effective Operational Proficiency	C1
Vantage	B2
Waystage	B1
Threshold	A2
Breakthrough	A1

1.3.2.4. Language Learning/Teaching

Another function of CEFR is to define and make public the learning and teaching procedures used to achieve the target objectives for all people interested in this business (Trim et al, 2001). CEFR adopts an open, pluralist, and dynamic procedure; it is an inclusive model that allows various methodologies with their different dogmatic orientations, but it sets up “parameters, categories, criteria, and scales” (Trim et al., 2001, p. 18) that the users of the model could use to fit their methodologies and reflect on them. However, CEFR does not bargain its fundamental principles of the “can do” view of language teaching and use.

To illustrate how CEFR methodology provides freedom of use of any dogma or approach whilst compelling users to reflect and make transparent the consequences of their approaches, we consider the issue of learning and acquisition. We all know that writers use them either in the Krashen’s (1981) sense or simply interchangeably. Consequently, users of CEFR are asked to delineate their stance with regard to this issue and also indicate, for instance, how opportunities for language learning in the strict Krashen’s definition of acquisition could be provided (Trim et al., 2001, p. 139).

1.3.2.5. Language Assessment

Assessment is central in CEFR. Assessment in this standards movement refers to the measurement of language proficiency, which is carried out through tests or other alternative assessment procedures such as checklists or portfolios (Trim, 2001, p. 177).

CEFR relies on assessment criteria in various testing formats. The tests described in CEFR are communicative tests. They integrate the language skills in a communicative context, which are rated through achievement statements. Also, the

framework offers the advantage of designing rating scales for the attainment of objectives. Self-or teacher-assessment grids and checklists can be used for continuous or summative assessment at the end of a course. The descriptors (illustrations or specifications of the content of objectives) may serve as assessment criteria. Alternatively, the descriptors could be exploded into sub-components as in the example below:

For example the descriptor Can ask for and provide personal information might be exploded into the implicit constituent parts I can introduce myself; I can say where I live; I can say my address in French; I can say how old I am, etc. and I can ask someone what their name is; I can ask someone where they live; I can ask someone how old they are, etc. (Capital letters in the original, Trim et al., 2001, p. 180)

In a similar way, performance could be assessed in an objective way by several raters. The assessment criteria can be derived again from the objectives of the scales, their descriptors, or alternatively the explosion of descriptors. Additionally, it is advisable to add the how-well component next to the criteria in these assessment tools.

Furthermore, a common European assessment tool has been developed-namely European Language Portfolio. The portfolio is used to document students' language "progress towards plurilingual competence by recording learning experiences of all kinds over a wide range of languages, much of which would otherwise be unattested and unrecognized" (Trim et al., 2001, p. 20). However, entries to the portfolio should be carried out systematically and transparently.

On the whole, the CEFR has contributed significantly to systematising and enhancing language teaching throughout the world. Clear specifications of levels, of learning objectives, of context of language use, of topics, of descriptors, and of language forms keyed to language functions have all contributed to a clear methodology for designing tests, language programmes, and textbooks. Moreover, CEFR has promoted communication over common language teaching objectives. Furthermore, the Council of Europe has contributed significantly to ensure a consistent transition from linguistic form to linguistic function or the can-do model.

1.3.2.6. Criticism of the Common European Framework of Reference

CEFR has received almost the same criticisms like the ones that have been made to the other composites of outcome-based approaches. It is a reductionist, a norm-referenced, and a behavioural approach to language education.

More importantly and typical of CEFR is its adoption of a rather traditional communicative approach to language instruction. CEFR describes language proficiency in terms of language functions, which in turn, generate their corresponding language exponents. This pre-specification and division of the linguistic ability does not capture the indivisible nature of language. Thus, this European language framework is product-oriented rather than process-oriented. It is based on the assumption that a set of linguistic functions or linguistic forms are relevant to a particular situation, ignoring the creative and the unpredictable nature of language. Widdowson (1979) has held that inventories of language forms and functions do not represent the communicative nature of language.

1.3.2.7. A Common European Framework of Reference Syllabus: Functional-Notional Syllabus

This heading represents an illustration of CEFR principles in language instruction through the analysis of Wilkins' (1976) functional-notional syllabus. Although this syllabus is relatively old and the practices within CEFR model have evolved, the functional-notional syllabus is still representative of the core underpinnings of the CEFR.

The notional functional syllabus specifies notions and functions as the building blocks of the content of language teaching. In contrast to grammatical syllabuses, which build their content in terms of language components, this outcome-based syllabus, in Wilkins' (2002) terms, makes provision for the learners' communicative needs. Language forms are then determined by communicative needs and the social use of language.

Functions refer to communicative purposes (such as requesting and apologising) while notions refer to conceptual meanings (such as objects, entities, and state of affairs- Nunan, 1988, p. 35). These concepts are used to describe the communicative needs of the students. Therefore, a notional syllabus is an inventory of notions and

functions followed in a second position by an inventory of linguistic functions (Wilkins, July 1976). This conceptualisation is based on insights from sociolinguistics, that stipulate that there are social conventions for language use; that is, there are more to the communicative use of language than the mastery of grammatical-lexical items.

In practice, a notional syllabus starts with a statement of objectives that defines the types of language activities, the situations of use, and the field of action (Wilkins, July 1976). On the basis of this initial statement of purpose, the syllabus designer selects the relevant language functions/notions from the repertoire supplied for them in the framework of this syllabus. Then, the course planner identifies the desired or possible language exponents relevant to each communicative purpose. Finally, the linguistic forms are arranged in a pedagogical sequence of instruction.

1.3.2.8. Criticisms of the Notional Syllabus

The first problem in the notional syllabus is the issue of grading and sequencing of content. Since the content of study is determined from the angle of functions, the resulting language forms could be ungraded in terms of difficulty, especially for beginners. Language functions could not determine which function is linguistically easier than the other (Nunan, 1988). Consequently, the criteria of simplicity and difficulty are seriously challenged and undermined in this context.

Widdowson (1979) has reacted harshly to this syllabus and said that it has a similar approach to syllabus design as the grammatical syllabuses; more specifically, instead of specifying grammatical forms, the notional syllabus outlines language functions, which in turn determine language forms. It is, in Widdowson's view, the same procedure using different pathways. But, the most serious criticism leveled by Widdowson is that the division of language competence into functions misrepresents the nature of language.

Conclusion

This chapter has included three sections, each of which has given a panoramic view of one composite of competency teaching. The first section has thrown light on the genesis of CBE, which is traced back to the objectives movement of the early 1900s. This early form of competency had been displaced by CBE in the late 1960s and early 1970s because of its training and behavioural orientation.

The second section has looked at the nature of competency teaching from theoretical and practical perspectives. It has equally shown how its advocates have attempted to make it distinguishable from the objective pedagogy mainly through the integration of meaningful task work to surpass the mere reduction of language proficiency to a set of discrete elements. Nevertheless, despite its perceptible procedural improvements in operationalising and practising language proficiency, CBE has not yet swept criticisms of behavioural orientation, outcome specifications, and reductionist practices.

The newest and the most recent realisation of the competency-standards system has been examined in the third section. This latest form of competency is more concerned with the outcomes of learning at the expense of process or methodology; critics have pointed out that the standards movement focuses on the product of learning for accountability issues and ignores the creative nature of language or the processes and resources leading to the accomplishment of learning outcomes.

This groundwork has cleared the concepts relative to competency, which are relevant for examining competency teaching in the Algerian context. The three versions of competency under examination are, in fact, intersecting and interacting in the Algerian context: the objective pedagogy seems deeply rooted in the Algerian EFL teaching practices despite radical paradigm shift; the core principles of CBE are promoted in the discourse of the School Reform; and the principles of the standards system are used for defining English language proficiency and identifying the levels of achievements for each grade and level.

More work is needed in the next chapter to clarify the major terminology relating to the pedagogy of integration, which translates competency instruction in a distinct way, without departing from the core principles of the American or Anglo-Saxon competency teaching. In so doing, hopefully, the reader will arrive at a better understanding of the nebulous word of competency.

Chapter 2: From Competency-Based Education to Pedagogy of Integration

Chapter 2: From Competency-Based Education to Pedagogy of Integration

Introduction

The preceding chapter has given an overview of the genesis and meaning of competency-based movement, this chapter examines a Francophone composite of CBE-namely, the pedagogy of integration. It essentially reviews its background in relation to competency-based movement, examines its major differences with CBE, and explains its distinctive concepts.

2.1. Pedagogy of Integration

The Algerian educational system has applied CBE as the major organising principle for its curricula through the 2002 School Reform. It hoped that this approach would dislodge memorisation and focus on content of subject matters, giving then more room for the practice of life competencies and the use of functional language. This shift has been based on the pedagogy of integration, a distinct realisation of CBE that incorporates divergent syllabus specification and uses different terminology. In point of fact, the pedagogy of integration is relatively more different from other competency approaches as it has grown in a different educational tradition-namely, in the Francophone pedagogical community.

In order to dispel this misconception of uniformity regarding CBE, this chapter argues that the pedagogy of integration is a distinct realisation of CBE that tries to make teaching through competency more doable and practical. In so doing, the researcher needs first to review the background and the theoretical foundations of this novel pedagogy to account for this divisive definition.

2.2. Background of the Pedagogy of Integration

The review of the background of the pedagogy of integration is organised into two major arguments; more specifically, this instructional design is a reaction to the shortcomings of objectives movement and an attempt to make competency teaching more feasible.

2.2.1. An Alternate to Objectives Pedagogy

The pedagogy of integration has emerged as another reaction to the flaws of the objectives movement. Roegiers (2001) has convincingly claimed that the pedagogy of integration is based on the work of De Ketele in the 1980s. De Ketele was a fervent

defender of the American objective pedagogy that he supported and promulgated in the European universities in the 1980s (De Ketele, 2000). Nevertheless, he quickly perceived the limits of decomposing subject matters into discrete items and teaching them so, without showing how the discrete items relate to each other. Therefore, he suggested an overarching task called *Objectif Terminal Global* (global terminal objective), which attempts to show to learners how discrete elements relate and integrate in real life tasks (Roegiers, 2001). Later, this novel concept of integration was renamed as *Objectif Terminal D'intégration*. Here appears the word integration for the first time, which is considered as the fundamental principle of the pedagogy of integration (De Ketele, 1980, as cited in Roegiers, 2001, p. 84). Basically, this new notion and syllabus specification aims at integrating the separate learned items at the end of a course of instruction.

De Ketele's (1980) proposal has been gradually operationalised as the pedagogy of integration (Roegiers, 2010a). A team of De Ketele's mates attached to the Catholic University of Louvain-La-Neuve (UCL), Belgium, developed and promoted De Ketele's (1980) proposal in a more elaborate teaching framework within the principles of CBE.

However, the notion of terminal integration objective appeared earlier in the American competency literature. It is probably credited to Gagné (1965) who proposed *terminal objective*, that is, a terminal or global task in which students are assessed at the end of a course of instruction (as cited in McCowan, 1998, pp. 25-26). In so doing, as mentioned in chapter 1, Gagné (1965) has attempted to improve the practices of objectives system and to dismiss the behavioural practices.

The team of the BIEF (Bureau d'Ingénierie en Éducation et Formation), attached to UCL, joined forces with the organisation of UNESCO and promoted the spread of competency teaching in African countries. More particularly, they rapidly diffused the spread of the pedagogy of integration in the African national curricula. In fact, many African countries (such as Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco, Cameroon, Tanzania, and Madagascar) espoused enthusiastically the pedagogy of integration at nationwide levels. The availability of the experts of the BIEF and BIE (Bureau International de l'Éducation) and the financial help of UNESCO and other international organisations

such as the World Bank encouraged African countries to reform their old and ailing school systems in accordance to competency principles. Coincidentally, the pedagogy of integration ‘radiated’ when most African countries aspired to change their old schools and assign to them new functions in the context of globalisation and rapid social, economic, political, and technological changes.

The pedagogy of integration has been very enticing for many African francophone countries, and these countries considered it since the 1990s as a key solution to remedy to the dysfunctional schools and fight functional illiteracy³ (Rajonhson et al. 2005). They thought that the weak performance of schools was the result of applications of objectives pedagogy; therefore, an active pedagogy that promises attainment of functional competencies has been accepted and promoted willingly to carry out the process of school radical restructuring.

The intervention of UNESCO and other financial organisations in reforming and developing new programmes for African schools is sometimes considered as ideologically-laden and economically motivated. Lenoir and Jean (2012) have maintained that the pedagogy of integration has been imposed on African countries in exchange for financial, pedagogical, and technical help. Accordingly, it has been imposed on them in the same way that the pedagogy by objectives had been imposed in the 1980s. At the heart of the debate, is whether the pedagogies that have grown in Western countries could be suitable in different socio-cultural contexts.

Although this new teaching model has not been tested empirically, it has been recommended and promoted in African countries as suitable to all social settings even to underprivileged milieus. This competency teaching framework applied in Canada, Belgium, Switzerland, and France has been imposed on African countries from the top when these countries needed a context-sensitive and a more ecologically sensitive approach to teaching than a top-down model. Lenoir and Jean (2012) have shrewdly remarked that the choice of methodological approaches in African countries has mostly been at the level of decision-making than at the level of national seminars.

In the absence of a locally adapted approach to teaching, resistance on the part of students and teachers could be devastating for the school reform. The Asian context,

³ The incapacity of new graduate to function successfully in society despite years of formal instruction

for instance, has shown severe resistance to the Western concept of CLT. Hu (2005) has called to a more contextually adapted methodology in school reforms to correct the harsh resistance of users (cited in Bell, 2009, p. 257).

Hirtt (2009) has supported that CBE in general works for the benefits of industrial companies and economic entities. He has maintained that the ultimate aim of this approach is to invest in human capital and prepare the competent workforce for the industrial market. Roegiers (2010a) has claimed that UNESCO is a noble institution and competency teaching defines its learning targets in an explicit way; thus, no hidden intentions are pursued. Furthermore, as will be seen later, Roegiers has defended the idea that the pedagogy of integration has been specifically adapted in a way to fit in African traditional teaching contexts.

Nevertheless, listing the participants in the African curricular reforms will show the economic character of these institutions. Chief among these intergovernmental entities are USAID⁴, European Union, and World Bank. In short, notwithstanding the potential economic drives of foreign interventions in African curricular reforms, the African school reforms in the 1990s and the turn of the 21st century have permitted to apply, operationalise, and test the pedagogy of integration.

Advocates of the pedagogy of integration have argued that this instructional approach has come in reaction to objective-based pedagogy, yet competency teaching had grown earlier in the US contexts, particularly in the 1970s. In the following quote, Peyser et al. (2006) have introduced the pedagogy of integration as primarily stemming from the work of the BIEF team that dismissed teaching through specific objectives.

This evolution is the logical outcome — as demonstrated by a member of our team (ROEGIERS, 2000; 2nd edition 2001) — of several pedagogic trends that have influenced the teaching practices of the 20th century. In particular, educators have endeavored to respond to the main criticism to pedagogy by objectives which was that it disintegrates a subject matter into isolated

⁴ United States Agency for International Development

objectives, a process some call - not without humor – the saucissonnage (slicing a sausage) (Peyser et al., 2006, p. 1)

Even though Peyser and her colleagues (2006) have conceded that this new methodological approach has been influenced by many educational movements, they have regarded it as their own innovation. Nonetheless, as demonstrated in the previous chapter, even the American CBE movement had grown in reaction to the shortcomings of the systems approach, and these pedagogies in question are almost two sides of the same coin. Thus, this reaction was not pioneering; as a matter of fact, the French educational community has known late entry to competency teaching.

Hirtt (2009) has overtly declared that the pedagogy of integration is “neither original nor new” (p. 2). In other words, it is a competency system that had grown in the US than in Belgium. This extreme view does not give full justice to the pedagogy of integration, but it is foregrounded on the fact that the proponents of this model of competency neglect the revolutionary work of the American competency-based promoters such as Houston & Howsam (1971), Schmiedler (1973), and Burns & Klingstedt (1973-as cited in Hirtt, 2009, p. 2). Indeed, Roegiers (2010b) has linked the work of De Ketele (1980) with the work of Mager (1971) and Bloom (1971,- p. 61), thus connecting objective pedagogy directly to the pedagogy of integration. It is a standard view to think that CBE as American and it is wrong to think that the pedagogy of integration started competency teaching, but it should be admitted that the pedagogy of integration relies on competency principles to achieve its aims in a novel way. Therefore, this second reaction to the shortcomings of the objective system gave another twist to CBE in the French educational community.

The pedagogy of integration has the merit of making competency teaching more practical than crafting the competency-based principles for teaching and learning; in the subsequent part of this review of the background of the pedagogy of integration, it will be shown how the pedagogy of integration makes learning through competencies easier and feasible.

2.2.2. Operationalisation of Competency-Based Education

CBE definitely lacks a clear or precise definition of learning outcomes as compared to its antecedent objectives pedagogy. Nunan (2007) has deplored the

vagueness of competency statements as compared to the more precise and specific objectives of the systems approach. This inherent trait of CBE has made this approach less viable and little workable in certain settings (e.g. the countries of the South). The pedagogy of integration purports that it makes learning competencies easier to all even in the most difficult settings. But, how does it organise and frame the learning of competencies? The answer to this question is discussed in the following specific methodological guidelines.

2.2.2.1. Situations-as-End Points

Roegiers (2007) has indicated that the pedagogy of integration uses situations-as-end points as opposed to situations-as-starting points typical of problem-solving approaches. This model starts with preliminary work on resources such as knowledge, skills, and attitudes before tackling the final target task. Besides, preparatory tasks are scheduled regularly to enable students gradually acquire the necessary skills needed to solve the final task. Conversely, situations-as-starting points begin instruction through the presentation of complex tasks; assumingly, the learner acquires knowledge and skills while conducting the tasks, without any prior preparation.

Roegiers (2007) has favoured situations-as-end points model, notably with regard to the use of intermediary tasks to prepare the learner to do the task successfully, learn integration skills, and acquire other types of knowledge. Moreover, he has claimed that this model is more convenient to the setting in which the learners are not used to problem-solving tasks and progressive learning; furthermore, it is more appropriate for teachers who are not accustomed to process approaches.

2.2.2.2. Continual and Regular Skill Integration

Peysers and her colleagues (2006) have shown that there are two main schools of thoughts that approach skill integration in a relatively distinct way; one is the Anglo-Saxon and the other is the Francophone. The former asserts that students could not integrate skills until they have fully acquired all the prerequisites, whereas the latter holds that the learner could learn skills integration gradually before acquiring all the requirements.

Unlike the Anglo-Saxon school, the French-speaking educational community schedules regular mediating tasks at the appropriate moment, say at the end of a

sequence of instruction, to gradually accustom learners with the use of integration skills, which are considered the nucleus of learning. Here lies a major difference between the pedagogy of integration and CBE in the sense that the pedagogy of integration imparts skills of integration in sequential and gradual manner. Peyser et al. (2006) have equally mentioned that integration situations are incorporated at carefully scheduled moments during the learning process. Structuring learning meticulously and practising integration regularly instill in the learner the capacity to solve automatically real-world problems and makes the pedagogy of integration more viable than CBE.

This outline of methodological constraints in competency teaching runs against the founding principles of CBE. There is no methodology typical of CBE, and such focus on the process could frustrate the outcomes. Spady (1977) has stressed the primacy of outcomes over time limits. CBE, in actual fact, promotes time flexibility, allowing learners to work at their own pace. It is arguably impossible to plan regular integration occasions during the learning process since not all students will reach that desired level of adequacy by this time. The tradeoff between practicality and student-centeredness (individualisation of learning) wants that time flexibility is sacrificed for doability. After all, maybe this methodological arrangement is more context sensitive for the students whose learning habits are usually more structured. The pedagogy of integration could be in this case more approachable for students from less advanced countries.

2.2.2.3. Maintenance of Objective-Based Approach at Early Stages

Roegiers (2010a) has asserted that teachers could use objective-based pedagogy in case they lack the necessary skills to adhere fully to integration work and also when their learners are not accustomed to progressive teaching. Nevertheless, teachers and students are imperatively required to progress in the process of acquiring integration teaching/learning habits, rather than to perpetuate contently the old teaching and learning reflexes. At a more advanced level in the process of change, integration teaching/learning procedures should become a habit and a spirit. Teachers should, for instance, devise their own integration situations. This inclusive pedagogical view is meant to help teachers who lack the necessary competency teaching skills especially at the onset of a school reform.

2.2.2.4. Use of a Class of Situations

The outcomes of teaching in the pedagogy of integration are framed or substantiated in a form of a set of tasks, pertaining to one single competency (Miled, 2005). This series of tasks represents a class of situations or a family of situations. In contrast to CBE, the pedagogy of integration defines the learner exit profile in terms of diverse tasks that the learner should manage to do successfully to earn success or recognition. In CBE, the learner is supposed to reconstruct in a bottom-up manner a target task, usually a survival or real life skill. Offering multiple opportunities for the learner to apply integration skills in varied yet related contexts ensures skill transfer from one context to another and gives valid evidence on the accomplishment or frustration of a competency. In so doing, the pedagogy of integration has improved in operationalising the notion of terminal integration objective through the use of varied but categorised tasks, while CBE still operates at the level of terminal behaviour objective (Ainsworth, 1977).

2.3. Definition of the Pedagogy of Integration

On the basis of the above background of the pedagogy of integration in relation to CBE, the pedagogy of integration could be defined as a simplified composite of CBE that tries to make teaching/learning through competencies more feasible and context sensitive and that interprets the broad principles of CBE in a distinct manner. In a personal interview, Roegiers has defined the pedagogy of integration in the following way.

The pedagogy of integration is one way of viewing CBA; it is a methodological framework that substantiates CBA. CBA is initially a set of broad ideas that require a methodological framework to make them operational, then the pedagogy of integration provides an operational framework for a concrete application of CBA.

This is how I define the pedagogy of integration.

CBA consists of broad principles; everyone introduces these principles somehow in his own way, but in the past mostly not sufficiently operational. (Personal interview, translated from French to English by the researcher, January 11, 2016)

The quote makes it clear that the pedagogy of integration is a methodological approach that interprets the principles of CBE in a more concrete manner. Likewise, he has summed up the meaning of this pedagogy in the following words: "...it is an approach that builds the learning process, stage by stage, and that enables the students to deal with any daily-life activities" (Roegiers, 2018, p. 14), that is to say, world competencies are made easier to acquire.

2.4. Objectives of the Pedagogy of Integration

The pedagogy of integration attempts to achieve the following aims: learning essentials for their usefulness, making sense of the learning process, and certifying through complex situations (Peyser, et al., 2006, p. 2; Roegiers, 2006b, pp. 3-4).

2.4.1. Learning Essentials for Practicality

As discussed in its background stated above, the pedagogy of integration promotes the essentials or basics that could make individuals socially functional; it is considered as a solution to 'functional illiteracy' (Rajonhson et al. 2005, p. 1), especially in African bilingual or multilingual contexts. It is a norm for all African children to learn an added language than their own. Usually, the French colonial language is taught and with the increasing influence of English worldwide, English is also taught to these children. Besides this heavy workload on foreign languages, the learning conditions are usually deficient in terms of absence of didactic materials, lack of teacher training, and teachers' low level of proficiency in foreign languages, so the pedagogy of integration suggests teaching the basics to these disfavoured children to function effectively in local and international linguistic contexts.

2.4.2. Making Sense of the Learning Process

Meaningful learning is considered today as one of the fundamental principles of language learning and teaching. In cognitive psychology, it refers to the fact that the acquired items become part of a learner's cognitive structure and thought (Richards & Schmidt, 2001). In other words, the learned items find their place within the cognitive representation or system. It is contrasted to the learning of discrete items that are not subsumed within a coherent mental framework.

Meaningful learning accords with the way people learn while learning discrete items are hardly found in real life transactions. The truth of the matter is that people

are confronted on a daily basis with tasks which they analyse and solve. It follows then to say that learning discrete grammatical/lexical rules and even drilling social and linguistic skills in isolation run contrary to human natural learning. These insights have their root in second language acquisition (SLA) research studies that support the use of tasks as a promising procedure to make learning more effective and natural (Long & Crookes, 1992).

In order to make learning meaningful and engaging for students, the pedagogy of integration employs task-based activities, which are usually referred to as complex situations. The concept of complexity holds a special meaning in the pedagogy of integration in that the learner learns through complexity (Peyser et al., 2006), that is, instead of learning isolated pieces of linguistic knowledge and skills, learners are confronted with situations/tasks in which they have to integrate knowledge and various social and linguistic skills in a meaningful way. The main aim here is to make students react to a meaningful situation in which they have to mobilise and invest the skills and knowledge they have or they have acquired throughout a learning process (Peyser et al., 2006). Consequently, an integration syllabus identifies the competencies of a subject matter in terms of problem-solving situations

Applications of this quality of complexity make learning more interesting to students because they are shown in class that what they learn has practical applications outside the walls of the classroom (Roegiers, 2006b). Students are suggested situations in which they can apply their learning targets in a meaningful way. This equally spares students from learning long decontextualised lists of contents that are void of meaning and that result in boredom and abhorrence for school activities.

2.4.3. Certification through Complex Situations

CBE in, general, is an outcome approach that assesses learning targets through demonstrated performance. The pedagogy of integration similarly examines attainment of learning objectives through integration situations or problem-solving tasks (Roegiers, 2001; De Ketele, 2010; Gerard & Roegiers, 2010). Integration situations constitute the best evidence that the learner has acquired the target competencies; accordingly, knowledge restitution or applications through linguistic exercises could not be used to assess competencies. The backward process of competency programmes

ascribe the identification of learning and teaching experiences from the predetermined competency statement, by this means, assessment should in its turn reflect that specific competency that is translated in a form of integration situations.

Once learners are certified through complex situations, they are ready to function conveniently in the society in which they live. This means that the new graduates are capable of performing the life and professional tasks they are solicited to carry out; and, they can mobilise the newly acquired skills and knowledge to face “daily situations” and “unexpected ones” (Peysers et al., 2006, p. 2). Consequently, this basic competency-based approach is a response to functional illiteracy (Roegiers, 2006b, p. 4), that is, it makes the learner a functional citizen.

2.5. Attributes of the Pedagogy of Integration

The curricular and pedagogical profile of the pedagogy of integration makes it more adaptive and context-sensitive especially for promoting modern pedagogies of interdisciplinary, problem-solving, and active agency. Among the strong attributes of this pedagogy are the following: efficiency, equity, and contextualisation.

2.5.1. Efficiency

Efficiency refers to a reliable curriculum which permits both teachers and students to immerse in the practice of integration skills and systematic remedial work (Miled, 2005). The pedagogy of integration takes into account the fact that the novelty of a participatory or problem-solving methodology requires taking concrete actions to ensure the efficiency of the curriculum or the school reform. Roegiers (2010a) has recommended principally targeting teacher education and improvement of didactic materials.

Teachers play a pivotal role in the success of any educational endeavour; unless they are well-prepared and sensitised to change their teaching practices, curricular changes alone could be inefficient. However, a change could not occur overnight. Roegiers (2010a) has convincingly remarked that it needs at least 5 to 10 years to convince and lead teachers to change their old practices (p. 153). Accordingly, when introducing the pedagogy of integration in developing countries, it is useful to leave out the use of integration situations or problem-solving for the acquisition of resources (regular learning) and only use them occasionally as summative tools.

In the meantime, teachers are trained to adapt to change through professional education and training; this, in Roegiers' (2010a) estimation, could take 6 months to 2 years. But, in the subsequent stage (after few years), they are required to start using gradually the novel pedagogies all throughout. Paving the way for curricular change is, according to Roegiers, a strong attribute of the pedagogy of integration that makes teaching more concrete and adaptive to social and educational realities of different countries; the pedagogy of integration is not just a teaching approach, it is, in fact, a methodological framework.

The pedagogy of integration, by the same token, predicts changes in didactic materials to guarantee learning through problem-solving and authentic tasks. Participatory pedagogies are definitely expensive for educational authorities as well as for students. Consequently, this instructional paradigm does not request the overuse of authentic materials during the learning of resources (Roegiers, 2010a).

Unlike modern participatory pedagogies (e.g. project-based instruction) that rely exclusively on the use of everyday materials to conduct teaching, the pedagogy of integration resorts to the use of a copybook of integration situations in addition to the regular textbook (Roegiers, 2010a). The latter spares the teacher from the effort of designing integration situation on a daily basis and collecting authentic materials for integration purposes in the classroom. Furthermore, the copybook of integration avoids the students the overuse of the internet and other expensive resources and materials that they usually exploit for conducting research. All these curricular specifications work towards improving the efficiency of a school reform or curricular changes.

2.5.2. Equity

The pedagogy of integration sets as its major aim the achievement of equity among learners and teachers, especially in underprivileged and unstable teaching contexts. The word equity in this context refers to what De Ketele and Sall (1997) have called pedagogical equity, that is, addressing the hiatus that exists between more able students and less able students (cited in Aden & Roegiers, 2004, p. 8). An efficient and fair educational curriculum should reduce by the end of the year the pedagogical gap separating high-achievers and low-achievers learners.

According to Roegiers (2008), introducing too many innovations in an educational system kills innovation and exacerbates inequalities. Consequently, in order to address this problem of elitism, where only some privileged and more able students benefit from the learning opportunities primarily created for all learners, only innovations that work could be introduced (Roegiers, 2006a). Innovation seems the major cause of inequalities in schooling (Roegiers, 2008). The work of Bernstein, a British sociologist concerned with educational socialisation, has long pointed out to the harmful effect of certain curriculums in terms of equity. A national curriculum can favour certain teachers, certain schools, and certain students at the expense of others.

Roegiers (2006a) has asserted that exclusive and rapid introduction of innovative pedagogies usually favours more advanced schools, teachers, and students who are more recipient and interactive with challenging and inventive pedagogies. As a way of an example, working with information-gap activities might necessitate generations for underprivileged learners accommodate to such learning procedures. Students who lack basic communication skills in a foreign language and who hardly share information at home through precise and elaborated linguistic tools might not be ready to practise such complex pedagogical tasks.

To come to terms with such weaknesses relating to equity in schooling, Roegiers (2008) has suggested a gradual and moderate introduction of innovations into the curriculum; scaffolding innovations in certain schools with less advanced teachers and students; making learning targets and underlying drives of the curriculum visible to its stakeholders; and, finally establishing measures of regulations on the part of educational authorities (p. 73). He has further indicated that evaluating through complex situations presents equal opportunities to learners than when assessing them through discrete language items and language skills. In his view, tackling didactic situations might be less demanding in terms of language performance for which privileged students might be far superior to those students who come from unprivileged social backgrounds.

In order to fight school inequalities and lack of efficiency in many African countries, the BIEF team along with the organisation of UNICEF has taken the

following set of actions to remedy to these major hurdles that impede genuine learning:

- Experimenting with knowledge integration through action research (use of integration copybooks) ;
- training well-qualified teachers by the advocates of CBA;
- and, developing a database for this pedagogy based on comparative evaluations of learners academic results of two cohorts of learners: A sample experimental group (CBA) and a sample control group (non-CBA). (Gerard & Roegiers, 2010, p. 5)

2.5.3. Contextualisation

Almost all teaching pedagogies have grown in the countries of the North and they are most of the time imported and applied in different contexts especially in the countries of the South. For instance, TBL is applied in Asian countries and CBE is implemented in African countries in a top-down manner; the success of these approaches in their natural contexts does not mean success in other contexts. Notwithstanding the problems relating to efficiency, the dangers of uniformity are imminent when these methodologies dictate normative contents. James (1981) has objected to the fact that competency-based ESL socialises students to the middle-class norms, rather than lower class norms (cited in Auerbach, 1986, p. 417). By way of example, CEFR identifies the language functions typical of modern European language; these functions could be different to other languages, say the Arabic language, depending on the roles those languages perform.

The pedagogy of integration is inclusive and does not reject any methodology; it, for instance, allows the use of transmission model of teaching, objective-based pedagogy, and, project work; and it permits teachers to evolve at their own pace and style, spending all the time necessary to acquire the module of integration (Roegiers, 2010a). Furthermore, this methodological framework does not specify contents of topics; they are rather to be identified at a national level in accordance to the challenges of the recipient educational system.

2.6. Key Concepts of the Pedagogy of Integration

The pedagogy of integration has distinct syllabus specifications and uses its own jargon, which is mostly related to its theoretical development. There are new concepts in the Francophone competency-based model (such as resources and family of situations), which are inexistent in the Anglo-Saxon literature. In what follows, these new concepts will be discussed.

2.6.1. Resources

The term resource has been introduced by Boterf (1995, cited in Roegiers, 2004, p. 59). Despite the availability of information and knowledge through the media (TV, computers, the internet, and CDs), this component of the syllabus is always present in any teaching or training curriculum and it constitutes one of the primary functions of the school. No matter what methodology being used, schools have to inculcate a minimum of knowledge to its subjects. But, the school has equally progressed in teaching learners other skills and values that are naturally required in tackling real-world tasks and promoting national values and universal attitudes. These contents of syllabuses are named in the Francophone competency-focused literature as resources.

However, resources are no longer the ultimate aim of learning; rather, they are tools to be exploited judiciously to face professional, real life, or academic challenges. The era of the Guru is surpassed by modern technological developments and requirements of modern societies.

Resources are innumerable and they are perceived in different ways. Basically, they could be divided into three categories; knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

- **Knowledge**

This old component in educational curricula refers to content (Roegiers (2004, p. 51). In an EFL syllabus, for instance, the linguistic knowledge of the rules of grammar and lexis, cultural facts, discourse knowledge, communicative strategies, social norms, and pragmatic knowledge are all considered the core content of functional use of language. Scallon (2004) has defined knowledge as those types of information that a student is asked to return as they have been acquired (p. 36). This means knowledge involves memorisation and remembering, and consequently no analysis or novelty is involved in its use. For instance, supplying the past form of irregular verbs belongs to

the domain of knowledge in Bloom et al.'s (1956) taxonomy of educational objectives. The primary defining feature of knowledge is the restitution of a learning item accurately as it has been learned through remembering.

Likewise, De Ketele (2010) has considered knowledge as marked by the act of restitution of information (p. 32). Accordingly, supplying the rule of agreement between the subject and the verb or listening to different text genres pertain to the domain of knowledge. Generally speaking, there is a wide consensus (Roegiers, 2001; Scallon, 2004; De Ketele, 2010) that knowledge is concerned with memorised facts.

In a similar vein, Gerard (2006) has argued that knowledge is marked by reproduction, i.e. regurgitation of what has been taught at school (p. 86). Accordingly, it is characterised by:

- Insufficiency of the link to a functional task (less meaningful).
- Structuring in the cognitive module based on short memory.
- Difficulty of reproducing it without a faulty performance.
- Lack of complexity of real-world tasks.
- Lack of meaningful context (Gerard, 2006, p. 86).
- **Skills/Abilities**

Another essential component of resources is what is called skills/abilities. This constituent of educational and training systems has been round throughout the history of education. Even in the oldest foreign language teaching method of Grammar-Translation, learners are asked to apply the grammatical rules of a foreign language through translation activities. Nevertheless, the scope of skills has widely enlarged to encompass new categories such as transversal activities (e.g. researching) or procedural skills to enhance learners' ability to learn.

It could be argued that the types of skills that were traditionally exploited in education are what De Ketele (2010) has called school applications (p. 32), that is, for example, turning sentences from active to passive or reading a text to find out its genre. In Gerard's (2006) words, these applications of data are much like the domain of knowledge discussed above (p. 86). They are little significant, decontextualised, and hardly applicable in the outside world. The second type of skills that De Ketele has specified is more related to the tasks individuals perform outside the school. For

example, the learner could be asked to transform an invitation that is addressed to Paul to both Paul and his sister Virginie (De Ketele, 2010, p. 32).

Scallon (2004) has defined skills in a more general sense to refer to the act of implementing the knowledge that the student has internalised. This cognitive process is referred to in Bloom's et al. (1956) taxonomy as a knowledge application. Actually, it involves the element of the newness of context. The application should mean, in Scallon's view, the use of knowledge in a way that the student has not done before. Thus, asking learners to solve a mathematical problem that they have already tackled in class is a form of return of knowledge. Learners have to apply the rules they have learned to a new data or context. Scallon has continued to argue that the rules to be applied should not be spelled out and that the learner has to search in his/her cognitive repertoire convenient strategies and rules and apply them in a novel way to solve the task.

As discussed above, the domain of skills is very large and skills could take a different range of forms. In this study and based on the above review, skills are merely referring either to knowledge domain or application domain in Bloom et al.'s (1956) taxonomy of educational objectives.

- **Attitudes**

A further and no less important component of resources is attitudes. It is an entirely new element of modern educational syllabuses and it is imposed by anxieties of modern times and societal changes. People are getting together in the workplace and the environment is requiring teaching its preservation; hence, positive attitudes of respect, teamwork, tolerance, and collaboration have to find their due place in curriculum design. Actually, the establishment of the affective domain as a distinct area of teaching objectives is not new; it goes back to the work of Bloom et al. (1956). Nevertheless, its formal teaching and respectability as an indispensable element in education have been hampered by the nature of widespread standardised paper-and-pencil tests. But, since the development of complex tasks and performance-based assessment, it has started to make its way to the assessment framework. The inclusion of attitudes in both teaching and assessment has become acute in the achievement of tasks that are much like real-world activities.

More to the point, the abstract nature of the domain of affect and how-to-behave has unquestionably impeded its assessment, and consequently its teaching. Assessing empathy, for instance, would be challenging for test designers and unconvincing for educational stakeholders. Scallon (2004) has also raised the point of the absence of an affective frame of reference (p. 75). An absence of a formalised and authoritative list of attitudes that could be consulted and exploited by syllabus designers discourages programme designers to incorporate them more confidently into teaching systems. Nevertheless, neglect of attitudes is untenable in that it weakens successful accomplishment of complex tasks. Attitudes are crucial in CBE because complex tasks are open and marked by uncertainties. Then, personal qualities are valued and deemed as essential in successful achievement of tasks. Perseverance, observing rules of security, tending for details are all deep-seated features of real-life tasks (Scallon, 2004, p. 76). Such criteria could appear in assessment in a form of an assessment grid.

Due to the aforementioned shortcomings of this aspect of the curriculum with regard to summative assessment, thus far it is restricted to formative assessment. Yet, these difficulties have not discouraged nationwide programmes in advanced countries like Canada to include them in their teaching agenda. Scallon (2004) has reported a number of crucial values included in the Canadian competency-based teaching courses such as openness, interacting harmoniously with others, communication, and completing tasks (p. 70).

Resources (knowledge, skills, and attitudes) constitute the core content of competency-based programmes of both Anglo-Saxon and Francophone countries. They are inextricable components of complex tasks because in real life individuals draw on their cognitive, psychomotor, and affective repertoires to tackle daily activities. In fact, there is no integration, no transfer, and no mastery of competencies without resources. Each discipline has its own resources, but there are interdisciplinary and shared skills that are inherent to human behaviours.

2.6.2. Integration

The notion of integration is neither new nor a distinctive feature of the pedagogy of integration. Since the advent of communicative language teaching in the 1980s, there has been a gradual departure from synthetic teaching in which discrete form-

focused items constituted the central part of instruction. It is now widely accepted that language teaching, for instance, should be reflective of the way it is used in daily conversations or transactions. Nonetheless, in CBE and more particularly in integration pedagogy, integration has come to acquire a special meaning and gain a primary status.

Since the inception of CBE in the US in the 1960s and 1970s, it has been considered as “integrated, holistic or relational” (Gonczi, 1997; Hager, 1995 as cited in Kerba, 1998, p. 3). However, in the pedagogy of integration the focus on this teaching technique is more acute (De Ketele, 1996; Roegiers, 2000, 2003, 2004; De Ketele & Gerard, 2005; and Miled, 2005 as cited in Roegiers, 2010b, p. 81).

Apart from teaching students how to perform functional activities, the pedagogy of integration attempts to develop cognitive abilities. Additionally, integration is regarded as a further step in the process of educational enhancement; the learning paradigm is further pushed beyond the mere memorisation or application of knowledge to a given context. Rather than dealing with discrete learning items that the learner is expected to synthesise and use harmoniously when he/she is called upon, the learning targets are shown how they combine and relate to each other during the teaching course. Clearly, students are presented with complex tasks which are close to real life tasks and invited to activate spontaneously the convenient elements of knowledge, skills, and attitudes to overcome a problem.

Integration is a daily activity; professionals and even laymen practise integration spontaneously in different fields of activities, without even thinking of the process involved in decomposing the elements of a task (Roegiers, 2010b, p. 35). People learn to perform functional tasks through experience; then education today tries to give an advantage to learners by preparing them at school to internalise and execute tasks as soon as they graduate.

It should be noted that integration differs from synthesis. The latter means establishing a link between cognitive ideas or concepts, while the former involves cognitive, kinesthetic, and socio-affective capacities (Roegiers, 2010b, p. 38). Moreover, integration subsumes the fragmentation approach without replacing it. More to the point, integration uses fragmentation methods employed earlier in

objective-based pedagogy, but it extends them through a meaningful combination of these fragments of knowledge. The field of teaching then demonstrates a broadening methodology; the fact of the matter is that, as shown above in the background of this approach, the pedagogy of integration completes objective-based pedagogy.

Likewise, Scallon (2004) has asserted that the situations that could infer a competency are outcomes of a continuity in the development of knowledge; that is, the evolution from knowledge to skills, and then to integration. Scallon has used the term strategy to refer to integration. He has described strategy/integration in his analysis of the learning objectives as the learner ability to search in his/her cognitive repertoire the appropriate skills to execute a task (p. 114). Therefore, integration or mobilisation, as Scallon has equally called it, is another higher level in the implementation of learning objectives.

The multiplicity of the elements of a situation and the ill-definiteness of the task make this pedagogical activity of integration more challenging and requiring activation of various skill types. De Ketele's (2010) classification of the levels of knowledge has highlighted that work on a competency does not involve a clear statement of the type of knowledge or know-how to be mobilised to answer the prearranged task (p. 32). He has actually contrasted the concept of competency with skills in that skills practice involves clear instruction without ambiguity and the learner is explicitly shown what is expected to apply to work out an activity.

On the whole, integration is a higher level in the implementation of learning objectives; it requires the activation and use of a set of cognitive, affective, and psychomotor skills.

2.6.3. Competence

Competence involves a joint and spontaneous mobilisation of resources. It is the activation of the abilities and the content of a specific subject matter (Roegiers, 2010a, p. 237). Abilities refer in this context to the various skills required by a given situation. These skills include cognitive, affective and psychomotor abilities. Moreover, the concept of situation is very crucial for the concept of competence because each situation is unique and requires specific skills. For instance, the competencies that the

teacher activates in a large class differ significantly from those he/she employs in a small class. Thus, a competency is practised in relation to a given situation.

A competency is not the mere accumulation of knowledge and being able to reproduce it; neither is it the simple application of rules to produce coherent syntactic units. Rather, it is, for instance, the use of the knowledge of language to communicate a meaningful message. Naturally, each subject matter has its jargon and specialised knowledge that should be used jointly with other interdisciplinary skills to solve tasks or overcome problems. According to Scallon (2004), a competency is action-based (p. 123). Hence, the integration of capacities is crucial in any definition of a competency.

Unlike CBE, the pedagogy of integration specifies more the components of a competency. Roegiers (2010a) has stated that a competency is a joint activation of the knowledge of the subject matter, the target activities (i.e. involved capacities), and the situation in which these activities are executed (p. 241). De Ketele (1996), in his turn, has defined this concept as the coordinated set of actions that are exercised on the content of a subject matter within a class or category of situations in order to solve a problem.

A less complex definition of competence has been formulated by Scallon (2004). According to the latter, competency is the knowledge of how to act or the capacity to integrate knowledge, how-to-do, how-to-act, and other resources. A somewhat similar definition has been supplied by Boterf (1995) who has defined competency as knowing how to act to complete a task. Roegiers (2010b) has noted that this definition further expands the scope of resources to include reasoning, automaticity, and schemata.

It should be noted that there has always been a controversy over the type of resources included in a competency. The list is innumerable; and the essence of the richness of resources stems from the complexity of tasks. As pointed out earlier, the elements of competencies are dictated by the uniqueness of the task or situation. Furthermore, it is of noteworthy that the writers attached to UCL (such as De Ketele (1996), Gerard (2006), and Roegiers-2010a) have always linked the execution of a competence to a family of situations. Other francophone writers such as Scallon

(2004), Le Boterf (1995), and Perrenoud (1997) simply relate the execution of a competency to any given situation.

Since Roegiers is the foremost writer and advocate of the pedagogy of integration and since he took part in reforming the Algerian educational system in 2002 (Roegiers, 2010a, p. 13), it is deemed more appropriate to discuss his definition of a competency, which is probably in line with the objectives of the Algerian School Reform. He has defined it as follows:

A competency is a possibility for an individual to integrate consciously a set of acquired and interrelated resources in order to overcome a situation, pertaining to a category of situations. (Roegiers, 2010a, p. 242, translated from French by the researcher)

The above definition highlights key concepts in a competency. First, the term possibility means that an individual is competent at any time, whenever he/she is called to do so. Someone who mastered the competency of driving could drive even when he/she is not doing the task, that is, he/she has the potential that he/she could put to practice at any time. It is an individual internalised asset. In other words, a competency is a spirit and an individual possession applicable in a number of situations.

Second, a competency is acquired. Some students might have the 'feel' for integration, but most of them have to acquire the skill of dealing with complex tasks. Thus, an individual could make progress towards mastery or lose competence as a result of lack of practice.

Third, a competency is a conscious act, that is, it could not be spontaneous all the time. Roegiers (2010a) has argued that if it is spontaneous and automatic, then it is reduced to a simple skill (p. 243). However, Scallon (2004) has disagreed with this view, arguing that the execution of a competency is spontaneous in that the observed maneuvers appropriate elements to overcome a problematic situation. Roegiers has not excluded automaticity and spontaneity, but he has further clarified that the learner needs the use of his/her conscious faculty to monitor and scan the appropriateness of spontaneous integration of resources especially when dealing with new situations.

Fourth a competency is related to a family of situations. Being competent means being able to solve any problem, belonging to a category of situations. This component of the pedagogy of integration limits the overarching nature of competence and at the same time extends it from the execution of one task to a number of other similar tasks.

In short, “a competence is what enables someone to correctly perform a complex task” (Roegiers, 2018, p. 9), that is, it involves the use all the human resources required by the nature of the task or situation.

2.6.4. Family of Situations

A family of situations is a set of tasks that are sufficiently distanced from each other, but belonging or representing one single competency. These tasks should not be too close to display the same characteristics and not very distanced to belong to different competencies. The following figure borrowed from Roegiers (2010a) represents graphically what is meant by a family of situations (p. 179).

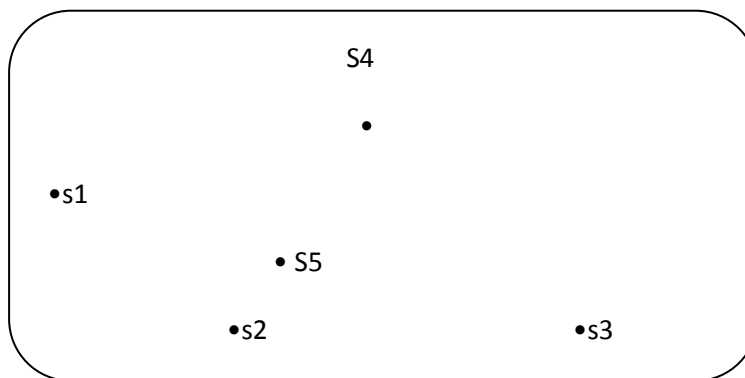


Figure 2.1: Family of situations

As can be seen in the figure above, situation 2 and 5 are too close, and they are too distanced from situation 4. Thus, situations 2 and 5 fit in one family of situations, while situation 4 belongs to a different class of situations. For example, in case of the competency of driving widely cited in the Francophone competency-based literature, driving on a slippery road, driving in a fine weather, driving in a rural area, or driving in a crowded city are all situations belonging to a single competency, namely, competency of driving.

The notion of a family of situations has a double function. It allows the transfer of skills from one context to another and permits a more valid approach to the assessment of competencies (Boukhentache, 2016). In the first place, defining the student exit

profile in terms of a family of situations allows the learner to practise the targeted competencies through varied tasks that are deemed to belong to one type of competency. Thus, the classroom now supplies more and more opportunities for the transfer of competency from one context to another. Secondly, the notion of the family of situations enhances the efficiency and the validity of the certification. Testees are no longer assessed through one single complex task, but through a double task (i.e. two tasks belonging to the same family of situations).

Moreover, Chenu (2005) has maintained that these categories of situations are a response to the expectations of companies with regard to workers. Professionally, individuals have to be able to deal not only with one situation all their careers, but a multitude of situations in the context in which jobs require adaptability, flexibility, and mobility (p. 165). Consequently, this notion of family situations enlarged the context of use of competencies.

2.6.5. Terminal Objective of Integration

The pedagogy of integration supplies various occasions for different types of knowledge integration. Integration situations are the primary and unique tools for knowledge and skill integration or simply the integration of learning targets. They are mainly used at meso-level (at the end of a term) for summative evaluation during integration module, or alternatively at a micro-level (every three weeks) as leaning tasks for formative purposes. Additionally, these complex tasks could be used at a macro-level for certification. In the latter case, they are called Intermediary Integration Objectives. Here is an example of an intermediary integration objective set up for first year Algerian English language secondary school.

By the end of 1st year secondary school and on the basis of an illustrated oral or written message, the learner will produce a communicative passage of 12 lines to report to third party events that are narrowly linked to the text listened or read. (Translated from French by the researcher, SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p. 6)

As can be understood from the quote above, the learner should be able to produce a communicative message in relation to a given situation at the end of the year. Furthermore, this instruction framework uses integration at a macro-level, that is, at

the end of the teaching cycle, say at the end of secondary school education. An example of OTI is quoted below from the first year English language syllabus.

By the end of third-year secondary school and on the basis of a text read or listened, the learner will produce a passage of 25 sentences, respecting the aim of the task and its communicative function. (SE1, Syllabus, 2005, p. 5)

Again as can be noticed, this terminal integration work occurs at the end of secondary school stage, and normally as a BAC exam. Accordingly, it is a synthesis of the whole stage of integration.

This concept of OTI is fundamental in integration pedagogy. Actually, it constitutes the founding stone of this instructional approach. The label of terminal integration objective appeared for the first time in the work of De Ketele and his colleagues (1989), *Guide du Formateur*, (cited in Roegiers, 2010a, p. 201). Its purpose is to remedy partially the weakness of objective-based pedagogy (De Ketele et al. 1989, cited in Roegiers, 2010a, p. 315) by incorporating an integration task at the end of the year or stage of instruction. Since then the idea of integration and particularly the notion of integration situations gradually started to develop as a new pedagogical procedure in teaching.

However, according to Roegiers (2010a), the artificiality of OTI and its macro-function makes it problematic for assessment (not amenable for assessment). Because of the problem of operationalisation and its artificiality, Roegiers has thought that it is advisable to overlook it since it attempts to cover a large number of competencies. Evolution in the pedagogy of integration shows that it is more practical and effective to work on a small number of competencies.

2.6.6. Competence and Performance

Basically, performance is related to the execution of a task. Performance-based language teaching approaches teach and assess through tasks. Chomsky's (1957) dichotomy of competence and performance has indicated that performance is the realisation of competence. However, as Jonnaert (2002) has pointed out, the view of competence and performance in linguistics and psychology is different from its parallel in the field of education (p. 9). For instance, while competence is considered innate in the discipline of linguistics, it is regarded as acquired in the field of

education. Furthermore, whereas disparity between competence and performance in the field of linguistics is considered as a natural phenomenon and as a developmental stage in psychology, it is conceived as undesirable in the field of education. The theoretical knowledge acquired by any individual should be applied as correctly as possible in practice, and failure to do so is usually frowned at and considered as incompetence.

Because of the above reasons, the dichotomy of competence and performance in educational sciences has come to be conceptualised differently and to be disassociated from the meanings conveyed in both linguistics and psychology (Jonnaert, 2002, p. 28). But, what do the concepts of competence and performance mean in the world of education? And, how the meaning of competence differs in the Anglo-Saxon and in the Francophone approaches to competency-based education?

2.6.6.1. Anglo-Saxon View

The Anglo-Saxon competency-based tradition is deeply-rooted in behaviourism. The first version of CBE (Performance-Based Teacher Education-PBTE) that developed in the late 1960s prescribed a set of behaviours that the teacher must appropriate to do his/her job successfully. This reductionist view systematically subdivided domains of activities into prescriptive and formalised behaviours that an individual is supposed to display orally, in writing, or non-verbally in a performance-based task. Instead of stating learning targets in a form of specific objectives, they are stated in terms of life skills. It is probably this view that is still plaguing CBE in all its forms. Opponents of CBE have considered it as incompatible to education and more appropriate to training programmes (Auerbach, 1986, p. 442) or as a disguise of behavioural objectives (Ainsworth, 1977, p. 332).

This criticism is justifiable because a competency was considered as a set of sub-competencies practised separately as enabling skills then integrated in a terminal task under certain conditions. In this case, the concept of competency is reflected in performance, and the latter is described and worded in terms of standards. Consequently, Ainsworth (1977) has rightly argued that the prestige of competency lies merely in the terminal behavioural objective (p. 322). In other words, competency is the realisation of a set of visible behaviours.

However, the concept of competency has gradually progressed especially under the influence of cognitivism. This notion of competence has increasingly included other components such as schemata and procedural knowledge (Jonnaert, 2002, p. 28). And, progressively, the notion of a task was substituted with the notion of a situation to make competency more contextualised. Furthermore, the scope of competence has been enlarged to include the affective domain. But, as Jonnaert has pointed out, despite advancement and modifications in the formulation of competencies, the list of competencies was very long and very prescriptive or normative in the 1970s. The inclination of that time was to train adult immigrants for a given socio-economic order specific to a given social class.

The introduction of the component of the situation into the definition of a competency naturally precluded the earlier normative nature of competencies. It has become impossible to define the sub-competencies of every single situation because of their changeability and infiniteness. Rather than describing a vocational task, the situation in which the task is implemented is analysed.

2.6.6.2. Francophone View

Another composite of competency-based education has grown in the Francophone world (Canada, Switzerland, Belgium, and France). This new movement has conceptualised the term competence in a distinct manner, making it far removed from the American behavioural tradition.

In his account of the evolution of the term competence in the Francophone world, Jonnaert (2002) has shown that this key concept in CBE has nearly followed the route it has taken in the US in the 1960s and 1970s, that is, it has initially been applied in vocational settings in teacher education (e.g. Switzerland and Canada), and consequently acquired the meaning of behavioural education. It is rather more acceptable to think that the Francophone educational and training institutions were tempted by the application of this approach; then they applied it as it appeared in the U.S. settings. But, it is unacceptable to think that the Francophone notion of competence has grown independently of its Anglo-Saxon counterpart. It makes sense to believe that the Canadian Francophone community borrowed this system from their neighbour (United States), and consequently, spread it easily to other Francophone

countries in Europe when the English language barriers have been lifted by Canadian bilingual researchers. Actually, the literature shows that Canada was the next country to apply CBE after the United States (Hirtt, 2009, p. 1).

The Francophone competency-based educational community has reshaped the concept of competence in its own way. Mapping out the core elements of a competency in the most cited work, Jonnaert (2002) has worked out the following components of this concept: resources, integration, situation, and success (p. 31). Accordingly, the word resource is very generic in that it includes a store of skills and knowledge, most of which are acquired by the learner experientially or formally. Not only innate cognitive skills and capacities are of relevance, but also social and attitudinal skills such as cooperation, interaction, and respect.

Hence, competence is not an independent knowledge, it is rather defined by performance or the situations in which it is exhibited. There are, in fact, no fixed benchmarks of success that could be applied everywhere as in Chomsky's (1957) linguistic competence. Competence is ubiquitous and changeable within an infinite number of situations.

According to Jonnaert (2002), competence and performance have fused in the domain of education simply because there is no other way to show or evaluate competence independently of performance (p. 33). It is this difficulty of separating competence from performance that makes this approach to education sits next to behaviourism; but, if the school has to evaluate authentically real-world skills, then an assessment of performance is unavoidable. It is viable to distance performance and behaviours from the notion of competence, but no alternative has been worked out yet to demonstrate achievements in another acceptable way (Jonnaert, 2002).

2.6.7. Situations

The concept of situation is narrowly linked to the definition of competency. The first version of competency-based teaching with its behavioural orientation was much more concerned with the notion of the task, that is, the realisation of a particular task. Later, a more moderate view included the notion of the situation in the definition of competency (i.e. the act of integrating knowledge and skills in a given situation). This novel view contextualises the behavioural nature of the task; actually, the component

of the situation is indispensable because a competency is practised and assessed in a given setting. The latter refers to the context or setting in which an activity is realised. But, as it will be shown later, this new concept brought a more complex definition of the key term of competency.

Roegiers (2010a) has defined a situation as the relationship between an individual or a group of individuals and a given context or environment (p. 267). Accordingly, a situation includes an individual, other participants in the social event, a physical context, and a task. A more detailed definition is formulated earlier by Roegiers (2000); he has stated that a situation is a set of contextualised information that is integrated and mobilised in order to solve a task (p. 126). This implies that a situation is an umbrella term subsuming context, knowledge/skills, and task.

However, other authors such as Scallon (2004) have used simply the word task to refer to a situation. Besides, Scallon has disagreed with Roegiers' (2000) view that limits the meaning of situation to problem solving (p. 112). Accordingly, a situation could be defined in a broader sense to include any problem-solving task or project that poses a challenge to the learner. In so doing, Scallon has attempted to disassociate the notion of a situation from the well-known mathematical problems to include tasks such as writing a summary, a letter, or a biography. In what follows, a concrete example of a situation is provided: *Writing a letter to a friend to invite him/her to one's birthday party* (Translated from French by the researcher, Roegiers, 2001, p. 126)

Roegiers (2001) has distinguished between the following two types of situations: integration problem situations and didactic problem situations.

2.6.7.1. Didactic Situations

In these learning/teaching situations, the teacher attempts to equip the learner with the necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes that constitute the core of learning. All types of learning are covered systematically in a well-planned sequence. Probably, the added elements in a competency-based syllabus are attitudes, skills of integration, and interdisciplinary skills such as pertinence and research skills. When implementing didactic situations, the teacher could rely even on the teacher-fronted model of teaching or the existing norms of teaching relative to the teaching/learning context,

except for inculcating interdisciplinary skills which inherently require problem-solving tasks (Roegiers, 2010, p. 270).

2.6.7.2. Problem-Solving Tasks (Integration Situations)

Integration situations constitute the core of the pedagogy of integration in that learning is made more efficient and permanent through the act of integration. They are situations set up by the teacher to lead learners to combine reflectively and integrate meaningfully some of the learning items they have covered in a course of study.

The function of integration situations is double fold. On the one hand, they could be used as learning tools during the learning process, either to make learning more efficient or to initiate students to problem-solving or integration skill; on the other hand, they *must* be used for checking learners' attainment of learning targets.

An illustrative example of didactic and integration situations adapted from Roegiers (2010a, pp. 271-272) is provided below.

Table 2.1: *Examples of Situations*

Didactic Situations	Situations of Integration
Identifying collaboratively the characteristics of an argumentative text	An individual production of a meaningful argumentative text of a given length and on the basis of given support documents.

2.6.7.3. Characteristics of Integration Situations

Unlike simple language exercises in which the learner is sometimes requested to respond to a question whose answer is usually accurate and known to the examiner, integration situations are usually open to diverse and original responses. In fact, these complex tasks display salient features that should be applied carefully to make them operative. On the basis of readings in the field of literature, the following characteristics of integration situations are identified. These features are based on the work of Roegiers (2000, 2001, 2003, 2010a, 2018), Scallon (2004), and Peyser et al. (2006).

- **Complex and Integrative**

The pedagogy of integration as its name suggests relies on integration (harmonious combination) of the already learned items (resources). In Roegiers (2001) terms, it requires the use of cognitive, gestural, and socio-affective facts that have been previously covered in an instructional course (p. 127), that is, not a simple reply to a display question. Scallon (2004) has similarly underlined the use of a set of strategies to complete a task rather than, for instance, the application of a grammar rule (pp. 113-114). Both Scallon and Roegiers have considered working on integration situations as a more elaborated level of knowledge application.

It should be pointed out here that the term complexity does not refer to difficulty; rather, it suggests the use of a significant number of learned items to complete the task at hand (Scallon, 2004, pp. 113-114). Also, complexity refers to the act of activating and choosing appropriate resources, not initially pre-specified in the instruction of the task (Roegiers, 2006, p. 171). Then, textbook writers or teachers who explicitly indicate the kind of elements of a competency that are required by learning/assessment situations strip the task from one of its fundamental functions. The examinee has to select the pertinent skills, knowledge, and strategies from his/her cognitive repertoire and employ them harmoniously to overcome a challenging situation. Complexity is not an end in itself; on the contrary, it is a means for promoting thinking (Roegiers, 2010a, p. 275).

Furthermore, complexity could mean the inclusion of intruders (Roegiers, 2005, p. 71). Again, the aim is to make learning and assessment tasks much like the situations that individuals face in real-world settings. In a similar context, Scallon (2004) has held that unlike traditional teaching activities, problem-solving situations in active pedagogies should be ill-defined, that is, the learner has to reformulate the question and probably ask more sub-questions to answer the problem (pp. 151-152). All these requirements and tendencies towards complexity are driven by the need to make the student think and solve authentic tasks.

- **Original**

Another fundamental principle in today's teaching/learning approaches is the focus on the originality of the learner productions rather than reproduction. In

outlining the principles of TBL, Nunan (2004) has argued in favour of creativity (pp.151-152). The input supplied for the learner in a form of texts or in any other discursal form serves as a model for mastering the element that will be recombined in a novel way. Likewise, originality is of paramount significance in the pedagogy of integration because it aims at preparing students to maneuver the newly acquired knowledge and skills meaningfully outside the school.

Although in real life there are common similarities between a set of tasks belonging to a single competency or domain, each single situation is most of the time unique. It is the case of a doctor examining every patient as a unique case despite the common symptoms that a group of patients could present. For this reason of the uniqueness of human activities, Roegiers (2004) has insisted on avoiding the reconstruction of the given model that portrays the nature of the task at hand (p. 58).

- **Specialised**

An integration situation should call for the knowledge and skills related to the domain of study, that is, the resources of the subject matter covered in class. Roegiers (2010a) has remarked that it is not enough to solve the problem simply through common sense. The specialised knowledge and skills should be reinvested to find a solution to a problem.

- **Product-Oriented**

Much like project work, complex tasks should culminate in a production, but unlike project work, the outcome is not necessarily tangible. This production could be a text, a solution to a problem, an artifact, an action plan, or a functional object (Roegiers, 2010a, p. 275). This means there is a sense of completeness of the task, and the learner produces an original and personal result. The productive nature of the pedagogy of integration makes it different from CBE that trains for performing particular tasks, and it equally makes this approach to integration more cognitive-oriented and far removed from professional training.

2.6.8. Project Work and Copybook of Integration

Project work usually accompanies competency-based syllabuses and textbooks, but the pedagogy of integration does not give much importance to this form of

instruction. Rather, it advocates the use of a copybook of integration, that is, a supplementary workbook that provides complex or integration situations for each sequence and unit of the textbook.

Basically, project work is “an extended task” (Hedge, 1993, p. 276); in other words, it is an elaborate task that includes a series of sub-tasks or topics that require days or weeks and working outside the school to implement them. Since this form of instruction is inquiry-based and makes visible and concrete the attainment of competencies, it is usually implemented as a pedagogy that supports competency teaching. Project presentation, for example, allows accomplishment of competencies in authentic real-life tasks. More importantly, this teaching technique leads to knowledge and skills integration (Stoller, 2002; Beckett & Slater, 2005), which matches with the intents of competency-based syllabuses.

Additionally, project instruction is also process-oriented (Legutke & Thomas, 1991) that allows substantiating the principles of socio-constructivism that CBA purports to achieve (Roegiers, 2006a). In relation to the pedagogy of integration, didactic situations or exploration situations could be equivalent to project workshops and integration situations could equally represent project presentation.

However, the pedagogy of integration does not openly support the use of projects for various reasons. This form of instruction contends to ensure equity among learners (Becker et al., 2012), while project work might exacerbate the differences between students coming from different social backgrounds and schools (Roegiers, 2006a). Projects require the use of the internet and other media means that many students could not afford in underdeveloped countries. Even printing projects and their decoration work require spending money on the part of the pupils, and also the free-nature of even structured projects in implementation could be challenging for many underprivileged learners.

Consequently, the pedagogy of integration suggests and recommends the use of integration copybooks (Roegiers, 2010a) that could be helpful for both the teachers and the students. These tools could save the learner from spending money on learning

the basic research and problem-solving skills, and they could be helpful for the teacher to implement a progressive pedagogy through the guidelines provided in these pedagogical instruments.

2.7. Conceptualisation of Learning in the Pedagogy of Integration

The pedagogy of integration outlines a special route to run effectively the practice and mastery of competencies. Its specifications and teaching guidelines go hand in hand with the established teaching system and calendar. Roegiers (2010b) has argued that it acts out as an interface between the political system and the application of the curriculum in the classroom (p. 13).

Basically, teaching in the pedagogy of integration is organised into two distinct, but interrelated phases which are; ordinary learning (learning of resources) and integration periods.

2.7.1. Practice of Resources

During this initial period, the learner is invited to practise and learn resources (knowledge, skills, and attitudes) necessary for the implementation of a complex target task. The knowledge of grammar, lexis, life skills, strategies, and attitudes pertaining to the target competency at hand are studied systematically and formally in an ordinary way. The learning of resources should constitute 5 to 7 weeks, after which the act of integration is initiated.

2.7.2. Integration Module

During this phase, the teacher or the school system suspends teaching completely and invites students to practise the skills of integration through complex situations. The students have to activate and reinvest the resources they have learned during the preceding weeks. Implementation of these complex tasks could be done in small groups, but preferably individually (Roegiers, 2004, p. 64).

After completing the integration work, learners resume work on resources. The use of these alternate teaching techniques could be implemented 4 to 5 times a year (Roegiers, 2004, p. 65). The acquisition of resources has a formative aim, while the mastery of integration has both a formative and summative purpose. Only a portion of classroom time is allotted to the development of resources, that is, for instance, three weeks out of four. Even if integration situations are located on a midterm, end of term,

or end of a year; they should constitute the major reference for selecting and sequencing the acquisition of resources.

Moreover, integration could be carried out at intermediate stages every three out of four weeks or during the integration module after six to eight weeks (Roegiers, 2006b, p. 10). The timing of integration could depend on a number of enabling objectives.

The following figures adapted from Roegiers (2006b, p. 10) illustrate the organisation of learning in the pedagogy of integration.

Key for the figures: O= Objective; I=Integration; IM= Integration Module; FB=Feedback; SI: Summative Integration

O 1	O2	O3	I	O4	O5	O6	I	O7	O8	IM
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Figure 2.2: Progressive integration

O1	O2	O3	O4	O5	O6	O7	O8	IM
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Figure 2.3: Integration module

O	O	O	O	O	O	I	F	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	I	S		
1	2	3	4	5	6	M	B	1	2	3	4	5	6	M	B	1	2	3	4	5	6	M	A

Figure 2.4: Place of feedback in integration

Figure 1 shows that intermediate integration work could be incorporated each two to three weeks of work on resources. This preliminary work culminates in an integration module, that is, a whole and preferably blocked week for the integration of learning items. Figure 2 equally shows that the integration module should take place after eight weeks of ordinary learning/teaching. Finally, Figure 3 indicates that the integration module or week is followed by remedial work and that summative assessment occurs after the end of integration module.

As could be seen from this conceptualisation of learning, the pedagogy of integration fits with the existing or traditional organisation of teaching systems. Unlike the U.S. strong versions of CBE that alters the teaching calendar and moves from time-based to credit-based instruction, the pedagogy of integration adds only the practice of integration skills at timed moments during the learning process. But, naturally, it involves a paradigm shift in terms of assessment practices. More specifically,

assessment of discrete items is incongruent with the teaching practices inherent to this competency-based composite.

2.8. Assessment in the Pedagogy of Integration

As argued throughout this thesis, CBA involves a paradigm shift that even assessment takes radical alteration in forms and procedures. Naturally, as the learning objectives are closely related to assessment, it is unthinkable to reform one without reviewing the other. The move from the teaching of knowledge, skills, and attitudes to the teaching of competencies equally involves a shift in assessment practices. According to Scallon (2004), any teaching syllabus that sets up in its framework the assessment of the ability to use knowledge, skills, and attitudes in varied contexts along with its teaching objectives can be called a competency-based programme.

Scallon (2004) has held that assessment of competencies that an individual should exhibit at the end of a course of study is not enough: assessment of learners' progress in terms of knowledge and skills linked to the realisation of competencies is by the same token crucial, and it depends on the efficiency of classroom observation and diagnosing instruments.

2.8.1. Assessment through Complex Situations

Assessment in competency-based teaching is fundamentally based on the use of complex situations, which are not so different from learning situations or integration situations. A competency can be only measured through complex tasks or real-world tasks. As outlined in the definition of complexity provided above, a complex situation involves a new combination of familiar/mastered resources to solve a problem, for which there is no specific route in its accomplishment.

2.8.2. Designing an Assessment Task

The first criterion to consider in devising a complex situation is pertinence (Roegiers, 2003; Gerard, 2007, April), that is, it should test the degree of mastery of the target competency. In so doing, one should refer to the family of situations, making up that competency to be tested. It is on the basis of a task framework of reference that assessment of a competency can be successfully achieved (Roegiers, 2000; Jonnaert, Barrette, Masciotra & Yaya, 2006, cited in Gerard, 2007, April, p. 167). Indeed, it is shown when discussing the precepts of CBE that this instructional framework defines

its objectives in terms of tasks. Once, the framework of reference relative to what the learner should do outside the school is clearly set up, it is easier to define a class of situation of each competency.

Unless there is a task-based framework of reference reflecting both the tasks that the learner would face up outside the school to operate as a professional, it is nearly impossible to assess attainment of competencies. In the absence of such a situation-based database, the tasks proposed for the learner to solve are usually discrete activities that do not guarantee the mastery of any particular competency (Gerard, 2007, April). Within the framework of the pedagogy of integration, the concept of family of situation is included in the definition of a competency (Scallon, 2004); dealing with isolated world tasks that lack any links in terms of domain (topic) of study or common resources to be used in solving those tasks, cannot allow teachers and curriculum designers to infer any judgment on attainment of competencies.

Nevertheless, it is not always possible to define competencies in terms of tasks or situations. Scallon (2004) has correctly pointed out that a number of competencies targeted in certain programmes are not associated with professional tasks or any known situations. Similarly, Gerard (2007, April) has raised the problem of identifying a class of situation in interdisciplinary competency-based curricula, in which it is impossible to limit the number of situations making up a particular competency. Alternatively, when it is difficult to define a competency in terms of tasks, teachers or curricular designers can invent situations that can serve a double fold purpose: (1) to train the learner and (2) infer attainment of competencies (Scallon, 2004, p. 150).

Once a target competency or OTI is identified, Roegiers (2006b) has suggested the following signposts to guide the design of these assessment tasks:

- Choosing or devising a new situation (i.e. context); otherwise, the situation will be a mere reproduction of knowledge and skills.
- Making sure each criterion is tested independently three times.
- Writing or choosing carefully the supports and instructions so that the situation is clearly presented to the learner.
- Specifying the indicators that the teacher should note down when correcting a student copy.

- Designing a correction grid. (Translated from French by the researcher, Roegiers, 2006b, p. 33)

2.8.3. Characteristics of Assessment Situations

A set of criteria characterising a valid and pertinent assessment task should be established to guide the design of performance-based assessment activities. Scallon (2004) synthesised the core features of such problem-solving tasks (pp. 50-58). These characteristics are discussed below.

- **An expected Production**

A performance-based task should culminate in a written, oral, or gestural production. The end product can be a schema, a text, a play, or an artifact; its complexity may lie either in the task itself (the accomplishment of the task) or in the description of the process of its implementation (Scallon, 2004). If the outcome of a task is very simple, the learner might be asked to report how he/she has achieved the task; it is the case of assessment procedure through a portfolio in which the learner gives an account of the difficulties he/she has encountered and the means he/she has put into practice to overcome them.

- **Ill-Defined Problem**

Unlike traditional problem-solving activities wherein all pieces of information are provided, complex situations lack fundamental elements necessary to the accomplishment of the task. The aim is not to mislead the learner as much as to make the task as close as possible to real life situations. Many writers (Tardif, 1992; Fabre, 1999) have suggested different strategies to make a problem ill-defined and close to real-world tasks (cited in Scallon, 2004, p. 152). But, Roegiers (2010a) seems to have a different approach in devising such tasks. What is fundamentally important, in his opinion and contrary to traditional problem-solving tasks, is that students are not supplied with the essential resources and are not shown how to combine the ingredients of a task to solve the problem. Contrary to Tardif (1992, cited in Scallon, 2004, p. 152) who has suggested hiding the purpose of a task in the statement of the

problem as a useful strategy to make the task ill-defined, Roegiers (2003) has suggested making the statement of the purpose accessible to the student.

Again, in order to make a task resemble daily life activities, Scallon (2004) has proposed providing students fewer pieces of information in the statement of the problem to stimulate them to reformulate and construct the problem. De Ketele (1993) and Roegiers (2000), in their turn, have suggested including intruders to increase the complexity of the task and make it more realistic.

- **Value of Authenticity and Meaningfulness**

Scallon (2004) has noted that the value of authenticity is desirable in vocational training programmes and for graduating students, while it is of little significance for young learners. Consequently, in his view, what is important is the value of meaningfulness.

Problem-solving tasks have to make sense for learners; learners have to see the aim of their learning and implementing either pedagogical or assessment tasks. Consequently, unlike traditional tasks that are mainly decontextualised and abstract, complex tasks should be at least significant for students. Roegiers (2006b) has equally argued for the value of meaningfulness and suggested including the following parameters to make a situation more meaningful:

- Give an operational (functional) objective for the task.
- Select a context that relates to the lives of learners.
- Illustrate.
- Introduce data that are real or plausible.
- Work on authentic documents. (Translated from French by the researcher, Roegiers, 2006b, p. 72)

- **Multiplicity of Resources**

One way to gauge the complexity of a situation-problem task is through increasing/decreasing the number of resources required by the task; yet, as Scallon (2004) has written, it is a very simplistic view to consider this factor as the only criterion that can determine the difficulty of the task. Actually, this parameter is one

among a multitude of factors relating to the nature of the task that can be exploited to grade task complexity in accordance to students' level of cognitive, affective, and gestural development.

An integration task that requires an investment of a large number of skills and knowledge is usually challenging to the observed, and it is even more challenging when the combinations among the various resources and skills are more intricate (Roegiers, 2004). Decreasing the difficulty of the task can be carried out by inserting sub-instructions, explicating the kind of resources needed or the kind of operations essential for the accomplishment of the task.

- **Covering Target Resources**

When constructing a competency-based task, it is necessary to identify precisely and cover the types of resources that make up that competency, though it is not always possible. Even the statement of a competency in any competency-based inventory is never sufficiently informative and covering all types of knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the target competency. Nor any competency-based task can cover all the resources and parameters of a competency. For example, testing a football player in one or two matches is never demonstrative of the whole sum of resources and skills that a player should demonstrate to be competent. Those two matches might not cover instances when climatic conditions are terrible or when the competition is harsh.

Roegiers (2011) has recommended the resort to a family of situations to cover as much as possible of resources and investment skills through supplying the learner with “three independent occasions to show his/her mastery of the competency” (p. 196). However, in the case of certification tests where it is not possible to incorporate three competency tasks, one complex task can be used along with discrete test items.

- **Context of Autonomy**

Problem-solving tasks provide individual learners with a context of autonomy in which they have to choose spontaneously appropriate resources to overcome the task. However, the sub-questions that accompany the statement of instructions of a task might limit individuals' freedom to act naturally and might equally threaten the

validity of the task. Scallon (2004) has commented that if we ask in the instructions of a task submitted to an observed to obey to the rules of safety, then the values displayed by the observed are not attitudinal; rather, they are triggered on demand. Likewise, Beckers et al. (2012) have questioned the validity of the task when the resources to be mobilised are explicitly specified. Furthermore, Scallon has added another threat to the validity of the task which is cooperation among students; Roegiers (2011), in his turn, has asserted that an assessment task should be solved individually; cooperation is only allowed during the learning process, and specifically while working on resources or on learning tasks (exploration tasks).

Consequently, the scaffolding and support provided for learners during the learning process should be removed gradually during the crucial moments of assessment and certification in order to infer validly and precisely the attainment of a competency statement.

2.8.4. Correction of Complex Productions

The complexity of a problem-solving task implies the presence of a set of elements and operations that a learner should master and use efficiently. These elements basically refer to the mastery of target resources which have been covered in a course of study. Consequently, a subjective survey of the production is not an acceptable procedure when rating the performance of the learner on the task. Objectivity and systematicity are required to approach the production from various angles and ensure that each fundamental element of a competency is attended to.

Gerard (2006) has emphasised that there is usually no correct/false answer to a complex situation, and even when there is one possible answer as in mathematics, it is equally important to consider the route that the student has adopted to arrive at the outcome. Considering the learner's production scientifically, then, demands the use of various assessment criteria. Each of these standards of achievements constitutes an entirely different examination of the production (Gerard, 2006); to quote the analogy of Roegiers (2006b), each single assessment constitutes the use of a new pair of glasses (pp. 20-21); in simpler words, a criterion is a point of view through which a complex production is considered.

2.8.4.1. Criteria of Assessment

Roegiers (2006b) defined the notion of a criterion as follows:

A criterion is regarded as an attribute that a complex task should observe. When considered as a criterion for the correction of a production, it will mean the quality expected from the student's production: a precise production, a coherent production, an original production, etc. (Translated from French by the researcher, Roegiers, 2006b, p. 20)

The definition points out that the criteria of correction are the qualities or standards that the learner's production should display. When an EFL student, for instance, produces a written text, the following criteria can be used: pertinence, content, and language.

2.8.4.2. Guidelines for the Choice of Assessment Criteria

Gerard and Van Lint-Muguerza (2000) have identified four factors that can guide teachers and syllabus designers in the choice of assessment criteria (Cited in Gerard, 2007, April, pp. 72-73).

- **Pertinence (relevance):** The criteria should allow deciding whether the competency is mastered or not and make a decision.
- **Independence:** success or failure in one criterion does not automatically imply success or failure in another criterion, that is, each standard is assessing a particular aspect of the production.
- **Balanced:** Apart from the basic criteria relative to the mastery of a competency, the criteria of perfection that are not compulsory but desirable should equally be defined.
- **Not many:** It is better to identify only three minimal criteria and one criterion of perfection because indulging in an endless pursuit of perfection through identification of a long list of criteria is worthless and will make the correction task more difficult.

2.8.4.3. Two Types of Criteria

The pedagogy of integration employs two types of criteria: minimal criterion and perfection criterion (Roegiers, 2005a).

- **Minimal Criterion:** It is a basic criterion inherent to a competency which serves to declare that an individual is competent or not. For instance, to quote the example given by Roegiers (2005a), for the competency of swimming, mobility (moving) and balance (floating) are minimal criteria that someone should master to declare him/her competent or not (p. 111).
- **Perfection Criterion:** is a complementary standard that an individual can master in relation to a given competency, but that does not determine the mastery of a competency. To take up the example of the competency of swimming in a swimming pool, grace, rapidity, and variety in swimming styles are perfection criteria for this competency (Roegiers, 2005a, p. 111).

But, when can it be said that a criterion is mastered? Is it by displaying its mastery once or on all occasions? De Ketele (1996) has suggested the rule of 2/3 to answer this question.

2.8.4.4. The Rule of Two out of Three

This formal rule proposed by De Ketele (1996) states that a criterion of assessment of a complex task is mastered when a student demonstrates its accomplishment at least twice on three independent occasions. That is, the learner has to show the mastery of a criterion twice in three independent tasks, gauging the same criterion, or in a single task that assesses the criterion three times through independent questions (Roegiers, 2005a).

However, the concept of criterion, according to Roegiers (2010a), is not precise and explicit enough to assess a student's production; it is usually global and abstract, and consequently, impractical to guide the process of appraisal of a complex production. For this particular reason, the pedagogy of integration suggests the use of the concept of indicator as an alternative to the notion of criterion.

2.8.4.5. Indicators

Criteria, as outlined above, are abstract unless they are operationalised to become indicators. The latter are observable and have a negative or a positive value. For instance, if we take the criterion of correct presentation of a copy, this factor can be made observable and concrete by identifying its precise features such as

presence/absence of deletions, presence/absence of identifiable titles, and presence/absence of strains (Roegiers, 2005a, pp. 119-120).

2.8.5. Assessment of Resources

The pedagogy of integration optionally assesses the mastery of resources (i.e. elements making up a competency). Roegiers (2010b) has highlighted that this supplementary form of assessment could be simply used to gain a complementary view of the attainment of a competency, but it is by no means used for certification purposes. Roegiers (2005a) has stipulated that the measurement of fragments of knowledge should not exceed 50 % of the content of the test (p. 149), while Gerard (2006) has held that they should not go beyond 25 % of the total sum of test items (p. 103). Assessment of resources could be used to document aspects of competency when students are completely new to the practice of integration.

Scallon (2004) has maintained a different view, arguing that resources should be assessed separately and before tackling a complex situation because they are prerequisites for the achievement of competencies (p. 323). He has advised the use of classroom observation, grids, questionnaires, or paper-and-pencil tests. This author actually does not fully adhere to the pedagogy of integration; rather, he is more from the side of the Canadian realisation of competency-based teaching. On the whole, the assessment of resources could be justifiable for certain purposes, but attainment or mastery of competence could only be demonstrated through complex performance-based tasks.

6.9. Evaluations of the Pedagogy of Integration

The approach of integration of learning outcomes has been operationalised and evaluated mainly in African countries. According to its advocates (e.g. Roegiers, 2010a), the first results on its appraisal seem encouraging and positive. Roegiers (2010a) has reported that the pedagogy of integration creates more motivation for the students; it benefits all students (both able and less able); it quickly creates satisfaction for teachers; it diagnoses easily the weaknesses of students; it ensures a valid and reliable assessment of students; and it makes teachers feel actors of innovation (p. 160).

Moreover, Roegiers (2010a) has reported that this approach has shown qualitative improvements in teaching in Tunisia, Madagascar, and Djibouti; and quantitative enhancements in Tunisia, Cameroon, Djibouti, Mauritania, and Madagascar (pp. 161-163). At national levels, he has further reported increase in school performance rates in countries where the pedagogy of integration constitutes the only innovation at work. Significant improvements in national exams were reported in Djibouti and Gabon (pp. 163-165). This author has convincingly thought that these results are the outcome of working through situations of integration.

Curiously, only insignificant positive results have been reported in favour of the pedagogy of integration in the European context, in which, according to Roegiers (2010a), it is harder to isolate the contributions of this instructional approach from the pedagogical innovations already at place. Moreover, the Algerian competency-based reform is neither mentioned positively or negatively, though Roegiers is very familiar with the Algerian context. Furthermore, the limitations of the pedagogy of integration are just summed up in relation to its excessive demands in terms of teacher qualifications and didactic materials.

2.10. Criticism of the Pedagogy of Integration

Many of the criticisms that have been made to competency teaching, in general, have been discussed in the previous chapter; therefore, this section will only expand on those limitations specifically made to the pedagogy of integration. The first objection made to this pedagogy is its pretentious claim of novelty. Hirtt (2009) has commented that the Francophone literature presents CBE as a francophone invention, while, and as discussed in 2.2, it had grown in the United States earlier in the 1970s.

With regard to the type of knowledge promoted in the pedagogy of integration, the focus on integration as the only valid way to certify knowledge is problematic. According to Hirtt (2009), only the knowledge that is activated in complex situations seems of interest in this approach; all other types of knowledge are devalued if not invested for conducting real life activities, that is, knowledge is only valuable if is at the service of competencies; Hirtt has wondered then what would happen to the type of knowledge that would never end in the framework of competencies. Consequently,

acquiring and comprehending knowledge is no longer the function of school as its exclusive function is mobilisation/activation or integration of knowledge and skills.

The big paradox of CBE and particularly of the pedagogy of integration is the use of the Vygotskian term of socio-constructivism. Socio-constructivism and competencies, to borrow Jonnaert's (2002) analogy, are much like water and fire. Boutin and Julien (2000) have confirmed that social interaction, collaboration, cooperation are not well-matched with an outcome-based approach, in which only the results matter. In the search for a sound theoretical background for this artificial approach, its advocates seem to have usurped the concept of socio-constructivism.

Roegiers (2001) has insisted that the act of integration of knowledge (the ultimate aim of learning) should be done individually, while he has presented socio-constructivism as one of the inspiring theories of the pedagogy of integration. To use ironically the words of two major proponents of this pedagogy (Gerard & Roegiers), the links between syllabus and assessment should be very strong (Gerard & Roegiers, 2010, p. 1). If learners are assessed individually, what is the use of a participatory methodology? We all know that people learn for assessment and work accordingly. In pursuit of a theoretical basis for this artificial approach, its advocates seem to have usurped the term of socio-constructivism to make it more appealing and respectable.

Hirtt (2009) has declared that the beneficiaries of competencies promoted by the World Bank and OCDE (L'Organisation de Coopération et de Développement Economique) are international and industrial firms; the incapacity of the school to adapt its teaching to the requirements of the job market and the industrial world has led business leaders to establish job framework of references in terms of competencies that have invaded the school and have been used for building up school curricula. Hirtt has equally observed that the referential of competencies and the categories of situations are derived from task analysis, which could find its origin in the behaviourism of Taylor (1911).

Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the origins and the theoretical background of the pedagogy of integration in relation to CBE. It has been argued that the pedagogy of integration has come as another reaction to the objective-based pedagogy, and that this

approach is a concrete and doable realisation of the broad principles of CBE; the pedagogy of integration seems to be more responsive and adaptive to the curricula of developing countries where it has been operationalised and tested. Moreover, the chapter has reviewed the major jargon of this innovative pedagogy and all its distinctive features that make it different from CBE. Furthermore, this second chapter has shown how teaching is organised in this approach and explained the assessment procedures employed for its implementation. Finally, an account of its evaluation in different parts of the world has been given.

The following chapter will present and discuss the introduction of the pedagogy of integration into the Algerian EFL curricula within the context of the 2002 School Reform.

**Chapter 3: School Reform and Issues of Curriculum
Design and Competency-Based Education**

Chapter 3: School Reform and Issues of Curriculum Design and Competency-Based Education

To get an effective school reform, you need to have a set of clear objectives and to pursue them consistently over a long enough period of time for them to penetrate an essentially conservative teaching profession. (John Trim, 2016, June 2)

Introduction

This chapter presents the context in which CBE has been introduced in Algeria and explains the curriculum changes that have been operated to couch teaching through competencies and meet the needs of the School Reform. It reviews (1) the history of school reforms in Algeria, (2) the history of English language teaching (ELT) in Algeria, (3) the 2002 School Reform, and (4) the issues of curriculum development and CBE.

3.1. History of Educational Reforms in Algeria

It is important to review the history of language teaching in Algeria to understand the current status of English as a second foreign language. Algeria is a multicultural and multilingual context that has been complicated by long years of French colonisation. Consequently, language policy and planning have played a pivotal role in assigning functions to the three existing languages (Arabic, Tamazight, and French). Both the French colonial authorities during the period of occupation and the Algerian Educational authorities in the post-independence era implemented intermittent reforms to regulate and assign status implicitly or explicitly to these rival languages.

Benrabah (1999) has outlined three major stages in the historical development of the Algerian education system, namely, the French colonial period, the post-independence period (Arabisation), and the postmodern period (globalization and free market- cited in Rezig, 2011, p. 1328).

3.1.1. The French Colonial Era

The French colonial era which lasted from 1830 to 1962 was marked mainly by the dominance of the French language as a means of instruction. The Arabic and Berber languages which were spoken by the majority of the population were marginalised and belittled in an attempt to assimilate and acculturate the indigenous people into the French mode of living and thinking and eradicate the vernacular

languages. Consequently, during the first colonial era, the majority of the indigenous population was not schooled and it was deprived of the services offered by zaouias (medrasa) in mathematics, physics, astronomy, and geometry.

In a nutshell, all the efforts of the Parisian government during 132 years of schooling and assimilating Algerians resulted in almost an entire illiterate nation, with only 30 000 elites out of 10 million inhabitants who could read Classical Arabic (Benrabah, 2002, p. 74). It destroyed the traditional system of schooling without constructing a systematic, democratic, and efficient alternative. The educational and linguistic intricacies inherited from long years of colonization created the complex scenery, with ordinary people speaking Berber or Arabic dialects and elites speaking French or Classical Arabic.

3.1.2. The Post-Independence Era

This second stage in the development of the Algerian education system encompasses two major school projects; the first education project (1962) and the second education project (the 1970s).

3.1.2.1. The First Educational Project (1962)

The first Algerian school reform sought naturally to wipe out the dominance of the French educational language content that lasted for 132 years. Despite the language diversity marking up the Algerian sociolinguistic map, only Classical Arabic was used as a mark of Algerian patriotism and as a means for distancing Algerians from the colonial long lasting influence. In Harbi's (1985) words, Classical Arabic was used as an embankment to prevent the influence of foreigners. Moreover, this high variety of Arabic and Islam were used as unifying factors in a linguistically complex landscape. Apart from the intellectual portion of people who spoke French as a prestigious language, the rest of the population spoke various Arabic and Berber dialects. This choice at the level of language policy and planning was reinforced officially and promoted in the 1963's constitution that declared Islam as the religion of the State and Arabic as the national and official language.

The promotion of classical Arabic as the main means of instruction has been controversial since its inception. The rushed move from French as a means of instruction to Classical Arabic created insurmountable challenges to the State.

Classical Arabic was not the language spoken by the majority of the population; the fact of the matter is that it was taught for religious purposes. Consequently, the newly independent Nation lacked competent teachers in Classical Arabic. The vehement aspiration of the Algerian officials to model Algeria as an Arab state at the expense of its genuine identity shaped by centuries of colonisation led to irrational and quick solutions. 1000 Arabic instructors were hired from Egypt (Rezig, 2011, p. 1329) to substitute for the flight of European teachers and implement rushed Arabisation, especially in primary school. By 1964, the number of weekly teaching hours in the Arabic language reached 10 hours (Benrabah, 2002, pp. 74-75).

The adoption of Classical Arabic as the language of the State and the unifying force for nation-building was not aligned with the insights of contemporary sociolinguists and experts in language policy and planning. In 1963, the Algerian authorities hired a team of experts from the American University of Berkeley to draw the sociolinguistic profile of Algeria; these sociolinguists recommended the promotion of the Algerian Arabic dialects alongside the Berber varieties as they were the languages spoken by almost the whole population (Benrabah, 2002, p. 74). Actually, the sociolinguists of the time advised newly independent nations to create a kind of stable diglossia, with a Western language as H-(high) variety and vernacular languages as L-(low) variety (Ricento, 2000).

Accordingly, in the case of Algeria, French could serve as the H-variety and Algerian Arabic and Berber dialects as L-variety. However, this view of language policy and planning is not in its turn value free and ideologically-neutral; Ricento (2000) has emphasized that its scheme served the economic interest of the metropolitans. The Algerian authorities that desired to put an end to Western influence ignored the view of the experts and reached a secret agreement with the sociolinguists to avoid publishing the report (Elimam, 1997, p. 112). As an alternate, the Algerian educational authorities created their own stable diglossia.

The Algerian stable diglossia has consisted of Classical Arabic as H-variety and the Algerian dialects as L-variety. It broke away from the recommended Western model, which suggested the promotion of French language as the language of instruction and governmental services (H-variety) and the gradual promotion of the

local language varieties (L-variety). Instead, the Algerian language policy-makers championed the principle of monolingualism at the expense of linguistic plurality.

In the 1960s, sociolinguists considered multilingualism as a threat to nation-building and modernisation and argued against the principle of multilingualism (Ricento, 2000). In line with this contemporary scholarly thinking, the Algerian State opted for the principle of monolingualism, and thereby sought to eradicate the cultural and linguistic diversity of Algerians. The Arabic H-variety was instrumentalized to displace the use of French and disqualify popular languages (Benrabah, 2002).

Classical Arabic gradually replaced French as a means of instruction. Bilingualism in Arabic and French dictated by the effect of colonialism started fading and the process of Arabisation had been speeded up especially since the military coup of 1965 (Benrabah, 2002). French was declared a foreign language in the 1970s and Arabic was introduced gradually and systematically as the language of instruction for all school subjects. Benrabah (1999) has argued that the system of Arabisation led to the failure of the whole school system and engendered a kind of linguistic trauma for Algerians. More specifically, Classical Arabic and French were both inaccessible and incomprehensible to the majority of Algerian speakers, while indigenous language varieties were marginalised and ousted.

Wittingly or unwittingly, the Algerian language policy planners created a double stable diglossia, with the upper class or elite using either classical Arabic or French and the rest of the population speaking Algerian dialects. Ricento (2000) has held that this concept of stable diglossia promoted by sociolinguists in the 1960s and artificially created in postcolonial period perpetuated social inequalities by means of education and access, without advancing growth or modernisation.

3.1.3.2. The Second Educational Project (the 1970s)

Algerian educational efforts from the 1960s to the 1970s had been disastrous because of the rejection of the French language which was more known to Algerians than Classical Arabic. It was marked by massive school enrolment, departure of French teachers, hegemonic Arabisation, rejection of local languages, lack of teaching facilities, and lack of trained teachers. Consequently, the Algerian educational authorities issued various education acts in the 1970s to restructure the Algerian school

in a modern way, gearing the policy of Arabisation to scientific advancement. The government probably realised that the blind enforcement of Classical Arabic and Islamism among a widely illiterate population would plunge the country in a form of obscurantism and backwardness. In this context, Toualbi-Thaâlibi (2005) has noted that the 16th April 1976's constitutional degree attempted to present the sacred and the temporal as equivalents or at least as non-antagonist (p. 19). The first intervention of the World Bank that offered a financial loan to prepare scientifically trained personnel and restructure the school (World Bank, 1976) testified the will of the Algerian authorities to disentangle itself from the debates of sacredness and mysticism.

However, the intervention of the World Bank implies a number of byproducts. The primary objective of this Western institution was to ensure that the Algerian school was training a competent workforce for the world of the industry that would serve the benefits of international firms operating in Algeria. Apart from projecting increase in literacy rates among Algerians and making provision for 9 years of fundamental schooling for all Algerian boys and girls, the 1973 educational project sought to reinforce technical and scientific training especially with the creation of new technical secondary schools (Technicum) and technological institutes at postsecondary level with a strong focus on practical subjects (World Bank, 1976). The following quote deserves to be cited to show the general objectives into which the Algerian schools were geared in the 1970s.

A first education project, approved in 1973, is assisting in the implementation of this strategy by supporting technological institutes which are supplying highly skilled technical manpower for critical sectors of the Algerian economy ...The proposed second education project would further reinforce the expansion and reorganisation of technical education in response to priority manpower needs; at the same time, it would provide much needed technical assistance for the planning, preparation and/or execution of important re-forms ... (World Bank, 1976, p. 2)

As could be implied from the excerpt above, the focus of the World Bank was mainly on training competent workforce to exploit the natural resources such as gas

and mines for the interest of the world market. Consequently, education is transformed into training.

Another approach to education, namely- Polytechnic Curriculum, was imported from Germany to sustain the Algerian industrial ambitions and remedy to the alarming school drop-outs. The curriculum was implemented during 9 years of basic school (at primary and middle schools).

The restructuring of education in 1976 entailed a unification of all educational projects and institutions and an increase of the State's stronghold of schooling institutions. Private schools were abolished from this period until the 1990s.

As mentioned in the introduction to this section, the period ranging from the early 1970s to the early 1990s used Arabisation to reconcile modernity and tradition. Classical Arabic was used as a mark of identity and as a vehicle for the promotion of Islam; meanwhile, this same version of Arabic has artificially acquired the status of Modern Standards Arabic (MSA- Belmihoub, 2012, p. 8). In the absence of mass media that could have bridged the gap between Classical Arabic and Algerian dialects (called 'Derja'), the Algerian new Arabic variety acquired its specific flavour that makes significantly different from the Arabic language of the Gulf. Despite all the efforts of the Algerian authorities in a form of decrees and ordinances, the readjustment operated to bring the Arabisation project to fruition have failed. There is wide consensus that the policies of Arabisation have failed to deliver their expected positive outcomes (Benchehida, 2001; Benrabah, 2002, 2004; Djite, 1992; Grandguillaume, 2002, 2004; Mostari, 2004; Sirles, 1999; Zoulikha, 2002, cited in Belmihoub, 2012, p. 8).

Benrabah (2002) has alarmingly deplored the linguistic incompetence among Algerians; he has reported that Algerians have become trilingual illiterate in Classical Arabic, French, and Berber (p. 76). Accordingly, during the national conference on the teaching of Arabic in Algeria on April 2000, the participants concluded that by the end of 9 years of schooling, the Algerian learners are incapable of conversing correctly in Arabic. Another example cited by the same author is the declaration of the Minister of Higher Education in 2005 in which he admitted that 80% of first-year university students fail because of their inadequate level in French (Benrabah, 2007, p. 226).

In short, the second attempt to restructure the Algerian school and reconcile identical representation and scientific ambitions seems to have failed. According to Benrabah (2002), the government has never succeeded in disentangling modernity from the traditional contents portrayed in Classical Arabic. In other words, Modern Standard Arabic is still frozen in the contents of the dead Classical Arabic. Neither the technological and technical ambitions were accomplished nor the linguistic transformations.

The need for another systematic school reconstruction was felt in the 1990s, but the social turmoil that marked the country during this decade and the financial woes of the period delayed the implementation of the first ever school reform in a modern sense until the opening of the new century (Tawil, 2005, p. 34).

3.1.3. Postmodern Era: 2002 School Reform

Earlier attempts to reform Algerian schools since independence are referred to in the current investigation as school projects because they were sporadic readjustments instructed through constitutional decrees and ordinances. However, the 2002 school reorganisation is deliberately referred to in this work as a school reform. This most important school transformation in the history of post-independent Algeria has been meant to create a radical rupture with the old educational system, which could no longer respond to the postmodern educational requirements; it has sought to reconcile Algerians among themselves and face the new societal and world challenges. Arabisation has been less focused and the Ministry of Education has attempted to make access to technology and technical subjects easier for learners at postsecondary education through the reintroduction of French as a foreign language in grade two of primary school (Benrabah, 2007, p. 235).

In fact, as Toualbi-Thaâlibi (2005) has illustrated in the quote below, the government seems more resolved to bypass issues of identity and linguistic conflicts and favour economic development.

Educational reform in Algeria has come at the right time to put an end to this ambivalence of values; even if it has been justifiable and sociologically comprehensible, it has also been at the origin of various school dysfunctions. In other words, this ambivalence is no longer acceptable today that the Algerian

government aspires to implement profound reforms, among which the school reform is prioritized. The government seems hitherto to have well-understood that in order to keep abreast with the requirement of social and economic performance brought about by the rapid transformation of the world, it has to promote more rationality in education, say building an intelligent school.

(Translated from French by the researcher, Toualbi-Thaâlibi, 2005, p. 20)

Toualbi-Thaâlibi (2005) has conspicuously indicated that the ideological representation was the major cause for the failures of the Algerian school; in other words, Arabisation that has been used for nationalism, nation-building, and unification of the people yielded poor results and hindered the establishment of a competitive modern school. Consequently, in order to untangle Arabic from the traditional discourse, the Ministry of Education proposed the introduction of modern pedagogies for the teaching of this school subject. The major purpose of this attempt is to render Arabic a carrier of scientificity (Benbouzid, 2005, p. 13).

According to Tawil (2005), the school reform intervened in the following context:

- Rapid social, economic, and political changes in Algeria;
- transition from a centralised economy to a free market economy;
- consolidation of the National identity through the official integration of the Berber culture and language;
- low grades in the Baccalaureate exam due to the inadequacies of the teaching methods;
- school drop-outs;
- increase in school enrolment (one-third of the total population); and
- unemployment of the active population.

(Translated from French by the researcher, Tawil, 2005, p. 33)

Such a context naturally required profound school restructuring, not a mere repackaging of the curricula. For example, the integration of the teaching of Tamazight and the introduction of pre-schooling required changing the whole educational system. The failures of the previous educational system had to be addressed in a more objective manner; chief amongst the criticisms leveled to the Algerian school is the

spread of religious fanaticism that engendered a civil war (Toualbi-Thaâlibi, 2005; Benrabah, 2007), though the school is, in reality, a micro-component among many other elements of a dysfunctional national system.

Apart from the internal incentives (such as school dropouts, unemployment, social unrest, and the process of democratisation) that urged the School Reform, other international factors had their bearing. Algeria, for instance, was the first member state to ratify with UNESCO the Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage in 2003 (Matsuura, 2005, p. 8). Moreover, the policy of Global War on Terror promoted by the United States since the tragic events of 9/11 exercised a significant pressure on the Arab-Muslim countries to change the contents taught at schools (Benrabah, 2007, p. 228). Consequently, the Algerian school had to be responsive to both national and international transformations at all levels of human activities.

3.2. Teaching of English in Algeria from 1962 to 2002

The teaching of English in Algeria started as early as 1962; however, it was taught following the guidelines set up by the colonial French authorities in the same way that it was taught in France. English was considered as a second language in France and naturally as a second language in Algeria since the latter was considered earlier a French colony and was still under its influence. From the Algerian perspectives, English was considered as a second foreign language while French as a first foreign language.

During the period following the independence until the 1976 school project, English was taught in secondary school in an ad hoc manner; the Algerian educational authorities were more focused on the eradication of French from basic education and the spread of Arabic. Therefore, the teaching of English was not considered a priority and it did not receive any rational planning; as a matter of fact, its teaching was geared towards literacy purposes and cultural discovery. English, at that time, had no bonds with the Algerian socio-cultural, economic, and political life, and it did not enjoy its current status as a language of commerce, business, popular culture, and international communication at least to Algerians.

The Algerian secondary schools used English language textbooks designed by foreigners-namely, *L'Anglais par la Littérature* authored by Richard Hall (Hayane, 1989). The teaching of English was mainly conducted by foreign language expatriates from various foreign countries such as India, France, England, and Egypt. However, because of the inefficiency of these textbooks and their difficulty, the Algerian educational authorities introduced new textbooks in the 1970s. These textbooks authored by Alexander were entitled *Practice and Progress* and *Developing skills*. The former was used for conducting the teaching of English at grades one and two of secondary school and the latter was used for the third/final grade of secondary school. Meanwhile, Algeria took an important step in regulating the teaching of English as a foreign language; this was mainly done through the decision taken in 1972 to Algerianise the English language textbooks (Mize, 1978). Following this decision, the Ministry of Education designed two entirely Algerian textbooks for the third and fourth grade of middle school-namely *Andy in Algeria* and *Madjid in England*, respectively.

The 1976 ordinance which was fully substantiated in the 1980s set up the Foundation School system in Algeria and brought new curricula and the devise of Algerian English language textbooks from middle school to secondary school education; four Algerian English language textbooks were designed by Algerian authors for both middle and secondary schools which were as follows: *Spring 1* for third-year middle school; *Spring 2* for fourth-year middle school; *New Lines 1* for first- year secondary school; and *New Lines 2* for second-year secondary school. This first generation of the Algerian English language textbooks put an end to the inconsistencies and inconveniences of imported textbooks, and it was followed by many other textbooks ever since that time to the current day.

In terms of teaching methodology, the early years of English foreign language teaching in Algeria adhered to the colonial methodologies as the policy of English language teaching was still under the grasp of the former French colonizer (Hayane, 1989). Actually the French language was still used in the teaching of English as many of the expatriate teachers were French; however, since the 1970s, a structural

methodology was used for the teaching of the formal system of language and conversational drills were adopted for acquiring oral fluency in English.

Algerians show a rather more positive attitude towards English as compared to French; naturally, the French language is represented in the minds of the majority of Algerians as the language of colonialism and repression. This historical feeling is reinforced by the government educational policy. As argued earlier in this chapter, the Algerian government has sought since independence to eradicate all traces of this prestigious language. Nevertheless, because of the historical bonds between the Algerians and the French and because of the failure of Arabic to appropriate the status of a modern language that carries scientificity, French is still widely used by Algerians and even for governmental services. Contrarily, English is not viewed as the language of colonialism despite the well-known hatred sentiment that Muslim-Arab people feel towards the American interventionist foreign policy. Neither the Algerian population nor the government officials view English as a means of imperialism or acculturation. Still, the Algerian government instrumentalises English to displace French.

In 1993, the Algerian educational authorities attempted a new form of bilingualism in Arabic and English, offering a choice for parents to select for their children either English or French as the first foreign language in the fourth grade of primary school. The Ministry of Education held that parents opted for English, yet the official statistics show a different reality and the project was quickly dismissed! Quéffelec, Derradji, Debov, Smaali-Dekdouk, Cherrad-Bencheфра (2002) have reported that in Constantine in 1996, for example, 5.609 pupils were enrolled in learning English as the first foreign language against 121 420 learners registered for acquiring French as the first foreign language (p. 37). They have further illustrated that 98.78 % of the Algerian school population chose French as the first foreign language (p. 38).

This new bilingual initiative was encouraged by the influential Islamic movement of the 1990s (Queffélec et al. 2002). The movement wanted to make Algeria a Middle-East country despite its historical and sociolinguistic scenery (Belmihoub, 2012) and further alienate Algerians from their legitimate identity (Benrabah, 2002). Nevertheless, many Algerian parents were quick to notice that

French would be more beneficial to their children in the long run because scientific studies and documentation are more available in French than in English. And, probably, English is not much more useful in a society where it is not used for daily activities.

Though English is represented as a neutral and value-free language in the minds of the majority of Algerians, it is equally ideologically-laden. Any foreign language is a carrier of domination and it usually serves the interests of the metropolitan countries externally and the minority of elites internally (Phillipson, 1992). English as a dominant language could be more detrimental to the National cultural and linguistic heritage. The positive attitude that Algerians hold towards English could be effective for instructional purposes, but in the long run, its danger could be more severe. The everlasting pursuit for the appropriation of a European (Western) language more than 30 years after independence (1962-1993) testifies the failure of the Algerian educational policy and planning in developing a local modern language and perpetuates the belief that some languages are better than others for technological advancement and modernization. Algeria has already a complex colonial linguistic history and scenery; adding another language could do more harm than good to the current challenging linguistic situation.

The School Reform of 2002 introduced the teaching of English in the first grade of middle school (for 12-year-olds); the Algerians welcomed this initiative without any form of resistance, and it has been applied to the fullest since its institution; this probably because English is considered nowadays as no one language, that is, a kind of de-ethnicized language, neither related to the British colonial history nor to the culture of the other Anglo-Saxon countries in the inner circle (Benrabah, 2009b, cited in Belmihoub, 2012, p. IX), simply the Globish. To the extent that English still enjoys its status as a second foreign language, as an international lingua franca, and as a language of commerce and technology without any apparent sign of regress, its appropriation has become a national necessity. Moreover, the commitment of Algeria to the market economy and the need to expand international cooperation imposes creating a milieu where foreigners could communicate proficiently with Algerians (Belmihoub, 2012), especially for work and business transactions.

In order to make provision for the new form of English foreign language teaching, the Algerian Ministry of Education designed and applied new curricula and textbooks, which improved on their predecessors in many aspects.

3.3. The Technical Support for the School Reform

In order to undertake the colossal task of a radical School Reform, the Algerian President, Abd Laziz Bouteflika, invited the director general of the UNESCO, Koïchiro Matsuura, in 2001 to offer the necessary technical support for the Algerian educational experts. After the analysis of technical needs for the new Algerian educational project, the Ministry of Education and the organisation of UNESCO signed the final contract in 2003. According to Matsuura (2005), the technical help of the experts of the UNESCO focused mainly on the pedagogical renewal. More specifically, it aimed at:

- Reforming the pedagogy of instruction;
- redesigning new curricula and textbooks;
- training of the educational staff;
- and, extending the use of ICTs. (Translated from French by the researcher, Matsuura, 2005, p. 8)

3.4. National Commission for the Reform of the Educational System

In May 2000, the President of Algeria installed the national commission for the reform of the educational system. The commission consisted of distinguished Algerian experts from the fields of education, training, and culture (Benbouzid, 2005, p. 12). The task of this organisation was to write a consultative document that could be used to guide the implementation of a successful School Reform in the Algerian context. As instructed, the commission published its recommendations in March 2001. Among the recommendations of this national commission for the reform of education was the teaching of French at grade two of primary school and the teaching of technical subjects at secondary school in French. In other words, the commission suggested a stronger bilingualism in Arabic and French (Benrabah, 2007).

However, Benrabah (2007) has deplored that the Algerian educational authorities have always taken one step forward and two steps backward when it comes to the linguistic issues. After introducing French into the second grade of primary school, it

was once again postponed to grade three in 2006. Moreover, the scientific subjects have not been taught in French at secondary school; instead, only the scientific symbols are used in French, while the rest of the discourse is carried out in Arabic.

3.5. Information and Communication Technologies

CBE methodology requires the use of ICTs and appropriately couches its integration. The old Algerian pedagogy based on content did not promote the use of ICTs as a methodological instrument; while CBE, which is inquiry-based, requires and allows the use of the internet to access information for projects and search tasks. The Algerian school felt the need for a new approach that would promote the use of technology to enhance learning and prepare competent citizens.

Roegiers (2011) has noted that there are two ways to incorporate ICTs into a curriculum; they could be taught as instrumental competencies at the service of various disciplines or as a general culture, which could be usefully, but not compulsorily employed for the attainment of the competencies of the customized disciplines (pp. 44-45). Whether ICTs are incorporated to the frame of all disciplines, whether they are taught as a subject of computing, and whether they are considered as compulsory or optional competencies, they will serve inevitably as instrumental tools for inquiry learning, self-assess of materials, and storing data.

Integration of ICTs into the Algerian curricula constitutes one of the aspects of collaboration between the Algerian National Ministry of Education and the UNESCO; it is both a technical and a methodological contribution that resulted from this cooperation (Toualbi-Thaâlibi, 2006). In order to determine the needs of the Algerian educational system with regard to the use of ICTs, three seminars on the topic “*Développer l’utilisation des TICE au XXIème siècle*” were organised (Tawil, 2006, p. 41). Four projects were identified to meet the needs of the Algerian schools and educational reform; they are as follows:

- Professional training;
- distance education for teachers (FAD);
- establishment of a pedagogical database (BRP);
- and, the creation of a digital environment for work (ENT) (Tawil, 2006, p. 42)

Resort to ICTs is inevitable to enhance teacher training through national databases (Tawil, 2006). In a vast county like Algeria and because of the impossibility of training all the teachers at a national level, only the use of ICTs (distance learning and national databases) could sustain and prepare the teachers for the new pedagogical practices.

Algerian school learners, on their turn, are supposed to master the use of ICTs to acquire professional skills and enhance their learning. They are supposed to:

- Access the documents and references selected by their teacher;
- use emails, address books, groups, sticky-notes, and agendas;
- work collaboratively;
- and, employ self-peer and-co-assessment (teacher/student). (Translated from French by the researcher, Chevalier, 2005, pp. 200-201)

However, and unfortunately, most of these recommendations remained ambitions at the level of discourse. To cite, but one example, the following website: <http://ww2.mayeticvillage.fr//QuickPlace/pare/Main> that is supposed to enhance cooperation among the educational community is never functional.

3.6. The Physical Restructuring of School

In response to the new national and international changes at all levels of life, the Algerian school required changing the frame of the whole educational system from primary school to secondary school. These changes intervened within a frame of a systematic attempt to make provision for the needs of the Algerian learners in contemporary modern societies and satisfy the new political, social, and ideological representations. Below are the most important alternations operated to the Algerian educational institution.

3.6.1. Introduction of Pre-Schooling

The School Reform has introduced a preliminary stage of schooling at the age of five for all Algerian pupils. Before the School Reform, pre-schooling was optional (Benamar, 2010) and concerned only more privileged educational areas. Then, the first objective of the School Reform with regard to this matter was the establishment of an inclusive early stage of instruction. The growth of private schools in Algeria has put the Algerian pupils from underprivileged settings at a significant disadvantage as

compared to those privileged peers who benefit from an adequate preparation at the level of family and private institutions. Consequently, the Algerian pupils arrive at school with varying educational entry profiles; according to Bloom (1976), when students arrive at school with significant differences in educational background, these differences are quickly exacerbated in terms of academic achievements. It follows then that a democratic school should provide equal and fair opportunities for all its learners.

3.6.2. Integration of Tamazight into the Educational System

The teaching of Tamazight has been introduced into the Algerian education system in the 1990s, following the boycott of school from September 1994 to April 1995 in the region of Kabylia. Indeed, in 1995, the Algerian authorities finally accepted to generalise the teaching of Tamazight and its use in national media (Benrabah, 2007). The general educational overhaul of 2002 has introduced the teaching of Tamazight in middle schools as part of the suggestions made by the National Commission for the Reform of the Educational System (Benrabah, 2005). However, the teaching of this language has not been generalised at the national level; and, according to Benrabah (2007), its teaching at national level is in constant decline.

Recently, the Algerian government has finally accepted to institutionalise Tamazight as the second official language of the country. This event intervened in the period of “the reemergence of national ethnic identities (and languages)” and the development “of linguistic human rights by states and international bodies” (Ricento, 2000, p. 16, 18 respectively). Ricento has considered these phenomena as significant patterns in the history of language policy and planning in postmodernism. The rise of the Berber movement in the neighboring countries (i.e. Morocco and Libya) and the national pressure exercised by the Berber movement on the Algerian government since the spring of 1980 has finally convinced the Algerian policy-makers to grant the Berber minority of Algeria its linguistic right.

3.6.3. Creation of Private Schools

The processes of privatisation and market economy have also affected the field of education. After being banned in the 1970s, private schools regulated through state legislation have been officially authorised since 2002. Roegiers (2006a), one of the experts who collaborated with the Algerian educational authorities to technically

support the school reform, has eloquently argued that privatisation of schools is a double-edged sword. On the one hand, it is a justifiable social and economic choice; on the other hand, it could work against the very principle of democratisation of learning. Unfortunately, as Benamar (2010) has revealed, the Algerian authorities have enforced, for instance, pre-schooling without establishing an equitable system for all. Accordingly, it seems that the pupils schooled in private pre-schooling educational institutions receive a more convenient and richer education than their counterparts in public schools. On this point, Roegiers has argued that elitism is a fact of life and a reflection of the natural stratification of human societies, but the State must make sure the schooled pupils receive equal opportunities and equitable means of schooling

3.6.4. Strong Bilingualism

Benrabah (2007) has used the term ‘strong bilingualism’ to describe the initiatives and recommendations made in 2001 by national commission for the reform of the education system for the 2002 School Reform as opposed to a previous ‘weak’ bilingual education in which French was taught as a subject (p. 227). The intended strong bilingualism and biliteracy in Arabic and French have stipulated the teaching of scientific subjects in French in secondary schools; in order to prepare the students to this linguistic challenge, French was to be introduced in the second-year of primary school (for 7-year-olds). Additionally, the number of teaching hours of French as a foreign language was to be equally increased.

However, the strong resistance to this change on the part of Islamists and Conservatives led the government to suspend the reforms on the 3rd of September 2001 (Benrabah, 2007, p. 227). Alternatively, the government opted for a middle ground in which French has been introduced as a first compulsory foreign language at grade 3 of primary school (instead of grade 4), and the universal symbols and terminology have been employed for the teaching of scientific school subjects (Adel, 2005, p. 51).

Apart from the major restructuring of the whole educational system discussed above, it should be noted that the period of primary school was shortened from six years to five years tuition and the middle school period was extended from three years to four years instruction.

3.7. Methodological Assistance: Competency-Based Education

In addition to technical help, the experts of UNESCO suggested pedagogical innovation to reform the old curricula and textbooks. Actually, the contemporary pedagogies needed upgrading to make provisions for the new requirements of school and society in general; moreover, the old pedagogies allegedly based on rote learning and memorisation had been considered the main cause of school failures (Toualbi-Thaâlibi, 2005; Adel, 2005). Consequently, CBE that has been in vogue in many African countries that have undertaken the task of reforming their old schools has been suggested as a promising alternative to fight school failures and modernise the ailing schools.

During the opening of the 21st century, Algeria committed itself to international cooperation with international institutions and engaged actively in working collaboratively with African countries. Many of these African countries who shared alarming worries on the state of their defective schools were undergoing profound educational reforms. A massive movement of school reforms swept over Africa with the aid of international entities such the UNESCO; in fact, the period of 1997-2006 was termed the decade of education in Africa (Matsuura, 2005). The major aim behind these school reforms was the development of human capital within the NEPAD (New Partnership for African Development) project. Educational experts such as the team of BIEF along with those of the organisation of UNESCO proposed CBE that they promoted in their curriculum engineering; this approach promised quality teaching, equity, effectiveness, and efficiency (Roegiers, 2010a, pp-144-154).

A logical and expected outcome of the Algerian cooperation with the organisation of UNESCO has been the application of CBE as a fundamental organising principle for the new textbooks and syllabuses. Apart from the generous aid of 7000 million Dollars of the Japanese government, other international agencies such as “the French Agency for Development (AFD), the European Union, and the United States Aid (USAID)” also contributed to the funding of the colossal School Reform (Bellalem, 2012, p. 4). The organisation of UNESCO jointly with other economic and financial agencies such as the World Bank had already been backing up the spread of this ‘panacea’ throughout the whole continent of Africa.

When Algeria solicited the technical and pedagogical assistance of this institution, CBE was already on offer. Interestingly, Lagha (2005) has conspicuously shown in the quote below that the negotiation and cooperation between the BIE, attached to UNESCO, and the Algerian Ministry of Education was not on the choice of an appropriate methodological approach, rather the matter was on how to adapt CBE locally.

A series of exchanges between the team of UNESCO represented by the International Bureau of Education (BIE) and the Ministry of Education permitted the analysis of the context and the identification of the needs narrowly linked to the methodological approach relative to CBE, that is, the organising principle of the new school curricula. (Translated from French by the researcher, Lagha, 2005, p. 62)

CBE has been presented as a solution to the democratisation and modernisation of the school, ensuring equity, efficiency, and effectiveness. It is based on active pedagogies (such as working on integration situations) that would instill capacities to the learner and make the outcomes of learning meaningful and in harmony with the societal and the learner needs. The search for a pertinent pedagogy that would operate a complete rupture with knowledge transmission and memorisation which marked the practices of the old school seems to have found the ideal answer in the choice of CBE. In the following quote, Tawil (2005) has justified the choice of CBE:

The review of the pedagogies and curricula, which were aimed to upgrade pertinence and quality of learning outcomes, entails a novel conceptualisation of education that operates a rupture with the past. This new vision is represented in CBE, which places the learner at the center of the learning process and gives more autonomy to the teacher. In fact, based on socio-constructivism, a significant number of countries have already redefined their learning targets in the 1990s in terms of competency, as the major organising principle of school programmes. In this respect, teaching and learning are simply considered resources for the development of autonomous individuals capable of meeting challenges and showing a critical stance to face up new situations, and to actively participate in the group in which they belong. Training competent individuals

requires the reconceptualisation of teaching, no longer turned towards the definition of knowledge to be acquired, but mainly geared towards the capacity of individuals to face new demands and situations.

(Translated from French by the researcher, Tawil, 2005, p. 34)

The quote above illustrates fundamental changes and sets up the context in which CBE has been introduced into the Algerian schools. It is implied that CBE de-emphasises knowledge accumulation and it has been introduced when many other countries, be them in the North or the South, have already fully embraced this approach. Importantly, knowledge acquisition is no longer a priority; rather, the learner has to be trained as an autonomous individual through performing actively cooperative tasks. The ultimate aim of education is then to form competent citizens and workforce capable of thinking critically, working in collaboration, finding solutions to challenging situations, and shifting jobs in the world where job security is no longer guaranteed. Finally, Tawil (2005) has indicated that the adoption of CBE requires redefinition and reconceptualization of the whole programme since it constitutes a paradigm shift (i.e. from knowledge acquisition to competency training).

The adoption of CBE in the Algerian syllabuses has been regarded as a solution for modernising the Algerian school and satisfying the social, economic, and political changes taking place both at the national and international levels. It has been mainly implemented:

- to ensure a better role of socialisation and qualification;
- to respond to the challenge of economic globalisation that requires higher qualifications that go hand in hand with professional mobility;
- and, to appeal to the use of modern technologies of information and communication for learning purposes, and to learn to use them in different fields of professional life. (Translated from French by the researcher, Roegiers, 2006a, pp. 51-52)

However, CBE has not been adopted as a ready-made product, the Algerian educational authorities worked jointly with the experts of the BIE representing the organisation of UNESCO to adapt CBE to the specificities and objectives of the

Algerian context (Lagha, 2005, p. 62). The Algerian English language syllabuses, for instance, employ the following principles of CBE.

- It is action-oriented: This means that the learner is required to gain actively the mastery of the language functions and use them appropriately.
- It is problem-solving: The aim and the route to learning are through problem-solving; that is, the learner acquires knowledge via problem-solving tasks, and the knowledge or skills internalised are equally used for solving problems.
- It is social-constructivist: This implies the use of teamwork and collaboration; the learners have to work cooperatively to solve problems and perform tasks, which could serve as springboards for interaction, meaning negotiation, and language acquisition.
- It is a cognitive approach: CBE targets the use of higher-order cognitive skills such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Thus, memorisation and rote learning are de-emphasised.

(Riche, Arab, Ameziane, Hami, & Louadj, 2006a, pp. 11-13)

3.8. Curriculum

Before going any further, it is necessary to define what the term curriculum means because it is a fuzzy concept that lacks a consensual understanding. The concept curriculum is so complex for it embraces all aspects of an educational endeavour in relation to planning, implementation, evaluation, and exploitation of resources (Nunan, 1988, p. 4).

The first author who has attempted to depict systematically the teaching cycle of any educational attempt is Ralph Tyler (1949). In his book, *Basic Assumptions of Curriculum and Instruction*, 1949, Tyler has set up an outline for describing any curriculum. He has posited four questions, which reflect the fundamental steps in designing and organising courses of instruction. The questions are the following:

1. What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organised?

4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained? (Tyler, 1949, p. 1)

Although the above model is simplistic, it has contributed to the development of a clear schema for designing teaching courses. Moreover, it displays the three fundamental steps of planning, implementation, and evaluation. However, as this Tyler's model was the first attempt to conceptualise an organising plan for the design of instructional courses, and as the author adhered to the systems approach that bonds with training and the world of industry; it was criticised for its linearity, rationality (technicity), and lack of process assessment (Richards, 2001, pp. 39-40).

In the field of language teaching, more components have been incorporated into curriculum design since the advent of communicative language teaching in the late of the 1970s and beginning of the 1980s. It has come to include several constituents such as “needs analysis, situational analysis, planning learning outcomes, course organisation , selecting and preparing teaching materials, providing for effective teaching, and evaluation” (Richards, 2001, p. 41). This complex process involves and affects many people (such as educational authorities, textbook writers, teachers, and students) and the writing of many documents such as syllabuses and textbooks.

Nation and Macalister (2009) have specified as parts of a language curriculum goals, content and sequencing, monitoring and assessing, principles of language teaching, environment, needs analysis, and evaluation. Unlike Tyler's (1949) model, this description involves analysis of the setting, the learner needs, and assessment for regulating the content during the process of learning. Consequently, a curriculum involves initial specification of the goals and content based on the analysis of students' needs and the local resources (human or material). However this is done, the content is either validated or changed through continual assessment of the attainment of the learning targets.

Likewise, Nunan (1988) has identified four broad fields of a general curriculum model. These are decision-making (conceptualisation), implementation, assessment and evaluation, and study of resources (p. 4). Besides, he has noted that these domains should be integrated together in order to ensure consistency in the application of

learning targets, that is, for instance, guarantying that the principles of communicative teaching are reflected at each level, not just in documents at the level of design.

3.8.1. Algerian School Curriculum

The design of the Algerian national competency-based curriculum was carried progressively and systematically with the technical support of the UNESCO. The collaborative project involving Algerian educational experts and professionals of UNESCO was called Programme of Support for the Reform of the Algerian Educational System (PARE)⁵. Its major goal was to accompany, monitor, and evaluate the design of the new curricula during the period of 2003-2006.

At the level of policy making, the Ministry of Education appointed the National Commission for the Reform of Education, which started the first phase of the school reform in 2000 and issued its report in 2001. From a curriculum standpoint, its task was the analysis of the setting (Algerian context), the needs of the students (societal needs in the light of the new changes), and the teaching methodology. The recommendations made by the said commission were equally defined and validated by the Ministry of Education on April 30th, 2002 in the context of the law of the 1976 school project and constitutional decrees (Adel, 2005, p. 46). This initial curriculum framework defined the goals of the Algerian educational philosophy, the different components of the school, and the methodological approach (Adel, 2005, p. 47).

Next, the National Commission for the Programmes (CNP) and the National Institute for Research and Education (INRE) designed the methodological referential and the evaluative grids for textbooks, respectively. Then, the Specialised Group for Disciplines (GSD) designed syllabuses and textbooks for each discipline in accordance with the general methodological framework. After that, and in order to fine-tune the methodological choice relative to CBE in the Algerian curricula, a regional meeting was organised under the title: *Approche par Compétences et Développement des Curricula: Méthodologie comparée au niveau du Maghreb* (Alger, juillet 2006- Tawil, 2005, p. 37). This meeting was intended, on the one hand, to permit the National Commission for the Programmes to compare the Algerian teaching referential to international models and regional models (i.e. Tunisia and Morocco), with aim of

⁵ PARE is a French abbreviation that stands for programme d'appui à la réforme du système éducatif.

upgrading and completing the Algerian competency-based teaching programmes; on the other hand, it allowed to secure a consistent passage from the general curriculum to specific syllabuses relative to each subject matter.

From November to December 2004, plenary presentations and workshops were organised to elaborate unified programmes across the various disciplines (Tawil, 2005, p. 38). The principle beneficiaries of these initiatives were the GSD and textbook evaluators of INRE. These plenary and workshop session equally allowed further clarifications and explanations of the framework for the design of learning experiences and evaluation tools. Finally, syllabus designers and textbook evaluators were trained to familiarise them with teaching and evaluative practices relative to CBE.

The Ministry of Education set up a strategy of training for a successful application of the principles of CBE both in teaching materials and in day-to-day classroom implementation. As far as the syllabus designers and textbook evaluators were concerned, they benefited from a series of seminars and workshops supervised by experts of UNESCO; moreover, they were recommended training about competency-based practices and its criterion-based evaluative procedure in the form of self-study modules (Tawil, 2005, p. 38). Inspectors who were supposed to train teachers and disseminate the competency-based practices at the level of classroom implementation were provided with special training abroad in Egypt, Jordan, and France (Benbouzid, 2005, p. 13).

As a final stage in any curriculum development, evaluation is regularly conducted to test the efficiency and effectiveness of the new methodologies on the basis of which the programme is maintained, modified, or changed. For so doing, the Algerian Ministry of Education set up a mechanism for documenting the quality of teaching through CBE initially in basic schools and later in secondary school (Seghouani, 2005). This evaluation has not been limited to the analysis of the students' grades; rather it has equally collected data about the condition of implementation of the innovative pedagogies.

The continual appraisal concerned all aspects of the new curriculum including; timetables, textbooks, teacher teaching guides, system of information for inspectors, students' achievements, and factors influencing the performance of students

(Seghouani, 2005, p. 69). A piloting committee was also established during the school year of 2002-2003; its major purpose has been to compare the results issuing from the new school reform to the results of the former system of teaching.

A further apparatus of programme evaluation concerned a centralised system of evaluation. This system specified the continual examination calendar, the pedagogical orientation criteria, the computation of averages, the standards for graduation from one level to another and from one grade to another and the system for communicating the results to the pupils and their parents (Seghouani, 2005, p. 73).

The process of the development of the Algerian curriculum within the context of the 2002 School Reform is summed up in the framework below. It is adapted from the model that has been presented by Jonson (1989- cited in Richards, 2001, p. 42).

Table 3.1: *Stages of Decision-Making Roles and Products in the Algerian National Curriculum*

Developmental stage	Decision-making roles	Products
1. Curriculum planning	- National Commission for the Reform of Education - Ministry of Education	- Methodological framework (teaching goals, structure of the school, and methodological recommendations)
2. Training	- Syllabus designers and inspectors	
3. Design, monitoring, and assessing	- National Commission for Programmes and National Institute for Research and Education - Specialised Group for Disciplines	- Methodological referential - Evaluative grids for textbook design - Syllabuses for each discipline - Learners' textbooks, teachers' books, and accompanying documents
4. Specification: end-means		
4. Evaluation	- Mechanism of supervision and evaluation	- Evaluation reports (e.g. BIRD 3573 AL project)

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Piloting committee for observation - Centralised evaluation framework 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Seven volume reports - "Les indicateurs du système éducatif pour 2004" publication - Educational reports
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3.8.2. Algerian English Language Curriculum

The Algerian English language framework establishes a set of driving principles for the teaching of English. These broad principles purport to meet the social and educational needs of the Algerian EFL learners, and they are derived from sound language learning theories and compatible with the Algerian context (SE1 Curriculum, 2009, p. 2). They are stated as follows.

- *English facilitates two-way communication with the world*

English is now considered as the world's lingua franca and a ticket for modernity and scientific advances. Phillipson and Skutnabb-Kanga (1996) have remarked regretfully that English imposes its monolingualism and that its label is narrowly linked to modernisation and internationalisation (p. 437). This vision of English as a window for modernity is interpreted in the Algerian syllabuses in the following terms:

The teaching of English in Algeria consists of integrating learners harmoniously into modernity. By enrolling in a new linguistic community that uses English for all transactions, the learner will need to develop capacities and competencies that will allow him to integrate successfully in the community in which he lives... (Translated from French by the researcher, SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p. 4)

Consequently, teaching English in Algeria adheres to a functional and instrumental incentive, that is, English is seen as an instrument for international communication and as a means for espousing modernity and technology.

- *Communicative competence is the aim of language learning*

Since the Algerian English curriculum focuses on the three basic language competencies of interpretation, interaction, and production, it is oriented towards the teaching of communicative competence. Breen and Candlin (1980) have considered these skills as a practical interpretation of the communicative capacity. Moreover, the

Algerian curriculum has added that these basics are fleshed out in vocabulary and grammar use as well as the use of strategic competence (SE1 Curriculum, 2009, p. 2).

- *Successful learning depends on the supported and purposeful development*

Contrary to traditional rote learning, which is stored in short-term memory, the knowledge gained from understanding and interpreting incoming messages through activation of background knowledge is hierarchically and orderly stored in a form of schemas in the brain. According to the schema theories, we learn when incoming knowledge is related and mapped out against existing knowledge, and when input is tailored to the schema (Carrell, 1983). Thus, learning should be built on the previous knowledge.

- *Active Learners are successful learners*

Learning is retained more permanently when learners are engaged in integrating knowledge and problem-solving skills (Gerard, 2006). It has been noticed long time ago that the intellectual or cognitive efforts that the learner makes to work out meanings enhance more retention than when knowledge is received passively (Howatt, 1984, p. 191). Accordingly, this intellectual gymnastic should not be short-circuited through translation or deductive study of language. With the resurgence of socio-constructivism in the 1980s and the growing influence of SLA research (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000, pp. 16-17), active and collaborative pedagogies have gained prominence in language curricula. Breen and Littlejohn (2000) have stressed the fact that knowledge should be interpreted and controlled by the learner in a socially constructed context (p. 19).

- *Meaningful activities and tasks support and encourage learning*

Classroom tasks should relate to students' lives and interest. Peyser et al. (2006) have noted that meaningful activities make more sense for the learners as they can see the "why" of their learning (p. 2). Pedagogical tasks on grammar or any other language component could be demotivating and boring to students, while real-life activities are more interesting and challenging to them.

- *Learning is an active, evolving process*

Learning is a gradual process that requires continual monitoring and readjustments. It is a trial and error process that leads to the transformation of passive

knowledge into active skills through continual practice and communication. Errors then are neither frowned at nor penalized; they are milestones towards the achievement of proficiency in English. Allwright and Bailey (1991) have argued that when learners make errors, they are actually involved in the process of hypothesis testing, that is, they test language forms they hear or they think they know to check their appropriateness or correctness. Error analysis should be one of the teacher's competencies; identifying the type of errors, looking for their possible causes, and preparing remedial or corrective activities to assist the learner in progressing quickly towards proficiency.

- *Assessment is an ongoing part of learning*

Assessment has a double function of certification and regulation. Summative assessment is principally used to assess the learner achievement of the learning targets for certification purposes; formative or ongoing assessment, conversely, is employed to regulate teaching. De Ketele (2010) has emphasised that formative assessment should inform the learning process and direct teaching to achieve the aspects of language that have not been mastered. Moreover, continual assessment through self-assessment grids, diaries, and journals provides pertinent information for the learners on their progress towards mastery and identifies the weak areas on which they should spend more time and effort.

- *Teachers are facilitators of learning*

The teacher should play the role of an orchestra guide; he/she sets learning tasks, directs learning, and assesses learners' performances. Usually in the opening stage of a communicative classroom, the teacher facilitates communication between students; subsequently, he/she withdraws to the periphery of the lesson and intervenes only to supply more input or direct the flow of interaction if needed (Breen & Candlin, 1980, p. 99). In the same way, Kumaravadivelu (2006) has pointed out that a communicative teacher devises and uses information-gap activities and the learners actively take part in the tasks instead of repeating mechanically what the teacher says (pp. 120-121). In a like manner, Roegiers (2006a) has urged teachers to invite learners to work both individually and in groups to solve integration situations. On the whole, contemporary

pedagogies all recommend student active agency and advise teachers to relinquish many of the old practices of the transmission model.

- *Teachers foster a supportive learning environment and effective classroom management*

It is considered nowadays axiomatic that language classes should procure a warmth and friendly environment for language learning. It is even more crucial for foreign language classes in which the learner faces up a double challenge of content and language. Not only what is said is important, but also the way it is expressed. Krashen (1981) has insisted that a low anxiety level and a convivial environment are decisive for processing input into intake (acquisition). What is more, an anxiety-free environment could enhance motivation, develop self-confidence, and raise the student's interest.

Basically, all these principles constitute the essence of communicative and student-centered language teaching, and they are undeniably supported in the literature.

3.8.3. Syllabus

A distinction is usually made between the curriculum and syllabus. In Nation and Macalister's (2009) curricular framework, syllabus refers to objectives, content and sequencing, format and presentation, and monitoring and assessing. The curriculum is then broader than the syllabus. Basically, a syllabus is concerned with the selection and sequencing of content (Nunan, 1988; Richards, 2001; Nation & Macalister, 2009; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). In other words, needs analysis, evaluation, and analysis of the setting are not encompassed within the scope of syllabus design.

Nunan (1988) has further raised the question of whether the methodology is to be included in syllabus design because since the advent of CLT and particularly process syllabuses, the methodology of teaching dovetails the content we want to pre-specify in a form of tasks. This issue is controversial and unsettled; the answer depends on the type of syllabus adopted. While process syllabuses consider the content of the course as the carrier of the methodology (Breen & Candlin, 1980), outcome-based syllabuses such as CBA start with the predetermination of the content to be taught in a more or

less prescriptive fashion and assign the methodology to the general guidelines of the teaching paradigm.

3.8.3.1. Types of Syllabuses

No single syllabus could operate in isolation excluding other types; the differences between the myriad of syllabus types lie fundamentally in the area of focus. A structural syllabus uses topics and situations; a task-based syllabus uses structural teaching and situations; and a competency-based syllabus incorporates task-based learning, structural teaching, and situations. Therefore, it is useful to describe the various syllabus entries for an effective design and understanding of a competency-based syllabus, which combines in synergy various types of syllabuses.

A structural syllabus specifies only the language structure to be taught, usually from the easiest to the most difficult. It is more geared towards the formal system of language and little focus is granted to conversational skills. Such a syllabus specifies the teaching of nouns, adverbs, tenses, and so on; these language forms are covered in isolation and once at a time.

With regard to the functional-notional syllabus, it is the first so-called communicative language teaching syllabus. It was suggested by Wilkins (1972) as an alternative to the structural syllabus and as an attempt to interpret communicative competence. It uses functions and notions as the organizing principle of the syllabus. Wilkins (1972) has identified and specified an inventory of language forms that correspond to each category, be it a notion or a function.

In regard to a situational syllabus, it assumes that there are language functions and forms relevant to each situation (e.g. at the dentist's, at the pharmacist's, at the market). The task of the syllabus designer, then, is to describe the activities pertinent to each situation and the language exponents keyed to them.

As for a skill-based syllabus, it views language as a set of skills that the learner should internalise and use to become proficient in a foreign or second language. These skills include skimming a newspaper, reading a report for specifics, and writing a report.

Concerning task-based syllabuses, they use real life and pedagogical tasks as the organising principles of language teaching programmes. The focus of the learner will

be on the completion of the task while learning the language; formal instruction in linguistic knowledge is subordinated and relegated to a secondary position. Only the linguistic forms or functions that are problematic to a successful achievement of the task are taught to task-performers.

Finally, as concerns a content-based syllabus, it focuses on the subject matter rather than the linguistic matter, yet the learners need to master the language of instruction. It happens in bilingual or multilingual settings in which the learners study, for example, the biology content in a second or a foreign language. Thus, language learning is not a subject matter in itself; it is rather subordinate to content.

3.8.3.2. Algerian English Language Syllabuses

As this study is partly concerned with the evaluation of the Algerian English language syllabuses, it is deemed appropriate to delineate the span of the syllabus, and thereby, the scope of the current investigation. In Table 3.1, syllabus represents stage 3 in the development of the curriculum, that is, the specification of outcomes. This stage concerns itself with the specification of the objectives, selection of the content (topics, texts, language structures, values, and attitudes), and the determination of assessment procedures.

A national syllabus obeys to the general arrangements and decisions made at the onset of curriculum design. Both the decisions made up at the level of methodological pre-specification, needs analysis, and analysis of environment are substantiated concretely in syllabus documents (teaching materials); in other words, a national syllabus is couched in the curriculum and should connect harmoniously with it. Sometimes, there is no clear cut between syllabus and curriculum as they are narrowly intertwined; and, as Krahnke (1987) has remarked, the distinction between syllabus and curriculum is never sufficiently clear. Therefore, it is necessary to define the components of each syllabus in relation to the context of its use.

It is to be noted that a national curriculum is only demonstrated visibly through its application to the content and objectives of subject matters. Then, we could talk of English language syllabus, mathematics syllabus, and so forth, which obey to a unified plan, but vary in accordance with the specificities of the specialty. Needs analysis, for instance, is regarded as the task of curriculum designers at the national curricular level,

but undeniably there are special needs for each subject matter depending on a myriad of variables such as students' interest and wants. The view adopted in this inquiry defines curriculum as a unified national plan for conducting teaching, while syllabus as a specific concretisation of the principles of the curriculum in relation to a given subject matter. This view departs from the traditional standpoint which considers syllabus design as a mere act of selecting/sequencing and grading language structures (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Krahnke (1987) has argued that a syllabus is not simply concerned with content; he has explained:

Content, or what is taught, is the single aspect of syllabus design to be considered here. Content is only one element of some actual teaching syllabi that include behavioural or learning objectives for students, specifications of how the content will be taught, and how it will be evaluated. These are all valid and important concerns, but they are, again, broader questions than the questions of which definition of language will be assumed by the instruction and what choice of linguistic content will form the basis and the organization for their instruction....(p.9).

Apart from the specifications of the linguistic content and the content of the subject matter (Richards & Rodgers, 2001), syllabus design, as indicated in the quote above, could include the definition of objectives, methodology, and assessment. Likewise, Nunan (1988) has included learning purposes and needs analysis as important components of syllabus-building in CLT. Munby (1978) has equally worked out a sophisticated instrument for needs analysis within the frame of syllabus design. In short, syllabuses involve more than the matter of sequencing the linguistic content. Still, Roegiers (2006c) has held that a syllabus (programme) gives indications on the student entry and exit profile, pedagogical methods, didactic support materials, and assessment tools (pp. 171-172). Roegiers has naturally included the student expected exit profile because it is considered a fundamental component of the pedagogy of integration; it is from this graduating profile that the sub-objectives or the competencies are derived in CBE.

An examination of the Algerian English language syllabus documents indicates that it includes the following components: the objectives of teaching, the content, the topics, the methodology, the role of the teacher, the role of the learner, and the assessment of learning. In comparison to traditional syllabuses, the Algerian language syllabuses incorporate more elements and they are presented separately from the textbooks. Wilkins (1976, July) has regarded syllabus as “the linguistic content of language and the principles that underlie the selection of that content” (p. 5). Likewise, Richards and Rodgers (2001) have regarded syllabus as the choice of content and its organisation; in their description of the concept of method, they have represented the role of the learner/teacher as separate from the syllabus.

Besides, the design of the Algerian syllabuses preceded the writing of textbooks. Kara (2002) has held that earlier Algerian secondary school English language textbooks such as *New Midlines* were written prior to the syllabus, and then the latter was naturally drawn from the textbook (cited in Lakehal-Ayat-Benmati, 2008, p. 236). The 2002 School Reform established a more systematic and hierarchical order in the preparation of teaching syllabuses. Three purely pedagogical teams (i.e. CNP, GSD, and INRE) worked collaboratively on the design of the syllabuses. The CNP prepared the national teaching framework and supervised the design of syllabuses for each discipline, warranting conformity with the institutional referential and homogenization across disciplines, whereas the INRE prepared general guidelines and evaluation instruments for the design and evaluation of the textbooks (Tawil, 2005).

The Algerian English language syllabuses include various documents which are as follows: the English language syllabuses, accompanying documents, and teacher’s book for each level across the grades. These documents are meant to familiarise teachers with the underpinnings of competency-based teaching and the general aims of the syllabuses interpreted in the textbooks.

3.8.3.3. Algerian English Language Competency-Based Syllabus

A CBE syllabus is organised around competencies. In case of a national syllabus, syllabus designers first refer to an already established framework of reference. The Algerian English language syllabus designers were instructed to design a syllabus in accordance to the national referential established by the CNP. This national framework

specifies the content (competencies), topics, and methodology. Moreover, the CEFR for languages was also used to design the Algerian English Framework (AEF). AEF specifies the three basic language competencies of interpretation, interaction, and production, as well as the language functions and forms keyed to them. The table below is an adapted summary of AEF; it illustrates succinctly the standards of performance for the competency of interaction across the high school levels.

Table 3.2: *Algerian English Framework of Reference* (Algerian English Framework, 2009, p. 5)

	Secondary School: Year 1	Secondary School: Year 2	Secondary School: Year 3
Interaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can interact orally to start and maintain a conversation on topics of concrete nature. - Can carry out common functions involving two people in a small range of settings. - Can plan for, use, and evaluate the effectiveness of spoken interaction, for example, to maintain a conversation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can interact orally to start and maintain a conversation on current issues. - Can carry out common functions involving two people in varied situations. - Can plan for, use, and evaluate the effectiveness of spoken interaction, for example, to communicate and check understanding. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can interact orally to start and maintain a conversation on current issues, events and contemporary issues. - Can carry out common functions involving two people in a variety of contexts. - Can plan for, use, and evaluate the effectiveness of spoken interaction, for example, to get and give turns in a conversation.

On the basis of the above standardised criteria, the textbook designer could specify the content and the activities required for their achievement. The first-year

secondary school education (SE1) and the second-year secondary school education (SE2) match with the B1 level in the CEFR for languages; and third-year secondary school education corresponds to B1 + (AEF, 2008, p. 1). From this can-do model, the life competencies are identified and the language forms specific to the target language are equally spelled out.

Structural training in a competency-based programme is not an end in itself; it is rather a means to the achievement of life competencies (tasks). “For example, if the objective is to write a check (life skill), the learner must first be able to write money amounts in words and to write dates (enabling skills) - Savage, 1993, p. 20)”. Therefore, the overall plan of a competency-based syllabus is task-based and structural training is subordinated to the achievement of life skills.

3.8.3.4. Preliminary Evaluation of the Algerian Syllabuses

It appeared during the PARE seminar in Algiers in July 2004 that the Algerian syllabuses require more improvements to fulfill the methodological requirement. Roegiers (2006a) has pointed out to the following weaknesses:

- Lack of clear summative assessment strategies;
- vagueness in the definition of the learner exit profile;
- delayed occurrence of integration activities within the teaching process;
- lack of clear operational and macro objectives;
- focus on content and quantity;
- lack of equity in learning opportunities;
- and lack of homogeneity among the different national syllabuses across the different disciplines. (Roegiers, 2006a, pp. 53-56)

3.8.4. Textbooks

Textbook design is a significant attempt in a series of interventions for curricular and syllabus designers to interpret the target purposes of a philosophy of education. It is followed by intermittent modifications and continual readjustment made on the basis of on-going evaluation of the materials. Once the textbooks are handed over to practitioners, the achievement of the goals of an educational reform will depend largely on teacher preparedness to implement the theory in practice.

Gerard and Roegiers (2009) have defined the textbook as a printed tool purposefully structured to adhere to a learning process in order to improve its effectiveness (p. 10). In straightforward terms, a textbook is a written material (texts, activities, illustrations) that complies with a teaching endeavour that it attempts to interpret and achieve.

3.8.4.1. Elaboration of Textbooks

The design of a textbook is a complex task that involves several participants. These people include designers, editors, readers, evaluators, illustrators, layout designers, printers, and users (Gerard & Roegiers, 2009). During the 1970s, the Algerian textbooks were exclusively conceptualised, written, edited, and published by the IPN (National Pedagogical Institute), but starting from the 1980s, this institution split itself into two entities- the INRE and the ONSP (National Office for School Publications- Lagha, 2005, p. 58). The former was in charge of textbook writing and the latter was exclusively concerned with the commercialisation of the textbooks, without the state contribution (Lagha, 2005). However, the lack of technical aid and savoir-faire in the domain of textbook design delayed the privatisation of textbook conceptualisation.

The School Reform of 2002 was an important occasion to reform the procedures of textbook design and involve more people with the aim of writing internationally competitive course books. A commission of approval and homogenisation and evaluative criteria were set up for textbook evaluation. The INRE established textbook design specifications and granted permission for 5 private editors to prepare 3 books for each discipline (Lagha, 2005). The pedagogical intervention of the UNESCO and its experts of the BIE assisted significantly in training the staff of the INRE, devising the textbook design specifications, and producing the textbook evaluative grids.

3.8.4.2. Secondary School English Language Textbooks

There are three English language textbooks in use for secondary school. The first -year book, entitled *At the Crossroads*, was issued in 2005; the second-year book, *Getting through*, was published for the first time in 2006; and the third-year textbook, *New Prospects*, was first used in 2007. All the textbooks were revised after the first

publication. It is to be noted that all the textbooks were edited by the INRE and published by the ONSP; therefore, they are not products of private editors.

Textbook writers include imminent university teachers and inspectors of the discipline. The first year textbook was written by B., Riche; S. A., Arab; H., Hami; H., Ameziane; and K., Louadj. On the second year textbook, the following textbook writers' names appear: B., Riche; S. A., Arab; M. Bensemmane; H. Ameziane, and H., Hami. As for the third year textbook, it provides the following names as textbook writers: S. A., Arab; B., Riche; M. Bensemmane. As can be noticed, the names Riche, and Arab appear in the three textbooks, and Hami and Ameziane appear in two textbooks. Having a small team, which according to the researcher personal knowledge, has "a good quality of human relationships" (Gerard & Roegiers, 2009, p. 15) warrant coherence in the form and content than having a large team that is administratively formed (Gerard & Roegiers, 2009, p. 15). Still more, the fact that all the authors are nationals constitutes a significant advantage because as Gerard and Roegiers have pointed out, textbooks are inextricably linked to the cultural values of the society (Gerard & Roegiers, 2009, p. 15).

The change in the presentation and layout of the textbooks is perceptible compared to the former books. The three textbooks are colourful and presented in a larger size. The first edition of the first year and third year textbooks were small-sized, but the revised edition uses only the large-sized format, which seems more practical and more attractive. Besides, the second year textbook includes the names of the layout designer, illustrator, and graphics editor. All these details testify that many people have been involved in the cycle of the textbooks design, edition, and publication. Apart from these novel qualities in the Algerian textbooks, the following further qualities need to be highlighted and discussed.

- **Inclusion of a Section Addressing the Learner at the Opening of the Textbook**

Apart from the table of contents, the first and second year textbooks incorporate a section that explains to the learner the layout of the textbook and its objectives. This strategy goes hand in hand with the precepts of CBE that makes learning objectives

explicit for the learner (Auerbach, 1986; Savage, 1993; Roegiers, 2010a) and attempts to make students autonomous learners.

- **Inclusion of the Teacher’s Book**

The three books are accompanied by a teacher’s book. These books are meant to facilitate the teaching from the textbook and provide keys for all the activities set up in the student books. The first year textbook explains all the aims and the layout of the whole unit, which is consistently reproduced in the subsequent units. The aim of this accompanying tool is summed up in the following quote:

Since this **Teacher’s Book** addresses itself specifically to the teachers, one thing should be made clear right at the outset: it **does not** seek at all to get them to toe the pedagogical line; it should rather be regarded as a facilitator, the purpose of which is to make **At the Crossroads** user-friendly to teachers and learners alike. (Riche et al., 2006a, p. 3, the bold is used in the original)

- **Layout of the Textbooks**

Almost the same layout is used in the three textbooks, with small variations.

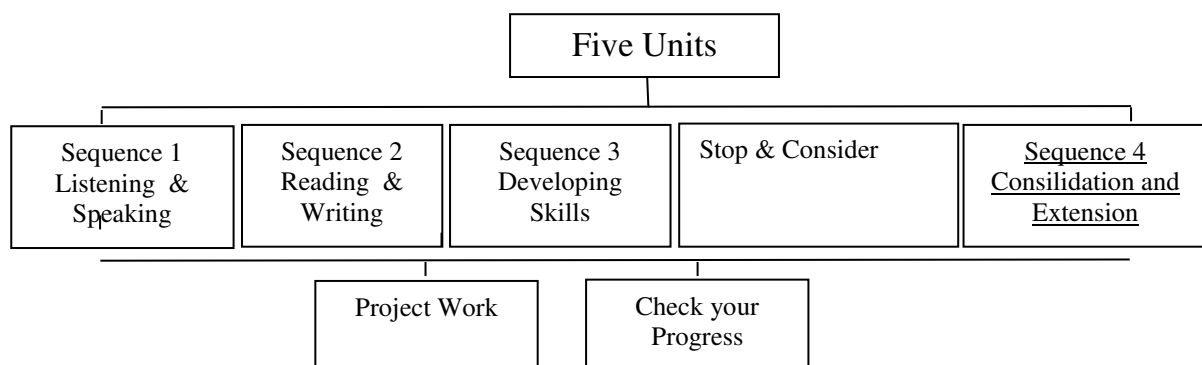


Figure 3.1: Map of At the Crossroads (adapted from ELT@lgeria, n.d.)

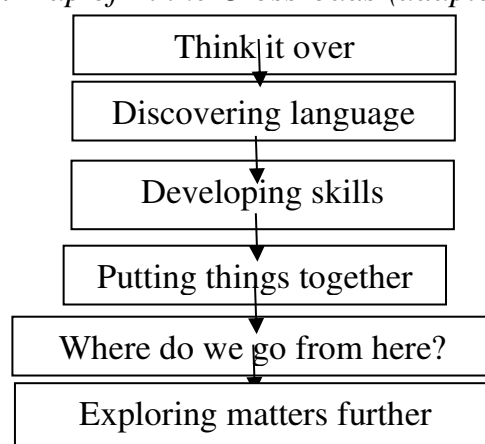


Figure 3.2: Map of Getting Through (adapted from ELT@lgeria, n.d.)

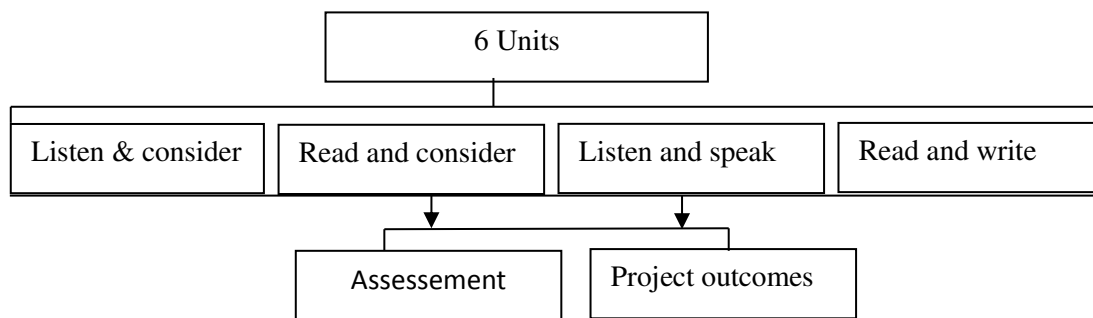


Figure 3.3: Map of *New Prospects* (adapted from ELT@lgeria, n.d.)

A glance at the layout of the three books will show that they follow roughly the same pattern of presentation. Teaching is organised in a form of sequences, which, in turn, include rubrics. The instructional sequences create a framework for the achievement of specific objectives, and they are organised traditionally in terms of basic language skills. However, the layout of the books highlights new components such as developing skills, assessment, consolidation, and project work.

- **Inclusion of a Reference Section for Self-Study**

The textbooks include an important part for grammar reference (except for *At the Crossroads* in which the section is included within the instructional units). This section is intended for further consolidation of the grammar acquired inductively. Additionally, a list of irregular verbs and more texts related to the topics of the textbooks are provided for the learners to enrich their classroom learning.

3.8.4.3. Preliminary Evaluation of the English Language Textbooks

During the school year of 2004-2005, the INRE carried out a preliminary evaluation of more than 17 textbooks to certify their conformity to the methodological approach and syllabus specifications established by the CNP (Lagha, 2005, p. 62). It relied on its own evaluative instruments designed in collaboration with the experts of the UNESCO. This internal evaluation of the content of the textbooks through systematic applications of pre-specified criteria constitutes one procedure among many others for determining conformity of the textbooks with the syllabus and their approval (Gerard & Roegiers, 2009). This posteriori certification stage led to the modification and revisions of a number of textbooks in use (Lagha, 2005). Moreover, experimentation with the textbooks and continual evaluation of materials led to the slimming down of the syllabus (content) in 2008.

Conclusion

The Algerian School Reform intervened at the turn of the 21st century, though the need for such a school overhaul was felt earlier. The political changes and reforms operated by the newly elected president, Abd laziz Bouteflika, were accompanied with a large scale School Reform that could bring the school to respond adequately to the movement of democratisation, market economy, and openness. English has been called ever since to fulfill the functional and instrumental purposes as an international lingua franca and as an instrument for business transactions.

Because of the lack of experience of the Algerian educational professionals in the field of curriculum engineering, the Algerian educational authorities appealed to the organisation of UNESCO to advise and accompany both the design and implementation of innovative national curricula. The experts of UNESCO or BIE and the experts of the BIEF worked collaboratively with the Algerian experts to adapt CBE to the Algerian context; design new curricula, syllabuses, and textbooks; train educational experts, inspectors, and teachers for the requirements of the new syllabus; and introduce ICTs to the Algerian curricula.

Moreover, the Algerian education authorities operated important changes in the organisation of the educational system: Tamazight has been incorporated systematically into the Algerian schools; pre-schooling has been introduced for five – year-olds; French has become the first compulsory foreign language starting from third year of primary school; English has been considered the second compulsory foreign language starting from the first-year of middle school; and the period of school in primary school has been reduced from 6 years to five years, while the period of tuition in middle school was extended from 3 years to 4 years. Most of these measures were recommended by the national commission for the reform of education, yet some proposals such the teaching of scientific modules in French were canceled because of the opposition of the Islamists and the Conservatives.

The new CBE's curricula exhibit interesting characteristics such as availability of curriculum and syllabus documents and the quality of the textbooks. Teachers could refer to the teacher's book, syllabus documents, or accompanying documents to make their teaching more effective and in line with the new methodological approach. The

textbooks also introduced novel innovations such as the use of project work and self-assessment. Supposedly, the innovations have come to enhance the application and attainment of competencies; nevertheless, the preliminary evaluations of these materials showed that they are defective from a competency-based viewpoint and some improvements are required.

After the presentation of the theoretical background concerning the topic at hand, the next chapter will present and defend the methodology implemented in this study, as well as present and analyse the data obtained from the content analysis.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology and Findings of Document Analysis

Chapter 4: Research Methodology and Findings of Document Analysis

Introduction

The previous chapters presented the review of the literature relating to the evaluation of the Algerian English language syllabuses and textbooks. Fundamentally, this examination has shown that:

- CBE is an American education movement that had grown out of the world of industry and analysis/reduction of vocational tasks; it is then little feasible in education, let alone in foreign language (FL) contexts;
- the pedagogy of integration is a composite of CBE that has been operationalised in African countries; it bears similarities with CBE, but it purports to be more feasible and practical for under developing countries;
- and the Algerian School Reform has operated deep curricular and syllabus changes following the guidelines of CBE in order to promote the teaching of real life competencies and universal values such as openness, tolerance, and respect.

This chapter is divided into two sections; research methodology and document analysis.

4.1. Research Methodology

This section will present and discuss the methodology used in this study to evaluate the competency component of the secondary school English language syllabuses and textbooks. It includes (1) setting, (2) population, (3) research paradigm, (4) type of study, (5) preliminary work, (6) research instruments and procedures of data collection and analysis, and (7) limitations of the study.

4.1.1. Setting

The current study was conducted at two secondary schools in two different Wilayas of Algeria. One secondary school is situated in Bejaia and the other is located in Djelfa. The two schools represent to some extent different context for the application of the pedagogy of integration. As a matter of fact that one school is situated in the North of Algeria and the other almost in the South of Algeria.

The choice of the site, according to Strauss and Cobin (1998), depends on “access, available resources, research goals, and the researcher’s time schedule and

energy” (p. 204). With regard to access, the researcher had easy access to the secondary schools in both Wilayas since he had already worked in these schools. As far as time is concerned, a doctoral thesis is usually allotted enough time to do an extensive study lasting years. Concerning the objectives of research, this study has opted for these schools in order to deal with the secondary school syllabuses and textbooks in different contexts that vary along a set of parameters such as linguistic, social, and attitudinal. Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) have asserted that “the purposes of the research determine the methodology and design of the research” (p. 78). In other words, all elements of research, including the setting, are settled on the basis of research objectives.

Slimani Slimane secondary school is situated in the suburb of the town of Ain Oussera, djelfa; it is mostly populated by students from underprivileged socio-economic background. Most of the students going to this school seem poor and probably less able learners compared to other students in the neighbouring schools. In fact, most of these students come from three impoverished districts of Draa Nichane, El Qaria, and El Mahata. The majority of them are native Arab speakers, with few students speaking Kabyle. According to the researcher’s experience in the said school, the majority of the students are more interested in the study of Arabic, Islamic sciences, and scientific subjects. Their attitudes towards the acquisition of foreign languages seem negative, especially in regard to French. Only some boys and a good number of girls seem to be interested, notably in learning English.

The other public school is situated in Bejaia; it is named Maouche Idriss, and it is equally located in a small town called Bordj Mira. The students come mostly from rural villages (such as Tergret, Aghdir, Ait M’barek, and Riff), but they seem to belong to different social backgrounds. The language widely spoken by these students is Kabyle, with a few students speaking Arabic. Their linguistic background seems richer than that of the learners of Slimani Slimane School and their language attitudes towards the learning of foreign languages seem positive.

These varied contexts for the applications of the Algerian English language syllabuses and textbooks would supposedly give an illustrative picture of the implementation of the pedagogy of integration in Algeria. Bell (1999) has noted that

for an optimal representativeness of the population, the researcher needs to apply his/her research design to different settings to warrant the reliability of the findings. The socio-economic and educational variables are tested to see their influence on the feasibility of the syllabuses and textbooks under study.

The students at Slimani Slimane Secodary School, for instance, seem to have a negative attitude towards learning foreign languages; thereby, this lack of emotional involvement could affect negatively the application of the principles of the pedagogy of integration. Accordingly, if the students who associate themselves with the Western communities (i.e. some students in Maouche Idriss) fail to exhibit the competency characteristics, this does not mean that it is because of psychological resistance (i.e. language attitudes). However, the aim in varying the contest is not merely to isolate the variable of language attitudes, but rather to cover as many as possible of variables that could influence the applications of the syllabuses and textbooks in Algerian varied contexts.

Moreover, Roegiers (2011) has enthusiastically argued that the pedagogy of integration constitutes an alternative approach that teaches the essentials to the learners instead of indulging in excessive use of innovations to learn knowledge and skills, and that it could eschew the practice of invisible syllabuses which benefit only certain students and certain social milieus (p. 25). He has added that this instructional paradigm could be instilled in selected portions to complement existing pedagogies. From this perspective, if the pedagogy of integration is applied and learners are trained to get rudimentary functional language competencies, it could achieve thriving results even in hard contexts such as that of Slimani Slimane or Maouche Idriss schools discussed above. Thus, the context of the school of Slimani Slimane, for instance, which seems a hard setting could show whether this pedagogy could achieve the applications of the principles of the pedagogy of integration outlined in the syllabuses and textbooks.

4.1.2. Population and Sampling

The population of the present study included three groups of participants, who are direct users of the secondary school English language syllabuses and the textbooks. These groups are learners, teachers, and inspectors.

4.1.2.1. Learners

Learners are the first beneficiaries of syllabuses and textbooks as they constitute the recipients of the teaching programme. Thus, they could tell whether the teaching or the textbooks are efficient or defective, and observing them involved when implementing the syllabuses and textbooks could equally tell how well they interact with classroom input and procedures. For this reason, it is optimal and inevitable to involve them in any evaluation of the process of programme implementation. 115 students were randomly sampled from the whole population of 1255, that is, a percentage of 9.16. Their age group ranged between 15 and 22 years old. The population and the sampled subjects are represented in detail in the table below.

Table 4.1: *Sampled Population*

School	Maouche Idriss			Slimani Slimane		
Level	<i>1st</i>	<i>2nd</i>	<i>3rd</i>	<i>1st</i>	<i>2nd</i>	<i>3rd</i>
	<i>Year</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Year</i>
Number of students	10	43	10	10	32	10
Total of sample	63			52		
Total of population	734			521		

The percentage of the sample might seem small, but it is dictated by the nature of the research design. The sampling actually did not proceed through determining the number of participants to be sampled from the population; instead, one single class was chosen from second-year level of the target schools in order to allow a practical implementation of the questionnaires and classroom observation. Additionally, this class had to be a literary class; it was hoped that it is more likely to find a better performance in English in this literary stream than in other streams for which English is usually a secondary subject.

After that, 10 students from each second and third-year levels of the targets schools were selected to support the sample and ensure representativeness of all entities of these high schools. Adding one class from each level would have set the

snowball effect on the whole research design by doubling the number of participants in questionnaires and classroom observations. These specific parameters weighed considerably in determining the size of the population. Kothari (2004) has highlighted that the parameters of the research design could affect the constitution of the size of the sample, and the latter has to be flexible, that is, practical for the researcher.

Of the sampled population, 97 were females; this is by no means a bias in research because, actually, nowadays most of the literary classes are populated by female students. And females outnumber males even in scientific streams. However, as long as this research is not focused on gender differences, this unequal representation of the population could not constitute a threat to reliability and representativeness.

4.1.2.2. Teachers

The teacher-participants in this study are secondary school English language teachers. 15 teachers were randomly chosen; this constitutes the whole population of the target schools in addition to other teachers from neighbouring schools who were solicited to take part in the study in order to upgrade the representativeness of the sample. 5 teachers have come from Maouche Idriss high school, 4 from Slimani Slimane secondary school, 3 from Ait Smail secondary school (Bejaia), and 3 from Omar Idriss (Djelfa). Again, the big number of teachers is females, with only 6 male teachers.

4.1.2.3. Inspectors

Six secondary school English language inspectors were asked to take part in this study. Four inspectors in charge of supervision of English language teaching from the target Wilayas and other Wilayas (Médéa and Ghardaia) were requested to fill out the questionnaire. Additionally, two more retired inspectors were solicited to participate in the current inquiry to support the representativeness of the sample and investigate research issues going back to the onset of the School Reform, such as their participation in inspector training on CBE purportedly provided by the Ministry of Education.

4.1.3. Research Paradigm

The research design of this study lends itself to quantitative research approach, though some data has been collected or analysed qualitatively. Kothari (2004) has stated that a quantitative approach measures quantities, while a qualitative research seeks for the quality of the response or data. Since this study seeks to measure the attainment of competency objectives, the embodiment of competency principles in syllabuses and textbooks, as well as the causes that hinder the application of the pedagogy of integration in the Algerian context, the quantitative model imposes itself.

Nunan (1992) has explained that any study that “begins with an hypothesis or theory and then searches for evidence either to support or refute that hypothesis or theory” (p.13) is deductive research. This means that this work aligns itself with the quantitative or deductive research since it seeks to establish the correlation between the application of the principles of CBE and the achievement of the standards of success. But, as Bell (1999) has pointed out, adherence to a quantitative research paradigm does not constrain the researcher from using other methods that are not associated with this mode.

The current study is also a survey investigation, that is, the same set of questions is posed for a relatively large number of participants (i.e. 115 students, 15 teachers, and 6 inspectors). All the research tools in the current study (questionnaire, document analysis, and classroom observation), except the follow-up interview, contain almost the same questions and investigate the same topics. In Bell’s (1999) view, the aim of a survey style is to get a large number of answers for the same questions to allow the researcher to compare answers, “to relate one characteristic to another and to demonstrate that certain features exist in categories” (p. 14). By way of example, this study could show that learner-centeredness or teacher-centeredness is a feature of Algerian EFL classes. In short, the design of this study is quantitative.

Nevertheless, the study also used qualitative methods. Qualitative data came from interviews with teachers and document analysis, while quantitative data stemmed from the questionnaires and classroom observation. Opting for quantitative and qualitative tools makes the current investigation use triangulation. The term triangulation in research was first used by Denzin (1978) to refer to the combination of

research tools in an attempt to counterbalance the weaknesses in each of them (cited in Borrego, Douglas, & Amelink, 2009, p. 58). They have added that data is collected concurrently and the researcher's elucidation involves and necessitates comparing the results to best understand the research topic.

The combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods received keenness from many researchers and scholars. According to Nunan (2005), classroom researchers do not seem enthusiastic for employing solely one data collection technique or one single research paradigm; rather, they are more oriented towards data triangulation. The fact of the matter is that there are cases where researchers resort to multiple perspectives in data collection and analysis. Allwright and Bailey (1991) have asserted that there is room for the combination of quantitative and qualitative data and there is a clear connection between these two approaches. Their integration in research is called the mixed method approach, which evolved for the first time during the 1980's (Creswell, 2013). Such integration, according to Creswell (2013), yields a more complete grasp of a research problem than qualitative and quantitative approaches do when standing each alone in research. Denzin and Lincoln (2008) have concluded that "No single method can grasp all the subtle variations in ongoing human experience" (p. 29).

Similarly, Lund (2012) has supported the mixed methods approach by advancing many advantages. First, a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches secures good answers to complex research questions and gives a more complete picture of the issue under investigation than when these approaches are used in isolation. Moreover, it provides more valid inferences, particularly if the results obtained from both approaches converge. Furthermore, if ever results established from quantitative and qualitative approaches emerge to be divergent, then such condition will open doors for opportunities to reflect more about the issue and serve as a lens for extra research and theoretical insights. Thereby, it can be deduced that employing both quantitative and qualitative research to answer a research problem seems advantageous.

With reference to the current study, methodological triangulation is fulfilled through crosschecking quantitative data obtained from survey questionnaires and

classroom observation against qualitative data gathered from interviews and documents analysis. For example, the data collected from the interview sought either supporting or refuting data obtained via the questionnaires and understanding in-depth issues relating to the research problem (e.g. evaluating the competency component in the syllabuses and textbooks).

4.1.4. Type of Study: Programme Evaluation

This study is a programme evaluation as it examines the application of a teaching programme; it primarily investigates whether the principles of the pedagogy of integration are reflected in the secondary school English language syllabuses and textbooks and whether these documents achieve their objectives. Based on the aims of programme evaluation stated by experts in this field (e.g. Nunan, 1992; Rossi, Lipsey, and Freeman, 1999), this type of study basically investigates the effectiveness of a teaching plan or system in achieving the goals of an educational institution, and suggests alternative formulations for the system in case it is proven defective in its function. It could focus on various aspects of the teaching programme, all of which could have their bearings on a successful attainment of teaching outcomes.

4.1.4.1. Definition of Programme Evaluation

Rossi et al. (1999) have defined programme evaluation as “the use of social research procedures to systematically investigate the effectiveness of social intervention programs that is adapted to their political and organisational environments and designed to inform social action in ways that improve social conditions” (p. 20).

This definition indicates that programme evaluation is an orderly research undertaking that employs social research tools such as questionnaires and interviews and that complies with the specificities of the context in which it is implemented. Much like other research varieties, such as descriptive or exploratory studies, programme evaluation rules out ad-hoc data that might be built up through informal discussions or anecdotal observations. Moreover, the major aim of this research is to make a value judgment on the effectiveness of a given social plan (the secondary school EFL syllabuses and textbooks in the case of this investigation). More to the point, the study has to establish the worth of a syllabus.

Furthermore, unlike any other research field, programme evaluation involves action (i.e. improving effectiveness and bringing to fruition the intervention plan). Roegiers and Gerard (2009) have eloquently said that it prepares for a decision.

In a similar vein, Gronlund (1981) has defined programme evaluation as a “systematic process of determining the extent to which instructional objectives are achieved by pupils” (as cited in Nunan, 1992, p. 184). However, this definition is narrow in its scope as it limits the research task to the process of implementation and the end-product from the angle of the learner, neglecting ways in which programmes are conceptualised. This research type could be used to explore whether or not a particular contrivance is conveniently designed to operate effectively; actually, planning is a fundamental step in programme design. Roegiers and Gerard (2009) have added the assessment of the quality and use of the textbook with regard mobilised means for elaboration, circumstances of implementation, and its effect on learning (p. 85).

Nunan (1992), Rossi et al. (1999), and Gerard and Roegiers (2009) have all agreed that this research procedure involves a decision and a consequent action. Once a programme of intervention is documented ineffective in a certain way, the programme evaluator suggests more effective pathways to bring it to fruition or at worst case to discard it in favour of a more performing alternative. Consequently, it is inherent to programme evaluation to establish scientifically the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the intervention plan and suggest further improvements.

4.1.4.2. Aspects of Programme Evaluation

The current study focuses on the design of the programme, as outlined by Rossi et al. (1999); more specifically, on how well the competency-based system is implemented in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane English language syllabuses and textbooks. Moreover, according to Nunan (1988) and Roegiers and Gerard (2009), a syllabus could be evaluated “in action”, that is, examining how the intentions of syllabus planners are interpreted into actions in the classroom. It is, then, the task of this study to equally explore how well the objectives are exhibited and the competency precepts are realised during the teaching/learning process.

Another possible perspective in syllabus evaluation is the examination of the attainment of learning objectives (Nunan, 1988; Rossi et al., 1999; Gerard & Roegiers 2009). Since this study examines the application of the pedagogy of integration in the syllabuses and textbooks, it is crucial to look at whether these documents, as they stand, achieve the learning objectives.

Thus, this multifaceted examination of the syllabuses and the textbooks at the level of planning and implementation will hopefully yield a more comprehensive and pertinent decision on the worth of secondary school English language teaching materials (i.e. syllabuses and textbooks). Nunan (1988) has argued that it is more advisable to investigate all aspects of the syllabus to arrive at a more valid judgment on the value of the curricular documents. Arguably, a programme could seem convenient at the level of conceptualisation and unfeasible at the level of implementation. A comprehensive examination of the different aspects of the curriculum seems to impose itself.

Nevertheless, the evaluation of the syllabuses and by definition their accompanying textbooks, focuses on areas of syllabus design, without going into the domain of curriculum development. As a reminder, syllabus design is merely one aspect of curriculum development. Thus, this study is not concerned with stages of needs analysis, political decisions, and curriculum evaluation procedures.

4.1.4.3. The Principles Underlying the Current Programme Evaluation

The review of the literature and the preliminary work on the Algerian English language programmes have established the following competency-based decisive factors for the measurement of implementation of the pedagogy of integration in the Algerian context.

- *The pedagogy of integration is an outcome-based system that clearly pre-specifies the types and number of competencies to be covered in a teaching programme.*
- *The pedagogy of integration clearly states learning purposes and specific objectives in behavioural terms, including conditions of execution and the standards of success.*

- *The pedagogy of integration considers resources as a means for the realisation of target competencies.*
- *The pedagogy of integration specifies both the learner entry and exit profiles.*
- *The pedagogy of integration specifies OTI in operationalised terms.*
- *The pedagogy of integration incorporates integration situations at intermediary as well as at summative moments in the learning process.*
- *The pedagogy of integration promotes collaborative work, but the achievement of competencies is exhibited individually.*
- *The pedagogy of integration is inclusive, allowing the use of teacher-and learner-centered styles of teaching.*
- *The pedagogy of integration incorporates cognitive and social skills into teaching programmes.*
- *Assessment of resources in the pedagogy of integration is optional and should be reduced to a minimum.*
- *The pedagogy of integration relies on criterion performance-based assessment.*
- *The pedagogy of integration employs corrective and enrichment activities.*
- *The pedagogy of integration promotes the use of ICT's.*

The above standards were exploded and explicated from the literature; then they were tailored to the nature of the documents that were concerned with analysis.

4.1.4.4. Programme Evaluation and Hypotheses

As stated at the beginning of this chapter, this study uses a quantitative design. This means that it has started with fixed hypotheses that are tested empirically. “Quantitative research generally starts with an experimental design in which a hypothesis is followed by the quantification of data and some sort of numerical analysis is carried out...” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 2). However, as this study is a programme evaluation, one could not talk of hypothesis testing with the aim of enlarging the body of knowledge; the purpose of the evaluation is to provide useful feedback to programme managers and entrepreneurs (Levin-Rozalis, 2003, p. 1).

There is a controversy as to whether programme evaluation is to be considered scientific research in the first place because its ultimate purpose is not to feed human curiosity or to control nature. Nunan (1992) has argued that programme evaluation is a

scientific research endeavour inasmuch as it uses research procedures and tools, while Levin-Rozalis (2003) has convincingly argued that forcing programme evaluation into the field of research has impeded its development as an instrument for social improvement. Levin-Rozalis has used the term “hybrid research” to refer to the current conception of programme evaluation that is, in his view, it is neither research nor programme evaluation (p. 2).

In inductive research, a hypothesis is formulated on the basis of a theory that is derived from the existing knowledge. Contrarily, programme evaluation does not start from theory or test a theory. The variables are derived from the field and the evaluator looks for their interrelation (Levin-Rozalis, 2003, p. 9). Besides, programme evaluators do not use the field to validate theory; rather, they find validation for their hypotheses in the existing knowledge (Ibid). This is to say that, programme evaluation could formulate hypotheses, but they are not intended to be validated as scientific findings. Instead, existing knowledge or theory is used to explain the relations between the different variables arising from a particular setting, group of people, or programme.

Levin-Rozalis (2003) has further argued that evaluators should relinquish hypotheses and look for understanding in the light of their professional background. However, programme evaluation is still considered as a systematic repeatable study that applies both the procedures and tools of empirical research. Usually, this form of research starts with personal hunches derived from the field that are then translated into hypotheses.

In the light of the above discussion, this study has started from a set of assumptions that are derived from the researcher’s personal experience and readings in the field of competency-based literature. It tries to find relationships between a set of variables such as the application of the principles of the pedagogy of integration and the achievement of the competency-based objectives. Its presuppositions are derived from the field of study and supported by an existing body of knowledge. For example, supporters of the pedagogy of integration such as Roegiers (2010a) have argued that a partial application of the pedagogy of integration would lead to faulty competency-based performances. The following hypotheses substantiate its research questions.

- Given that the Algerian secondary school EFL syllabuses and textbooks are based on the pedagogy of integration, if these documents only partially apply the principles of this approach such as intermediary integration, performance-based assessment, and clear identification of the target language competencies, the students would not accomplish successfully the competency objectives set up for them.
- If the secondary school textbooks apply the principles of the pedagogy of integration, they would exhibit its fundamental precepts such as explicit identification of learning objectives, explicit identification of the learner exit profile in the can do terms, intermediary integration of the learned items, summative integration of the learned items, and criterion-performance-based assessment.
- If the secondary the secondary school English language syllabuses and textbooks apply the principles of the pedagogy of integration, they would equally display its fundamental tenets such as the definition of the learner entry and exit profiles in task-based and assessable terms, identify few target competencies, and specify classes of competency situations.
- The application of the pedagogy of integration in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary school contexts is subject to a myriad of obstacles.

4.1.5. Preliminary Work and Pilot Study

The researcher first needed to explore the field before the conceptualisation of the research plan. Although the researcher is well-familiar with the research site, he needed to do a preliminary examination of the classroom practices and talk to teachers and students. Subjective or imagined problems might be wrong: they have to be “exposed to criticism to find out whether or not that imagined is anything like the real one” (Medawar, 1972, p. 22 cited in Bell, 1993, p. 25). The conjuncture, thus, needs to be verified too early to better fine-tune the topic, though many sub-topics usually emerge during the process of research (Bell, 1993, p. 25). In other words, it is deemed essential to verify the researcher’s initial hunches before setting up the scientific study which would support or refute them.

Groundwork in the research site came up with the following remarks:

- Secondary school English classes seem more teacher-fronted.
- Teachers seem to focus on the formal system of English.
- Teachers seem mostly unfamiliar with competency discourse.
- Textbooks appear to be the carriers of the learning process rather than the objectives or competencies.
- Meaningful interaction seems scarce.
- Students' level does not appear to reflect the competency standards.
- Teachers seem more engaged in teaching a few students.

These initial remarks, among many others, were exposed to a systematic appraisal and they were equally documented from the literature. More importantly, they supported the pertinence of the research tools and enriched their contents. As an illustration, teachers were indirectly asked whether they know what integration is since they seem to ignore the meanings of fundamental concepts of the pedagogy of integration.

The pilot study also contributed to the refinement of the research tools. Any research tool has to be tried out before genuine implementation (Bell, 1993). It is defined by Kothari as the “replica and rehearsal of the main survey” (p. 101). The trial run of elicitation devices removes out “bugs” from them (Bell, p. 128). It is particularly more crucial for questionnaires because respondents work through the questions on their own and the researcher might not be there to help out in case assistance is needed; thus, it is essential for the scholar to assess “the feasibility and usefulness of the data collection methods” and make “any necessary revisions before they are used with the research participants” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 43).

Both the questionnaires and the classroom observation schemes were piloted. Their initial trial was carried out with the target population since it was possible. During the preliminary run of the questionnaires, the researcher used Bell's (1993) following questions to enhance the validity and convenience of this elicitation technique:

1. How long did it take you to complete it?
2. Were instructions clear?
3. Were any questions unclear or ambiguous?
4. Did you object to answering any of the questions?

5. In your view, has any major topic been omitted?
6. Was the layout of the questionnaire clear/attractive?
7. Any comments? (Bell, 1993, p. 128)

The researcher made sure the questionnaires did not exceed 4 pages, because lengthy questionnaires are discouraging and they could lead to careless answers.

The student questionnaire had shown some problems of understanding because of translation issues, thus the researcher was led to make concepts clearer. On the whole, the students liked the questionnaire that was edited in an attractive format, and mostly they said that they learned new things from it. It is worth noting in passage that a student in Slimani Slimane high school made a funny, but insightful heckling comment instructing the researcher to tell officials in the Ministry of Education to remove project work from the books. Additionally, it seemed that the students were incapable of judging the presence or absence of some features of the pedagogy of integration in their textbooks; so these questions were asked in another way, requiring them to tell whether or not their teachers are using those features in their classes.

With respect to the teacher and inspector questionnaires, the respondents objected to the question on the concept of “integration” as they ignored its meaning, though they were not compelled to answer it. As an alternative, the researcher substituted the word with “mobilisation”, which is used interchangeably in the pedagogy of integration (Scallon, 2004).

The trial of the classroom observation scheme was an invaluable opportunity for the researcher to train himself for the coding skill and link topics to classroom practices. It turned out that the researcher needed at least audio-recording classroom events because the focus on tallying the lengthy grid distracted him from focusing on classroom process and interpretation of contexts.

4.1.6. Research Instruments and Procedures of Data Collection and Analysis

In order to investigate this research topic, the researcher made use of four research instruments, viz. document analysis, questionnaire, classroom observation, and follow-up interview. The research tools, as well as the procedures of data collection and analysis, are presented below sequentially in accordance to the order of

their importance; but, it goes without saying that they work in synergy as a network converging and interacting dynamically to achieve the research objectives.

4.1.6.1. Document Analysis

The first and most important research means in this study is document analysis. Documents are valuable resources in qualitative research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). They are written texts that provide “witting and unwitting” evidence about opinions and ideas that authors want to communicate (Bell, 1993, p. 110). The documents used in the present study include official documents relevant to the Algerian secondary school EFL teaching. Specifically, they include secondary school textbooks packages (i.e. three textbooks *At the Crossroads*, *Getting through*; and *New Prospects* along with accompanying documents and teachers’ books) and the syllabus documents.

Analysis of the aforesaid documents helped to evaluate the competency-based extent of the Algerian competency-based model of teaching adopted since the School Reform in the secondary school in 2005. Other documents analysed for the current study included the BAC test. The data collected from documents helped supplementing information obtained through the questionnaires. Bell (1993) has noted that documents could be used to test the reliability of evidence collected by means of other research instruments such as interviews or questionnaires (p. 108). Thus, its role in this study is supplementing the findings obtained from the questionnaires and the follow-up interview.

Three document analysis schemes (please refer to Appendices A, B, C) were used to analyse three different types of documents, viz., syllabuses, textbooks, and BAC test. Because the study adheres to a deductive approach, systematic and closed schemes were used. The topics used for appraising the competency extent of the aforementioned documents were almost the same as those applied in the parallel research means (i.e. questionnaire or observation schedules).

Although the textbook is a sub-part of the syllabus, it is deemed more convenient to start the presentation of the textbook analysis scheme before the syllabus examination schedule. This is because textbook analysis seems more common and its literature is more mature than syllabus analysis. Thus, it more appropriate to

familiarise the reader with this literature in the view of the better understanding of document evaluations. Likewise, the presentation of the research findings from this content analysis schemes in the subsequent section will proceed in the same order.

- **Textbook Analysis Scheme**

Textbook analysis can take different forms: it could be comprehensive or selective. The former considers the whole aspects of the textbook such as layout, content, topics, methodology, illustrations, and quality of the paper, the aim of which is to establish the worth of the document. The latter is more focused and targets only the aspect of the textbook that the research thinks faulty for achieving the aims of the programme. This evaluation could be carried out through bottom-up fashion or a top-down style, that is, textbooks could be analysed through predetermined categories or topics or analysed in an exploratory manner looking for topics to emerge. Again, since this study adopts a quantitative paradigm, a systematic approach is applied to analyse the secondary school Algerian ELT textbooks.

There are no standard criteria for the analysis of any textbook, let alone when the researcher intends to examine the course book through specific lenses. The criteria mostly depend on the circumstances of evaluation (Cunningsworth, 1995). Harmer (1996) has equally agreed that the criteria are never exhaustive enough and standardised, rather they should be fine-tuned to the specificities of the context. Consequently, this study uses its proper criteria of analysis extracted from its context.

Cunningsworth (1995) and Gerard and Roegiers (2009) have insisted that empirical evaluation should be criterion-based as opposed to impressionistic judgments, though even in imprecise and subjective appraisals certain underlying criteria are also involved. Here the authors refer to the explicit statement of criteria. Gerard and Roegiers have identified the following set of caveats for guiding empirical and intentional analysis of textbooks:

- It prepares for a decision.
- It is based on objectives with respect to the decision to be made.
- Its criteria are established at the onset and adjusted during the process.
- Its objectives are turned to criteria.
- It collects a set of information that is pertinent, valid, and reliable.

- It controls and measures. (Gerard & Roegiers, 2009, pp. 86-93)

As outlined above, the objectives should be related to the circumstances or the characteristics of evaluation and the prioritised matters (Cunningsworth, 1995). For this, the researcher had to build his own list reflecting the principles of the pedagogy of integration. The criteria of assessment were set at the beginning, but they were adjusted continually depending on development in the research design.

Furthermore, as Gerard and Roegiers (2009) have recommended, the vague and broad objectives were turned into assessable items and exposed to users for assessment. Finally, the evaluation had to be pertinent (i.e. evaluating the intended aspects of the textbooks), valid (i.e. choosing the convenient research methods), and reliable (i.e. being able to be replicated by another researcher). For instance, if the study is not replicable, then the standards of assessment of the techniques of investigations are subjective. This study pertinently focused on the competency component of the three secondary school textbooks through the use of textbook analysis grid (Appendix A), which could be replicated by another scholar in another similar context.

- **Syllabus Analysis Schedule**

Similarly, this research instruments measured the application of the competency principles in the three syllabus documents currently in use. It also examined the accompanying documents that support the syllabuses. The criteria of evaluation (see Appendix B) are similar to those of the textbooks analysis with adaptations to the nature and components of the syllabuses.

- **BAC Test Analysis Schedule**

As the BAC test exhibits officially the assessment methods applied in the secondary school syllabuses, it was evaluated according to the criteria of assessment set up in the pedagogy of integration (see Appendix C). The two major components of the BAC test (i.e. resources and performance-based situations) were scrutinised using pertinent criteria and general guidelines derived from the pedagogy of integration. These criteria are as follows.

- *Measurement of resources and competencies*
- *Application of the rule of two thirds for the testing tasks*

- *Use of the rule of three out of four*
- *Multifaceted format of the assessment tasks*
- *Meaningfulness of assessment tasks*
- *Integration (complexity)*

These criteria are illustrated in the second chapter of the review of the literature.

- **Design of Document Analysis Tools**

This desk analysis was only carried out after spending more than three years collecting relevant documentation and writing the review of the literature. Once the latter was completed, it became conspicuous as to which precepts of the pedagogy of integration were to be applied for analysing the target documents. It was primarily crucial to first define the components of the syllabus in the Algerian context, and then work out the list of criteria relevant for the competency-based approach applied in the Algerian syllabuses and textbooks, because the latter seems to mesh the principles of CBE in general and those of the pedagogy of integration. Careful preliminary readings of the secondary school English language official documents allowed delineating the orientation of the Algerian competency teaching pedagogy. Any error in marking out the scope of the syllabuses and defining the relevant criteria of assessment would have thwarted the research agenda.

Next, as the criteria of analysis representing the principles of the pedagogy of integration are not standardised and they are adaptive to every single document, the researcher exploded these principles in a way to fit the requirement of each document. The textbook, for instance, has to explicit the conceptualisation of learning, while it might be just touched on in passing in the syllabus.

- **Procedure of Document Analysis**

First, the research read the entire documents (syllabuses and textbooks) to get a global understanding of their contents; then, he focused on the specific passages that deal with the criteria of analysis. The standards of evaluation for each document were applied one after the other, noting in prose their applicability or their absence and keeping records of the pages.

4.1.6.2. Questionnaire

A questionnaire is one of the most widely used research instrument to collect data from a large population in a relatively short period of time. According to Nunan (1992), the questionnaire “is an instrument for the collection of data usually in a written form consisting of open and /or closed questions and other probes requiring a response from subjects” (p. 54). Bell (1999) has highlighted that questionnaires are practical for collecting specific information quickly and cheaply. When compared to other research tools such as interviews and observations, questionnaires are easy to administer and they could yield data as important as that obtained from the other research tools, providing that the researcher prunes them from unnecessary items (Bell, 1999).

As the current study seeks to evaluate the achievement of competency objectives, the congruency of competency-based approach implemented in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary school contexts with the way it is presented in the expert literature, and the potential causes that hinder programme implementation; the questionnaire seems the most relevant instrument in that it allows submitting a small number of items for evaluation by relatively large groups of informants.

Besides, questionnaires can yield precise data amenable to statistical calculations and easy for analysis. This feature makes it easier for the researcher to collect accurate data and analyse it without big difficulties, rather than adopting qualitative research means that might yield a huge amount of data that could be hardly exploitable and useful. Following this logic, the questionnaires implemented in this study incorporated mainly close-end questions and only a very limited number of necessary open-end questions. The following questionnaires were used:

- **Teacher Questionnaire**

The teacher questionnaire (Appendix D) includes four sections: personal information, evaluation of attainment of competency targets, evaluation of textbooks and classroom practices, and evaluation of syllabuses.

The first section used 3 questions that open the questionnaire to the possible correlation between, for instance, education background or professional training and the implementation of the competencies promoted in the syllabuses and the textbooks.

The second section measures the attainment of the programme objectives and the potential hurdles through questions 4 and 5. The third section of the questionnaire (questions 6-23) gauges the appropriateness of the textbooks in terms of competency-based principles and the teacher's familiarity with effective implementation of competency teaching objectives. Questions 24-30 in the final section assess the suitability of the syllabus for outlining efficiently the features of the pedagogy of integration.

- **Learner Questionnaire**

The learner questionnaire (Appendix E) is almost identical with the teacher questionnaire, with the exception of the section devoted for the evaluation of the syllabuses with which the students are not concerned. Thus, the two questionnaires incorporate many questions in common so as to compare the learner and the teacher answers. Obviously, differences exist in the wording of the questions of this research means since students are less familiar with the textbook matters and the competency-based discourse. It goes without saying that the student questionnaire was paired with a translated Arabic version (Appendix K).

This questionnaire is divided into three sections. The first section includes only one question on students' possible extra English courses outside of school. The second section equally incorporates only two questions for the assessment of the achievement of secondary school standards of success and looking for the potential impediments to their achievement. The third section (questions 4 to 16) assesses the competency nature of the textbook and the classroom practices.

- **Inspector Questionnaire**

The third questionnaire is the inspector questionnaire (Appendix F). This questionnaire equally it includes 4 parts. In the first section, the supervisors are asked mainly about their educational background, their teaching experience, the training they benefited, and the training in CBLT they provide their teachers with. All these matters are thought of as relevant for evaluating the syllabuses and textbooks in the sense that if, for example, these inspectors are acceptably capable of training their teachers, the objectives of the secondary school syllabuses and textbooks could be achieved more easily. The second section concerns itself with measuring the accomplishment of the

objectives of teaching English at secondary school and their possible obstacles. The assessment of the textbooks and the ways they are substantiated in practice is carried out in the third section. Finally, the fourth section appraises the fittingness of the syllabus from the point of view of the pedagogy of integration.

- **Rationale Used for the Construction of the Questionnaires**

As recommended by many scholars (Kothari, 2014; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016), the questionnaires follow the same pattern going from the general to specific. The questions apply the following principles identified by Kothari (2014): (a) intelligibility, (b) simplicity, (c) and concreteness (pp. 102-103). The pilot study permitted to ensure that the questions are clear and unambiguous; they target one topic/item at a time; and they are made more palpable for the respondent to answer. For instance, instead of asking whether the textbooks use meaningful activities, the students were asked whether the activities they do in the classroom are helpful for doing things outside the classroom.

Additionally, as Sekaran and Bougie (2016) have emphasised, the wording of the questions should be close to the level of understanding of respondents; for this, the items in the questionnaires are worded according to the social status and educational background of each group of respondents. Furthermore, the researcher made sure that all the items in the questionnaire revolve around the research questions.

The questions used for designing the questionnaires are mainly closed questions, i.e., “Yes or No” questions (Kothari, 2014, p. 103), but these questions are sometimes complemented with open-ended questions. The principle is very simple: if an evaluation of an item is on the research agenda, a closed question is used; but when the matter needs exploration like finding causes or targeting an indefinite answer, an open-ended question is employed.

The choice of close-ended questions is not only motivated by their easiness for analysis and interpretation; rather the incentive has to do with the practicality of the questionnaire. Since many topics are submitted for evaluation (viz., textbooks, syllabuses, and classroom practices), only simple questions could make the questionnaires reasonably short. Thus, although, for instance, the Likert scale questions accurately measure the respondents’ attitudes towards the evaluated items,

they were not used because they could have made the already lengthy questionnaire complex and cumbersome for answering.

Moreover, asking students/teachers or even inspectors who might not be very well-familiar with the precepts of competency-based teaching to answer open-end questions might result in frustrating returns and a partial evaluation of the core items set up for evaluation in the research agenda

- **Procedures of Questionnaire Administration**

The questionnaire was the first research instrument to be administered; the student questionnaire had been distributed and returned from October to November 2016. Because the target schools are geographically scattered, the researcher needed two months to implement and hand the questionnaire in person. This research means was administered on the spot and the researcher explained its aim and monitored its completion. This optimal procedure resulted in high returns and a very acceptable rate of responsiveness. Only seven questionnaires were discarded because of careless responses or their incompleteness.

Concurrently, the researcher equally applied the teacher questionnaire. The latter was handed by the researcher in person to each teacher-participant, who was given one week to complete it at his/her own ease and comfort. Most questionnaires were equally collected on the spot while the remaining ones were collected a few days later through the researcher personal contacts.

As regard to the inspector questionnaire, it was either handed by the researcher in person or sent by the mail. Some inspectors were former colleagues who lent a hand to reach their colleagues through mail and have the questionnaire filled out and returned in due time.

- **Procedures of Questionnaire Analysis**

Summary sheets were prepared in advance to record returns from the questionnaires. Once the summary sheets had been completed, it appeared that it was more suitable to present data in simple tables followed by prose commentaries, highlighting emerging patterns and ignoring insignificant data.

Prose data yielded from open questions was collated and categorised or paraphrased and equally presented in spreadsheets. Responses from these free

questions in both questionnaires were written out on separate sheets; then, they were scanned for recurring themes. All the open responses were either categorized or reported succinctly in display tables. Useful text responses served as quotations to illustrate certain points in the analysis or discussion of the results. Hence, nearly all the data obtained from the questionnaires was interpreted quantitatively.

4.1.6.3. Classroom Observation

Classroom observation is the third important means of research adopted in this study to complement and compare the data yielded from the questionnaires as well as from document analysis. Its purpose is to see whether what is specified in the programme works well in practice. Besides, As Bell (1999) has stated “Direct observation may be more reliable than what people say in many instances” (p. 156). Indeed, the questionnaire might be misunderstood or answered carelessly or people might talk differently from what they actually do; but observation carried out by a well-trained researcher and with reasonable expertise might reveal more salient facts relating to the target topic.

This type of observation is a systematic one. McInntyre and Macleod (1986) have defined systematic observation in the following way:

By systematic observation procedure, we mean those procedures in which the observer, deliberately refraining from participation in classroom activities, analyses aspects of these activities through the use of a predetermined set of categories or signs. This analysis may take place during the observation or may be based on selective records such as audio and video recordings, or on transcripts of classroom discourse. (Cited in Tsui, 1995, p. 103)

As explained in the quote above, this kind of observation is structured, that is, the observer uses a set of prearranged categories, which form the focus of his/her observation. The researcher informs the observed of his/her identity but refrains from participating in the social activity and involving himself/herself emotionally.

- **Observation Scheme**

So far as the observation scheme for classroom observation (see Appendix G) is concerned, the researcher designed one that would presumably accord with the underlying research topic. For the most part, it is made up of pre-determined

categories, which are primarily portrayed in competency-based classroom practices. One of the drawbacks of observation schemes as noted by Nunan (1992) and Tsui (1995) is that an observation scheme calls attention solely to the categories chosen in advance for observation. Yet, the observation scheme for the present research was designed in such a way that it allowed for other novel strategies to be counted. More precisely, it was left open that it included the category of “Others” allowing the observer to note down other strategies which were not included in the literature and in the pre-specified categories of the schedule. The schedule employed 15 items, including the category of “Other(s)”.

- **Classroom Observation Procedures**

After designing the observation scheme, the researcher proceeded with its application. Eight sessions were observed in all, that is, 4 lessons in each of the schools under investigation, and two teachers from each of the target schools were solicited to observe their competency teaching practices. Each of these teachers in both schools was observed during two sessions in accordance with the convenience of the participants and the research plan.

It was considered to hire and train a co-observer to increase the validity of the data, but as the schools were scattered geographically and too far from each other, it was impossible to have all the time the co-observer. Mackey and Gass (2005) have called this investigator triangulation; in other words, not merely one observer contributes to the findings, but also an extra observer. This procedure might have upgraded the reliability of the results obtained from the observation scheme.

The observations had been carried out from September to November 2016. The researcher chose to observe the opening of the lesson, teaching of resources, intermediary integration situations (end of sequences), and project implementation at the end of the unit. This strategic planning aimed at showing whether the teachers especially in the first unit and at the beginning of the year explain to the students the terminal aim of learning English in secondary school; whether resources are considered as means for the realisation of competencies; whether the students implement individually integration situations; and whether the students implement project work, which seems to occupy the place of target situations.

Because of the geographical distance between the target schools, the researcher observed unit one (*Signs of the Time*) in Maouche Idriss secondary school and unit two (*Peace and Conflicts*) in Slimani Slimane secondary school. It is deemed that this could not affect the reliability and validity of the findings since the secondary school textbooks follow the same layout and teaching procedures throughout. The only difference between the units of this course book, *Getting through*, is in the contents and topics. It was impossible to observe simultaneously the same unit in both schools since these target secondary schools are located in geographically distant regions. The aim of this classroom observation is to see how the units of *Getting through* are applied in these two schools pertaining to different districts in the view of getting a broader examination of the implementation of the pedagogy of integration.

The choice of observing secondary school classes is due to the fact that they are regular classes, whereas the third-year classes prepare the learners for the BAC test and the first-year classes mainly review the previously acquired competencies in the middle school. As the first-year textbook, *At the Crossroads*, extends on the competencies developed from first-year middle school (Riche et al., 2006a, p. 4), its first unit constitutes a revision of the previous skills covered in the middle school (Riche et al. 2006a, p. 11). Similarly, the third-year textbook, *New Prospects*, constitutes a revision and a preparation for the BAC test (Arab, Riche, Bensemmane, 2007b, p. 10). Thus, it is more convenient to opt for the second-year textbook, which could reflect effective practice of competencies.

The researcher first got an informal permission for observing the teachers who accepted to take part in classroom observation in the target schools. The teachers were somehow hesitant to be observed, explaining that it is regular teaching and no competency teaching is involved. But, as the researcher is a friend and a former colleague of these teachers, he managed to convince them to observe the teaching process on friendly terms.

The researcher sat at the back of the class observing and tallying teaching practices in his coding scheme. A Dictaphone sitting on the desk was equally used to audiotape the events of the lesson with the aim of reviewing the lessons afterward to fill the missing gaps and make up for the moments of inattention or things that had

passed unnoticed during the hasty coding. The recording apparatus was of high quality and provided an optimal audio picture of the lessons, which allowed to trace back easily all the moments of the teaching process; besides, all the lessons were successfully recorded. This recording strategy allowed linking discrete entities, which are considered a big limitation of systematic observation (Tsui, 1995), to their context. Moreover, the audio device allowed timing the amounts of teacher and student talk.

Furthermore, the researcher's previous experience as a secondary school teacher for more than 12 years overcame another limitation of systematic research, viz., being an outsider (Tsui, 1995). In fact, the researcher has a reasonable understanding of the classroom processes in secondary school EFL classes, and thus could understand the unobserved and relate events to their underlying meanings.

- **Analysis of Classroom Observation Data**

Naturally, the observation schedule calls for a quantitative analysis. The categories being tallied in the classroom observation schedule or coded through the comprehensive portrayal of the lesson in the audio recording device showed the presence or absence of the topics included in the observation instrument. Initially, the researcher intended to show their frequency, but as many features of the pedagogy of integration embodied in the rating categories were inexistent or scarce, the researcher tried merely to establish their use or non-use.

Four tables in all are used to present the results from the classroom observations, representing four main aspects of the teaching process. Nevertheless, as argued throughout, a qualitative approach was used to interpret data and report the context of classroom events. For instance, hand rising could be related to the social context. Explaining quantitative data qualitatively at a certain stage of research like when interpreting the results, is inevitable (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). Thus a qualitative style was employed at the right moment to explain optimally discrete items or classroom events.

4.1.6.4. Follow-up Interview

Another technique for collecting data is conducting interviews, which are chiefly qualitative in nature. They are very essential in research so long as they permit the analysis of unobservable phenomena (Mackey & Gass, 2005). However, since the

current study is mainly descriptive, a semi-structured interview seems to serve better the research aim at hand, because the inquiry seeks to investigate pre-specified issues (i.e. the prominence of the principles of the pedagogy of integration in the current Algerian CBLT documents).

As its name indicates, a semi-structured interview denotes the use of some pre-determined set of topics. In this regard, Bell (1999) has stated that “where specific information is required, it is generally wise to establish some sort of structure...” (p. 139). The results from this research technique allow comparability between one interviewee and another. On this particular point, Kothari (2004) has pointed out that the looseness of unstructured interviews engenders different interviews that hinder secure generalisations.

According to Mackey and Gass (2005), semi-structured interviews are basically surveys through which the researcher prepares a set of questions in advance, which will be asked to all respondents, and which will enable for the comparison between the various responses obtained. However, during the course of the interview, the researcher is allowed to diverge from these questions to seek further information. Contrariwise, unstructured interviews require no pre-set questions at all. The interviewer just goes with respondents in the flow of interaction, helping them to express themselves freely and at their own pace.

Harrell and Bradley (2009) have added that “semi-structured interviews are often used when the researcher wants to delve deeply into a topic to understand thoroughly the answers provided (p. 27). This means they allow room for interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee, and thereby allow the researcher to elicit and process data he/she cannot get otherwise. Besides investigating issues raised in the questionnaires and classroom observation, this instrument allowed exploring high inference categories (Long, 1980a) that are not amenable to classroom observation. Thus, the interview constitutes the only window for exploring the mind of programme users in order to look at the unobservable phenomenon and get a deeper understanding of the topic at hand. Nunan (1992) has agreed with this idea saying that semi-formal interviews provide access to people’s lives.

There seems a disagreement in the methodology of language research as to whether the interviewer prepares a set of questions in semi-structured interviews or a set of topics. Bell (1993) and Nunan (1992) have suggested having only topics in mind which would constitute the focus of the interview, while Mackey and Gass (2005) have indicated that the researcher could prepare questions in a written document before the onset of the encounter. Mackey and Gass, have actually defined semi-structured interview as follows: “An interview in which researchers use written lists of questions as a guide, but can digress and probe for information” (p. 365). In research, it is to be accepted that there is no blueprint or readymade plan for investigating any research purpose (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 78). In the light of this insight, the researcher opted for the use of a list of predetermined questions that best suited his local context in the sense that questions could better guide the interview and would allow the interviewees have a glance at them before being interviewed.

- **Administration of the Interview**

Semi-structured interviews were carried out with 6 teachers, most of whom took part in classroom observation. These teachers (3 from each of the schools under investigation) accepted readily to share their thoughts and experiences in teaching through competency-based programmes. The interviews were implemented subsequently to classroom observation and the administration of questionnaires; as a matter of fact that, this research means focused on issues that needed further explanation and that were derived from the results of the classroom observations and the questionnaires.

The interviews were conducted in isolate rooms and the researcher used a variety of techniques to make the respondents comfortable and willing to share more. The biggest advantage of the researcher is the fact that 4 out of 6 interviewees were former colleagues and friends. This unquestionably reduced the level of formality, which might have jeopardised the reliability of the results. The researcher felt that the title of Ph.D. was intimidating to many practitioners; that is why, and as it often happens, he strived for creating a kind of symmetry to avoid the respondents sensing any kind of test for their educational background or professional competencies.

The interviewees were first briefed on the objectives of the interview; told to answer the questions they wanted, explained how data was to be used; and asked whether they accepted audio-recording (Nunan, 1992, p. 152). Next, the questions were handed over to the respondents to read and reflect on them before starting the interview; this procedure aimed to make them more relaxed and process responses before the questioning; besides, they were given the choice to answer in any language they wished: English, French, Arabic, and Tamazight. Moreover, as advised by Walker (1985, cited in Nunan, 1992, p. 152), the researcher sat side-by-side with the interviewee instead of facing him/her in order to decrease the level of asymmetry, and thereby yield more productive results.

- **Analysis of the Interview**

The six interviews yielded a huge amount of data in the audio form that needed long hours of transcriptions. Once this data was transcribed, the researcher used qualitative techniques for analysing the crude returns into meaningful themes. Since the interview was a follow-up means to supplement the results of classroom observation and the questionnaires, its ultimate aim was not to quantify data to test the hypotheses as it has been pointed out by (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Qualitative analysis helped understanding classroom processes and the major hurdles that impede applications of syllabuses in practice.

The top-down analysis strategy (Strauss & Cobin, 1998) was applied to examine the data obtained from the follow-up interview. This analysis was done by identifying recurring themes and patterns that emerged from the global themes of the interview, and topics were assigned to these patterns of meanings (McMillan & Schumacher, 1989, p. 418). The names of categories sprang from the words and phrases raised in the review of the literature, but the researcher remained open to new themes coming out from the respondents' productions.

4.1.7. Limitations of the Study

Like any other research, the present study has been constrained by a number of limitations. Firstly, there are some limitations inherent to the research context. Most students are not used to responding to questionnaires, ignoring their due significance;

hence, they sometimes answered carelessly. The researcher had each time to focus on this point insisting on taking things seriously.

Another limitation of the study was the harsh lack of relevant resources that the researcher had to make a trip to the Catholic University of Louvain-la-Neuve in Belgium and to the BIEF institution to further enrich his stock of pertinent documentation, especially in French.

In addition, the researcher planned to interview syllabus designers, but unfortunately, it was not possible to enter into contact with any of them, either because no information was provided on their personal address or because their personal addresses were out of use.

The following section will start data analysis which will be completed in the next chapter.

4.2. Findings of Document Analysis

It is deemed appropriate to start the process of data analysis through the presentation of document analysis before the other research tools (Questionnaire, classroom observation, and follow-up interview) to familiarise the reader with the syllabuses and textbooks. The analysis of documents is presented under the questions or the criteria applied to the textbooks, syllabuses, and BAC test analysis. This section is thus subdivided into three parts, i.e. textbook evaluation, syllabus evaluation, and BAC test evaluation.

4.2.1. Results from Textbooks Evaluations

This sub-heading discusses and evaluates the contents of the three textbooks *At the Crossroads*, *Getting through*, and *New Prospects*. Fourteen criteria/questions were employed to investigate the competency nature of these textbooks.

Question 1: *What are the objectives of English language learning outlined in the textbooks?*

The first year textbook states explicitly that the textbook is designed to teach through learner-centeredness and competencies, though it asserts that the units are self-contained and grammar is taught deductively (Riche, Arab, Hami, Ameziane, & Louadj, 2006d). Basing teaching on independent units is problematic in the pedagogy of integration as the textbook does not work towards the achievement of terminal

competencies at the end of the course book. Besides, the teaching of grammar, *At the Crossroads* specifies the teaching of communication, life skills, and investment of knowledge in problem-solving tasks (Riche et al., 2006d, pp. 8-9).

Likewise, the second-year textbook, *Getting through* affirms that it teaches competencies and communication, especially through learner-centredness and project work (Riche, Arab, Bensemmane, Ameziane, Hami, 2006b, pp. 6-7). A myriad of sub-objectives are mentioned; they include functional English, collaboration, research skills, autonomy, cognitive skills (such as guessing, anticipating, planning, and monitoring), and integration of the basic language competencies in social contexts.

On a similar note, the third-year textbook, *New Prospects*, states that it is communicative and competency-based, using learner-centredness and project work; but it adds that it prepares learners for the BAC test (Arab et al., 2007b, p. 8). Moreover, this textbook outlines the same sub-objectives as those mentioned earlier with reference to the first and second-year textbooks.

All in all, the three textbooks claim to be communicative and competency-based; they contend to use the competency-based methodology as well as learner centredness and project work. Of noteworthy, the textbooks do not refer to the pedagogy of integration, except when alluding to the integration work in skill development sequences.

Question 2: *Do the textbooks state the learning objectives explicitly?*

The three secondary school textbooks seem defective with respect to the statement of learning targets for each unit or lesson; they focus on language achievement rather than on the behaviours that the students are supposed to exhibit at the completion of the instruction. As an illustration of indistinctness of objectives, the first year textbook, *At the Crossroads*, does not state the learning objectives in behavioural and task-based terms. Tasks and language achievements are mingled that the pupil cannot distinguish between target tasks and their language requirements. For instance, in unit one, we can read the following objectives:

In this unit, you will learn...

- Listen to, respond to, and give instruction using sequencers
- Pronounce two-syllable words

- Read and respond to an email. (Riche, et al. 2006d, p. 15)

Only the last objective is stated in a task and competency-based terms, while the preceding ones are sub-objectives reinforcing the achievement of the competency. Besides, the objectives of the unit are introduced in vague terms (i.e. ‘will learn’) which make them difficult to demonstrate or assess concretely. Moreover, these objectives do not specify the conditions of achievement or the standards to be reached.

The second-year textbook, *Getting through*, categorically and extensively states the objectives of the unit in terms of content, skills, and functions such as:

In this Unit, you will learn...

- Semi-modal Used to
- Comma pauses
- Suffixes –ic, ical and –ism
- Narrating
- Reading for general ideas and specific information (Riche, et al., 2006b, p. 14)

Similarly, the third-year textbook, *New Prospects*, presents the learning objectives in terms of language outcomes; with few performance-based objectives such as “giving a talk” (see Arab, et al., 2007a, p. 15). If the language resources are at the service of “making a talk about changes in lifestyle”, the textbook writers should, then, make it clear and distinguish the resources from this social competency.

On the whole, the three secondary school English language textbooks present the learning targets in a more traditional way, focusing on language content, skills, or functions, and ignoring the behavioural character, the conditions of achievement of tasks, and the standards to be reached.

Question 3: (*Do the textbooks include corrective and enrichment activities at the end of the units*)

The first and second-year secondary school English language textbooks supply remedial activities immediately after self-assessment methods incorporated at the end of each unit. As for the third-year textbook, it includes no extra activities to review or better the mastery of the contents of the units of instruction.

The first year textbook uses a whole section labeled *Check your Progress* for remedial work immediately after self-assessment. This additional section reviews the essential language contents and skills covered within the unit. The applications of the criteria of mastery learning to this section showed that there is a certain homogeneity in the design of the tasks of the unit and those of remedial work; more specifically, the enrichment or corrective activities in this section follow the same format in terms of teaching style and task format, while they should show a different learning experience that might better work for the students who have failed to benefit from the initial teaching method set up for them during the course of the unit (Gusky, 2010, p. 112). For instance, in the first year textbook, the students are given a text-based email during the course of unit one, and then the same procedure appears in the corrective feedback activities of the same unit.

Similarly, the second-year textbook exploits a section called *Exploring Matters Further* to give more practice on the contents of units; however, this section of the textbook includes only topically related texts from which the teacher can work out activities and personalise remedial work for students.

Question 4: (*Do the textbooks use alternative methods of assessment?*)

Secondary school textbooks are void of criterion-referenced assessment and explicit procedures for ongoing self-and peer-assessment, with the exception of the self-assessment grid inserted at the end of each unit, which can be considered as summative. Being so, the textbooks obey to the logic of pretest-posttest to determine the standard of accomplishment of a competency at the level of units. Consequently, the achievement of resources is not subject to continuous assessment that a student can approach a complex target situation without acceptable levels of mastery of the necessary means for its execution.

Question 5: (*Do the textbooks adopt a functional view of language?*)

The three secondary school English language textbooks adopt a traditional functional/communicative approach, that is, they define learning targets in terms of language functions and they equally identify their linguistic realisations. This strategy is typical of CBE, but the latter does not define the learning objectives in terms of linguistic realisations as in the following aim quoted from a first year textbook: “In

this unit you will learn to pronounce two syllable words” (Riche et al., 2006d, p.15). In so doing, the textbook announces that the linguistic content is equally considered as its building block.

Question 6: (*Is the teaching organised in the textbooks into units and sequences working towards the achievement of one purpose?*)

Secondary school English language textbooks are organised into units, sequences, and rubrics, which supposedly mark intermediary stages in the process of competency getting. These milestones are normally marked by assessment work at the end of each of them in the aim of informing both the students and the teacher on competency achievements. However, these textbooks do not manage to keep developing one competency throughout the whole unit or even sequence. By way of example, the second-year textbook opens the second unit by introducing the modal verbs “*can, be able to, and manage to*” to enable the learner write a statement of achievement at the end of the unit (that is, in project work), then in the subsequent sequence, the textbook indulges in teaching the writing up of school charts (refer to unit two in Riche et al. 2006b).

Question 7: (*Do the textbooks promote the principles of socio-constructivism?*)

The writers of the textbooks purport that secondary school textbooks adhere to socio-constructivism (Riche et al., 2006a, p. 12), that is, the students’ collaborative construction of knowledge. These principles are realised in practice through pair/group work activities as well as project work. Many activities in the textbooks promote collaborative work in socially constructed events especially through problem-solving techniques such as telephoning, writing a letter of application, and conducting meetings. Nonetheless, the group work activities included in the textbooks under consideration lack an information-gap that could lead the students to truly interact in order to exchange information.

As far as project work is concerned, its social and collaborative function is thwarted. As will be seen later in the results from the questionnaires, this form of instruction is defective and little practical for triggering social interaction and collaborative actions.

Question 8: (*Do the textbooks propose a class of integration situations at the end of sequences, units, and books?*)

It is to be noted first that neither the secondary school English language syllabuses nor the textbooks talk about the concept of the family of situations, and the results from the questionnaire demonstrate the neglect of this concept in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane competency-based contexts. There are no categories of situations at the end of the units or at the end of the textbooks. Yet, the end of the sequences of the units include activities much like this competency syllabus component with the exception that they cover various topics rather than one and they are mostly linguistically-driven.

Question 9: (*Do the textbooks promote the teaching of cognitive skills?*)

The first-year teacher's book plainly states that secondary school textbooks target social and cognitive competencies (Riche et al., 2006a), and the three textbooks claim that the application of language competencies to social contexts allows working on cognitive skills such as planning and problem-solving (Riche et al., 2006b; Riche et al., 2006d; Arab et al., 2007). Indeed, many activities in developing skill sequences tap at cognitive skills, but they are mostly simple intellectual activities that lack the complexity of real-life tasks.

Question 10: (*Do the textbooks consider linguistic competencies as a tool for achieving real-life competencies?*)

As will be seen later in the analysis of the results of the questionnaires, the three secondary school textbooks almost regard linguistic knowledge as the main purpose of the syllabuses. The objectives of learning are sometimes stated in a linguistic manner and the target tasks measure mostly the linguistic competence. Moreover, most of the language activities are not methodologically justified because they are not relevant to the target competencies. Discrete language items are found inappropriately inserted in the competency-based framework. By way of example, in *Getting through*, the listening activities (pp. 44-45) in unit two are not firmly linked to the targeted competency of writing a statement of achievement (refer to Riche et al., 2006b). As a rule of thumb, the functions and language exponents practised should directly relate to the targeted competency so that the learner can see the aim of his/her learning.

Question 11: (*Do the textbooks include integration situations?*)

The pedagogy of integration does not require the use of integration situations throughout the entire course of instruction, but terminal tasks should look like real-world activities and promote meaningfulness and integration. Document analysis showed that even target tasks, which should exhibit the attainment of competencies the learner will be doing outside the school, are sometimes pedagogical activities, that is, they focus on form rather than on meaning. For instance, activity one on page 19 in the secondary school textbook *Getting through* (see Riche et al., 2006b), which embodies target tasks, requires the students to use “used to form” when possible to correct the mistakes included in the passage. The students will rarely meet such a situation outside the classroom, and such an activity does not show the attributes of complexity and authenticity inherent to integration situations.

Question 12: (*Does project work contribute to integration work?*)

Project work plays a fundamental role in the secondary school textbooks, yet it is ill-designed and integrated into the learning process. It is considered as the target task (situation cible), that is, the task in which the student uses concretely what he/she has learned theoretically (Imerzoukéne, 2010). The analysis of the textbooks showed that the project sub-topics are considered as integration situations implementable at the end of sequences and the project round-up is regarded as a macro-task achievable at the end of each unit.

Unfortunately, first, the unit sequences do not adequately make provision for the achievement of the project sub-tasks. Secondly, the units teach extra language forms and functions which do not relate firmly to project work. Consequently, project work is not feasible because the students are not prepared to do it comfortably; additionally, the students are overwhelmed by the contents and activities of the units, thereby, no time is left to implement this activity.

Question 13: (*Does the textbook promote the use of ICTs?*)

ICTs are considered a byproduct of the pedagogy of integration, which is inquiry-based and problem-solving. By implementing a competency-based syllabus, the learners are given the chance to use information and communication technologies,

which could enhance their learning and prepare them for the world of technology and research.

Apart from project work, the textbooks under study do not employ tasks that oblige the learners and the teachers to use ICTs, except the third-year textbook, *New Prospects*, which integrates research tasks that require the use of the internet. Thus, the practice of ICTs is left to the personal initiatives of teachers. Nevertheless, and unfortunately, the questionnaires addressed to the teachers, students, and inspectors, as well as classroom observation, have indicated that ICTs are rarely used either for research or for data presentation.

Question 14: (*Do the textbooks promote demonstrated mastery of learning outcomes?*)

Demonstrated mastery of learning is purportedly achieved through project work since it is the only integrative or terminal task placed at the end of the units, and there is no macro task for revealing the yearly competency/competencies despite the fact that the syllabuses identify the student exit profiles for each level. The first year teacher book states that project work makes learning targets more visible for assessment, and thus distinguishes competency-based education from the traditional objective-based pedagogy (Riche et al., 2006a). But, unfortunately, project work, as will be seen throughout this study, is dysfunctional, thereby not offering the student the intended opportunity to demonstrate visibly and actionably the newly acquired theoretical knowledge.

After analysing the secondary school EFL textbooks, the next sub-section will deal their syllabuses.

4.2.2 Results from Syllabuses Analyses

Other documents examined in this study are the secondary school English language syllabuses and their accompanying documents. It goes without saying that they were subjected to a set of criteria derived from the pedagogy of integration.

Question 1: (*What are the objectives of English language learning outlined the in syllabuses?*)

First and foremost, the secondary school syllabuses regard functional communication in both oral and written modes as the primary aim of the teaching of English to the Algerian students (SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p. 5). Second, these syllabuses

expand on other objectives such as integrating new linguistic communities, accessing other cultures, and accessing modern technologies (SE2 Syllabus, 2006, p. 4). Third, these Algerian secondary school EFL syllabuses target the acquisition of interdisciplinary competencies such as critical thinking and analysis; value of one's belonging and culture; respect of universal values; respect of the self and others; tolerance and openness; individual, social, and professional development; and problem-solving (SE2 Syllabus, 2006, p. 4; SE3 Syllabus, 2007, pp. 7-8). Consequently, these syllabuses could be called communicative competency syllabuses.

In comparison to the objectives stated by the textbook users (students, teachers, and inspectors) in the textbooks survey, it is clear that these stakeholders take no notice of the interdisciplinary values incorporated into the English high school syllabuses or textbooks. Thus, it could be understood that there is a hiatus between the objectives of EFL teaching set up in the syllabus and those that the textbook users hold for themselves.

Question 2: *(Do the syllabuses state the learning objectives in behavioural terms?)*

Evaluations of the three secondary school Algerian EFL syllabuses indicated certain homogeneity in the formulation of the teaching objectives. The latter is stated in a more broad sense hinting to the functional role of English in the globalised and globalising world and to interdisciplinary competencies. However, the linguistic dimension of English is stressed at the expense of the socio-cultural competence. Competencies are defined in terms of the basic language competencies of interaction, interpretation, and production (SE1 Syllabus, 2005; SE2 Syllabus, 2006; SE3 Syllabus, 2007), following the CEFR (Trim et al., 2001).

Consequently, the key building blocks of the syllabuses are the linguistic competencies. This choice constitutes one of the major approaches to syllabus design (Miled, 2005). However, it should be noted that these competencies should be specified in detail in terms of life skills that the student should be able to perform at the end of each grade.

Question 3: (*Do the syllabuses integrate the use of integration module?*)

The Algerian secondary school EFL syllabuses show that these official documents do not openly adhere to the application of the integration module, which would allow the learner to reinvest concretely their newly acquired skills or knowledge in integration situations during a whole week. More specifically, they do not outline when to work on resources and when to apply integration work or module. It is only mentioned in passage in the second-year syllabus, but without further explanation or clear outline of its application. The only indication on this topic is the following passage: “[Assessment] will be carried out during the week of integration, that is, after three weeks of work on resources” (SE2 Syllabus, 2006, p. 21, translated from French by the researcher and square brackets are added). Thus, the intention to apply a genuine pedagogy of integration exists, but it is not consistently applied to penetrate classroom practices.

Question 4: (*Do the syllabuses use alternative methods of assessment?*)

The syllabuses in question claim to adhere to criterion-based assessment. For example, the first year syllabus identifies the following criteria of assessment:

- Appropriate verbal and non-verbal reactions
- Appropriate formulation
- Appropriate pronunciation
- Exploiting correctly the time allotted for a speech act

(SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p. 10)

The criteria quoted above, reflect the vagueness of the syllabuses in term of a clear formulation of learning outcomes and assessment criteria; they are hardly exploitable for the textbook writers and for the teachers.

In regard to the use of process assessment, the syllabus documents under investigation make genuine provision for the application of ongoing assessment, be it formative or diagnosing. These concepts alongside with the ongoing assessment procedures are clearly explained in second and third-year syllabuses (SE2 Syllabus, 2006, pp-21-22; SE3 Syllabus, 2007, pp-25-27). Among the continual assessment methods retained in these syllabuses are reflective journals, diaries, conferences, self- and peer-assessment, and portfolios. All these assessment techniques are reasonably

explained and shown how they are implemented; what is more, the third-year syllabus identifies the criteria and the indicators for the correction of the student-written productions, and it provides various samples of assessment tools in the appendices of its accompanying documents (refer to SE3 Support documents, 2006, pp-28-35).

Question 5: (*Do the syllabuses adopt a functional view of English?*)

The Algerian secondary school EFL syllabuses contend to adopt functional perspectives of English language teaching/learning. It is stated in the syllabuses that the pressing expectation of society urged the syllabus designers to implement a functional approach to language teaching (SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p. 7). Nonetheless, the syllabuses do not visibly identify the category of language functions required by the student at secondary school, except their statement in term of linguistic skills.

Question 6: (*Do the syllabuses promote the socio-cognitive principles?*)

The methodological approach purportedly espoused in the English language syllabuses is clearly stated as the socio-cognitive approach that places the learner at the center of the learning process and that proposes complex and challenging situations (SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p. 7). Besides, the syllabuses promote the act of reusing what has been read, written, or spoken in novel situations (SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p.7); but unfortunately even the complex situations proposed in the syllabuses such as the following do not actually promote active and collaborative social interaction:

A young English teenager is travelling by train in Algeria. You can see that he has just come from England. Think of things to say to start a conversation. (SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p. 18).

As could be noted, the so-called integrative situation stated above does not require collaboration or investment of high cognitive skills. This sample supposedly complex situation is a simple mental activity requiring skills of application.

Question 7: (*Do the syllabuses clear the concepts of the pedagogy of integration?*)

Algerian secondary school EFL syllabuses attempt to clarify the key concepts of the pedagogy of integration, which are entirely new to many teachers. The notions of

OTI, integration situations, and resources are extensively explained in these syllabus documents. Besides, the syllabus accompanying documents explain comprehensively in the glossary the most important concepts of the pedagogy of integration such as abilities, capacities, interdisciplinary competencies, competence, attitudes, integration, and meta-cognition. Thus, the syllabuses give enough guidance on competency-based discourse.

Question 8: *(Do the syllabuses include a bank of integration situations?)*

It is optimal for an effective integrative syllabus to include a bank of integration situations which could be helpful to novice teachers in devising their own tasks. Of the three secondary school English syllabuses, only the first year syllabus includes a handful of integration situations (refer to SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p. 18) which could be regarded as poorly devised and lacking basic requirement of competency requirements such as complexity, use of support documents, and variety of instructions.

Question 9: *(Do the syllabuses include sample classes of integration situations?)*

A competency syllabus identifies a class of situations for each competency. Since the Algerian secondary school EFL syllabuses do not clearly predetermine the kind of competencies targeted for each level, they, consequently, do not identify other competencies relating to them. Actually, the term family of situations does not appear anywhere in the three syllabuses.

Question 10: *(Do the syllabuses precisely define the learner entry and exit profiles?)*

On a positive note, the three secondary school textbooks state the pupil entry and exit profiles for each year and for the end of secondary school grade. For instance, the target exit profile for secondary school is stated as follows:

By the end of third-year secondary school, and on the basis of a written or aural text; the student will be able to produce an utterance of about 25 sentences in accordance to the communicative ends and the instructions supplied. (Translated from French by the researcher, SE1 Syllabus, p. 5)

With regard to this profile, which naturally reflects the BAC test, it is seriously defective in that it completely excludes one of the fundamental competencies practised throughout secondary school stage,-namely the competency of oral interaction. If, as

Roegiers (2006a) has pointed out, the student exit profile is considered as a landmark onto which all the efforts of the teacher converge to, then secondary school teachers have to omit the teaching of speaking skill. A student final profile is an inclusive competency that aggregates all the competencies; thus, if speaking is taught as a competency, it has to be assessed.

Furthermore, this graduating profile is not accompanied with corresponding situations that could interpret it accurately. In the absence of referential terminal tasks, the exit profile does not provide a model for comparing the data collected from assessment. Failure to interpret the student end profile concretely is mainly due to the vagueness of this profile (Roegiers, 2006a).

Question 11: *(Do the syllabuses explain the concept of integration?)*

The three secondary school EFL syllabuses, clearly though succinctly, explain the concept of integration. It is stated in the first year syllabus that the methodological approach is based on the concept of integration, and that integration is the mobilisation of previously acquired discrete items in a given context or situation (SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p. 7). Likewise, the second and third-year syllabuses state that the English syllabuses are based on the pedagogy of integration. Thus, it could be confidently stated that the syllabuses are based on the pedagogy of integration, and this fundamental concept is explained in both the syllabuses and the accompanying documents.

Question 12: *(Do the syllabuses promote meaningful learning?)*

It is plainly stated in the second and third-year syllabuses that integration situations should be meaningful to the students, that is, reflecting concrete knowledge applications at school, at home, and in extra school settings (SE2 Syllabus, 2006; SE3 Syllabus, 2007).

Question 13: *(What is the role of project work in the syllabuses?)*

The secondary school syllabuses and their supportive documents explain extensively the theoretical principles of project work as well as its function in the programme. Accordingly, project work is meant for investing the linguistic, cognitive, cultural, and methodological knowledge in concrete tasks (SE1 Support document, 2005, p. 9). Moreover, this activity is considered as the pillar of the programme as all

types of integration are almost achieved through it. However, the syllabus does not explain how this form of instruction actually relates to ordinary teaching. Only vague explanations are given which are little understandable and exploitable especially by teachers who lack competence with regard to its implementation.

Moreover, despite the fundamental role of project work in the syllabus, it is stated that the teachers could choose not to implement it in each unit (SE1 Syllabus, 2005). This means most of the functions of the programme are abandoned if project work is dropped out. More specifically, there will be no integration at the end of the unit and no performance-based assessment at the end of the unit if project work is dismissed from the learning agenda.

Furthermore, the syllabuses in question overtly declare that projects are meant to explore universal and Anglo-Saxon topics (SE1 Support document, 2005, p. 24), and not locally relevant issues. This recommendation is in complete contradiction with the principles of project-based learning (PBL) which promotes personalized and individualized meaningful learning, that is, learning what relates to the learner life.

Question 14: *(What is the role of ICTs in the syllabuses?)*

The syllabuses under study encourage the use of ICTs for web interaction, dictionary use, information collection, documentary research, and participation in forums (SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p. 17). Besides, the syllabuses specify the helpful websites for implementing the topics of project work. Thus, the secondary school programmes support the use of ICTs and attempt to integrate them into the learning process.

Question 15: *(Do the syllabuses promote demonstrated mastery of learning objectives?)*

The Algerian secondary school EFL syllabuses contend to be outcome-based and action-driven. The exhibition of learning outcomes in a visible and concrete manner is recommended through integration situations every three weeks of regular teaching (SE3 Syllabus, 2006, p. 25). Unfortunately, the teaching system and the textbooks do not allow stopping teaching for a single week after three weeks of ordinary teaching to provide the students with genuine occasions to demonstrate their integrations skills in

complex tasks. Besides, these syllabuses, as discussed earlier, do not assign integration activities for the notion of OTI.

After covering the analysis of the data collected from the secondary school EFL syllabuses and textbooks, the following sub-section will deal with the analysis of the third document examined in this study, i.e., the BAC test sample.

4.2.3. Results from Analysis of the BAC Test

As already mentioned, the current section evaluates the competency-based extent of the Algerian English language BAC test against a set of evaluative principles derived from the work of well-established writers of the pedagogy of integration. The discussion and analysis of the BAC test are framed around this set of competency-oriented assessment precepts.

4.2.3.1. Measurement of Resources and Competencies

A quick glance at the representative BAC test (see Appendix I) will show that it is mostly focused on the assessment of resources (i.e. knowledge and skills proper to the English language). As illustrated in Figure 4.1 below, 70 % of the test items are text-based or linguistically-motivated (refer to Section One in Appendix I). The other 30 % is devoted to a written production in a form of a complex task (see Section B of the test in the Appendix I). These findings indicate a discrepancy between the BAC testing practices and the competency-focused procedures outlined in the pedagogy of integration.

The figure below illustrates clearly the discrepancies in the distribution of assessment categories that exist between the BAC test and the norms established in the pedagogy of integration.

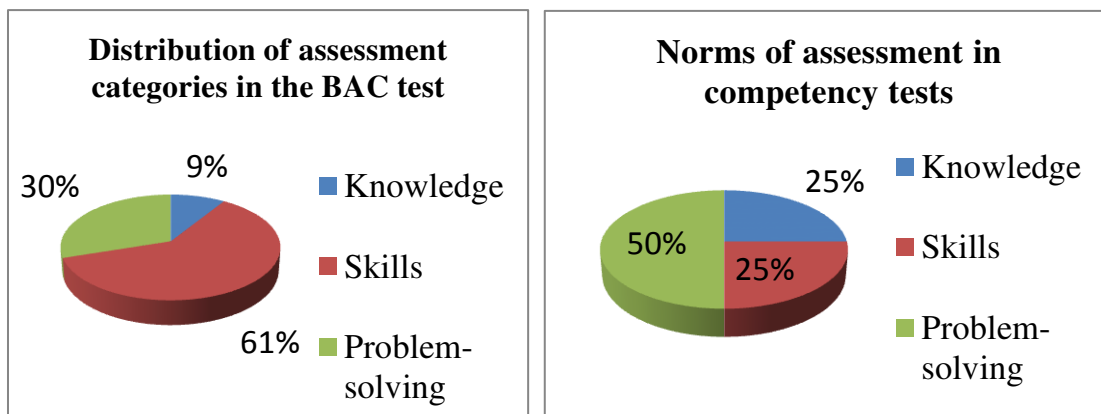


Figure 4.2: A Comparison between the BAC test and the competency test

As the only seemingly competency-driven task in the BAC test is the *Written Section* and the other assignments in the test structure are not tasks in the strict sense, the analysis and evaluation of the BAC test will henceforward be entirely concerned with the *Written Expression* section of the test. The following criteria of evaluation are applied to this final section of the test to determine whether it exhibits the features of target situations.

4.2.3.2. Rule of Two Thirds

The *Written Expression* section of the test does not apply the rule of two thirds that has been suggested by De Ketele in 1996. The rule of 2/3 states that the testee should be given three independent questions, covering the same category of situations; then, if he/she completes successfully at least two questions out of three, he/she is declared competent (De Ketele, 2010, p. 34; Roegiers, 2005a, pp. 112-113).

Discordantly, the *Written Expression* segment of the test employs two separate questions for choice. In so doing, the learner answers a single question; consequently, one cannot draw a valid judgment on the degree of mastery of a competence (Roegiers, 2005a, p. 110). It can be said then that the test breaches a fundamental rule of the pedagogy of integration, namely, checking assessment criteria three times.

4.2.3.3. Multifaceted Format of Assessment Task

The two questions for choice in the production phase of the test under investigation are two simple questions, with the first question incorporating some notes (clues) to assist the learner in answering the question. From a competency perspective, the first question has some characteristics of the pedagogy of integration while the second one does not adhere to the format of instruction typical to competency testing. The first question that is about corruption and bribery prompts the learner to react to the text by writing an article showing that corruption is not limited to bribery. After reading and comprehending the text (a communication situation), the learner is requested to react to the text by producing an essay on bribery and corruption.

However, this first question lacks provision for an appropriate and explicit context. The examinee is just asked to write an article, with no further indications on the incentive. In the pedagogy of integration, the task should not only be functional, but also triggered by realistic conditions. Moreover, this question lacks authentic or semi-authentic materials that can be invested and manipulated to solve the problem at hand. Still, the task is void of any instructions apart from the assignment. In short, although the format of this task has some characteristics of competency testing situations, it is much more like traditional problem-solving activities.

The second question of the assignment, conversely, is a clear traditional “school problem” as indicated by Roegiers (2006a, p. 70). It is a straight invitation to write in an open way on a pre-specified topic (i.e. aspects in which civilisations enrich one another). The question involves restitution of knowledge (i.e. ways in which civilisations build on one another) and application of skills (e.g. combining sentences) dealt with in the classroom. Besides the direct regurgitation of knowledge and skills, this assignment is deficient in terms of context, use of authentic support materials, multiplicity of instructions, and authenticity or functionality of the task.

Still more, the assessment question is deemed inappropriate because it deals with a topic that has nothing to do with the communication situation. The reading passage is on the different significations of corruption and this assignment is about the

interdependence of civilisation. This question is, then, invalid because it does not test what is contended to be tested in the syllabuses.

4.2.3.4. Meaningfulness of the Task

Unlike traditional problem-tasks, which invite learners to write freely in a way to display their knowledge to the examiner, problem-situation tasks typically used in the pedagogy of integration are socially useful (Gerard, 2006, p. 89). With reference to the *Written Expression* phase of the BAC test, both assignments lack functionality in that they lack an external audience; consequently, they are far removed from the realities of everyday tasks because the expected audience is the teacher. In reality, this BAC task tests the examinees' knowledge and savoir-faire, without going as far as to involve them in actions that mirror everyday activities that they will be called upon to perform when they leave school. Consequently, students do not see the pragmatic sense in solving such knowledge display activities.

4.2.3.5. Complexity of the Task (integration)

The appliance of this criterion to the competency phase of the BAC test indicated that the two assignments are defective in terms of integration. The examinee is virtually invited to exhibit his/her knowledge of the language in a sequenced way. For instance, jotting down instances of corruption and, then writing them in a form of a composition is another form of knowledge restitution.

4.2.3.6. Use of the Rule of Three out of Four

With regard to the marking of competency in the BAC test (See Appendix J), the *Written Expression* phase identifies only two criteria (i.e. form and content). Form refers to the overall presentation of the composition, including paragraphing, indentation, and discourse competence in general; content, on the other hand, refers to the quality of information (pertinence) and the linguistic competence in a broad sense. These two exclusive criteria employed for assessing the complex task are marked equally.

In summary, the BAC test is still a standard traditional test that primarily focuses on the assessment of resources at the expense of performance-based objectives. Even the part of the test that is concerned with the assessment of competency does not fulfill

the criteria of complex tasks (such as complexity, multifacetedness or meaningfulness) set up in the pedagogy of integration.

Conclusion

The first section of this chapter has outlined and supported the research methodology. The study is based on the quantitative perspective of programme evaluation, but data collection and analysis varied between the two ends of the qualitative and quantitative continuum. It used four research means to document the competency-based practices in its conceptualisation and implementation; some of which are quantitative such as questionnaires and systematic observations, and others are qualitative such as document analysis and interviews.

Two schools were used to evaluate the attainment of competency objectives in the Algerian English language syllabuses and textbooks; and their teachers, students, and inspectors shared their experiences of competency teaching in the Algerian setting. The number of these participants amounted to 115 students, 15 teachers, and 6 inspectors. The diversification of settings and users has aimed at gaining a complete picture of the efficiency of the syllabuses and textbooks.

The nature of the study is a programme evaluation that focused on the objectives, content, methodology, topics, and assessment procedures employed in the Algerian syllabuses and textbooks. These aspects of the syllabus were selected and identified in accordance to the preliminary analysis of the Algerian EFL syllabuses, because the term syllabus, as it is in the literature, is problematic and lacks a monolithic definition.

Moreover, it has been shown that the research hypotheses are justified as they cropped up from practical concerns, either from the researcher personal experience as a secondary school teacher, or from his previous experience as a Magister researcher, or from his readings in the literature. Finally, the limitations of the study have been stated, showing that the study failed to include syllabus designers in its scope of investigation.

The second section has presented the analysis of the textbooks, syllabuses, and the BAC test. It has shown that the applications of the pedagogy of integration are still partial especially in the textbooks. With regard to the syllabuses, they are comparatively acceptable, but they equally require upgrading. Documentary analysis

has shown that the syllabuses apply the pedagogy of integration and have many positive values such as the explanation of the teaching approach (pedagogy of integration) and clarifications of fundamental concepts of this approach (for example, learning situations, target situations, and the notion of OTI). However, there is a clear gap between the syllabuses and the textbooks. The latter seems more oriented towards excessive innovation, and they seem defective in authentically interpreting the guidelines drawn in the syllabuses.

As far as the BAC test is concerned, the application of the criteria of the pedagogy of integration to this formal test showed that it is mainly linguistically-driven and focused on the assessment of resources at the expense of competencies. Thus, this syllabus specification equally fails to display the principles of the pedagogy of integration.

The next chapter will continue the analysis of the data; it will present the findings derived from the questionnaires, classroom observations, and follow-up interview.

Chapter 5: Analysis of Results from Questionnaires and Classroom Observation

Chapter 5: Analysis of Results from Questionnaires and Classroom Observation

Introduction

This chapter takes up data analysis started in the second section of the previous chapter. It includes the analysis of the teacher, student, and inspector questionnaires, as well as the presentation of the findings derived from classroom observation.

5.1. Analysis of the Questionnaires

This first section presents the findings from the teacher, the student, and the inspector questionnaires; then, these results are compared to establish a global judgment on the competency-based extent of the textbooks and the syllabuses. It is worthy of note that, although the results from the questionnaires are presented sequentially, they offer a gradual comparison among themselves and they are equally crosschecked with documentary analysis as well classroom observation when convenient.

5.1.1. Results from Teacher Questionnaire

What is presented and described below are results generated by means of the teachers' questionnaire. These findings are shown in tables in numerical format followed by prose commentaries, highlighting significant results which are discussed in the subsequent chapter. Open-end questions are categorised, thematised, and presented quantitatively.

- **Personal Information**

Answers to question 1 (*Please, indicate your highest degree*)

Table 5.1: *Teachers' Academic Background*

Items	Frequency
1) Licence in English	8
2) Licence in English teaching (ENS)	2
3) Licence in interpretation/ translation	/
4) Master in English	5
5) Others (please, specify).....	/
<u>Total 15</u>	

The Table 5.1 shows that 8 out of 15 of the teachers hold the degree of ‘Licence d’Anglais’ and 5 holding a master degree. Two others graduated from Teachers’ College of Education (E.N.S.), which is specialised in teacher training. On the whole, all teachers received training about teaching English as a foreign language.

Answers to question 2: (*Have you received any training on the implementation of competency-based language teaching/learning?*)

Table 5.2: *Teachers’ Professional Training*

Yes	No	Total
15	00	15

The rationale behind this question is to see whether the teachers informing the study have received any training in the pedagogy of integration, which could contribute to their understanding of this teaching approach and enhance the quality of their competency-based practices. All the teachers stated that they have benefited from professional training in CBE.

Answers to question 3: (*Please, specify place and topics of training*)

Table 5.3: *Place and Topics of Teacher Training about CBE*

Place	As part of TEFL course at university	District seminars with the inspector	British Council’s regional seminar	British Council’s workshops in Ben Aknoun
Number	6	15	4	1
Topics	General introduction to CBLT	-Integration situations, project work -Self-assessment - Textbook - Task-based learning - Designing a regional syllabus - Devising tests - Learner-centredness	- Programme evaluation	Competencies of interpretation, interaction, and production

The teacher training regarding CBLT is mainly limited to district seminars with inspectors and a few encounters with international experts in CBA, which were supervised by the staff of the Algerian British Council. Regarding the topics of the pedagogical encounters, many fundamental concepts of the pedagogy of integration such as the class of situations, OTI, and life skills have not been covered.

• **Attainment of Learning/Teaching Objectives**

Answers to question 4: (*Do you think that by the end third-year, your student could produce a written message of 20 lines with few language errors in response to a text they have heard or read?*)

Table 5.4: *Teachers' Evaluation of Students' Achievements*

Yes	No	Total
00	15	15

The teacher-participants in this study unanimously stated that their students could not demonstrate successfully the target competency by the end of third-year. Thus, English language teaching seems to fail to attain its expected outcomes.

Answers to question 5: (*If your answer to question 4 above is no, please specify why?*)

Table 5.5: *Teachers' Reported Causes for Non-achievement of Target Competencies*

Cause	Frequency	Total
Student weak level of proficiency	15	15
Large classes	15	
Lack of interest	11	
Heavy syllabuses	7	
Economic conditions	6	
Poor textbooks	4	
Internet	3	
Bad scheduling of English courses	1	
Imported pedagogy	1	

Teachers' free responses to the question above show that students' low level of proficiency and problem of large classes are the most important hurdles for achieving the intents of the Algerian EFL programmes. Another big problem that seems to worry teachers is the lack of motivation for studies in general, not only English. One teacher wondered:

What could you possibly expect from a student, whose educated brothers and sisters are unemployed? Or maybe parents, too!

Demotivation and lack of incentives for schoolwork seem to worry the teachers. Three teachers said that the internet, and more specifically Facebook, is distracting all the students. Another considerable impediment is the heavy syllabus; teachers claimed that they rush their students over the scheduled activities to complete the syllabus. Moreover, four teachers pointed out that they are unhappy with the textbooks.

- **Evaluation of the Textbook and Classroom Practices**

Answers to question 6: (*What do you think is the ultimate objective for teaching English at secondary school? -Tick just one answer*)

Table 5.6: *Teachers' Objectives for Teaching English*

Item	Knowledge (grammar & lexis	Savoir-être	Solving problems	Other(s) using English	Total
Frequency	5	3	4	3	15

The findings in the table above show that roughly more than an average of the teachers has different aims for teaching English than those stated in the syllabuses or in CBA in general. That is, they focus on teaching content than real life skills. This mismatch in learning intentions unquestionably impinges on implementations of CBE.

Answers to question 7: (*Do you tell your pupils the learning objectives of each lesson?*)

Table 5.7: *Teachers' Statement of Learning Objectives of Each Lesson*

Yes	No	Total
4	11	15

The majority of the teacher-participants stated that they do not make explicit the learning objectives of the lesson at the onset of the session; and this was equally supported by classroom observations. Again, the teachers seem to ignore this fundamental stage of CBE.

Answers to question 8: (*How do your students mostly implement learning activities...?*)

Table 5.8: *Teachers' Evaluation of their Use of Individual and Group Activities*

Item	Individually	In pairs	In small groups	Total
Frequency	7	5	3	15

This question was asked to see whether the students work in groups while implementing exploration situations. Only a few teachers stated that students work in groups to apply learning situations. After implementing CBE in Algeria for more than 10 years, the teachers and the students should have learned to work in groups, but it seems that teachers favour pair work over group work since it is more feasible in large-sized classes.

Answers to question 9: (*Do you teach your students, for instance, how to analyse texts critically?*)

Table 5.9: *Teachers' Evaluation of their Use of Critical Thinking*

Yes	No	Total
13	2	15

Question 9 above was meant to see whether teachers train their students to think critically as outlined in the syllabuses (S1 syllabus, 2005). Unexpectedly, almost all the teachers stated they train their students to use Freire's pedagogy. However, classroom observation showed that the teachers rarely kindle the students' critical thinking.

Answers to question 10: (*Do the textbooks include integration situations?*)

Table 5.10: *Teachers' View on the Inclusion of Integration Situations in the Textbooks*

Yes	No	Total
13	2	15

The majority of the teachers reported that the secondary school EFL textbooks include integration situations, which constitute a fundamental precept of the pedagogy of integration.

Answers to question 11: (*Do you apply the extra activities provided at the end of units?*)

Table 5.11: *Teachers' Evaluation of their Use of Remedial Activities*

	Yes	No	Total
	4	11	15

By asking this question, the researcher has meant to check whether the teachers adhere to mastery learning. Unfortunately, only a minority of teachers use these remedial or enrichment activities.

Answers to question 12: (*Are these activities more suitable for ...?*)

Table 5.12: *Teachers' Evaluation of the Extra Textbook Activities*

Item	Less able students	More able students	Both	I don't know	Total
Frequency	2	5	7	1	15

Teachers are undecided whether the additional activities suggested at the end of units are designed for low achiever-students or high-achiever students, but a significant number (5/15) think they are meant as self-study resources for diligent students. These types of activities should address the weaknesses of less able students and make provision for challenging tasks for more able students.

Answers to question 13: (*What assessment methods do you use to assess your learners?*)

Table: 5.13: *Teachers' Evaluation of their Use of Assessment Procedures*

Item	Diaries	Portfolios	Self-assessment	Tests	Performance -tasks	Other(s)) project work	Total
Frequency	/	/	15	10	3	6	15

This question tested the teachers' use of assessment procedures to exhibit attainments of functional language use. It seems that alternative methods of assessment such as diaries and portfolios are not used, though they are explained and recommended in the syllabuses (SE3 Support Document, 2006; SE3 Syllabus, 2007). The teachers almost use tests as inevitable ways to assess students' progress and certify their achievements. However, 6 teachers (4 of them are females) reported that they use performance-based assessment in project work to show functionally the realisation of the course objectives. The teachers reporting that they use self-assessment might be due to the fact that self-assessment grids are included at the end of each unit of the three course books.

Answers to question 14: (*Who does most of the work in the classroom?*)

Table 5.14: *Teachers' Evaluation of their Use of Active Pedagogy*

Teacher	Students	Total
15	/	15

All the teachers stated honestly that most of the classroom work is done by the teacher. Thus, competency teaching fails to promote the learner active agency.

Answers to question 15: (*Do you provide your students with a series of integration situations to solve at the end of a sequence or unit?*)

Table 5.15: *Teachers' Evaluation of their Use of Class of Situations*

Yes	No	Total
/	15	15

Question 15 above shows that the teachers do not adhere to the use of the family of situations as a means to check the students' attainment of the standards of the target competencies.

Answers to question 16: (*Do secondary school English textbooks focus on ...?*)

Table: 5.16: *Teachers' View about the Focus of the Textbooks*

Language learning	Mobilisation of knowledge	I don't know	Total
15	/	/	15

Again, all the teachers admitted that the textbooks focus on language learning, rather than instilling the capacity to reuse knowledge.

Answers to question 17: (*Do you design integration situations of your own?*)

Table 5.17: *Teachers' Design of Integration Situations*

Yes	No	Total
11	4	15

The table above shows that most teachers devise integration situations of their own, but when asked in the follow-up interview to further clarify what type of integration situations they craft, it turned out that they intended the compositions they used in exams.

Answers to question 18: (*If not, why?*)

Table 5.18: *Teachers' Reasons for Non-design of Integration Situations*

Causes	Frequency	Total
I don't know them	2	4
I don't use them	1	
They are available in the textbooks	1	

Most of the teachers who answered this question admitted that they are unfamiliar with integration situations or do not use them; actually, the whole results from this study testify that teachers ignore the strict meaning of integration situations.

Answers to questions 19: (*Do you think that the activities of the textbooks work towards the achievement of one task at the end of the unit?*)

Table 5.19: *Teachers' View about the Convergence of Unit Activities to a Single Objective*

Yes	No	I don't know	Total
13	2	/	15

The majority of the teachers think that the textbooks activities prepare their students to complete the target task at the end of the unit; they rightly stated in the interview that all the units prepare learners for implementing a project at their closing sections.

Answers to question 20: *(Do you teach your students in class how to search and store information through the use of media such as the internet and computers?)*

Table 5.20: *Teachers' Evaluation of their Use of ICTs in Class*

Yes	No	Total
9	6	15

The majority of teachers stated that they teach their students the use of ICTs. However, when asked in the interview they stated that what they do is linked to the content of the textbooks, that is, covering the activities that familiarise students with computers and the internet such as those included in unit one of the first year textbook, *At the Crossroads*.

Answers to question 21: *(Do you think that the activities proposed in the textbooks are helpful for doing things outside the school?)*

Table 5.21: *Teachers' Evaluation of Meaningfulness of Textbooks' Activities*

Yes	No	I don't know	Total
3	12	/	15

Most teachers think that the activities employed in secondary school textbooks are not meaningful.

Answers to question 22: *(Do you think that project work enhances the learner's mastery of the objectives of the unit?)*

Table 5.22: *Teachers' Opinion about the Contribution of Project Work to the Learning Process*

Yes	No	I don't know	Total
2	13	/	15

The overwhelming majority of the teachers think that project work does not contribute to enhancing the learner acquisition of competencies. Consequently, this instructional activity fails to reinforce the learning process, though it is supposed to support the acquisition and display of competencies in concrete situations.

Answers to question 23: (*Are the teacher books helpful for facilitating teaching?*)

Table 5.23: *Teachers' View on the Usefulness of the Teachers' Books*

Yes	No	Total
14	1	15

Almost all the teachers reported that the teacher books are helpful; actually, the first year textbook is very detailed and explicit on matters of teaching objectives, innovative techniques, and implementations.

- **Evaluation of the Syllabus**

Answers to question 24: (*Have you read the syllabuses?*)

Table 5.24: *Teachers' Familiarity with the Syllabuses*

Yes	No	Total
5	10	15

The Table 5.24 indicates that, unfortunately, the majority of teachers do not read the syllabus; and this reinforces the idea that secondary school teachers teach from the textbook. Actually, one teacher stated in the interview that the syllabus is not available for them.

Answers to question 25: (*Do you find it facilitative and helpful for improving teaching through CBA?*)

Table 5.25: *Teacher View about the Helpfulness of the Syllabuses*

Yes	No	I don't know	Total
3	2	/	05

3 teachers out of the five informants who answered the question consider the syllabus practical. Nevertheless, in the follow-up interview, one teacher who read the syllabus said that it is vague and unclear in terms of the kind of competencies to be taught and the how to implement them.

Answers to question 26: (*Do the syllabuses specify the target competencies for each level?*)

Table 5.26: *Teachers' View about the Specification of Competencies in the Syllabuses*

Yes	No	Total
/	5	05

The teachers who replied to the question above indicated that the syllabuses do not specify the notion of OII in terms of competencies; nonetheless, documentary analysis showed that the syllabuses do predetermine the targeted competency for each level.

Answers to question 27: (*Do the syllabuses spell out how to carry out projects?*)

Table 5.27: *Teachers' Evaluation of Project Guidance in the Syllabuses*

Yes	No	Total
5	/	05

All the teachers who responded to question 27 above stated that the syllabuses do include enough guidelines for project implementation. Yet, the interviewed teachers indicated that these very guidelines are not clear and helpful enough. This response from one of the interviewed teachers deserves to be quoted:

We are told everywhere in the syllabuses and textbooks that project work dovetails the implementation of the unit, but we cannot see how it does; I definitely think that the textbook writers themselves do not know how it should be carried out. (The answer is edited by the researcher)

Thus, project work, as indicated by Boukhentache (2012), is another innovation that is forced into the textbooks, without making provision for its implications and consequences.

Answers to question 28: (*Do the syllabuses explain how to implement the teaching of competencies?*)

Table 5.28: *Teachers' View about Explanation of Competencies in the Syllabuses*

Yes	No	Total
/	5	5

All the teachers who answered the above question agreed that the syllabuses do not supply enough help for the teaching of competencies. Indeed, the term competency seems quite unclear to many teacher-participants in this study, with the exception of the few teachers who graduated from the teacher training college (ENS).

Answers to question 29: (*Do the syllabuses explain how to assess competencies?*)

Table 5.29: *Teachers' View about the Helpfulness of Syllabuses for Assessment*

Yes	No	Total
1	4	5

Of the 5 teachers who claimed to have read the syllabuses, 4 think that the syllabuses do not give sufficient guidance on how to implement the assessment framework, that is, for instance, when and how to apply a particular assessment method. Documentary examination disagreed with this view because the syllabuses in point of fact clearly and extensively explain how to implement the alternative assessment techniques at secondary school English classes. The third-year syllabus and accompanying document provide even the assessment samples and the criteria of corrections of the student copies (SE3 Support Document, 2006; SE3 Syllabus, 2007).

Answers to question 30: (*What do you suggest to make the syllabuses and textbooks more competency-oriented?*)

Table 5.30: *Teacher Suggestions for Making the Syllabuses and Textbooks More Competency-Based*

Suggestions	Frequency	Total
Slimming down of the syllabus	11	15
Shortening texts	10	
Specifying interesting topics	10	
Focusing only on language teaching	7	
Using locally-relevant topics	5	
Focusing on simple language use	4	
Eliminating project work	4	
Supplying the audio-aids in the textbook package	4	
Using translation in the textbooks	3	
Making syllabus available in English or Arabic	3	
Specifying the competencies to be taught for each unit	1	

In the view of improving the functionality of the syllabus in accordance with the teacher wants and needs, the above question was used. First and foremost, the teachers think that the syllabuses are so heavy that it could not be realised within the allotted time. Thus, they proposed shortening the syllabus and condensing texts. These teachers equally noted in the interview that they move fast over the scheduled activities to finish the programme. Second, the teachers think that the topics are impersonal and little related to the students' lives. Although the textbooks attempt to correlate the Anglo-Saxon lifestyles with the Algerian ones, the teachers think that they are too much focused on foreign culture. Some teachers from Slimani Slimane appear sensitive to the Anglo-Saxon content and further suggested the use of Arabic to support the teaching of English.

Third, a very interesting suggestion is the need for focusing on the teaching of English or English use, that is, the teachers do not actually feel they are teaching English as they are overwhelmed with different types of contents such as life skills. As

for project work, it seems to do more harm than good for the teaching of English at secondary schools; as a matter of fact that, 4 teachers suggested removing it entirely from the syllabus. Five, the teachers request the audio-teaching materials that are missing in the textbook package, which would make the teaching of listening scripts more interesting and motivating to their young learners. Finally, a teacher who appears enthusiastic and probably influenced by the content of the questionnaire requested making explicit the type of competencies prearranged in the syllabuses.

In summary, the results from the teacher questionnaire highlight the fact that secondary school teachers need more training on CBE to operate effectively in this intricate system. Basically, they lack a minimum of understanding of the elementary precepts of CBE, and this sorry state of affairs is made worse by the textbooks and the syllabus. The three textbooks lack a clear and well-structured implementation of the innovative pedagogies, which seem to do more bad than good for the teaching outcomes. The syllabuses are unavailable and lack a clear and coherent statement of the learning procedures and outcomes.

The next sub-section will present the findings generated by the pupils' questionnaire.

5.1.2. Results from Student Questionnaire

The most significant findings from the student questionnaire are presented and analysed in relation to the teacher questionnaire. The numerical results are presented mainly through percentages and the total is given in numbers to allow the readers to reconstruct the exact numbers for each category.

- **Personal Information**

Answers to question 1: (*Do you receive any extra training on the English language outside the classroom?*)

Table 5.31: *Students' Extra School Courses*

Yes	No	No response	Total
20 %	73.04 %	6.09 %	115

A significant number of students acknowledged that they receive extra help to better understand their courses; of noteworthy, most of these students are third-year students who prepare for the BAC test.

- **Attainment of Learning Objectives**

Answers to question 2: (*Do you think that by the end of the first /second /third-year you could produce a written message of 12/15/20 lines with few language errors in response to a text you have heard or read?*)

Table 5.32: *Students' Evaluation of Attainment of Learning Objectives*

Level	Student responses		No response	Total
	Yes	No	/	
First year	35 %	65 %	/	20
Second year	22.67 %	68 %	9.33 %	75
Third year	45 %	55%	/	20

If the students are to be taken on their words, a significant number of them reach the objectives of English language teaching at the secondary school. However, this percentage does not amount to 50 % at all levels, and in comparison to what their teachers stated on this topic, a far less portion of students could achieve these objectives (see Table 5.4).

Answer to question 3: (*If your answer to question 2 above is no, please specify below why?*)

Table 5.33: *Students' Justification for Non-achievement of Learning Objectives*

Causes	Frequency	Total
Lack of interest	57.75 %	71
Lack of learning prerequisites	52.62	
Noise	50.7	
Teacher incompetence	39.44	
Heavy syllabuses	35.21	
Internet	32.39	
Social conditions	12.68	
Difficulty of English	8.45	
Lack of employment incentives	5.63	

Lack of motivation and prior learning prerequisites for acquiring English effectively are ranked by the students at the top of the causes of failure in achieving

the intended secondary school English learning standards. These observations agree with the teachers' responses, and the students' report of noise equally equates with the hurdle of large classes raised by their teachers. Furthermore, the teachers and the students consensually stated that lack of work incentives, heavy syllabuses, internet distraction, and social conditions all get in the way of completing successfully the intended learning objectives of secondary school EFL schooling.

The students further added the factor of teacher incompetence and difficulty of learning English as a FL language. The problem of the difficulty of English is more posed acutely in Slimani Slimane School, that is, in the socially disadvantaged school.

• **Evaluation of the Textbooks and Classroom Practices**

Answers to question 4: (*Could you specify your main objective for learning English in the first/second/third year?*)

Table 5.34: *Students' Objectives for Learning English*

Objectives	Frequency	No response	Total
Speak English	75.65 %	7.83 %	115
Discover an added culture	71.3 %		
Travel	67.82 %		
Work	64.35 %		
Internet usefulness	54.79 %		
Prestige	42.61 %		
Language of technology	42.61 %		
Watch TV	35.65 %		
Read books	20		

According to the above results, pupils learn English for leisure and instrumental incentives such as travelling, exploiting the internet media, and getting a job. Remarkably, there is no mention of the socio-cognitive competencies such as problem-solving, getting well with people, or preserving the environment that constitute important objectives of English language teaching in Algeria (SE1 Syllabus, 2005). However, the respondents consider communication in English as the most important objective for learning English.

Answers to question 5: (*Does the teacher tell you the objectives of learning at the beginning of the lesson?*)

Table 5.35: *Students' Evaluation of the Statement of Learning Objectives*

Yes	No	No response	Total
20 %	71.3 %	8.7 %	115

Similar to the teacher responses, most of the students reported that the teacher does not make public the immediate objectives of the lesson. The students who think the teacher does might have thought of the announcement of the topic of the lesson.

Answers to question 6 : (*How do you usually carry out the classroom activities...?*)

Table 5.36: *Students' Evaluation of Use of Individual and Grouping Activities*

Item	Individually	In pairs	In groups	No response	Total
Frequency	62.61 %	21.74 %	6.96 %	7.83 %	115

Again, much like the teacher responses to this question, most of the students said that that individual work is still the most used classroom technique for carrying out classroom work. As for group work and pair work, both the teachers and the students reported that they favour pair work; group work seems less exploited and probably exploitable in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary school EFL classes.

Answers to question 7: (*Do you learn in first/second/third year English language course, for instance, how to analyse texts critically?*)

Table 5.37: *Students' Evaluation of their Use of Critical Thinking*

Yes	No	No response	Total
9.57 %	74.78 %	15.65 %	115

Unlike the teachers, most of the students indicated that they do not practise very much critical thinking. The teachers might have stated defensively that they do.

Answers to question 8: (*What methods of assessment do you use to assess your progress?*)

Table 5.38: *Students' Evaluation of Methods of Assessment*

Item	Diaries	Portfolios	Self-assessment	Tests	Integration Situations	Other(s) Project work	Total
Frequency	/	/	2.61 %	98.26%	/	10.43%	115

Expectedly and much like the teachers' responses, the overwhelming majority of the student-respondent to the above question highlighted that tests are the most used method for assessing their progress. Of noteworthy, despite the existence of self-assessment in the textbooks in question, the student reported that they rarely use it and probably they do not know it. However, project work seems to be used as a tool for exhibiting the students' achievements.

Answers to question 9: (*Who does most of the work in the classroom?*)

Table 5.39: *Students' Evaluation of their Active Agency*

Teacher	Students	No response	Total
86.09 %	6.09 %	7.83 %	115

As indicated in Table 5.39 above, the overwhelming majority of the students admitted that their classes are still teacher-run.

Answers to question 10: (*Do you solve the activities provided at the end of the unit?*)

Table 5.40: *Students' Evaluations of Use of Remedial Activities*

Yes	No	No response	Total
3.48 %	89.57 %	6,96 %	115

The responses above indicate consensually with the findings from the teacher questionnaire that the teachers do not apply the principle of mastery learning, which requires additional work for less able students at the end of each unit of instruction.

Question 11: *(Do the textbooks include integration situations?)*

Table: 5.41: *(Students' Opinion on the Inclusion of Integration Situations in the Textbooks)*

Yes	No	No response	Total
93.04 %	2.61 %	4.35 %	115

Similarly to documentary analysis, the Table 5.41 above indicates that the textbooks include integration situations, which constitute the pillars of the pedagogy of integration.

Answers to question 12: *(Does your teacher provide you with a series of integration situations to solve at the end of each sequence or unit?)*

Table 5.42: *Students' Use of a Class of Situations*

Yes	No	No response	Total
1.74 %	90.43 %	7.83 %	115

As indicated in Table 5.15 in the analysis of the teacher questionnaire and Table 5.42 above, both the teachers and the students agreed that they do not use or solve a class of integration situations at the end of sequences or units. Thus, these classes flout a fundamental tenet of the pedagogy of integration.

Answers to question 13: *(Do you learn in class how to search and store information through the use of media such as the internet and computers?)*

Table 5.43: *Learners' Evaluation of Use of ICTs in the Classroom*

Yes	No	No response	Total
13.04 %	68.7 %	18.26 %	115

Unfortunately, the students are not taught to use ICTs to promote self-access learning and information retrieval, develop searching skills, and store information. Both the students and the teachers reported that these skills are not usually practised. It

is to be noted that this question resulted in a relatively high percentage of unresponsiveness probably because the students were undecided on the matter or they ignore completely this practice. Thus, integration pedagogy does not contribute to the use of ICTs and development of research skills.

Answers to question 14: *(Do you think that the activities you learn in the classroom are helpful for doing things outside the school?)*

Table 5.44: *Students' Evaluation of Meaningfulness of Activities*

Yes	No	No response	Total
35.65 %	56.52 %	7.83 %	115

A slight majority of the students showed that the tasks practised in their classes are not meaningful, but a relatively significant number (35.65 %) do think that these activities are significant. When these responses are considered in relation to the teachers', it could be deduced that textbook classroom activities are mostly pedagogical than real-world tasks.

Answers to question 15: *(Do you think that project work improves your learning?)*

Table 5.45: *Students' Opinion on the Contribution of Project Work to Learning*

Yes	No	No response	Total
6.96 %	84.35 %	8.7 %	115

Both the teachers and the students stated that project work does not contribute successfully to enhancing pupils' learning. On the whole, project work seems dysfunctional and useless, despite its paramount importance both in the textbooks and in competency syllabuses.

Answers to Question 16: (*What do you suggest to make secondary school English classes more active?*)

Table 5.46: *Students' Suggestions for Making their Classes more Active*

Topics	Frequency	No response	Total
Group work	15.65 %	48.69 %	115
Pair work	13.91 %		
Adding values for participation in class	10.43 %		
Motivating students	8.69 %		
Using competitive activities	5.21 %		
Employing humour in classroom	3.47 %		

Almost half of the sampled pupils did not respond to the question above, probably, because it is beyond their capacity to make applicable suggestions for creating more communicative classrooms. Besides, the few answers collected are not pertinent enough; they suggest more collaborative work, increasing levels of motivation, and guarantying a more relaxed and anxiety-free environment for active participation.

In sum, the student questionnaire has shown that the secondary school English language classes are still teacher-run, and the students are far from being able to display the mastery of the projected competencies. These results are equally endorsed by the teacher questionnaire, which, on the whole, produced almost identical results with the pupil questionnaire. In reality, secondary school textbooks do not fully match with the principles of CBE: the textbooks are still emphasising language form; learning tasks are mainly traditional language exercises, and assessment procedures are focused on the formal system of the language. Consequently, CBE practices in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary school English language classes leave much to be desired.

After analysing and concurrently comparing the teacher and the student questionnaires, the next sub-section will complete this phase of questionnaire analysis through the presentation of the inspector questionnaire.

5.1.3. Results from Inspector Questionnaire

This sub-section presents the findings generated by the inspector questionnaire. Because of the small number of respondents, it is deemed more convenient and expressive to present scores in numbers rather than in percentages. It goes without saying that these results will be considered in relation to the teacher and the learner questionnaires and documentary analysis.

- **Personal Information**

Answers to question 1: (*Please, indicate your highest degree*)

Table 5.47: *Inspectors' Academic Background*

Items	Frequency
1) Licence in English	6
2) Licence in English teaching (ENS)	/
3) Licence in interpretation/ translation	/
4) Master in English	/
5) Others (please, specify).....	/
Total 6	

All the inspector-participants in this study hold the degree of classical Licence because they belong to the old university system formerly applied before the arrival of Licence-Master-Doctoral (LMD) system currently in use in the Algerian Universities. Thus, it could be noted that these inspectors did not receive adequate training on CBA during their university studies since this teaching paradigm has been effectively incorporated into Algerian university syllabuses starting from the reform of the education system in 2002.

Answers to question 2: (*How long have you been working as an inspector?*)

Table 5.48: *Inspectors' Professional Experience*

Experience Group	Frequency	Total
1-5 years	1	6
6-10 years	4	
11-15 years	1	

The results generated from the question above indicate that the inspector-participants in the current study are experienced. These experienced supervisors are more advantageous to the current study to inform the researcher on matters of the School Reform dating back to 2005.

Answers to question 3: (*As an inspector, have you received any training about the implementation of CBA?*)

Table 5.49: *Inspectors' Training about Competency-Based Approach*

Yes	No	Total
6	1	6

On a positive note and as indicated in Table 5.49, all the inspectors have benefited from training about CBE.

Answers to question 4 : (*If yes, please specify your answer in the table below.*)

Table 5.50: *Inspectors' Professional Training Programme*

Subjects of in-service training	Name of institution	Trainer	Place	Date
Language competencies and supportive competencies	Algerian regional seminar	Algerian experts	Lycée Benteftifa, Blida	2006
Integration situations	Algerian regional seminar	Algerian experts	Lycée Benteftifa, Blida	2009
Design of regional competency programme	Algerian regional seminar	Algerian experts	Lycée Benteftifa, Blida	2011
Techniques for teaching English	British Council Algeria	Experts of the British Council Algeria	Boumerdes Blida	2014

The table above indicates that on the whole there are efforts to train teachers on CBE, but these training programmes seem to lack systematicity and have not been dispensed by the specialists of the pedagogy of integration such as those pertaining to the BIEF institution. Besides, the senior inspector who witnessed the period of the School Reform did not benefit from the national training programme announced by the Ministry of Education- Benbouzid- in 2005. It could be said then that the inspectors lack the special training to acquire genuine competencies in teaching through CBLT and transmit them to their teachers. Besides, the training programmes delivered by the British Council Algeria might not be of much relevance to the application of a genuine pedagogy of integration.

Answers to question 5: (*Have you organised district seminars about CBA?*)

Table 5.51: *Inspectors' District Seminars*

Yes	No	Total
6	/	6

All the inspectors indicated that they organised seminars about the implementation of CBLT.

Answers to question 6: (*If yes, please specify the topics in the table below.*)

Table 5.52: *Topics of Inspectors' District Seminars*

• Project work	• Textbook evaluation
• Integration situations	• Assessment
• Language skills	• Pre-testing
• Designing tests	• Developing a local syllabus

The Table 5.52 almost replicates the results generated by the teachers on this topic. Despite the scantiness of training on the topic of CBLT, the inspectors managed to tackle the fundamental topic of integration situations.

- **Attainment of Objectives**

Answers to question 7: (*Do you think that by the end third-year, most of the students could produce a written message of 20 lines, with few language errors in response to a text they have heard or read?*)

Table 5.53: *Inspectors' Evaluation of the Students' Achievements*

Yes	No	Total
/	6	6

Much like the other programme users (i.e. students and teachers), the inspectors admitted that most of the students could not achieve by the end of third-year the competency bar established for them.

Answers to question 8: (*If your answer to question 7 above is no, please specify below why?*)

Table 5.54: Inspectors' Justifications for Students' Non-achievement of Standards

Cause	Frequency	Total
Difficult standards	6	6
Large classes	6	
Weak entry profiles	4	
Instability of teaching staff	4	
Low level of proficiency of teachers	4	
Poor textbooks	3	
Increase in means of distraction (mobile, the internet, football)	3	
Absence of the need for English for daily activities	2	
Imported pedagogy	2	
Lack of genuine training opportunities for teacher	2	
Disenchantment of both teacher and students	1	
Futility of programme contents	1	
Gaps between consecutive levels	1	
Lack of didactic means (ICTs)	1	
Absence of accountability	1	
Lack of didactic materials	1	

Inspectors' free reactions to the question of the non-achievement of the students' learning targets yielded very significant and rich insights. Inspectors think that the standards derived from the CEFR are too high for the students. Then, they raised the problem of the large class, which is recurrent in all the responses of the programme users. Interestingly, 3 inspectors out of six pointed out to the limitations of the syllabuses and textbooks in general in the way that they are not suitable for achieving their assigned purposes. One inspector stated that he firmly believes that even the most diligent students who assimilate the programme perfectly could not achieve such learning standards.

Moreover, the inspectors highlighted in the same way as the teachers and the students the pervasiveness of distracting means that prevent students from focusing on schoolwork. These teaching supervisors added that the status of English as a FL demotivates students from learning it since it is rarely used for daily communication. Additionally, it seems that both the teachers and their inspectors still consider CBE as an unfamiliar teaching approach after 10 years of application in the Algerian context. The inspectors stated that it is more suitable for Canadian schools than for the poor Algerian schools.

Furthermore, the inspectors who informed this study blamed teachers for their low level of proficiency and their world-weariness. They explained that many teachers are careless and do nothing to improve their command of English and their teaching skills even with the free access to materials. By the same token, Benadla (2013) has observed that Algerian teachers are disinterested in improving their teaching practices and simply consider teaching as a job for “bread earning” (p. 162). In a way, the inspectors voiced the importance of making the educational actors accountable for the results.

Consequently, both the instructors and the pupils indicated that the teachers are not doing enough to teach effectively; however, the teachers, in their turn, blamed their inspectors for their incompetence. On the whole, the teaching staff, be them teachers or inspectors, seem to lack the requisite skills to implement the syllabuses effectively.

Ultimately, the inspectors raised the problem of lack of language laboratories, which could increase the students’ familiarity with English accent and conversational skills, and probably increase their level of motivation.

• **Evaluation of the Textbooks and Classroom Practices**

Answers to question 9: (*Could you specify the main objectives for teaching English in secondary school?*)

Table 5.55: *Inspector's Objectives for Teaching English*

Objectives	Frequency	Total
Use English language communicatively	6	6
Learn the formal system of English	6	
Travel	6	
Job prospects	6	
Internet usefulness	6	
Discovering Anglo-Saxon culture and lifestyle	4	
Language of technology	3	
Watch TV	3	
Read documents in English	1	

The backlash against the learning of the formal system of languages seems to have convinced everyone to think that the ultimate aim of language learning is communication. The inspectors, as shown in the table above, as well as the students stated that the purpose of English learning/teaching is to use English functionally; nevertheless, these teaching supervisors think that the students specialised in English need to comprehend the formal system of English. Besides, they stated that English could be employed for instrumental and leisure purposes. Intriguingly enough, the inspectors did not mention cross-disciplinary competencies such as problem-solving skills, getting along with people, respecting the environment, preserving natural resources, thinking critically, and learning to learn. Accordingly, the English language teaching is still locked up in the spirit and confines of the discipline.

Answers to question 10: (*Do your observed teachers often tell their pupils the objectives of each lesson?*)

Table 5.56: *Inspectors' Evaluation of the Teacher Statement of Objectives*

Yes	No	Total
0	6	6

All the inspectors informing this study agreed that the teachers do not often state the specific objectives of each lesson. Thus, and with respect to what the students and the teacher stated previously, this indispensable principle of CBE is ignored by the teachers.

Answers to question 11: (*What is the classroom technique do most teachers use to apply classroom complex tasks?*)

Table 5.57: *Inspectors' Evaluation of Teacher Use of Individual and Grouping Activities*

Item	Individual work	Pairs work	Group work	Total
Frequency	4	2	0	6

The inspectors' answers to the question 11 above support the answers provided by both the teachers and the students in the sense that secondary school teachers prefer employing mostly the individual pattern to carry out complex tasks; or alternatively, they use pair work.

Answers to question 12: (*Do your observed teachers sometimes teach, for instance, how to analyse texts critically?*)

Table 5.58: *Inspectors' View on Teachers' Use of Critical Thinking*

Yes	No	Total
0	6	6

Again, and as shown in the Table 5.58, the inspectors absolutely agree with the students that secondary school teachers do not usually tap at critical thinking in their analysis of texts.

Answers to question 13: (*What assessment techniques do your observed teachers usually use to assess students' progress?*)

Table 5.59: *Inspectors' Evaluation of the Teachers' Use of Assessment*

Item	Diaries	Portfolios	Self-assessment	Tests	Performance -tasks	Other(s) Written productions	Total
Frequency	/	/	6	6	1	2	6

The inspectors' responses to the question 13 above match to a great extent with the students' and the teachers' views on this topic of classroom assessment. The consistent answers generated by all the respondents of this survey testify that standard testing prevails and still dominates secondary school English language competency classes.

Answers to question 14: (*Who does most of the work in your observed classrooms?*)

Table 5.60: *Inspectors' Evaluation of Use of Active Pedagogy*

Teacher	Students	Total
6	/	6

The entire inspector sample stated that the secondary school EFL classes are still teacher-fronted. And, the same opinion was provided by both the teachers and the students.

Answers to question 15: (*Do your teachers usually provide the students with a series of tasks to solve at the end of sequences or units?*)

Table 5.61: *Inspectors' Evaluation of Teachers' Use of Class of Situations*

Yes	No	I don't know	Total
/	6	/	6

Much like the teachers' and the students' answers, the inspectors categorically underlined that secondary school English language classes do not use a class of integration situations at the end of the sequences or units. This confirms that classes are time-based and no due value is bestowed upon the principle of the class of situations.

Answers to question 16: (*Do your teachers usually use the remedial activities provided at the end of the units?*)

Table 5.62: *Inspectors' Evaluation of Teachers' Use of Remedial Activities*

Yes	No	I don't know	Total
1	4	1	6

The Table 5.62 shows that according to most inspectors their teachers do not exploit the additional tasks provided for remedial and reinforcement purposes at the

closing of units. This equally agrees with the students' and the teachers' views. Hence, secondary school EFL classes are time-based, rather than mastery oriented.

Answers to question 17: (*Do secondary school textbooks focus on ...?*)

Table 5.63: *Inspector's View about the Focus of the Textbooks*

Language learning	Mobilisation of knowledge	I don't know	Total
6	/	/	6

Akin to the teacher's responses, the inspectors firmly confirmed that the English language textbooks for secondary school are linguistically-driven.

Answers to question 18: (*Do you think that the secondary school textbooks include integration situations?*)

Table 5.64: *Inspectors' View about Inclusion of Integration Situations in the Textbooks*

Yes	No	Total
6	0	6

All the inspectors held that the textbooks include integration situations. Indeed, the content analysis indicates that the textbooks under investigation contain integration situations, mainly at the end of sequences. Nonetheless, these complex tasks lack many attributes of these tasks like meaningfulness, authenticity, and complexity.

Answers to question 19: (*Do you think that the activities of the whole unit work towards the achievement of one task at the end of the unit?*)

Table 5.65: *Inspectors' Evaluation of the Layout of the Units of Instructions*

Yes	No	I don't know	Total
4	2	/	6

In the same vein as their teachers, the majority of the inspectors think that the textbooks arrange the teaching in a way to culminate in the implementation of a target task at the end of the unit. According to the teachers' interview and documents examination, this terminal task is definitely project work.

Answers to question 20: (*Do your observed teachers train their students to research through the use of the computer and the internet?*)

Table 5.66: *Inspectors' Evaluation of the Teachers' Use of Information and Communication Technologies*

Yes	No	I don't know	Total
/	5	1	6

In the vein of their teachers, the big part of the inspectors signified that their teachers in charge are not employing ICTs to develop the learners' research skill in our information age.

Answers to question 21: (*Do you think that the activities proposed in the textbook are typically helpful for doing things outside the school?*)

Table 5.67: *Inspectors Attitudes towards Meaningfulness of Textbook Activities*

Yes	No	Total
4	2	6

Unlike the students and the teachers, a significant number of inspectors think that most of the activities incorporated into the textbooks are typically reflective of world activities. Actually, as shown in textbook evaluations, numerous tasks in the workbooks are drawn from real life activities.

Answers to question 22: (*Does project work enhance the attainment of learning objectives?*)

Table 5.68: *Inspector's View about Efficiency of Project Work*

Yes	No	I don't know	No response	Total
1	4	/	1	6

The majority of the inspectors think that project work is not efficient in enhancing the learning targets. On the whole, the teachers, students, and inspectors attest that project work is dysfunctional in reinforcing and consolidating the attainment of the learning objectives developed throughout the units of instructions.

Answers to question 23: *(Are the teacher books helpful for facilitating teaching?)*

Table 5.69: *Inspectors' Perceptions of Helpfulness of Teacher's Books*

Yes	No	Total
5	1	6

Much like the teachers' opinions on the usefulness of secondary school English teachers' books, almost all inspectors consider the instructor's books facilitative for the realisation of the teaching programme. The documents in question, indeed, provide highlights on the execution of the activities of the schoolbooks and supply solutions for them.

- **Evaluation of the Syllabuses**

Answers to question 24: *(Have you read the syllabus?)*

Table 5.70: *Inspectors' Familiarity with Syllabuses*

Yes	No	Total
6	/	6

All the supervisors said truthfully or defensively that they have read the syllabus.

Answers to question 25: *(If yes, do you find it facilitative and helpful for improving teaching through CBA?)*

Table 5.71: *Inspectors' Opinion on Helpfulness of Syllabuses*

Yes	No	I don't know	No response	Total
2	3	/	1	6

Most of the teaching supervisors indicated that the syllabuses are not very helpful for a convenient achievement of a competency syllabus. Teachers and students seem divided on this question because the majority of teachers who answered this question do think the syllabus is helpful for implementing CBA conveniently. Generally speaking, a significant number of informants who read the syllabus do think it is helpful enough.

Answers to question 26: (*Do the syllabuses specify the target competencies for each level?*)

Table 5.72: *Inspectors' Evaluation of Syllabus Specification of Competencies*

Yes	No	I don't know	Total
2	4	/	6

The supervisors' feedback on the question above indicates that the syllabuses do not identify concretely the terminal competencies, but two of six inspectors indicated that the syllabuses do determine the target competencies. When these answers are compared to the teachers', it seems for the most part that the syllabuses do not spell out the target competencies. The documentary analysis supports this result in that the terminal competencies are not stated in the form of daily life activities.

Answers to question 27: (*Do the syllabuses spell out how to carry out projects?*)

Table 5.73: *Inspectors' Opinion on Syllabus Explanations of Project Work*

Yes	No	I don't know	Total
1	5	/	6

The syllabus guidelines for the implementation of the school projects seem inadequate. The inspectors are less satisfied than their teachers in regard to the syllabus guidelines established for project implementation. Whereas almost all the inspectors expressed their discontent with this meager or fuzzy management of this crucial syllabus element, many teachers rated positively project guidance provided in the programme. However, in the follow-up interview, these teachers indicated inconsistently with the questionnaire that project work is inexplicable. This survey statement is further endorsed by documentary analysis which shows that the only assistance on project substantiation is presented in a form of theoretical exposition than a genuine illumination on how to implement the projects presented in the textbooks in relation to ordinary teaching.

Answers to question 28: *(Do the syllabuses explain how to implement the teaching of competencies?)*

Table 5.74: *Inspectors’ View on Syllabuses Explanations of Competencies*

Yes	No	I don’t know	Total
0	6	/	6

Inspectors’ opinion on competency-based guidance in the syllabus seems firmly negative, and so is the teachers’ reaction to this question. Thus, although the syllabus provides assistance in explaining key concepts of the pedagogy of integration as shown in documents review, it is flawed in terms of introduction of teachers to more practical issues on competency implementation in day-to-day classroom routines.

Answers to question 29: *(Do the syllabuses explain how to assess competencies?)*

Table 5.75: *Inspectors’ Evaluation of Syllabuses Explanations of Assessment*

Yes	No	I don’t know	Total
3	3	/	6

The inspectors are divided as to whether the syllabuses offer enough direction on the implementation of competency assessment procedures. However, the documentary analysis shows that the assistance given in the syllabus to assess progress or attainment of objectives is sufficient enough. Maybe, the inspectors did not read well the syllabus or did not pay attention to this particular issue.

Answers to question 30: *(What do you suggest to make the secondary school English syllabuses and textbooks more competency-based?)*

Table 5.76: *Inspectors' Proposals for Making Syllabuses and Textbooks More Competency-Based*

Topics	Frequency	Total
Slimming down of syllabuses	6	6
Reducing class size	6	
Explaining implementations of CBLT in the teachers' books	5	
Creating more classroom interaction	4	
Promoting student-centered learning	2	
Using easy activities to develop competencies	1	
Providing support for competency-based experiences in the course books and the teacher guides	1	
Stating clearly the competencies being targeted for instruction	1	

The inspectors provided worthwhile suggestions for improving secondary school English language syllabuses and textbooks. Although a number of their indications are invaluable, they are not pertinent enough for the topic at hand; thus many suggestions have been ignored. It seems according to the global results derived from the questionnaires that large classes and heavy syllabuses are the most important hurdles that must be addressed urgently. Moreover, the inspectors' offers look completely aligned with the issues examined in the questionnaire. For instance, they suggested a clear plan for the teaching and assessment of competency-based practices, which was emphatically examined in their questionnaire.

In brief, the inspectors' questionnaire yielded almost the same results as the teachers'. Secondary school students are by and large far from attaining the competency standards; their classes are still teacher-centered than competency-driven; and the textbooks and the syllabuses are not supportive enough for the competency-based programme.

5.1.4. Global Comparison of the Questionnaires Findings

This figure below displays graphically the competency characteristics of the secondary school English language syllabuses and textbooks. The average of competency orientation of the syllabuses and textbooks is counted approximately on the basis of individual questions addressing these documents, that, the answers in favour or against competency teaching are counted for all the questions concerning competency teaching, then the whole average is worked out. The label ‘Traditional-Teaching’ refers to the teaching styles employed before the 2005 School Reform at secondary schools.

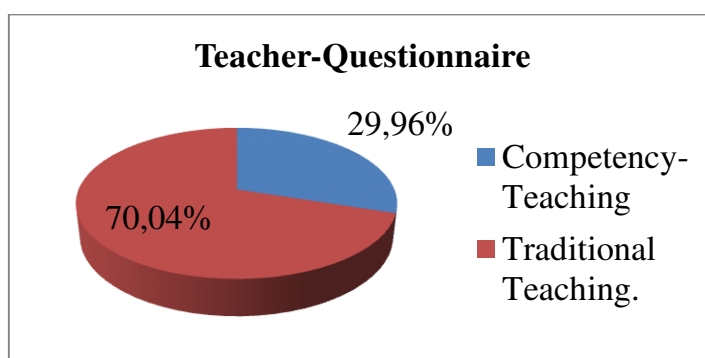


Figure 5.1: Teachers' evaluation of competency-based teaching in secondary school English syllabuses and textbooks

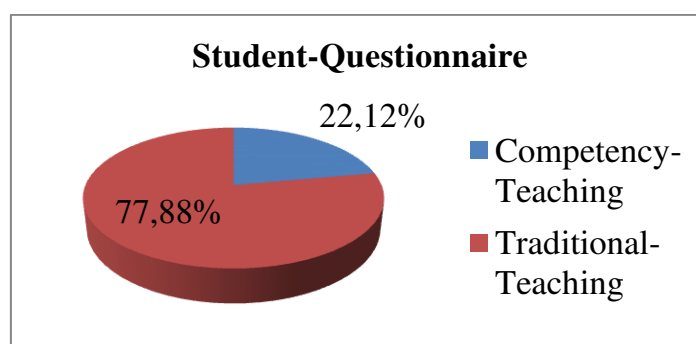


Figure 5.2: Learners' evaluation of competency component of Algerian secondary school EFL syllabuses and textbooks

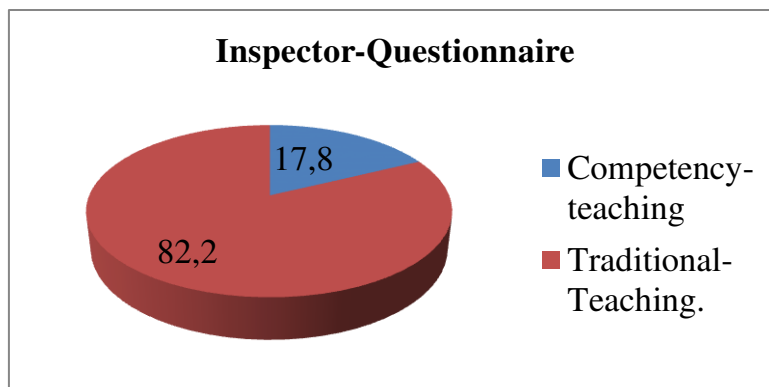


Figure 5.3: Inspectors' evaluation of competency component of Algerian secondary school English syllabuses and textbooks

The graphic depictions of competency teaching in the Algerian secondary schools EFL classes clearly indicate that the programmes (syllabuses and textbooks) are far from espousing a full CBLT pedagogy. The competency percentages do not exceed one third, with the inspectors' rating of competency teaching displaying only 17 %.

After analysing and summing up the major results yielded by means of questionnaires, the next section will present the major data derived from classroom observation.

5.2. Classroom Observation

This section presents four observation schedules that combine observations from the two target secondary schools. Each table represents one category of a lesson among the four types chosen for evaluating the competency orientation of secondary school English classes. The first schedule corresponds to the opening of the lesson. It should be noted that there is sometimes an overlap between the categories and certain categories are more relevant to given sessions than others.

Table 5.77: *Unit Opening Observations*

Question/item	Secondary schools			
	Maouche Idriss		Slimani Slimane	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
1. Does the teaching target any particular competency?	X	✓	X	✓
2. Does the teacher explain the objectives of the lesson at the onset?	X	✓	X	✓
3. Do the activities incorporate social skills?	X	✓	X	✓
4. Do the activities promote professional skills?	X	✓	X	✓
5. Do the activities promote collaboration?	X	✓	X	✓
6. Do the activities target higher-order skills?	X	✓	✓	X
7. Do the activities converge to the attainment of a competency?	X	✓	X	✓
8. Does the teacher use indirect pedagogy?	X	✓	X	✓
9. Are the activities proposed meaningful?	X	✓	X	✓
10. Do the students use methods of process assessment?	X	✓	X	✓
11. Is there student-student interaction?	X	✓	✓	X
12. Do students demonstrate their mastery of objectives through performance tasks?	X	✓	X	✓
13. Do the activities incorporate the use of ICTs?	X	✓	X	✓
14. Do the activities work towards the achievement of project work?	✓	X	✓	X
15. Other(s).....				
Amount of teacher talk (TT) and student talk (ST)	TT	ST	TT	ST
	76 %	24 %	72 %	28 %

The opening of a lesson is naturally teacher-centered since the teacher introduces the new topic, but this does not entail that the competency principles are invisible in

such lessons. The beginning of the lesson exhibits the targeted competency; makes public the learning objectives of the unit, and sets up project work. However, no teacher in the two schools managed to show these principles; they only introduced the topic, without showing the purpose of learning or how it relates to the learners' future needs as citizens or graduate students. In reality, no socio-professional or cognitive skills are taught explicitly. In addition, only one teacher at Slimani Slimane triggered skillfully student-student interaction by asking students to react to the answers given by their peers through using the formula of: "Your mate says that....What do you think?". The same teacher exploited adeptly the referential question: "What title would you give to the text?" (see activity 2, in Riche et al., 2006b, p. 39).

The teachers could have asked the students to form groups and come up with a topic of project work, and thereby promote group work, collaboration, and student-student interaction. Unfortunately, all the activities are almost carried out individually following the initiation-response-feedback (IRF) pattern of interaction. The teachers, on the whole, focused on language teaching (i.e. correct pronunciation of vowels and stress, correct sentence construction, and familiarisation with new vocabulary items).

Moreover, the teachers did not ask the students to perform any alternative assessment technique; the students used notebooks to jot down new words in the most traditional fashion. Indeed, the teachers used only informal assessment through praising the good students who managed to give acceptable answers. Furthermore, no instruction was provided on research skills and use of ICTs, which could have taken place while setting up the project and planning how to get its data.

Finally, the amount of the teacher talk testifies the traditional nature of Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary school EFL classes. Although the nature of this session requires an active role of the teacher, the student talk should equally dominate after the opening moments of the lessons.

The next sequence of the lesson to be presented is the teacher implementation of the target situation that is located at the end of the first sequence of the units.

Table 5.78: *Target Situation Observations*

Question/item	Secondary schools			
	Maouche Idriss		Slimani Slimane	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
1. Does the teaching target any particular competency?	X	✓	X	✓
2. Does the teacher explain the objectives of the lesson at the onset?	X	✓	X	✓
3. Do the activities incorporate social skills?	X	✓	X	✓
4. Do the activities promote professional skills?	✓	X	✓	X
5. Do the activities promote collaboration?	X	✓	X	✓
6. Do the activities target higher-order skills?	X	✓	X	✓
7. Do the activities converge to the attainment of a competency?	X	✓	X	✓
8. Does the teacher use indirect pedagogy?	X	✓	X	✓
9. Are the activities proposed meaningful?	✓	X	✓	X
10. Do the students use methods of process assessment?	X	✓	X	✓
11. Is there student-student interaction?	X	✓	X	✓
12. Do students demonstrate their mastery of objectives through performance tasks?	✓	X	✓	X
13. Do the activities incorporate the use of ICTs?	X	✓	X	✓
14. Do the activities work towards the achievement of project work?	✓	X	✓	X
Amount of teacher talk (TT) and student talk (ST)	TT	ST	TT	ST
	69 %	31 %	72 %	28 %

The lesson observed in Maouche Idriss incorporated two activities, one on writing the correct tense of a given passage and the other on making a policy statement

for an election campaign (please see activities 1 and 2 in Riche et al., 2006b, p. 19). As for the target situation observed in Slimani Slimane secondary school, it was about writing a poem for a UNESCO competition (see activity Write it Right in Riche et al., 2006b, p. 41).

The series of activities implemented at Maouche Idriss secondary school integrated school skills (activity 1) and socio-professional skills (activity 2). The first activity could not be considered an integration situation because it flouts the principle of meaningfulness (De Ketele, 2010); while the second could be regarded meaningful, but little relevant for the needs and interests of the students. The second integration situation observed in Slimani Slimane is meaningful and relevant to the students' needs as the latter could be asked to write a poem for a competition in real life.

The activities were conducted individually since the textbook does not require for the students to work in collaboration. It is also to be noted here that the types of competencies targeted at secondary school English textbooks or syllabuses are written productions (SE1 Syllabus; SE2 Syllabus; SE3 Syllabus). These activities were conducted in a teacher-fronted manner, with moments in which the students worked in isolation to generate the written product.

In addition, these activities did not stimulate the observed students to work on high order skills though combining the newly learned item in a creative manner, nor did the teachers exploit the learning situations for teaching the spirit of collaboration, teamwork, and peer-assessment. Since this intermediary integration situation is a leaning task, the teachers could have at least used process writing to promote the principles of socio-constructivism advocated both in the textbooks and in the syllabuses. Furthermore, no research was conducted to solve the problems at hand; the students improvised and drew on their existing knowledge to craft their productions.

Nonetheless, the amount of student talk was somehow acceptable in the integration situation session observed at Maouche Idriss School, mainly because of the integrative and performance-based nature of the task along with the teacher's skillfulness.

Next, the researcher will discuss the teaching of resources.

Table 5.79: *Observations of Teaching of Resources*

Question/item	Secondary schools			
	Maouche Idriss		Slimani Slimane	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
1. Does the teaching target any particular competency?	X	✓	X	✓
2. Does the teacher explain the objectives of the lesson at the onset?	X	✓	X	✓
3. Do the activities incorporate social skills?	X	✓	X	✓
4. Do the activities promote professional skills?	X	✓	X	✓
5. Do the activities promote collaboration?	X	✓	✓	X
6. Do the activities target higher-order skills?	X	✓	X	✓
7. Do the activities converge to the attainment of a competency?	✓	X	✓	X
8. Does the teacher use indirect pedagogy?	X	✓	X	✓
9. Are the activities proposed meaningful?	X	✓	X	✓
10. Do the students use methods of process assessment?	X	✓	X	✓
11. Is there student-student interaction?	X	✓	X	✓
12. Do students demonstrate their mastery of objectives through performance tasks?	X	✓	X	✓
13. Do the activities incorporate the use of ICTs?	X	✓	X	✓
14. Do the activities work towards the achievement of project work?	✓	X	✓	X
Amount of teacher talk (TT) and student talk (ST)	TT	ST	TT	ST
	72 %	28 %	69 %	31 %

Resources are means for the attainment of the terminal competency (Roegiers, 2000). The first unit of *Getting through* caters for the achievement of the competency of the description of lifestyles in the past, in the present, and in the future. The

observed sessions for the teaching of resources concerned the first sequence of unit one, *Discover Language*. The latter, as its name indicates, caters to the linguistic tools of the terminal competency; it includes lexis, grammar, and practice. The language patterns are introduced in a meaningful context, raised to learners' consciousness in the *Grammar Desk* rubric, practised and reinforced in the *Practice* rubric, and re-invested more or less in an integrated way in *Write it Right* sub-rubric. The other *Discover Language* sequence observed at Slimani Slimane makes provision for the expression of abilities using the language exponents of “*can, be able, and manage to*” in all their forms.

Although the competencies targeted in this sequence could be inferred, the observed teachers did not seem to be aware of these terminal competencies; they conducted their teaching following the guidelines established in the textbooks, one activity after the other. The activities are conducted according to the teachers' traditional teaching styles, except for the introduction of the grammatical new items, which are presented in the textbook in an inductive manner. Consequently, no social or professional skills are practised; the students worked through isolate sentences using the lower order cognitive skills of remembering, interpreting, and applying. And, all the teachers approached this task of imparting resources in a similar fashion, relying on the activities set up for them in the textbook.

Only the students of Slimani Slimane were assigned a group work that lacks any information or opinion gap and that could be carried out individually (See Activity 2 in Riche et al., 2006b, p. 40). This collaborative effort is not the result of the teacher initiative; rather the teacher followed the instruction for a group assignment specified in the textbook. Thus, the exploitation of this group activity upgraded significantly the quantity of student talk through pupils' active participation. However, the quality of this talk was poor in terms of fluency and correctness. Usually, silence prevails over the pupils' oral productions. Here, it appears clearly that the learners' low level of proficiency gets really in the way of promoting communicativeness.

The following table reports the results of the observations relative to the session named the closure of the unit.

Table 5.80: *Observation of Closure of Unit*

Question/item	Secondary School			
	Maouche Idriss		Slimani Slimane	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
1. Does the teaching target any particular competency?	X	✓	X	✓
2. Does the teacher explain the objectives of the lesson at the onset?	X	✓	X	✓
3. Do the activities incorporate social skills?	✓	X	X	✓
4. Do the activities promote professional skills?	✓	X	X	✓
5. Do the activities promote collaboration?	✓	X	X	✓
6. Do the activities target higher-order skills?	✓	X	X	✓
7. Do the activities converge to the attainment of a competency?	✓	X	X	✓
8. Does the teacher use indirect pedagogy?	X	✓	X	✓
9. Are the activities proposed meaningful?	X	✓	X	✓
10. Do the students use methods of process assessment?	X	✓	X	✓
11. Is there student-student interaction?	✓	X	X	✓
12. Do students demonstrate their mastery of objectives through performance tasks?	X	✓	X	✓
13. Do the activities incorporate the use of ICTs?	X	✓	X	✓
14. Do the activities work towards the achievement of project work?	✓	X	X	✓
Amount of teacher talk (TT) and student talk (ST)	TT	ST	TT	ST
	63 %	27 %	83 %	17 %

The closure of the unit was selected for observation to look at how the teachers deal with the target task of the unit, which is project work. The first project observed

in Maouche Idriss secondary school was on making a profile about lifestyles, while the second project roundup observed at Slimani Slimane high school was labelled writing a statement of achievement.

The project students at Maouche Idriss were asked to carry out the task of making a profile about lifestyles in class; they worked in small groups and some of them presented the final product in open class. The teacher, unfortunately, did not inform the students that this activity concerns the application of what they have learned throughout the unit, and his assessment was subjective involving the assignment of a global mark for each group.

Nevertheless, this session was marked with rich student oral productions through oral and group presentations. The pupils more or less experienced with language use, though much of their output was rehearsed before the presentations.

The second teacher who belonged to Slimani Slimane School faultily set up project work at the end of the unit. This is mainly because the only project workshop included in the textbook is placed at the end of the unit.

Consequently, the project was explained and set up as homework for the next meeting. Then, the teacher carried out a ping pong session on self-assessment grid; each assessable item was turned into a question, asking the student to give examples of the language items displayed for self-assessment. For instance, for the standard “I can use the modal **can** and **could** to express (1) ability, (2) possibility (3) permission” (Bold in original, Riche et al., 2006b, p. 52), the teacher asked the students to write down a sentence or two using “*can* or *could* to express *ability*, *possibility*, or *permission*”.

When this teacher was asked in the follow-up interview why he does so, he stated that it is the only possible way to assess the students’ achievement because they cannot sincerely and truthfully do it alone. Thus, the teacher turned this learner-centered activity into a teacher-fronted activity.

In a nutshell, classroom observation showed that the teachers are still unfamiliar with the underpinnings of competency-based purposes and this state is worsened by the textbook itself that does not specify and make explicit the competency-based drives for each sequence, unit, or book. The teachers rely on the guidelines established

in the textbooks and sometimes indulge in creative teaching techniques that they have constructed through their own personal experience.

Conclusion

This chapter has shown that the applications of the pedagogy of integration are still partial especially in the textbooks and in day-to-day classroom practices. The teacher, the inspector, and the student questionnaires have shown consistently that the textbooks and the classroom practices are flawed and fail to achieve their assigned learning/teaching objectives. As for the syllabuses, they are comparatively acceptable, but they equally require upgrading.

Finally, classroom observation has shown that the competency-based classes are not competency-based in a strict sense. The teachers seem misguided mainly by defective textbooks, which truly lack a clear vision of the types of competencies being targeted or how the syllabus specifications could achieve them. Consequently, the teachers rely simply on their intuition to implement the syllabuses; however, these teachers ignore the exploitation of the syllabuses which offer invaluable insights especially on assessment practices.

Chapter Six: Data Interpretation and Pedagogical Recommendations

Chapter 6: Data Interpretation and Pedagogical Recommendations

Introduction

This last chapter crosschecks all the significant results obtained from the research tools employed in this investigation, compares the findings to the review of the literature, answers the research questions, and states the pedagogical recommendations for the design of Algerian secondary school competency-based EFL syllabuses and textbooks. The discussions and interpretations are framed around the research questions in a form of topics. The first topic (6.1) answers the third research question, the second topic (6.2) answers the fourth research question, the third topic (6.3) answers the fifth research question, and the fourth topic (6.4) answers the first and second research questions. Thus, answers to and discussions of these research questions start with the secondary questions (questions 3-5), then the core ones (questions 1- 2).

6.1. Secondary School English Learning Objectives

CBE is not confined to the teaching of the functional aspects of language keyed to their linguistic realisations. In addition to these basic components of the syllabus, it incorporates instrumental competencies, whose acquisition influences the achievements of the learner and constitutes a real springboard for their success (Roegiers, 2011, p. 32). Such competencies include the mastery of ICTs, critical thinking, and problem-solving. Furthermore, CBE allows the integration of national and universal values such as openness, respect of one's and other cultures, and preserving the environment.

Data analysis has shown that the Algerian English language syllabuses truly promote a communicative competency approach to the teaching of English, focusing on the functional use of English and the acquisition of cross-disciplinary skills and values (SE2 Syllabus, pp. 5-6; SE3 Syllabus, pp. 7-8). In the same vein, Imerzoukéne (2010) has remarked that the third year secondary school syllabus is communicative and competency-based (p. 45). However, the secondary school English language textbooks appear content-driven and linguistically-oriented.

These findings correlate with Aouine's (2011) study, which has reported that secondary school EFL textbooks do not focus on the teaching of higher-order cognitive objectives. Furthermore, the textbook users (inspectors, teachers, and students) have different objectives for learning/teaching English at secondary schools. They all stated in the questionnaires that English is taught/learnt for literary, functional, and instrumental purposes, but no one of them stated the cross-curricular competencies outlined in the syllabuses. Benadla (2013) has shrewdly remarked that when the Algerian EFL teachers are asked about what they teach in the syllabus, they state the content in linguistic terms, rather than in functional terms (p. 162).

This mismatch in the perceptions of the English language learning/teaching objectives at secondary school naturally affects the achievement of the objectives set up in the syllabuses. The main cause of this problem is the teachers' and the inspectors' unfamiliarity with the syllabuses. 10 teachers out of 15 stated that they have not read the syllabuses. Since it is impossible to get all the teachers to read the syllabuses, it is more useful to state the objectives and the teaching procedures explicitly in the textbooks.

6.2. Attainment of Secondary School English Language Objectives

The big majority of the informants in this study indicated that the secondary school EFL students could not produce by the end of third-year a written communicative message of 20 lines. The reasons for this statement are diverse. They are discussed in the following headline.

6.3. Major Hurdles for a Successful Pedagogy of Integration

The biggest hurdle is the lack of suitable learning prerequisites for the achievement of secondary school standards, that is, the students arrive at secondary schools with low levels of proficiency in English. This, in turn, creates a large gap, as indicated by the inspectors, between the student existing level and the required standards. If the students could not manage to converse and comprehend English, it is more advisable first to equip them with the basic language competencies before asking them to learn interdisciplinary matters (Roegiers, 2011). Indeed, classroom observation has shown that the students could barely converse in daily English.

Another stumbling block for the achievement of the secondary school English learning standards is the problem of class size and noise. This issue was highlighted by all the informants of this study. The Minister of Education, Nouria Benghebrit has recently declared that the setback of the large class is worrying in the Algerian schools and only qualified teachers could solve the problem (Boufassa, 2017, August 30).

Moreover, the inspectors and the students raised the problem of the teacher competence. More specifically, the inspectors pointed out to the instability of the teaching staff. Each year there is a new wave of teachers entering secondary schools, many of whom quit the next year; this state makes a permanent and a consistent strategy of training impossible. And, the teachers lack efficient training in implementing CBE.

The training programme that the teachers have received is deficient in that it is not systematically planned to introduce the teachers to the basics of the pedagogy of integration. At the heart of the problem lies the inspectors' perceived incompetence or unfamiliarity with the system of CBE. At the inception of CBE in the Algerian secondary schools, the PARE project planned a special training in CBE for a group of inspectors who would transmit the required skills for the teachers. 2 inspectors for each discipline were trained to supervise the other inspectors in 48 Wilayas, who would then transmit the skills of CBE to the ultimate practitioners (Tawil, 2006, p. 40). Unfortunately, according to Xavier Roegiers, this training has never come down to the teachers (Personal interview, translated from French to English by the researcher, January 11, 2016). In actual fact, the inspectors' responses in this study testified the meagerness of this training.

Roegiers (2010a) has warned that one of the difficulties for the application of the pedagogy of integration is the problem of training (p. 178). The inspectors should be well-trained in this pedagogy to supervise its genuine application in schools and the teachers should be well-equipped to devise integrative activities and assess competencies (Roegiers, 2010a).

Furthermore, the vast syllabuses stand in the way of implementing quality of teaching. The teachers have to obey strict deadlines and examination calendars to finish lengthy syllabuses. This difficulty was stated and emphasised consensually by

all the participants in the questionnaires. One teacher stated in the follow-up interview that they have to cover all the activities included in the textbooks for the following reasons.

It is said in the teacher's book and elsewhere that the teacher is not supposed to toe the activities of the textbook; yet it happens that activities appear in the BAC test on the ground that they have been included in the textbooks; consequently, we are compelled to teach all the activities that occur in the textbook to ensure a good preparation for our students. (This answer was edited by the researcher)

It is probably for this reason that most of the teachers have been found teaching all the activities set up for them in the textbooks, and this probably why they consider the textbooks as too long to finish up.

Similarly, another teacher claimed that no one cares about learning. The students are more interested in grades and the syllabuses and timetables do not allow developing competencies. He has complained:

Pupils do not learn really. They are just test-takers. The programme is overwhelming. No time to focus on the new concepts. This timetable from Sunday to Thursday is so tiring to pupils. No time to relax. (Reported verbatim)

The Ministry of Education was quick to perceive the inadequacy and the heavily-loaded content of the syllabuses. Consequently, it proceeded in 2008 to their slimming down. There is often a tradeoff between quality and quantity in the design of the syllabuses; if the programme planners want quality, they have to sacrifice quantity. Consequently, when the new Minister of Education, Nouria Benghebrit took up the reigns of education in 2015, she has urgently recommended repackaging the new reform, focusing on reviewing the heavy contents and upgrading teacher training to target quality of teaching (Meddour, 2015, January 4). In short, teacher qualifications are still challenging and the content of the syllabuses is still perceived heavy after 13 years of the School Reform at secondary schools.

Last but not the least, the teachers and inspectors pointed out to the unsuitability of CBE to the Algerian context. One of the interviewed teachers complained that it is more suitable for the Western small classes which are well equipped with didactic

materials. However, in the personal interview with Roegiers, the researcher asked him how would the pedagogy of integration work with the students who could not produce a simple correct sentence, he simply replied saying that in that case writing a simple sentence would be the targeted competency. Indeed, CBE as stressed in the review of the literature is adaptable to different situations. If the students lack prior learning prerequisites, it is more advisable to focus first on the language tools before learning transversal values or skills. Savage (1993), likewise, has argued that CBE is applicable even to the students “with limited or no English proficiency” (p. 16).

Almost all the teaching pedagogies have been devised in the countries of the North; therefore, their applications call for a valid foreground work to adopt them to the sociolinguistic context of the recipient countries. The Algerian educational authorities have declared to have developed their own CBE, and the commission of GSD worked to operationalise CBE for the different disciplines (Roegiers, 2006a, p. 53). Indeed, the documentary analysis showed that the content is embedded in the Algerian socio-cultural context, but the procedures of implementation do not seem reflective of the needs of the Algerian teachers and students. By way of example, the textbooks need to be more explicit in the statement of the objectives and should provide more structure to the learning process.

The application of Freirean pedagogy is difficult or impossible in ESL/EFL classes in which the students lack a base in English or when they are unfamiliar with the target language (Spener, 1993, p. 91). And, it is very demanding on the teacher in devising real-life tasks that the students experience in their socio-cultural context. Thus, if the teachers are not adequately prepared for this participatory pedagogy, it is advisable, as Roegiers (2010a) has cautioned, to adjust it to the teacher’s styles of instruction. Such learner-centered pedagogies as project work could be very challenging and dysfunctional in more traditional teaching contexts.

6.4. Competency-Oriented Syllabuses and Textbooks

One of the issues that this study seeks to answer is to establish whether the textbooks and syllabuses are competency-driven. The application of the principles of the pedagogy of integration to the Algerian English language syllabuses and textbooks shows different results. The syllabuses seem to espouse the pedagogy of integration,

while the textbooks are more content-oriented than competency-based. This issue is further explicated under the following headings.

- **Clear Statement of Objectives**

All the informants of the study confirmed that the teachers rarely state the learning objectives at the beginning of the lesson. Furthermore, the observed lessons testified that the teachers do not list the immediate objectives of the lesson. Gerard and Roegiers (2009) have argued that stating the objectives of learning creates expectations in the learner which in turn generate intrinsic motivation (p. 70).

Moreover, the textbooks overlook the statement of objectives in terms of life competencies. The learning objectives stated at the opening of the units focus mainly on language practice. Savage (1993) has firmly indicated that the competency objectives must be provided “in task-based terms” (p. 17). In comparison to other studies in the Algerian context, the findings of this study match with Aouine’s (2011) study, which has confirmed that the secondary school textbooks do not include the behavioural component of objectives (pp. 128-129); nor do they state the conditions of execution or the standards to be reached.

Since the programme aims at instilling in learners the capacity to reuse in concrete situations the language items and skills acquired separately (SE2 Syllabus, 2006, p. 7), the textbooks should list the learning objectives in terms of integration, that is, mobilisation of learning in situations (Gerard & Roegiers, 2009, p. 56). The objectives stated in the three textbooks are isolated and juxtaposed specific skills or language forms without any reference to their context of use.

As far as the syllabuses are concerned, they are communicative-competency syllabuses. They clearly identify the three types of knowledge: “knowing how to produce”, “knowing how-to-do”, and “knowing how-to-behave” that have been outlined by De Ketele (1986, cited in Gerard & Roegiers, 2009, pp. 47-49). The syllabuses seem to focus more on procedural knowledge, which is, exercising skills on knowledge. Apart from the declarative knowledge relative to the English linguistic system, the syllabuses identify the skills for applying this knowledge actively in real life situations.

The competencies targeted in the syllabuses are embedded in language use, and the objectives are stated in behavioural terms using behavioural action verbs such as ‘produce’. However, as Roegiers (2006a) has pointed out, the identification of the learner exit profile is still imprecise with respect to what the learner will be able to do with the language (p. 54). For instance, the final exit profile for secondary school English (writing a language production) is purely academic contrary to the competency discourse promoted in the syllabuses. The statement of the final outcome of a language syllabus should rather describe what the learner will be able to do with the language once learned.

- **Collaborative Work and Learning Situations**

Learning situations almost do not use group work for making the learners confront and test their learning hypotheses among themselves; rather only pair work activities are inserted every now and then to carry out these activities. Learning situations in the pedagogy of integration adhere to socio-constructivism (Roegiers, 2006a, p. 74), and the principles of the latter are lived up by means of these learning tasks. The exploration tasks in the secondary school textbooks are mostly teacher-centered and group work is constrained almost to project work; which is considered in the textbook as secondary, and which is ignored by the teachers and the students. Still more, Boukhentache’s (2012) study has established that project work does not open avenues for the student-student pattern of interaction (p. 85).

When the teachers were asked in the follow-up interview why they do not opt for interpersonal activities, they gave various reasons such as noise, talking in L1 instead of L2, and students’ negative attitudes towards these activities. Moreover, the problem-solving activities employed in the textbooks are not truly collaborative since they could be carried out individually. For instance, deciphering a transcribed phonetic message (refer to Riche et al., 2006d, p. 18) could be solved in groups or individually. It is worth mentioning in passage that the textbooks do not incorporate any information-gap activity that would constrain the learners to work jointly.

- **Use of Correctives and Enrichment Activities**

The move from one sequence of learning to another in the pedagogy of integration is based on the mastery of objectives than on time spent on them. The

questionnaires and the content analysis demonstrated that the textbooks do not use this principle of mastery learning. Additionally, the teachers seem unfamiliar with this pedagogy of mastery. Firstly, they do not know that there are special remedial activities for the students who do not achieve the standards and enrichment activities for the more able students. Secondly, no training has been reported about this topic on the part of the teachers and the inspectors.

The performance-based unit of currency is the most unrecognised asset of CBE (Ainsworth, 1977, p. 330). It is actually impractical in traditionally organised classes. In the pedagogy of integration, enrichment activities are referred to as ‘undertaking’ or perfectionment activities (Gerard & Roegiers, 2009, p. 88). Consequently, whatever be the pedagogy applied, remedial and perfectionment work is needed at the end of units of instructions.

The analysis of the activities incorporated into the end of the first-year textbook, *At the Crossroads*, showed that they are a product of amateurism; these activities follow the same patterns like the ones submitted for regular teaching, while mastery learning requires the use of different styles (Gusky, 2010, p. 111). Aouine (2011) has shown consistently with this study that the activities that follow summative assessment are corrective activities and no enrichment activities are included (p. 67). Thus, these activities are much like the traditional remedial activities found in the objectives pedagogy. From this perspective, *At the Crossroads* falls back on traditional teaching practices and breaks away from the pedagogy of integration.

Much like the textbooks, the syllabuses do not claim to apply the principles of mastery learning, except in the explicit statement of the learning targets and the fact that the syllabuses specify assessment tools to appraise the learning process. There is no mention of mastery learning or Bloom’s et al. (1956) taxonomy of educational objectives in the syllabus documents; however, the first year teacher’s book states it overtly that it relies on Bloom’s taxonomy of cognitive educational objectives. Actually, all the competency-based syllabuses are by definition based on mastery learning; as a matter of fact, they apply the Bloom’s taxonomic route for the achievement of the cognitive objectives especially in educational programmes. This is because all problem-solving approaches use application of knowledge rather than

restitution (Roegiers, 2011, p. 129), but only the American CBE and CEFR allow the recognition of the unit credit systems. Thus, the textbooks and the syllabuses show reluctance in applying the principles of mastery learning.

- **Employment of Criterion-Referenced Assessment**

Documentary analysis showed that the textbooks use only a single self-assessment grid for the evaluation of language acquisition and mastery of skills. Although the syllabuses make hints and recommend the use of criterion-based assessment for the assessment of the process of teaching, the secondary school textbooks predetermine no other assessment method than the self-assessment schedule positioned at the end of each unit. In actual fact, the teachers should be provided with peer-assessment samples in the textbooks or at least in the teacher's books. Similarly, Aouine's (2011) study has demonstrated the lack of alternative assessment techniques in the secondary school textbooks.

When compared to the syllabuses, the textbooks do not interpret faithfully the assessment principles that the syllabuses adhere to or maybe they are naively left to the teachers who lack competencies. As mentioned earlier in the introduction, the textbook disentanglement from the task of assessment affects the application of the principles of CBE (Grove, 2008). Consequently, no one of the observed teachers used criteria for the assessment of project presentations, while all outcome-based syllabuses are criterion-based since the standards of assessment are defined in advance and constitute the reference point for the design of teaching experiences. Thus, assessment should tell what elements of a competency are attained and what parts need more investment.

By contrast, the syllabuses plentifully cater to the alternative assessment methods. They promote the three types of assessment identified by Roegiers and Gerard (2009) in the framework of the pedagogy of integration, viz, diagnostic assessment, formative assessment, and summative assessment (Gerard & Roegiers, 2009, pp. 77-78). Imerzoukéne (2010) has added a fourth type of assessment that is used in the Algerian EFL syllabuses, namely, "formatrice assessment" (p. 39). The latter is meant to show the level of the pupils or their achievements within the learning process (SE3 Syllabus (p. 26). But, this type of assessment is usually subsumed within formative assessment.

Additionally, the secondary school EFL syllabuses give enough guidance on the application of criterion assessment. They identify the following criteria for evaluation: pertinence, linguistic appropriateness, and semantic coherence (SE3 Syllabus, 2007, p. 27). Explanations are further provided in the accompanying documents on the indicators of the criteria. Imerzoukéne's (2010) findings further concur with the results of this study with regard to the supply of guidance and assessment samples in the third year syllabus and support document (pp. 38-40). Had these instructions been interpreted in the textbooks, the teachers would have probably applied them more readily. Since the teachers usually do not read the syllabuses, it is more advisable to reach them through the textbook.

- **Adoption of a Functional View**

Richards and Rodgers (2014) have argued that CBE commits itself to the functional view of the language (p. 154). Language is taught to express the functions and skills that the learner will need outside the school. However, it is difficult to identify clearly the language functions needed by the students who learn English for general purposes; thus, CBE is more appropriate for the students who have specific language purposes (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 154). In response to this incompatibility, the Algerian syllabuses have resorted to CEFR to identify the potential language needs of the students. The learning targets are formulated in terms of skills or functions such as giving instructions, justifying a point of view, and making requests (Riche et al., 2006d, p. 15).

The textbooks equally identify the language exponents required by each competency. But, the language functions and their language realisations are mixed that the students could not see the aim of each of them. In point of fact, the functions should constitute the objectives of learning and the language forms are supposed to represent the resources for achieving these functions or skills.

Since CBE does not entail any particular methodology, it could use CLT to “build the student capacity to generate language” (Savage, 1993, p. 16). The first year teacher's book states that the textbook expands on communicative language teaching (Riche et al., 2006a, p. 17). However, the textbooks, unfortunately, use formulaic or what Savage has called “phrase book approach” rather than a progressive Freirean

methodology that could “build the learner the capacity to generate language” (Savage, 1993, p. 16). This synthetic pedagogy hinders creativity and the student capacity to produce input and experience with its use.

As regards the syllabuses, they equally identify the functional dimensions of language learning in the form of skills (know-how-to behave and know-how-to be). A very important weakness in the conceptions of communicative language teaching in the syllabuses and textbooks is the use of a heterogeneous terminology that could hinder communication between these complementary documents. The syllabuses state specific objectives and resources in terms of knowledge, know-how, and know-how-to-do, while the textbooks use language functions, language forms, and skills. This distinct methodology could hinder the readability of the programme. It follows then that these concepts should be harmonised, either through a convenient translation of the concepts of the syllabus or through writing the syllabus documents in English. Likewise, Roegiers (2006a) has indicated that this aspect of the Algerian programmes needs improvements because different labels are employed in different documents and different disciplines (pp. 55-56).

- **Provision for the Integration Module**

Nowadays textbooks are organised into units, which are usually sub-divided into sequences and rubrics to provide a framework for the achievement of specific skills before moving on to the next level. The English secondary school textbooks almost follow the same patterns in the segmentation of the sequences of the units of instructions. Usually, they close up sequences through integrative activities, which sum up the contents of the whole sequence. Mastery learning whether acknowledged implicitly or explicitly in the textbooks breaks up learning tasks into segments and sequences. But, this feature of mastery learning is also characteristics of TBL; which also presents task practice through three main stages of pre-task, task-proper, and post-task (Nunan, 2004, p. 128). The course books in question seem to be more oriented towards TBL than the pedagogy of integration, though some researchers (e.g. Miliani, n.d.) think they are more oriented towards the presentation, practice, and production (PPP or 3Ps) model of teaching/learning.

Competency-based syllabuses use TBL to achieve their objectives, but tasks are subordinated to the competency-based framework. Contrarily, the Algerian EFL textbooks seem to adhere more to TBL than to competency-based approach. This tasked-based design of learning/teaching plan is less tolerable in the pedagogy of integration, which requires simply the use of tasks rather than a task-based framework.

An additional layout of the textbooks in integrative programmes is the division of course books into two major parts: ordinary learning and integration module (Gerard & Roegiers, 2009, p. 63). During the phase of ordinary learning, learners are exposed to enabling skills; while during the period of reinvestment, they are invited to reuse and mobilise in an integrative fashion the already acquired skills and language in a given situation (Gerard & Roegiers, 2009, p. 63).

However, although it is claimed in the syllabuses that the programme offers a week of integration after 3 weeks of teaching resources (SE2 Syllabus, 2006, p. 21), the textbooks do not outline any week for the integration work; rather the teaching is conceptualised in a traditional manner. Roegiers (2018) has insisted that the intermediary integration moment should be organised, for example, after 6 weeks of teaching to oblige the learner re-invest his/her learned items (p. 13). Without such syllabus specification, neither the students nor the teachers could perceive the value of integration technique in the syllabus framework. If the Algerian secondary school textbooks were fully aligned with the pedagogy of integration, and if they truly obeyed to the logic of their underlying syllabuses, they would use this fundamental organisation of learning.

- **Use of Meaningful Activities**

The findings from this study (teacher and learner questionnaires and document analysis) indicate that the textbooks do integrate meaningful activities, but they mostly focus on pedagogical activities or traditional language exercises. Apart from project work, the textbooks incorporate some meaningful integration situations at the end of sequences. However, the learning situations lack significance. It is acceptable to use exercises to instill resources for the students, but integration situations have to be meaningful enough and must include the integration component.

According to Roegiers (2010b), meaningful situations must:

- involve reinvestment of knowledge that is relevant to the learner;
- be challenging;
- be useful for the learner in that they could advance his/her career or learning endeavour;
- contextualise learning;
- and, involve interdisciplinary values or skills. (Roegiers, 2010b, pp. 287-288)

In brief, these types of tasks are much like real life activities that the learners deal with outside the school. The secondary school integration situations are either pedagogical activities or removed from the immediate needs of the students. By way of example, correcting tense errors of a written passage (please refer to Riche et al., 2006b, activity 1, p. 19) does not reflect the skills the students will need to perform in real life, and it does not involve the component of integration. Similarly, writing a policy statement for an election campaign in the subsequent task of the same sequence and book is far removed from the realities of the students.

Thus, despite the promotion of the concept of meaningfulness in the syllabuses especially with regard to integration situations, the textbooks seem to fail to propose significant integrative tasks. Roegiers' (2006a) review of the Algerian syllabuses has indicated that the genuine intentions to go forward and apply a learner-centered approach based on complex situations exist, but it is more promoted at the level of discourse than at the level of practice (p. 55).

- **Integration of Cognitive Skills**

Apart from the teachers who reported probably defensively that they invest in critical thinking, the results of the questionnaires illustrated that the teachers rarely teach critical thinking. Also, classroom observation in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary schools supported this finding: the teachers rarely appeal to higher order cognitive skills.

With regard to the textbooks, the first year teacher's book has claimed that the textbooks are based on Bloom's et al. (1956) taxonomy of the cognitive domain (Riche et al., 2006d, p. 12). Yet, the textbooks under study target mostly the lower order cognitive skills (i.e. knowledge, comprehension, and applications). The objectives or the language functions set up in the textbooks such as writing a slogan, writing a short

essay using comparison and contrast, and talking about plans (Riche et al., 2006b, p.14) target higher-order skills, but most of the activities with the exception of integration situations aim at promoting lower order skills. Aouine (2011), likewise, has pointed out that the secondary school textbooks develop higher-order cognitive skills, but with an excess of focus on lower-order skills.

The pedagogy of integration focuses more on procedural knowledge, that is, knowledge application rather than imparting declarative knowledge (Roegiers, 2010a, p. 119). Arguably, only problem-solving and integration knowledge are worth pursuing since they are well-structured and retained in the long-term memory. Thus, the end of learning is the application of knowledge or skills in real-world tasks. This principle is adequately achieved in integration situations positioned at the end of sequences, many of which are very challenging and require mobilisation of different cognitive resources.

As far as the learning situations are concerned, those applied in the textbooks are mostly language activities; except some activities implemented in *At the Crossroads* that use what Roegiers (2010a) has called exploratory learning situations, which introduce new learning items and practice integration skills (see Riche et al., 2006d, pp. 269-270). As an illustration, the learning activities on pages 24-25 of *At the Crossroads* require high order cognitive skills and create cognitive destabilisation. The learner has to read thoroughly an accompanying document to answer the simulated real-life situations.

With regard to the syllabuses, they state that besides the linguistic aims, they endeavour to promote the growth of interdisciplinary mental capacities of critical thinking and analyses (SE3 Syllabus, 2007, p. 7). But, as shown above, these intents are hardly realised in the textbooks.

Furthermore, classroom practices testify conspicuously that higher order skills are only practised occasionally in the few cognitively demanding activities supplied in the textbooks. The lack of practice, then, of these mental activities is due to the limitations of the textbooks and the teacher lack of competence. Miliani (n.d.) has pointed earlier that the teachers are short of competencies to evolve in a progressive pedagogy. It is worth pointing out here that the teachers and the inspectors did not

report any kind of training about critical thinking and the application of cognitive skills for language contents. Thus, neither the textbooks nor the teacher professional profile is favourable for achieving the intents of the syllabuses.

- **Status of Resources in the Syllabuses and Textbooks**

The textbooks identify the language resources for the achievement of competencies or the topics of the units. These resources are grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, functions, and skills. Nonetheless, the textbooks, as argued throughout this study, tend to focus more on the linguistic content in the view of equipping the learners with a good knowledge of the language.

There are ad hoc and irrelevant insertions of resources within the framework of competencies. For example, activity 2 (see Riche et al., 2006b, p. 20) trains the learners to recognise and master the spelling and pronunciation of the French and English cognates (e.g. table, orange, police, and television). This insertion is irrelevant for making a profile about changes in lifestyles. Consequently, resources are sometimes considered the end of learning, and not as means that build towards the achievement of a terminal task. In a similar vein, Miliani (n.d.) has pointed out that the textbooks are crammed with elements that have no apparent relation with the whole (p. 5).

Similarly, the syllabuses state overtly the resources which are considered indispensable means for the achievement of the basic competencies of interpretation, interaction, and production. These tools are identified as knowledge, savoir-faire, and savoir-être. Nevertheless, these resources are considered in a way the ultimate aim of learning because, in Roegiers' (2006a) words, they determine the kind of competencies to be taught (p. 54).

Moreover, the textbook users who responded to the survey questionnaire reported that the acquisition of resources is still considered one of the major aims of learning. Furthermore, classroom observations showed, unfortunately, that the teachers are not aware of the target competencies and they have been shown to focus more on the task of imparting and sometimes rehearsing the language system or conversational skills. Miliani (n.d.) has similarly reported that the School Reform has simply renewed the old practices (p. 4).

- **Contribution of Project Work to Skill Integration**

Project work fulfills a fundamental function in the three secondary school textbooks, yet it is considered as peripheral to the learning process (Aimeur, 2011, p. 115); actually, it is not considered as a learning situation, but as a target situation. In other words, the learners acquire new concepts and skills through regular textbook activities; and, then they reuse them in parallel and different project sub-tasks. This strategy is problematic because if project work is considered a ‘dessert’, it will leave the student short of knowledge of integration, which is primary to the pedagogy of integration. It is true that project work usually and falsely occurs at the periphery of the educational landscape (Beckett & Miller, 2006, p. xiii); however, it is less tolerable in the pedagogy of integration especially when it is assigned the function of integration.

Miliani (n.d.) has concluded in his study of the methods of teaching in the *At the Crossroads*, *Getting Through*, and *New Prospects* that project work is the building block of the books, but it is poorly taken care of (p. 5). He has lamented the lack of a clear plan that could guide the teachers who lack competence in implementing effectively this fundamental syllabus arrangement. Similarly, the researcher has previously demonstrated that project work in *At the Crossroads* lacks guidance and a sound plan that would truly guide the teachers to implement it (Boukhentache, 2012, pp. 62-63). Likewise, in the current study, the teachers, inspectors, and students indicated that project work lacks clear guidance on its implementation.

Additionally, in the follow-up interview, one teacher complained that the students have wrong beliefs about project work:

Although I try to guide the use of project work in class, most students just bring it ready-made and unprocessed from cybercafés that sells them. If the teachers reject it, the students get upset and complaintive. The students pay money collectively to get grades for it. (The quote was edited by the researcher)

Benadla (2013) has explained the problem of ready-made and ‘sold’ projects raised in the quote above as being a sociological problem (p. 163). In other words, the learners are resistant to change and do not aspire to change their learning styles through engaging in autonomous and inquiry learning. Arguably, the Algerian children are not

used to negotiate with their parents and challenge their opinions; consequently, the learners equally consider the teacher as the ideal knowledgeable guide and adviser on whom all the trust could be bestowed to lead them to a successful acquisition of the target language. This view is summed up by one teacher in the follow-up interview in the following quote:

I personally consider projects a waste of time at this level; I'd rather devote time to writing, better. I've noticed that our pupils are lazy to read, they prefer direct learning than indirect learning through projects. (Reported verbatim)

Thus, implementing project work requires more structure and guidance in the EFL contexts than, for instance, in ESL settings. Nevertheless, it seems that the textbook designers' simply wanted to embellish the textbooks with innovation and fashionable pedagogies, or they strived to show that they do cater for the requirements of the pedagogy of integration in the most superficial way.

Excess of innovations can do more harm than good to the learning process. Miliani (n.d.) has agreed on this topic saying that the textbooks are too ambitious in comparison to the level of the students. In the same context, Roegiers (2006a) has warned that innovations incorporated into the Algerian textbooks and syllabuses benefit only certain privileged students and certain advantaged schools (p. 55). In Roegiers' words, the best innovations are those that are compatible with the context of implementation.

Roegiers (2010a) has questioned whether such innovations are better than maintaining the status quo. Arguably, one could say that despite the limitations and the incomplete nature of the Algerian School Reform, it has initiated the students and the teachers to pedagogies of problem-solving, learner-centeredness, and integration that could be expanded later. The record time allotted for the design of the Algerian textbooks and syllabuses (Roegiers, 2006a, p. 53) must have had its bearing on the implementation of a genuine pedagogy of integration.

With reference to the conceptualisation of project work in the syllabuses, the role of project work in relation to the learning process is only succinctly hinted to. The section concerning project work rather gives a theoretical report on the nature of project learning in general. The syllabuses vaguely state that projects constitute

occasions for implementing collaboration and integration. The same judgment has been made by the interviewed teachers. One teacher wondered how project work relates to the unfolding of the sequences of the units. The inspectors equally showed their discontent with the meager guidance offered with regard to this instructional pedagogy. Consequently, project work is underexploited. Observations of project implementation bore out that the teachers are misguided and thereby misuse projects.

Dissonantly, Imerzouken's (2010) study that evaluated the third year textbook, *New Prospects*, has shown that project work is suitably applied in this textbook, but she has just reported the intents of project work as listed in the syllabus, without explaining how it could be achieved concretely in the textbook.

On the whole, the way project work is presented in the textbooks and syllabuses might not be suitable for the users who are habituated to the traditional style of teaching/learning. This discerning observation is backed up by Sheppard & Stoller (1995), who have argued that "Incorporating project work into more traditional classrooms requires careful orchestration and planning" (p. 14). Learners, for instance, should be shown when and how to carry out project tasks so that to make provisions for interactive and meaningful tasks.

Other researchers (such as Beckett, 1999; Ribé, 2000) have proposed overt supervision of project accomplishment. According to Beckett (1999), syllabus designers presume that teachers offer enough guidance for their students, but, unfortunately, most of the time it is not the case. For this reason, the purpose and objectives of language courses must be substantiated clearly in the textbook. Many researchers (e.g. Beckett & Slater, 2005) have suggested the employment of intervention means such as the learner diary and the planning graphic⁶ to make the learning procedures and objectives clear for their stakeholders.

Previous work on project guidance in secondary school classes (e.g. Belouahem, 2008; Boukhentache, 2012) have pointed out the paucity of appropriate management of the school projects. Both Belouahem (2008, p. 119) and Boukhentache (2012, p. 62) have highlighted that project work is placed at the end of the units rather than at the beginning of the units. Belouahem has further added that projects lack provision in

⁶ A visual representation of the plan envisaged for completing a project.

terms of resources and the sequences of the textbooks are not coherent enough to cater to the demands of the target project (p. 120).

These difficulties in substantiating the projects in secondary school English language classes hinder the potential of the projects to exhibit the learning gains earned from the units of instructions.

- **Incorporation of Information and Communication Technologies**

ICTs could contribute significantly to the development of competencies and capacities if they are used for interpersonal purposes (Gerard & Roegiers, 2009, p. 113). The informants of this study, be them teachers, inspectors, or students, stated that their classes usually do not use ICTs for research purposes. Yet, for instance, the third year textbook provides relevant site addresses that could be of significant help for the students doing their projects; each project assignment in the third year textbook is accompanied by a set of web addresses (see, for instance, page 42, Arab et al., 2007a). Similarly, the first year teacher's book is supplied with web addresses for promoting interaction with other FL learners or with natives. Thus, the use of multimedia subscribes to learning situations in relation to the student needs (Gerard & Roegiers, 2009, p. 113).

Moreover, the students need to acquire special ICTs' competencies that are daily routines for any literate individual. Gerard and Roegiers (2009) have specified, for instance, the use of generic softwares such as word processing, excel, and PowerPoint; optimal exploitation of the web documents; use of copy and paste function for the personal documents; and learning how to apply research functions on the web (p. 113). These are the real competencies that the students need to further promote their studies or to exploit in their daily life activities.

Unfortunately, the textbooks under investigation do not include the teaching of these extra syllabus competencies. The students have already learned in the first year how to perform the basics on the computer, thus it belongs to each discipline to further develop the groundwork started in the first year module of computing.

As for the syllabuses, they specify openly the use of technological knowledge in the classroom. The second-year syllabus, for example, states that these instrumental and cross-disciplinary competencies could be used to research information on the

internet, to present the products of the projects through data-show, interact with e-pals, and create web pages (SE2 Syllabus, 2006, p. 10). Besides, the syllabuses provide internet addresses for expanding and getting more information on the topics of projects to facilitate their implementation. Correspondingly, Imerzoukéne (2010) has observed that ICTs are used in the Algerian syllabuses not only to develop the learning of English, but also the acquisition of research skills (p. 37).

When the teachers were asked in the follow-up interview whether the students exploit these technological means of information and communication, they all answered negatively and they explained that the students do not have the required proficiency level to exploit such topics which are, in their view, too complicated and difficult for the students.

Likewise, classroom practices confirmed that the use of ICTs is completely ignored in spite of their availability. As an illustration, the two observations concerning project presentation did not use data-show or any other technological means. Benadla (2013) has remarked that many teachers “do not have access to technologies such as computers”, and this key fact makes their technological skills weak (p. 162). Thus, despite the alignment of the syllabuses with the requirement of the use of ICTs, their integration into Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane everyday teaching/learning classrooms are left to be desired.

Moreover, it is worth mentioning that neither the teachers nor the students reported any kind of training on the use of ICTs. Teachers and inspectors need to be acquainted with their use and to be sensitised to their importance. Boukhatem (February, 2015) has exhorted the importance of integrating this very syllabus component into teachers’ and supervisors’ training, with a focus on the ‘I’ (Information) and ‘C’ (Communication) rather than technology with which the Algerians are used to (p. 1362). Likewise, Roegiers and Gerard (2009) have stated that ICTs should be used not merely to acquire more knowledge, but to learn how to learn (p. 111).

- **Emergence of Concepts of the Pedagogy of integration**

It is fundamental to identify clearly the roles of each concept inherent to the pedagogy of integration in the syllabus documents (Roegiers, 2006a, p. 58). Many of

the concepts of the pedagogy of integration are translated and explained in the syllabus. For example, the syllabus explains what is meant by learning/integrative situations, notions of OTI and OII, student exit profile, and transversal competencies. Actually, their meanings are explained and they are shown ways in which they constitute the realities of the programme. Nonetheless, the syllabuses are required to give more precisions on their applications. For instance, the various resources, be them disciplinary, transversal, or academic, should be shown how they relate to terminal competencies. Roegiers (2006a) has proposed disassociating transversal competencies from the other disciplinary competencies and show how they relate to a group of disciplines, but the transversal competencies should be stated in task-based terms, not in academic terms.

- **Use of Terminal Objective of Integration**

The three syllabuses define the terminal objective of integration. For instance, the first year syllabus specifies the terminal objective of integration as the learner capacity to produce a written message of 20 sentences (SE1 Syllabus, p. 5). Similarly, Imerzoukéne (2010) has noted that unlike the Tunisian last year secondary school syllabus, the Algerian one provides explicitly the OTI of the programme, and thus shows that it is based on competency-based teaching (p. 23).

However, the first weakness in the specification of the notion of OTI in the Algerian syllabuses is the neglect of the oral dimension of the language proficiency. And, probably this shortcoming results from the difficulty of assessing the oral mode of language through standard tests. Roegiers (2011) has highlighted that language teaching should focus on the production of both written and oral messages; these skills constitute the basis of language proficiency.

When the teachers were solicited in the follow-up interview to give their opinion on including the oral component in the BAC test, they argued that it is possible if it is done separately from the BAC test at another occasion as it is the case of the of sports BAC, but they showed their skepticism with regard to convincing the students about their marks. The researcher discussed this worry with one of the experts of the BIEF- namely Alexia Peyser, in a personal interview. In her response, Peyser has argued that

if clear-cut and operational criteria are used, the rater could give enough evidence on the performance of the learner (Personal Interview, 20th of February, 2018).

Second, the notion of OTI, which is logically used to devise the ultimate integration tasks should be explicit and clear enough. Although the Algerian English secondary school terminal tasks include a “performance statement”, as outlined by Nunan (2007, p. 423); they lack the conditions and the standards of achievements. Thus, they offer little guidance for the teachers and the textbook writers to devise inclusive integrative situations, either for practice or assessment. All outcome-based syllabuses must identify clearly the standards of achievements to guide the devise of learning experiences accurately.

As far as the textbooks are concerned, they do not interpret the notions of OTI or OII defined in their syllabuses. There are actually no terminal tasks that synthesise the learning gains neither at the end of each school year, nor at the end of secondary school teaching stage.

- **Employment of Learning Situations**

The syllabuses under consideration explain the concept of learning situations. These learning techniques differ from integration situations in that they do not involve integration (Roegiers, 2006a, pp. 73-74). Basically, they are used for introducing new learning through socio-constructivist pedagogy. These situations (tasks), labelled in the syllabuses in French as “situations d’explorations”, are assigned the function of introducing new learning through pedagogical tasks to be carried out collectively (SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p. 7; SE2 syllabus, 2006, p. 7; SE3 Syllabus, 2007, p. 10).

The textbooks equally use these situations, but the data from the current study showed that they are like traditional activities, lacking active agency and learner-centredness. In fact, classroom observation illustrated that the learning situations implemented in the textbooks do not open avenues for social interaction in English and do not increase the amount of the student talk.

- **Insertion of Integration Situations**

Situations of integrations are the cornerstone of the pedagogy of integration. They represent the outcome expected from the learner (Roegiers, 2003, p. 38), that is, they are used to see whether or not the student has achieved successfully the learning

targets. They are referred to in the secondary school syllabuses as “situations cibles” (SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p. 8). These syllabuses explain them and identify the various criteria for their design (SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p. 8; SE2 Syllabus, 2006, p. 7; SE3 Syllabus, 2007, p. 10).

The application of these paramount activities in the textbooks is confined mainly to summing up the outcomes of learning of unit sequences, without extending their use to the end of units or the end of the books.

- **Inclusion of Family of Situations**

Unfortunately, the syllabuses under examination do not include the concept of the family of situations, which usually accompanies integration situations, nor do the textbooks or the BAC test use them.

- **Identification of Learner Entry and Exit Profiles**

As equally confirmed through the teacher and the inspector questionnaires, the three secondary school English syllabuses do identify the learner’s entry and exit profiles. However, these profiles lack precisions of the conditions of execution and clear standards, as they are outlined by Nunan (2007, p. 423). These statements of the final outcomes of teaching are not open to assessment since they do not define the criteria of success (Roegiers, 2006a, p. 60).

- **Availability of Integration Situations Samples**

The documents of secondary school EFL programme do not showcase sufficiently integrations situations, as a matter of fact, that only the first year syllabus includes 5 samples of situations and few others are included in the syllabus accompanying documents. Roegiers (2006a) has stressed that the Algerian syllabuses should provide samples of both integrative and exploratory learning situations in the syllabus documents. All these tasks are new to teachers, so typical examples of situations illustrated in the syllabuses and the textbooks would help practitioners better understand these concepts (p. 58).

- **Demonstrated Mastery of Learning Objectives**

A competency in the pedagogy of integration, as De Ketele and his colleagues (1989) have argued, is exercised in a complex situation (p. 100). The outcome of learning in CBE is then the acquisition of basic life skills and the ultimate purpose of

learning in an integrative pedagogy is the application of knowledge and skills in an integration situation. In line with the pedagogy of integration, the three secondary school textbooks attempt to equip the learners with knowledge, values and skills to use them actively in a communicative situation. This competency is exercised in project work since it is the only target or integration situation scheduled for the end of the units. This macro-task of project work involves a series of sub-task, but all these sub-topics of project work measure the written competency. Besides, since project work is defective and dysfunctional (Boukentache, 2012) and secondary to the learning process (Aimour, 2011), the students are not truly guided to achieve the intermediary competencies defined for each unit.

It has been argued in the syllabuses that the English programmes intend primarily to promote competencies; but when it comes to the final assessment of the attainment of competencies, these syllabuses completely revert to objective-based pedagogy that they seek to replace. Summative assessment is presented in the syllabus in the following way:

Certification (summative-assessment) is a means to inform the learner and the teacher the degree of attainment of a set of objectives. It is carried out at the end of a term, year, or grade and allows making decisions with respect to the ranking and success or failure of the students. (Translated from French by the researcher, SE1 Syllabus, 2005, p. 10)

As implied in the quote above, summative assessment in the Algerian syllabuses simply means the accomplishment of a set of objectives, rather than the performance of an inclusive competency.

Consequently, the link between teaching and assessment is not strong and it is rather disparaging. Roegiers (2006a) has argued that the Algerian syllabuses do not exhibit a coherent plan for assessment (2006a, p. 54). Accordingly, the syllabus designers have introduced many innovations for process assessment (e.g. self-assessment), but they have ignored product assessment. Roegiers has added that this is mainly due to the absence of precise learner exit profile and learning experiences that reflect this student profile.

Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary school teachers do not implement performance-based assessment through project work. The observed teachers did not lead their students to exhibit the learning targets of the units portrayed more or less in project work. But, again even project work is not completely representative of the terminal competencies being targeted and the projects do not relate to each other to work towards the achievement of any particular target competency. This is probably why Miliani (n.d.) has stated that the units are not coherent enough and achieving one single aim (p. 5). Unless the syllabuses clearly and precisely define the learner exit profile (Roegiers, 2006a, p. 54), and the terminal competency is interpreted in a form of a complex task; the syllabus designers, textbook writers, teachers, and students will never have a clear view of the programme with respect to both teaching and assessment.

- **Competency Assessment in the BAC Test**

The analysis of the BAC test showed that the format and the content of the test have not changed. Much like the earlier BAC tests implemented under the objective-based pedagogy, the competency BAC is not competency at all. The application of the criteria of performance-based testing of the pedagogy of integration showed that the BAC is focused on the assessment of resources (content and linguistic skills). According to Roegiers (2005a), one of the precepts of the pedagogy of integration is the accreditation of the learner through solving everyday tasks, rather than the measurement of knowledge (p. 121). The measurement of these fragments of knowledge and skills should not exceed 25 % (Gerard, 2006, p. 103) or 50% (Roegiers, 2005b, p. 149) of the total content of the certification assignment.

Additionally, as shown in the figure below, less than half of the percentage of the test items is justified from a competency-based viewpoint, and the 30% of the test framework devoted to competency testing shows serious defects in the design of testing tasks.

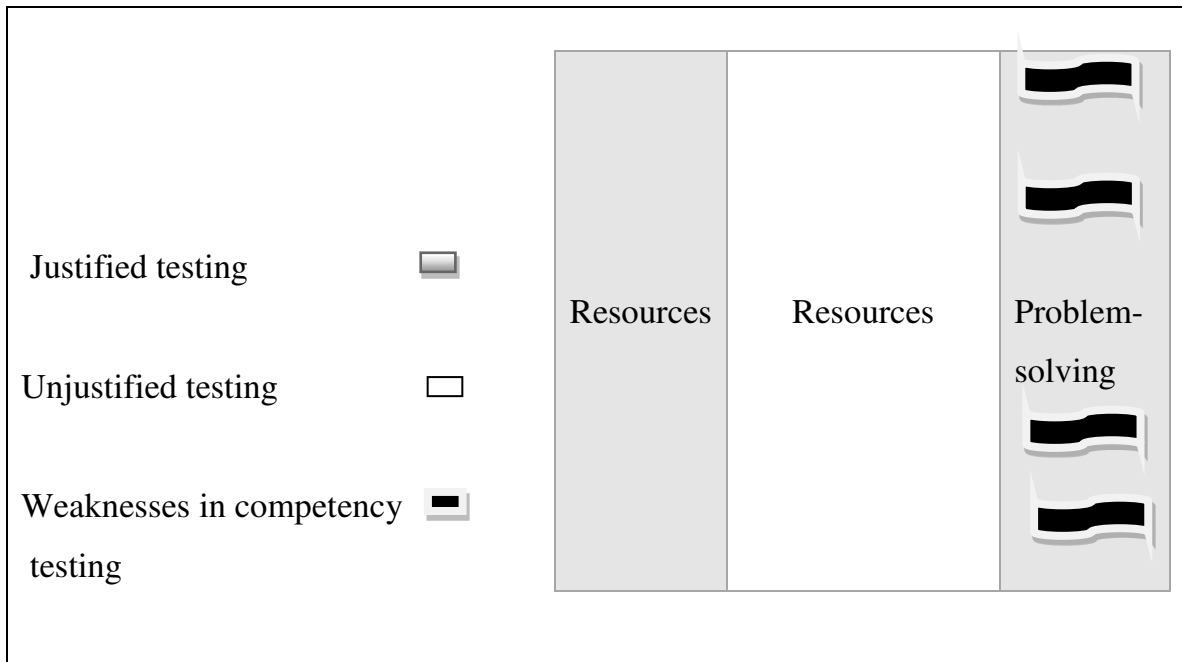


Figure 6.1: Competency-based appropriateness of the BAC test items

As illustrated in Figure 6.1, of the 70 % of testing items employed in the BAC test, only 17 % is justified. Likewise, competency-testing that occupies a small percentage of the test framework is not fully accommodating for the requirement of problem-solving tasks that constitute the key lever in determining attainment of competencies.

In addition, the *Written Expression* phase of the test does not apply the rule of two-thirds set up by De Ketele (1996); it does not portray the multifacedness format of performance tests, and it does not feature the quality of meaningfulness. More importantly, the test does not invest in integration.

In contrast to objective-based tasks, integration situations require from the learner the mobilisation of different types of resources to solve a problem-situation (Roegiers, 2006a, p. 71; Gerard, 2006, p. 89). The variety of resources in competency testing stems from the multiplicity of objectives we seek to evaluate. Disciplinary objectives, interdisciplinary objectives, cognitive objectives, and life skills are usually represented in competency testing tasks. The analysis of the BAC test showed that it does not involve this generic integrative component. The test assesses the elements of a competency separately. Roegiers (2006a) has warned against this practice and termed it “disguised restitution of knowledge” (p.72).

It is noteworthy to point out that providing testees with the kind of elements to be invested in the task, as it is the case in the first activity of the *Written Expression* phase of the BAC test, strips the testing activity from its substance. One of the objectives of complex situations is to measure the student's ability to mobilise appropriate resources, either in terms of skills or content. This result concurs with Aouine's (2011) findings in which he has pointed out that providing students with clues in the first question of *Written Expression* makes the test less demanding and valid (p. 169). On this issue, Roegiers (2006a) has noted that in a competency assessment test, students should not be supplied with the elements of the solution and then simply invite them to apply the rules they acquired in class; rather, they ought to start first by identifying resources necessary for the completion of the task (p. 71).

Moreover, Miliani (n.d.) has pointed out that although the BAC test assesses mostly discrete items, the students are only succinctly prepared for these kinds of activities included in this official test. This is because the textbooks purport to teach competencies and promote participatory pedagogy, and because they include few or occasional activities that resemble the BAC test. The gap between the teaching and assessment procedures is, consequently, noticeable. As Roegiers (2006a) has argued, the Algerian programmes lack a clear description of what is actually significant to the learner (54). Roegiers has added that the syllabuses, in general, cite macro and micro objectives separately, but never at once. This clarification agrees with the findings of this study.

The English secondary school syllabuses list the objectives of the three target competencies (i.e. interpretation, interaction, and production) in isolation and fail to work out a generic task that unites them. The same thing goes for the other types of skills (social and cognitive) linked to these language competencies; they are all stated as discrete items with no generic objective uniting them. Thus, it could be said that the Algerian language syllabuses are based on standards than on integration. No wonder then that the levels of achievements of the English programmes are based on the CEFR model of competency.

Furthermore, the BAC test does not apply the rule of 3/4. This rule states that 3/4 of the global mark of a test should be focused on basic learning targets (De Ketele,

2010, p. 34). That is, if the mark is on 20 points, 15 points should aim at assessing fundamental (minimal) learning targets, while 5 points should be assigned for advanced criteria.

Finally, The BAC correction sample identifies only two criteria for the correction of the written production: content and form. Employing only two standards for assessing complex tasks might lead to a subjective view of the written production. Form and content are two independent factors to consider in any complex production, but teachers find it extremely difficult to adhere to these criteria; most of the time they are influenced by the “Halo effect” (De Ketele (2010, p. 33), that is, they are influenced, for instance, by the content and they ignore the form. In De Ketele’s view, the fact that the scoring of the criteria converges to a single mark makes compliance to independent standards even more difficult. For this reason, De Ketele has suggested using a grid to signal the complexity of the task. This assessment grid typically includes a number of assessment criteria along with their possible performance values.

Table 6.1: *Assessment of Language Complex Tasks* (adapted from De Ketele, 2010, p. 30)

Levels of mastery	Minimal criteria			Advanced criteria	
	<i>Criterion 1 Pertinence</i>	<i>Criterion 2 Reasoning</i>	<i>Criterion 3 Language</i>	<i>Criterion 4 Originality</i>	<i>Criterion 5 Balance</i>
Total absence	0	0	0	0	0
Partial mastery	2	2	2	1	0
Minimal mastery	4	4	4	2	1
Maximal mastery	5	5	5	3	2
Total	15/20			5/20	

The above framework adapted from De Ketele (2010, p. 34) highlights the complexity of the task and invites the scorer to respect the measurement standards, and consequently, get rid of subjective assessment of complex tasks. What is more, as De Ketele (2010, p. 34) and Roegiers (2010a, p. 199) have asserted, it can contribute to

overcoming abusive failures that occur because of subjectivity or simply the use of one single criterion for correcting a complex and multifaceted task. Indeed, how many teachers naively penalise students and assign very low marks because of a poor linguistic performance despite a rich content or even originality of the work? This tendency towards a global view of a complex task usually unfairly throws away invaluable efforts of learners!

In short, the Algerian language syllabuses, in general, do not use performance-based assessment; rather students are assessed through tests, and the different elements of the targeted objectives are assessed separately. It has been argued that this is due to the fact that the syllabuses fail to identify the precise student exit profile. Since CBE starts from the analysis of the concrete needs of the students in terms of basic language needs, it is these basic tasks that should constitute the target of assessment and that should form the basis for formulating the objectives of learning from which the learning tasks are then devised.

In summary, this heading has shown that the secondary school textbooks and syllabuses do not reach the learning standards set up for the end of secondary school grade. As far as the secondary school English textbooks are concerned, they are not well-aligned with the syllabus recommendations. These pupils' books seem crammed with innovations and adopting a global CBE's model rather than the pedagogy of integration. The absence of target situations for assessing the OTI, the absence of an integration module (week of integration), and the absence of a family of situations all testify that the textbooks are not harmonious with the pedagogy of integration. Miliani (n.d.) has similarly raised this problem of external congruency (textbooks and pedagogy of integration) and internal match (textbooks and syllabuses), saying that the compatibility is only partial (p. 4). This definitely stems from the difficulty of disassociating the pedagogy of integration from the other pedagogies (e.g. PBL or TBL) that similarly apply integration.

Additionally, there is a lack of dissociation of the pedagogy of integration from other competency-based models, especially from the Anglo-Saxon model of CBE. Roegiers (2010a) has explained that this is due to the lack of communication on the fact that there is no single form of CBE (p. 176).

Moreover, these books in question are engrossed in pedagogical innovations such as applications of TBL, employment of project work, and the implementation of communicative teaching techniques that are at the vogue. These entire innovations blur the competency intents of the textbooks. Furthermore, the textbooks seem equally linguistically-and content-driven; more specifically, they incorporate the teaching of resources which are not firmly linked to the target competencies (Miliani, nd, p. 5). This is probably motivated by the nature of the BAC test that is based on the assessment of isolate items (Aouine, 2011, p. IV).

By contrast, the syllabuses achieve the external congruency; they are well-aligned with the core principles of the pedagogy of integration, and they seem almost exclusively based on this integrative pedagogy, with the exception of the inclusion of project work which is not fervently promoted in this instructional approach. Roegiers (2010a) has regarded the presence of competing integrative pedagogies as a threat to the implementation of a competency-based integrative pedagogy (pp. 175-176). Actually, Participatory and integrative pedagogies such as those of project work increase disparities in educational systems because they confront the learner directly with problem-solving tasks (Roegiers, 2007). By contrast, the pedagogy of integration works on resources before tackling complex activities.

Moreover, the syllabuses explain and emerge the concepts of the pedagogy of integration such as the concepts of OTI and integration situations, and it explains comprehensively the assessment methods. However, improvements are needed especially with respect to a clear identification of the student exit profile and the formulation of competencies in a more concrete manner.

6.5. Recommendations for Competency-Based Syllabuses and Textbooks

Based on the findings derived from this study and supported by previous research studies, the following pedagogical recommendations are made to make secondary school textbooks and syllabuses more competency-oriented.

- **Stating Publicly Life Skill Objectives**

Instead of stating terminal competencies in terms of academic mastery (Roegiers, 2006a, p. 55), the syllabuses and the textbooks must state the terminal objective of integration in terms of basic life tasks that the students are required to do at the end of

the course of study. Rather than specifying that ‘the student will be able to produce a written text of 20 lines’, it is more convenient to state it in the following way:

The learners will be able to interpret simple daily spoken English messages in face-to-face interaction or on phone and respond intelligibly, and will be able to respond in writing to friendship and business letters (e.g. emails, invitations, and applications) not involving specialised language. (Researcher’s data)

Such a terminal English language competency involves the three basic English language competencies of interpretation, interaction, and production. It fulfills the three requirements of performance-nature, conditions of execution, and standards of achievements (Hodge, 2007, p. 186; Nunan, 2007, p. 423). Roegiers (2006a) has conversely proposed identifying each of the three basic competencies in isolation (p. 57), but it is more convenient to unite the language competencies in one objective since this is how people apply language for daily activities.

From this notion of OTI (terminal objective), the syllabus designers devise life tasks that could serve as landmarks for summative assessment and for devising instructional tasks (Roegiers, 2006a, p. 57). For instructional purposes, the syllabus designers could present the competencies of interpretation, interaction, and production separately. For instance, the interpretation competency for first-year level could be formulated as follows.

By the end of first-year, the learner will be able to interpret almost all communicative written/spoken messages such as phone calls, emails, and invitations delivered in everyday English. (Researcher’s data)

Such an objective should figure clearly in both the syllabus and the textbook.

From the above terminal objective for the competency of interpretation, the syllabus designers derive intermediate objectives such as interpreting e-mails, interpreting business letters, interpreting invitations, interpreting friendly phone calls, and interpreting business phone calls. These intermediate objectives will serve in their turn to devise specific objectives such as listening for a gist, listening for specifics, familiarising students with daily phone vocabulary, and interpreting adequately the opening of conversations (dealing with phatic language). Finally, the textbook designers identify the possible resources (not only the language realisations, but also

the skills of *savoir-faire* and *savoir-être*). All these indications should emerge in the textbook to ensure adequate guidance for teachers. These objectives could take the following format in the textbooks.

Objectives of Learning in First-Year

Target Competencies:

Interpretation: *listening and reading*

Interaction: *speaking*

Production: *speaking and writing*

Terminal Objective of Integration for the Acquisition of English in the First Year

The learners will be able to interpret simple daily spoken English messages in face-to-face interaction or on phone and respond intelligibly, and will be able to respond in writing to friendship and business letters (e.g. emails, invitations, and applications) not involving specialized language.

Terminal Objective of Integration for the Competency of Interpretation

By the end of first-year, the learner will be able to interpret almost all communicative written/spoken messages such as phone calls, emails, and invitations delivered in everyday English.

Intermediary Objectives of the Competency of Interpretation

- interpreting e-mails
- interpreting business letters
- interpreting invitations
- interpreting friendly phone calls
- and interpreting business phone calls

Specific Objectives for Email Interpretation

- Reading for a gist
- Reading for details
- Spotting keywords in written texts
- Interpreting the structures of emails (opening, business, and closing)
- Identifying phrases used for starting business
- Identifying recurring phrases for closing a business

- Interpreting the functions of emails in a screenshot
- Distinguishing formal language from the informal language
- Distinguishing poor emails from well-written ones
- Interpreting keywords related to emails

Potential Resources for Interpreting Emails

- **Language Resources:**
- **Vocabulary:** sender, recipient, carbon copy, forward, email box
- **Structures:** In order to form, present continuous, would you/would you mind, please?
- **Interdisciplinary Resources**
- Reading intently
- Interpreting messages collaboratively
- Assisting students who lack an understanding of the message
- Searching for key difficult words in the dictionary or on the web

Figure 6.2: Emergence of learning targets in the first year textbook (Researcher's personal data)

The above explicit guidance about the objectives of teaching/learning would impart clearly to the teachers what is expected from them and could familiarise them with the type of competencies they should teach, thereby allowing them to communicate easily their objectives to their students.

- **Lowering the Bar of Standards**

This study has shown that the teachers, students, and inspectors claimed that the pupils lack appropriate linguistic means to immerse themselves appropriately and full-heartedly in the programme. Many other previous studies have equally shown so (Milinai, n.d.; Belouahem, 2008, Aimeur, 2011; Aouine, 2011; Boukhentache, 2012). Thus, it is more appropriate, and because of conditions of teaching in the Algerian context (large classes, low level of teacher proficiency, and lack of professional qualifications) to go down in the level of CEFR, which is used to determine the language levels for English language teaching. The B1 and B1 + levels specified for second year Algerian EFL classes (AEF, 2008, p. 1) might be too demanding for the

Algerian contexts. Maybe, it could be more useful and effective to use the level of B1 for second-year and initiate the students to B1+ only in the third year (please refer to Table 1.1. for more information on the standards of these levels).

- **Focusing on the Basics**

Since the standards of achievements for secondary school teaching are not achieved in both socio-economically different contexts (e.g. Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary schools), it is advisable to focus teaching more on disciplinary functional language use than on transversal competencies. It is absurd to request students to talk at the level of abstractions when they lack a minimum of mastery of English language. For instance, the following technological competency outlined in the syllabuses is not reachable for students with low level of proficiency: *searching on the internet scientific articles dealing with viral illnesses in the world (plagues) and with technological and industrial development* (SE2 syllabus, 2006, p. 10). One should not close eyes on the fact that the pupils could not converse or understand matters of ecology and industry or world affairs in English; the majority of them lack the language and other research competencies to do so.

Roegiers (2011) has warned that transversal competencies should be applied when the students have acquired a reasonable level of proficiency in the language. This does not mean throwing transversal competencies under the carpet, but they should not constitute the main entry to the curriculum, nor should they blur the basic aims of the syllabuses.

Including such interdisciplinary competencies could only favour certain students at the expense of the majority. The pedagogy of integration seeks to teach equitably all the students the cognitive skills of problem-solving and the spirit of critical analysis and thinking (Becker et al., 2012; Roegiers, 2008). Therefore, these indispensable competencies dictated by the requirements of modern times should be taught in other subjects wherein language is not problematic for the pupils.

- **Fostering Teacher Training**

This study has demonstrated that both the teachers and the inspectors lack appropriate training to implement and bring the pedagogy of integration to fruition (Miliani, n.d.; Ameziane & Guendouzi, 2005; Belouahem, 2008, Benzerroug, n.d.;

Boukhentache, 2012; Benadla, 2013). This factor is widely recognized and adequately predicted by the educational officials during the onset of the School Reform. And, Roegiers (2011) has underscored that incompetent and unprepared teachers could distort the potentials of an integrative pedagogy.

As the inspectors lack themselves the required skills to train their teachers in competency-based classroom practices, it is necessary to resort to external training. The teachers should be trained by university teachers specialised in TEFL (Benzeroug, n.d.; Belouahem, 2011). The Ministry of Education should sponsor special training projects to ensure adequate external teaching that would be directly delivered to teachers. Given the current state of schools, and given the teacher competency-based profile, distance teacher training initiated in 2005 (Kadri, 2005, p. 180) seems to have failed, and so is the training that inspectors were supposed to pass down to teachers (Tawil, 2005, pp. 40-41). At the local level, inspectors and teachers should organise workshops for designing integration situations and exploratory situations, because the pedagogy of integration is simply objective-based pedagogy plus integration, either periodical or summative.

- **Slimming down Syllabuses**

The Algerian syllabuses are overloaded, and this bogs down the acquisition of competencies. Teachers then rush their pupils through lessons and prepare them to take exams. This fact is also worsened by teachers toeing the textbooks from A to Z and large class size. On the basis of these findings, it seems advisable to shorten and limit the number of units and give enough time for the students to acquire resources and apply integrations skills. This proposal is supported by similar studies: For example, Aimeur (2011) has suggested reducing the number of units of *Getting through* (p. 129); and Boukhentache (2012) has put forward the slimming down of the first year textbook, *At the Crossroads*. Others raising the same problem have recommended augmenting the time allotted for the study of English (e.g. Belouahem, 2011). But, such measures take place at the level of curriculum design and decision-making; therefore, at the level of syllabus design, it is more feasible to simplify the contents of the units.

- **Adapting CBE to the Local Socio-Cultural Context**

The topics and contents of the units should feature the Algerian culture while giving synopses of the socio-cultural component inherent to English. Topics that relate directly to the learner lives might be more motivating for the students, and instrumentalising the Algerian culture to acquire English could address adequately the problem of negative perceptions towards foreign languages. Moreover, this study points out that CBE should be adapted to the culture of the teacher, that is, the procedures of implementation of this pedagogical approach should reflect the needs of the teachers and the students with respect explicit guidance. It is advisable to make explicit for the students and teachers the purposes, goals, and resources of instruction, and show them how activities relate to each other, or how separate activities relate to the whole (Nunan, 1995). Since the teachers truly lack competence in CBE, it is erroneous to think they will read the syllabuses and understand the intricacies of this system.

- **Fostering Pair Work**

The current study highlights that pair work is more favoured by both the students and the teachers probably because of class size; By the same token, Ur (2009) has asserted that pair work is far better than group work in large heterogeneous classes (p. 3). Therefore, it follows to focus more in the textbook on paired activities than group activities. Exploratory situations, then, should be assigned to pairs while integration situations could be solved individually.

- **Providing Explicit Guidance**

The textbooks and the syllabuses should supply explicit instructions and guidance on how to implement the innovative programme. The pedagogy of integration is by its competency nature an explicit approach to education. The objectives of learning and standards of assessment are made public in priori. However, in the Algerian competency-based setting and because of the relatively newness and probably complexity of CBE, the teachers and the students should be well-informed about the terminal competencies, the intermediary objectives, the specific objectives, and the resources of each competency (see the figure 6.2 above).

Nunan (1995) has argued that showing to students how separate activities are linked to the whole would help them understand the overall drives of the syllabus. This relevant insight could be applied in the Algerian context by showing the resources of each competency and how specific objectives relate to broader objectives or to terminal competencies. For this particular reason, the researcher suggests using the following learning diary to link the contents of learning to their corresponding objectives/competencies:

Competency	Interpretation	Interaction	Production
Learning gains	-.....	-.....	-.....
	-.....	-.....	-.....
	-.....	-.....	-.....
	-.....	-.....	-.....

Figure 6.3: Competency-based diary (Researcher’s data)

This simple tool could be used on a daily basis by the students to display their learning gains; it is made simple on purpose to facilitate its use. Such a diary could raise the teachers’ awareness towards the target competencies, and thus better guide their students towards their achievements. Nunan (1995) has stressed that levels of motivation and interest could be significantly raised once the students are told why they are learning any given activity.

- **Incorporating Project Work into the Integration Framework**

Project work should play a key role in integrating the newly learned items, but its status, as it stands, in the secondary school textbooks is secondary (Aimeur, 2011). Consequently, the didactic units do not cater sufficiently for its needs in terms of skills and language, and the teachers have no time to spare for making provision for these shortcomings. Because of this defective strategy which forces project-based instruction into the learning process, this study proposes to carefully structure the projects and make them compulsory steps in the achievements of the objectives of the instructional units.

In order to structure the projects carefully and effectively, the textbook designers need to implement the following recommendations that have been demonstrated earlier:

- Setting the project plan and guidelines at the unit opening
- Incorporating project workshops at the end of each sequence of the unit
- Providing explicit guidance (Boukhentache, 2012, pp. 90-97)

However, given the nature of projects which are “the most learner-centered” of the communicative language teaching approaches (Eyring, 1997, p. 2), and given the nature of pedagogy of integration which requires special weeks for integration, it is advisable to eliminate this learning technique from the textbooks and syllabuses.

- **Adding Integration Module into Textbooks and Syllabuses**

The syllabuses hinted to the use of a single week of integration after 3 weeks of regular teaching (SE2 Syllabus, 2006, p. 21), but they do not give more explanations and guidance, and the textbooks do not apply this strategy. Scheduling a week of integration after 3 weeks of ordinary teaching will raise the teacher awareness towards this fundamental skill of integration (Boukhentache, 2016). However, this syllabus pattern should be outlined explicitly in the textbook and made an indispensable step in the learning process, and the inspectors should be instructed to supervise its strict application.

- **Employing Meaningful Activities for Integration Moments**

Integration situations have to be meaningful. One of the functions of integrative textbooks is the application of the learned items to real-life situations (Peyser et al., 2006). It is during these activities that learners apply not only the linguistic resources, but also other instrumental competencies and cognitive capacities. While the pedagogy of integration allows imparting knowledge when installing resources, integration moments should be marked by work on real-world tasks (Roegiers, 2018).

- **Providing Banks of Integration Situations in the Syllabuses**

Although the first year syllabus includes a set of integration situations, they are not sufficient and meaningful enough. Therefore, the syllabuses should include

genuine and more samples of complex tasks relevant to the aims of the syllabuses (Roegiers, 2006a) in order to help the teachers who cannot design them.

- **Supplying Target Situations in the Textbooks and Syllabuses**

Another form of integration situations that are used for summative assessment (i.e. performance-based task) is called target situations (Roegiers, 2003). Whatever be the model of CBE adopted for teaching, assessment should be carried out through demonstrated mastery of the learning targets. The syllabuses should work out terminal target situations and present them as reference points for the overall appraisal of the programme and for assessing students' attainments of learning objectives (Roegiers, 2006a, p. 58). Also, these situations should equally be presented at the end of the textbooks or at the end of the teaching sequences for assessment purposes. They should be complex, meaningful, and involve a family of situations (Roegiers, 2003).

- **Using Heterogeneous Teaching Materials**

The materials supplied in the Algerian secondary school textbooks are homogeneous, addressing the average level. However, CBE adheres to differentiated learning in that students are permitted to work at their own pace to achieve the required mastery. Thus, improvements are required in the design of teaching materials: Firstly, the textbooks should both provide enrichment and corrective activities at the end of sequences, ideally, after the integration moments; secondly, pair work activities should be "peer edited" (Ur, 2009, p. 3) as in the example given below, that is, likely to be done in pairs than individually.

E.g: Take turns with your partner asking and responding about your daily routines.

You: What do you usually have for breakfast?

Your partner: (Researcher's data)

Moreover, the tasks should be varied to address different learning styles, and the audio-materials for the listening scripts should accompany the textbooks. Many learners would exploit them as self-access materials and probably increase their motivation and upgrade their levels. Furthermore, it is advisable to allow individual choice of activities and include both compulsory and optional activities for faster workers (Ur, 2009, p. 7).

- **Integrating Information and Communication Technologies**

The technological means of research should be exploited in class rather than assigned to project work outside the classroom. Learners should be introduced to researching basic information on the internet and know how to exploit them appropriately (e.g. spotting the right pieces of knowledge, extracting it, processing it, and storing it). Special sessions during the module of integration should be carried out in media rooms, and such activities should require internet use to be solved. Under the supervision of the teacher and through peer-tutoring, most students would learn to exploit the basics of the computers for research purposes.

Moreover, the students should practise the use of data show for presenting simple research projects. Hopefully, these integration or learning situations would allow the students to “search information, analyze information, and explain information” (Peyser et al., 2006, p. 3).

- **Including Performance-Based Assessment in the BAC Test**

This study (as well as other similar studies) has indicated that the BAC test is mainly based on the assessment of discrete language items (language content and skills-Aouine, 2011). The BAC test, which constitutes a certification assessment, should be carried out through complex tasks, and the “internal resources” (Poumay et al., 2017, p. 22); or simply the linguistic contents and skills should only constitute 25 % of the percentage of the tasks of the exam (Gerard, 2006, p. 103). The complex situations which should be used for assessment purposes have to include support documents, task, and instructions (Roegiers, 2003). The current BAC test does not include supporting materials which could be exploited meaningfully to solve the task at hand; rather, it is based on the implementation of traditional school activities.

Moreover, the current study advocates the use of De Ketele’s (1996) rule of two out of three to ensure the validity of the test. Instead of providing the test-takers with two separate questions for choice, as it is the case now in the BAC test, the test constructors should give the testees one global question including three equivalent tasks. If the learner solves successfully two out of three, he/she is declared competent and successful.

Furthermore, another suggestion for upgrading the competency orientation of the test concerns the correction of the learners' copies or of the complex situations. De Ketele's (2010) rule of three out of four, which allots 15/20 for assessment of basic requirements and 5/20 for assessment of perfectionment, is suggested to upgrade the objectivity of criterion marking.

- **Using Peer-Assessment Grids in the Textbooks**

The textbooks include self-assessment schedules, but overlook peer-assessment grids. Additionally, classroom observations showed that the teachers seldom use self- and peer-assessment. Furthermore, placing self-assessment at the end of units seems less productive, and the syllabus recommendations for executing peer-assessment (SE2 syllabus, 2006, p. 7) are not applied. Consequently, this current work proposes the use of self-assessment grids at the end of instructional sequences, and preferably after the week of integration in order to include not only linguistic resources, but also instrumental and cognitive competencies in assessment. Roegiers (2006a) has suggested attaching self-assessment grids for each integration situation (p. 62).

As for peer-assessment, although it is explicitly shown how to use it in the secondary school English accompanying documents, the teachers and the learners do not use it, maybe because, as indicated in the questionnaires, they do not read the syllabuses. It follows then to reach the teachers again through the textbooks. Peer-assessment grids such as the one supplied below could be employed for collaborative didactic or integrative situations. This is not only to assess learners' achievement, but also to sensitize teachers to their significance.

Aspects of the task	Yes	No
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Language resources: - The group/student used new words - 		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Social skills - The group/ the student eyed the audience - 		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cognitive skills - The group/the student articulated various elements of the task - 		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - -Technological (research) skills - Brought new and pertinent information on the topic from the internet - 		

Figure 6.4: Peer-assessment grid (Researcher's data)

As the content of the task depends largely on the nature of the task, such an instrumental tool could be determined through negotiation between the teacher and the students. The task of the syllabus designers then is, for instance, to provide categories of competencies illustrated through examples. This instrument could be used mainly in oral and written productions during the implementation of integration situations/learning situations/process writing/project work.

- **Encouraging Teachers and Inspectors to Read the Syllabuses**

It is frustrating that a significant number of the teachers were found unfamiliar with the syllabuses and their accompanying documents. The syllabuses actually contain invaluable materials for implementing CBE the way it should be. Therefore, inspectors should be asked to devote most of the district seminars for a collaborative reading and discussion of the syllabuses, and professional promotion From PES (Secondary School Teacher) to Principle PES or to PES Trainer should require reasonable expertise in syllabus practices, so should be the professional promotion to the rank of teacher supervisor (inspector). Furthermore, the confirmation of teachers to the rank of permanent PES should include testing the module of the syllabus.

- **Specifying of the Learner Exit Profile**

A Competency-based syllabus should publicly and clearly describe the student exit profile. The Algerian secondary school syllabuses define the learner leaving profile in terms of linguistic competence, and Roegiers (2006a) has remarked on this point that the linguistic elements are not synonymous with the term resources. Therefore, he has specified the following components of the learner exit profile:

- It should be realistic
- It mentions a given level of tuition
- It is presented in an integrative way
- It clearly identifies the level (it finely distinguishes it from the neighbouring level)
- It should not be open to varied interpretations
- It is assessable (Roegiers, 2006a, p. 60)

Besides, it should include the following elements: the linguistic profile, the cognitive profile, the cultural profile, the social profile, and the economic profile (Roegiers, 2006, p. 59).

On the basis of these clarifications and on the basis of the learning/teaching intents stated in the syllabuses, the Algerian English language profile for the secondary school grade for the competency of interpretation could be formulated as follows:

By the end of third-year, the student will be able to develop good listening manners and reading skills with respect descriptive, narrative, expository, or persuasive texts of 20 lines and react verbally and non-verbally to the communicative message imparted in those texts. The student can recall dates and places of the passage, extract its main ideas, tend to its details, question it, reformulate the opinion expressed in it, and form a personal opinion.
(Researcher's data)

This profile exhibits the criteria of the level, conditions, standards, linguistic competencies, cognitive acts, and motor skills. More skills could be exploded from the elements of the profile. For instance, good listening manners would include listening intently and keeping on listening despite difficulties.

Conclusion

This chapter has interpreted the major and the most significant findings derived from the application of the research tools (Questionnaire, document analysis, classroom observation, and follow-up interview). These findings were compared with other findings that have been reported in the literature. Equally, the chapter has answered the research questions and presented the contextually relevant rationale for making the Algerian secondary school EFL textbooks and syllabuses more communicative and competency-based.

As far as the first research question is concerned (the extent to which the syllabuses are based on the pedagogy of integration), the findings show that the secondary school EFL syllabuses exhibit numerous of the fundamental principles of pedagogy of integration such as the concepts of OTI and situations of integration, but they need improvement especially with regard to the concrete identification of the student exit profile, use of the notion of intermediary integration situations, and provision of explicit guidance.

With regard to the second research question (the extent to which the textbooks apply the pedagogy of integration), the textbooks seem less adherent to the pedagogy of integration, and thereby incorporating parallel integrative pedagogies. In fact, the syllabuses seem more competency-based than the textbooks, and, consequently, the latter does not interpret authentically the recommendations set up in the syllabuses.

With reference to the third research question (the types of learning objectives of secondary school EFL syllabuses and textbooks), the findings of this study indicate that the secondary school English language syllabuses have very ambitious learning objectives, including linguistic, social, cognitive, and economic objectives; yet, the programme users seem to have rather more traditional representations of English language teaching/learning, ignoring the role that transversal and instrumental competencies play in the current syllabuses and textbooks. This mismatch in learning objectives naturally affects, as demonstrated through classroom observation, questionnaires, and interviews, the successful attainment of the required learning standards.

Concerning the fourth research topic, (whether or not the pupils achieve the learning objectives set up in the syllabuses), this study points out that the Algerian secondary school EFL pupils are incapable of achieving the learning targets specified in the students' exit profiles. This holds true for the two target schools with their different and varying socio-cultural and educational parameters.

As regards to the fifth and last research problem (the major impediments to the application of the pedagogy of integration), the research tools revealed that apart from the syllabuses' and textbooks' limitations, the major hurdles that impede genuine applications of an active integrative pedagogy in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary school EFL classes are the problems of large classes, heavy syllabuses, lack of adequate teacher and inspector professional training, and the learners' weak learning prerequisites.

On the basis of the above findings, the researcher has suggested a number of recommendations which constitute a rationale for making the Algerian secondary school EFL syllabuses and textbooks more competency-based. Most of the recommendations revolve around making the programmes more aligned with the pedagogy of integration. Intervention instruments such as peer-assessment grids and learning diaries are suggested to provide explicit guidance on the matters of applications, resources, and objectives. The additional guidance is meant to close the gap of the deficiency of teacher education and to raise the learner awareness towards the overall aims of competency-based syllabuses.

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

The pedagogy of integration has been applied to the Algerian EFL syllabuses and textbooks, namely, *At the Crossroads*, *Getting through*, and *New Prospects* since 2005. It has been hoped that this promising approach, for instance, would make the Algerian EFL classes more geared towards the achievement of the functional use of language contents and the promotion of socio-cognitive capacities.

This study has attempted to evaluate competency-based EFL teaching textbooks and syllabuses in two Algerian secondary schools-namely, Maouche Idriss School in Bejaia and Slimani Slimane School in Djelfa. It has, first, identified the competency-based objectives set up for the syllabuses and textbooks and surveyed their attainment. Then, it has examined whether the textbooks and the syllabuses are in harmony with the pedagogy of integration. After that, the potential hurdles to the application of a genuine pedagogy of integration have been investigated. Ultimately, it has established a localized rationale for the design and formulation of competency-based syllabuses and textbooks in the Algerian EFL context and has provided a sample competency-based unit.

In order to achieve the research purposes identified above, the researcher has reviewed the pertinent literatures of CBE, the pedagogy of integration, and the Algerian EFL curricula applied since the 2002 School Reform. CBE has been shown as an old approach to education dating back to the onset of objective-based pedagogy in the opening of the 20th century. Criticism of objective-based pedagogy and other socio-economic factors (such process of socialisation of immigrants) led to the appearance of CBE in the 1960s in its most widely known form today.

As far as the pedagogy of integration is concerned, it has been argued that it is a composite of CBE that integrates distinct teaching guidelines in an attempt to make teaching through competencies more practical and easier. Besides, it equally constitutes another reaction to the weaknesses of the objective-based pedagogy, which has grown mainly in Belgium in the 1980s and 1990s.

Concerning the Algerian EFL curricula, it has been indicated that the Algerian School Reform of 2002 has brought radical restructuring of the whole education

system and profound changes in the design of the curricula, syllabuses, and textbooks in order to couch and promote the application of CBE.

After surveying the nature of CBE in its various forms and discussing the circumstances of its applications in the Algerian context, the researcher designed and implemented four research tools (i.e. the questionnaires, document analysis grids, classroom observation schedules, and follow-up interview) in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane secondary schools to investigate the aforementioned objectives of the study. The questionnaires were addressed to students, teachers, and inspectors to explore the objectives of teaching at secondary school EFL classes, examine the attainment of learning objectives, evaluate the competency component of the textbooks and syllabuses, and investigate the major hurdles to the achievement of the standards of success. Document analysis, in its turn, was used to analyse the competency-based extent of the textbooks, syllabuses, and BAC test. As for classroom observation, it investigated the competency-based classroom practices. The last research means, follow-up interview, further investigated the topics raised in the questionnaires or the patterns noticed during the classroom observation sessions.

The target secondary schools (Maouche Idriss in the North of Algeria and Slimani slimane in the South of Algeria) have represented different contexts for the application of the pedagogy of integration. On the whole, 115 students, 15 teachers, and 6 inspectors answered the questionnaire, and 4 sessions were observed in each of the aforementioned schools. Additionally, 3 teachers from each of the target schools participated in the follow-up interview.

The findings obtained from the implementation of the research tools in the aforesaid schools show firstly that the Algerian secondary school EFL syllabuses and textbooks outline ambitious competency-based objectives such as work on higher order cognitive skills, promotion of social and professional skills, and practice of communication. However, it appeared that the teachers, the students, and the inspectors have different objectives for teaching/learning English at secondary school. These programme users mostly focus on the teaching/learning of content and the formal system of English. Thus, no due value is given to the teaching of attitudes and life skills. It seems that this is mainly due to the teachers' and inspectors'

unpreparedness for implementing the pedagogy of integration and their neglect of the support given to them in the syllabuses.

Secondly, the students in the target schools mostly do not attain the learning objectives specified in the learners' exit profiles. That is, for instance, they cannot produce a written message of 20 lines, with few language errors, in response to a text they have heard or read.

Thirdly, the syllabuses seem in line with the pedagogy of integration promoted in the curriculum. They explain and apply most of the deep-seated precepts of this instructional approach, but they suffer from imprecision with respect to the definition of the learner exit profile and terminal or intermediary competencies/objectives; additionally, they further suffer from the paucity of concrete guidance with regard to the execution of the target competencies in day-to-day classroom practices.

Fourthly, contrary to the syllabuses, the textbooks are less aligned with the pedagogy of integration mainly because they employ other integrative pedagogies such as project work and task-based learning. They lack, for instance, clear specification of the target competencies, employment of the module of integration, use of alternative assessment procedures, and application of demonstrated mastery of competencies through target situations. Thus, they do not achieve internal congruency with their syllabuses.

Finally, overloaded syllabuses, crowded class, absence of the teacher and the inspector professional training, and learner low learning prerequisites are identified as the major impediments to a proper application of an integrative pedagogy in Maouche Idriss and Slimani Slimane Algerian EFL secondary schools.

On the whole, CBE or the pedagogy of integration is only partially implemented in the above-mentioned Algerian secondary schools; consequently, the teachers have reinvested or simply perpetuated their old teacher-fronted practices.

On the basis of the investigation of the research site through the aforesaid research means and the researcher's readings in the field of competency-based literature, a contextually sensitive competency-based rationale is put forward. Basically, most of its recommendations revolve around making the syllabuses and the textbooks harmonious with the pedagogy of integration. It is, for example, suggested

for the syllabuses to identify precisely the final objectives of integration for each level and identify corresponding real-world or equivalent tasks (family of situations) for each terminal objective of integration. Equally, it is recommended for the textbooks to substantiate more faithfully the methodological guidelines predetermined in the syllabuses in order to ensure internal congruency and reinforce the accomplishment of the targets of learning.

Moreover, and with the view of making the pedagogy of integration more applicable in the target Algerian secondary school EFL classes, notably with the teachers who have developed a psychological resistance against it, it is proposed to further enhance the principle of explicit statement of the learning targets, which is already inherent to CBE. A set of intervention plans are suggested to make the learning targets more visible to all and increase the programme users' noticing of the basics of this socio-cognitive approach to language instruction. In so doing, the researcher has suggested the use of a learning diary, a peer-assessment grid, as well as an objective-map to make the objectives of teaching/learning, the resources, and the relationships that hold them known to all.

Furthermore, in response to the contextual impediments that seem to mark the examined Algerian secondary school EFL classes, it is advised, for example, to foster pair work instead of group work, to employ heterogeneous teaching materials for the large classes, and to integrate professional encouragements for teacher training.

With regard to the issue of generalization of the findings that have stemmed from the current study to all the Algerian secondary school EFL classes, it is to be noted that the sample is too limited to claim such a privilege. Although the two schools investigated in the scope of this study belong to different Algerian contexts, they could by no means cover the innumerable variables relating to the application of the pedagogy of integration in a vast country like Algeria.

Further studies could build on the current one and examine how well the newly applied second generation CBE syllabuses and textbooks have addressed many of the textbook and syllabus shortcomings raised in this thesis. Besides, as the study has not succeeded to include the textbook authors and the syllabus designers, it would be significant to ask them why there is digression from the application of a genuine

pedagogy of integration in the Algerian classes that would, for example, make a week of integration a concrete reality as it is in other African countries.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Textbook Analysis Scheme

1. What are the objectives of English language learning outlined in the textbooks?
2. Do the textbooks state the learning objectives explicitly?
3. Do the textbooks include corrective and enrichment activities at the end of the units?
4. Do the textbooks use alternatives methods of assessment?
5. Do the textbooks adopt a functional view of language?
6. Is the teaching organised in the textbooks into units and sequences working towards the achievement of one purpose?
7. Do the textbooks promote the principles of socio-constructivism?
8. Do the textbooks propose a class of integration situations at the end of sequences, units, and books?
9. Do the textbooks promote the teaching of cognitive skills?
10. Do the textbooks consider linguistic competencies as a tool for achieving real-life competencies?
11. Do the textbooks include integration situations?
12. Does project work contribute to integration work?
13. Do the textbooks promote the use of ICTs?
14. Do the textbooks promote demonstrated mastery of learning outcomes?

Appendix B

Syllabus Analysis Schedule

- 1) What are the objectives of English language learning outlined in the syllabuses?
- 2) Do the syllabuses state the learning objectives in behavioural terms?
- 3) Do the syllabuses integrate the use of integration module?
- 4) Do the syllabuses use alternative methods of assessment?
- 5) Do the syllabuses adopt a functional view of English?
- 6) Do the syllabuses promote the socio-cognitive principles?
- 7) Do the syllabuses clear the concepts of the pedagogy of integration?
- 8) Do the syllabuses include a bank of integration situations?
- 9) Do the syllabuses include sample classes of integration situations?
- 10) Do the syllabuses precisely define the learner entry and exit profiles?
- 11) Do the syllabuses explain the concept of integration?
- 12) Do the syllabuses promote meaningful learning?
- 13) What is the role of project work in the syllabuses?
- 14) What is the role of ICTs in the syllabuses?
- 15) Do the syllabuses promote demonstrated mastery of learning objectives?

Appendix C

BAC Test Analysis Scheme

- 1-** Measurement of resources and competencies
- 2-** Application of the rule of two thirds for the testing tasks
- 3-** Multifaceted format of the assessment tasks
- 4-** Meaningfulness of assessment tasks
- 5-** Complexity of the task (integration)
- 6-** Use of the role of three out of four

Appendix: D
Teacher Questionnaire

Dear colleagues,

We would like to learn about your experience of teaching through the English language competency-based programmes currently in use in the Algerian secondary schools. Your answers and personal opinions will be treated anonymously and confidentially. So, would you, please, tick or give the answer that best corresponds to your opinion. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

I- Personal information

1. Please indicate your highest degree.

Licence in English

Licence in English language teaching (ENS)

Licence in interpretation/ translation

Master in English

Other (please, specify).....

2. Have you received any training on the implementation of competency-based language teaching/learning?

Yes No

3. If yes, please specify your answer in the table below.

Subjects of training in CBLT	Name of institution	Trainer
.....

II. Attainment of learning objectives

4. Do you think that by the end third year, most of your student could produce a written message of 20 lines with few language errors in response to a text they have heard or read?

Yes No

5. If your answer to question 3 above is no, please specify below why?

.....

III. Evaluation of the textbook and classroom practices

6. What do you think is the ultimate objective of English language teaching at secondary school? (Tick just one answer)

Teaching knowledge (grammar, lexis)

Teaching how to behave with people

Teaching to solve language tasks outside the school

Other(s), please specify.....

7. Do you tell your pupils the learning objectives of each lesson?

Yes No

8. How do your students mostly implement learning activities...?

Individually In pairs In small groups

9. Do you teach your students, for instance, how to analyse texts critically?

Yes No

10. Do the textbooks include integration situations?

Yes No

11. Do you apply the extra activities provided at the end of units?

Yes No

12. Are these activities more suitable for ...?

Less Able Students More able student Both I don't know

13. What assessment methods do you use to assess your learners?

Diaries

Portfolios

Self-assessment grids

Integration Situations

Tests

Performance tasks

14. Who does most of the work in the classroom?

The teacher The students

15. Do you provide your students with a series of integration situations to solve at the end of a sequence or unit?

Yes No

16. Do secondary school English textbooks focus on ...?

Language learning

Mobilisation of knowledge (solving real-life activities)

I don't know

17. Do you design integration situations of your own?

Yes No

18. If no, why?

.....

19. Do you think that the activities of a textbooks work towards the achievement of one task at the end of the unit?

Yes No I don't know

20. Do you teach your students in class how to search and store information through the use of media such as the internet and computers?

Yes No

21. Do you think that the activities proposed in the textbook are helpful for doing things outside the school?

Yes No I don't know

22. Do you think that project work enhances the learners' mastery of the objectives of the units?

Yes No

23. Are the teacher's books helpful for facilitating teaching?

Yes No I don't know

IV) Evaluation of the syllabus

24. Have you read the syllabus? If yes, please answer questions 25-30.

Yes No

25. Do you find it facilitative and helpful for improving teaching through competency-based teaching?

Yes No

26. Do the syllabuses specify the target competencies for each level?

Yes No I don't know

27. Do the syllabuses spell out how to carry out projects?

Yes No I don't know

28. Do the syllabuses explain how to implement the teaching of competencies?

Yes No I don't know

29. Do the syllabuses explain how to assess competencies?

Yes No I don't know

30. What do you suggest to make the syllabuses and textbooks more competency-Based?

Thank you, again, for the thought, time, and effort you have put into completing this questionnaire.

Appendix E

Learner Questionnaire

Dear students,

We would like to learn about your experience of learning through the English language competency-based textbooks currently in use in the Algerian secondary schools. Your answers and personal opinions will be treated anonymously and confidentially. So, would you, please, tick or give the answer that best corresponds to your opinion. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

I- Personal information

1. Do you receive any extra training on English language outside the classroom?

Yes No

II. Attainment of learning objectives

2. Do you think that by the end first year/second year/third year you could produce a written message of 12/15/20 lines with few language errors in response to a text you have heard or read?

Yes No

3. If your answer to question 2 above is no, please specify below why?

.....

III. Evaluation of the textbook and classroom practices

4. Could you specify your main objective for learning English in first/second/third year?

.....

5. Does the teacher tell you the objectives of learning at the beginning of the lesson?

Yes No

6. How do you usually carry out the classroom activities...?

Individually In pairs In groups

7. Do you learn in first/second/third year English language course, for instance, how to analyse texts critically?

Yes No

8. What methods of assessment do you use to assess your progress?

Diaries

Portfolios

Self-assessment grids

Integration Situations

Tests

9. Who does most of the work in the classroom?

The teacher

The students

10. Do you solve the activities provided at the end of the unit?

Yes No

11. Do the textbooks include integration situations?

Yes No

12. Does your teacher provide you with a series of integration situations to solve at the end of each sequence or unit?

Yes No

13. Do you learn in class how to search and store information through the use of media such as the internet and computers?

Yes No

14. Do you think that the activities you do in the classroom are helpful for doing things outside the school?

Yes No

15. Do you think that project work improves your learning?

Yes No

16. What do you suggest to make the secondary school English classes more active?

.....

Thank you, again, for the thought, time, and effort you have
put into completing this questionnaire.

Appendix F
Inspector Questionnaire

Dear colleagues,

We would like to learn from your experience of teaching through the English language competency-based textbooks currently in use in the Algerian secondary schools. Your answers and personal opinions will be treated anonymously and confidentially. So, would you, please, tick or give the answer that best corresponds to your opinion.

I- Personal information

1. Please indicate your highest degree.

Licence in English

Licence in English language teaching (ENS)

Licence in interpretation/ translation

Master in English

2. How long have you been working as an inspector?

1-5 years 6-10 11-15 More than 15

3. As an inspector, have you received any training on the implementation of CBA?

Yes No

4. If yes, please specify your answer in the table below.

Subjects of in-service training	Name of institution	Trainer	Place	Date
.....

5. Have you organised district seminars about CBA?

Yes No

6. If yes, please specify the topics in the table below:

1.....	2.....
--------	--------

II. Attainment of learning objectives

7. Do you think that by the end of third year most of the students could produce a written message of 20 lines, with few language errors in response to a text they have heard or read?

Yes No

8. If your answer to question 7 above is no, please specify below why?

.....

III. Evaluation of the textbooks and classroom practices

9. Could you specify the main objectives for teaching/learning English in secondary school?

.....

10. Do your observed teachers often tell their pupils the objectives of each lesson?

Yes No

11. What is the classroom technique do your teachers mostly use to apply classroom complex tasks?

Individual work Pair work Group work

12. Do your observed teachers sometimes teach, for instance, how to analyse texts critically?

Yes No

13. What assessment techniques do your observed teachers usually use to assess students' progress?

Diaries

Portfolios

Self-assessment grids

Peer-assessment

Tests

Performance tasks

Other(s).....

14. Who does most of the work in your observed classrooms?

The teacher The students

15. Do your teachers usually provide the students a series of tasks to solve at the end of sequences or units?

Yes No I don't know

16. Do your teachers usually use the remedial activities provided at the end of the units?

Yes No I don't Know

17. Do secondary school textbooks focus on ...?

Language learning Mobilisation of knowledge I don't know

18. Do you think that the secondary school textbooks include integration situations?

Yes No

19. Do you think that the activities of the whole unit work towards the achievement of one task at the end of the unit?

Yes No I don't know

20. Do your observed teachers train their students to research through the use of the computer and the internet?

Yes No I don't know

21. Do you think that the activities proposed in the textbook are typically helpful for doing things outside the school?

Yes No

22. Does project work enhance the attainment of learning objectives?

Yes No I don't know

23. Are the teacher books helpful for facilitating teaching?

Yes No

IV) Evaluation of the syllabus

24. Have you read the syllabus?

Yes No

25. If yes, do you find it facilitative and helpful for improving teaching through CBA?

Yes No

26. Do the syllabuses specify the target competencies for each level?

Yes No I don't know

27. Do the syllabuses spell out how to carry out projects?

Yes No I don't know

28. Do the syllabuses explain how to implement the teaching of competencies?

Yes No I don't know

29. Do the syllabuses explain how to assess competencies?

Yes No I don't know

30. What do you suggest to make the secondary school English syllabuses and textbooks more competency-based?

.....

Thank you again for taking time to complete this questionnaire.

Appendix G
Observation Schedule

Question/item	Frequency	
	Yes	No
1. Does teaching target any particular competency?		
2. Does the teacher explain the objectives of the lesson at the onset?		
3. Do the activities incorporate social skills?		
4. Do the activities promote professional skills?		
5. Do the activities promote collaboration?		
6. Do the activities target higher-order skills?		
7. Do the activities converge to the attainment of a competency?		
8. Does the teacher use indirect pedagogy?		
9. Are the activities proposed meaningful?		
10. Do the students use methods of process assessment		
11. Is there student-student interaction?		
12. Do students demonstrate their mastery of objectives through performance tasks (situations of integration)		
13. Do the activities incorporate the use of ICTs?		
14. Do the activities work towards the achievement of project work?		
15. Other(s).....		

Appendix H

Teacher Interview

1. Many students stated in the questionnaire that they cannot produce a correct message of 10-20 lines in response to an oral or written text. In your view, why can't they do so?
2. Almost all the students stated in the questionnaire that they are not familiar with the ultimate objectives of learning English in secondary school, do you inform them on this matter?
3. What other aims except the teaching of grammar and lexis do you think important in implementing secondary school English language programmes?
4. What is, in your view, the ultimate aim of each instructional unit?
5. How do your students assess their progress?
6. Could you cite any particular competency taught in secondary school if you do remember?
7. Why, in your view, do students seem demotivated?
8. Do you use ICTs for research or projects?
9. Do you find the syllabus helpful for implementing CBE?
10. Is guidance on project work in the textbook/syllabuses helpful enough?
11. Some teachers use self-assessment as a learning activity, why do they do so?
12. Do you think it is important to include the oral component in the BAC test?
13. Do you think you have enough time to cover the whole syllabus?
14. Why many teachers are unwilling to use group work for carrying out tasks collaboratively?
15. Are your students ready to implement genuinely a project?
16. What does the concept of integration mean to you?
17. Do you design integration situations? What type of integration situations do you design?

Appendix I
2016 BAC Sample (Pages 1 and 2)

جمهورية الجزائر الديمقراطية الشعبية

وزارة التربية الوطنية
امتحان بكالوريا التعليم الثانوي
الشعبه: لغات اجنبية
اختبار في مادة: اللغة الإنجليزية

الديوان الوطني للامتحانات والمسابقات
دورة: 2016
المدة: 03 ساء و30 د

على المترشح أن يختار أحد الموضوعين التاليين:

الموضوع الأول

(14 pts)
(07 pts)

Part One: Reading.
A/ Comprehension and Interpretation.
Read the text carefully and do the activities.

Corruption has been defined in many different ways, each lacking in some aspect. A few years ago, the question of definition absorbed a large proportion of the time spent on discussions of corruption at conferences and meetings. However, like an elephant, even though it might be difficult to describe, it is generally not difficult to recognise when observed. In most cases, though not all, different observers would agree on whether a particular behaviour connotes corruption. Unfortunately, the behaviour is often difficult to observe directly because, typically, acts of corruption do not take place in broad daylight.

The most popular and simplest definition of corruption is that it is the abuse of public power for private benefit. From this definition, it should not be concluded that corruption cannot exist within private sector activities. Especially in large private enterprises, this phenomenon clearly exists, as for example in procurement or even in recruitment. In several cases of corruption, the abuse of public power is not necessarily for one's private benefit or one's party, class, tribe, friends, family, and so on. In fact, in many countries some of the proceeds of corruption go to finance the political parties.

Not all acts of corruption result in the payment of bribes. For example, a public employee who claims to be sick but goes on vacation is abusing his public position for personal use. Thus, he is engaging in an act of corruption even though no bribe is paid.

It is important to distinguish bribes from gifts. In many instances, bribes can be disguised as gifts. A bribe implies reciprocity while a gift should not. However, even though the distinction is fundamental, the identification of a bribe may not always be simple.

Adapted from "Corruption Around the World" by Vito Tanzi, May 1998

1. Choose the general idea of the text.
 - a. The effects of corruption.
 - b. The different significations of corruption.
 - c. The causes of corruption.
2. Are these statements true or false? Write T or F next to the letter corresponding to the statement.
 - a. The notion of corruption is still unclear.
 - b. Observers would agree on whether a particular behaviour connotes corruption.
 - c. Corruption benefits private interest only.
 - d. Acts of corruption always lead to bribe payment.
3. In which paragraph is it mentioned that corruption is not limited to bribe taking?

4. Answer the following questions according to the text.

- What is corruption compared to? Why?
- Can a person be corrupted without getting something in return? Justify.
- What does reciprocity in corruption imply?

5. Who or what do the underlined words refer to in the text?

- all (§1)
- this phenomenon (§2)
- his (§3)

(07 pts)

B/ Text Exploration.

1. Find in the text words that are closest in meaning to the following:

- attitude (§1) =
- pretends (§3) =
- differentiate (§4) =

2. Complete the chart below as shown in the example.

	noun	verb	adjective
Example:	corruption	corrupt	corrupt
		engage	
			different

3. Connect each pair of sentences with only three link words from the list below. Make changes where necessary.

- provided that - unlike - so ... that - in order that
- Corruption is widespread. Many associations launched an international campaign to eradicate the phenomenon.
 - Businessmen will pay their taxes honestly. The economy will prosper.
 - A bribe is an act of corruption. A gift is not an act of corruption.

4. Classify the following words according to the pronunciation of their final 's'.

instances - parties - proceeds - exists

/s/	/z/	/tʒ/

5. Fill in the gaps with only four words from the list below:

unfair - teaching - determines - corrupt - relationships - ethical

Ethics is a set of moral values. It ... (1) ... what is right and what is wrong. It touches all professions; ... (2) ... journalism, business, medicine etc... It establishes ... (3) ... codes of behaviour for each one of them. These values are essential for better ... (4) ... within society.

(06 pts)

Part two: Written Expression.

Choose One of the following topics:

Topic One:

Some people generally relate corruption only to bribery, but this is a mistaken belief.

Write a composition of about 120 to 150 words showing other forms of corruption in which ordinary citizens may be involved.

The following notes may help you:

- being late for work
- bureaucratic abuse
- copyright thefts
- buying goods of suspected origins
- nepotism
- embezzlement

Topic two:

Civilizations are inter-related. They enrich one another in different aspects of life.

Write a composition of about 120 to 150 words developing this idea and illustrating it with examples.

انتهى الموضوع الأول

Appendix J

Correction Sample

الإجابة النموذجية لموضوع امتحان البكالوريا دورة: 2016
اختيار مادة: اللغة الإنجليزية الشعبة: لغات أجنبية المدة: 03 سا و30د

العلامة		Sujet 1 : Corruption has been defined ...	عناصر الإجابة									
مجموع	مجزأة											
14 pts		Part One: Reading.										
7 pts		A. Comprehension:										
0.5 pt	0.5	1. b.										
2 pts	(0.5x4)	2. a-T b-T c-F d-F										
0.5 pt	0.5	3. § 3										
2.5 pts	1	4. a- It is compared to an elephant because it is difficult to describe but easy to recognise when observed.										
	1	b- Yes he/she can: "A public employee who claims to be sick but goes on vacation is abusing his public position for personal use"										
	0.5	c- It implies a bribe./ It results in the payment of bribes / exchange of interest arrangement/ favours ...										
1.5 pt	0.5x3	5. a- cases b- corruption c- a public employee										
7 pts		B. Text Exploration:										
0.75pt	0.25x3	1. a. behaviour b. claims c. distinguish										
1pt	(0.25x4)	2.										
		<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="text-align: center;">noun</th> <th style="text-align: center;">verb</th> <th style="text-align: center;">adjective</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">engagement</td> <td style="text-align: center;">/</td> <td style="text-align: center;">engaging / engaged</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">difference / differentiation</td> <td style="text-align: center;">differ / differentiate</td> <td style="text-align: center;">/</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	noun	verb	adjective	engagement	/	engaging / engaged	difference / differentiation	differ / differentiate	/	
noun	verb	adjective										
engagement	/	engaging / engaged										
difference / differentiation	differ / differentiate	/										
2.25 pts	0.75x3	3. a. Corruption is so widespread that it should be everybody's concern. b. The economy will prosper provided that businessmen pay their taxes. c. -Unlike a bribe which / that is an act of corruption, a gift is not. or- Unlike a bribe, a gift is not an act of corruption. or- Unlike a gift which / that is not an act of corruption, a bribe is. or- Unlike a gift, a bribe is an act of corruption.										
1 pts	(0.25x4)	4.										
		<table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="text-align: center;">/s/</th> <th style="text-align: center;">/z/</th> <th style="text-align: center;">/ɪz/</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">exists</td> <td style="text-align: center;">parties - proceeds</td> <td style="text-align: center;">instances</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	/s/	/z/	/ɪz/	exists	parties - proceeds	instances				
/s/	/z/	/ɪz/										
exists	parties - proceeds	instances										
2 pts	(0.5x4)	5. 1. determines 2. teaching 3. ethical 4. relationships										
6 pts		Part Two: Written Expression. Topic 1: Form: 3.5 pts Content: 2.5 pts Topic 2: Form: 03pts Content: 03pts										

Appendix K
Pupil questionnaire in Arabic
إستبيان التلاميذ

أعزائي التلاميذ

نقدم لكم هذا الاستبيان بغرض الإطلاع على تجربتكم الشخصية حول تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية استنادا على الكتاب المدرسي القائم على أساس الكفاءات و المعتمد حاليا في ثانويات الجزائر. ستعالج أجوبتكم في سرية تامة و بدون ذكر أسمائكم. أرجو منكم أن تضعوا علامة X في الخانة المناسبة لأجوبتكم و شكرا لتعاونكم.

I. المعلومات الشخصية

1. هل تستفيد من أي دروس خصوصية في اللغة الإنجليزية خارج إطار المدرسة؟

نعم لا

II. بلوغ الأهداف التعليمية

2. مع نهاية السنة الأولى/السنة الثانية/السنة الثالثة، هل تعتقد انه بمجرد قراءتك او سماعك لنص معين بإمكانك تحرير نص من 12/15/20 سطرا و بأقل عدد من الأخطاء؟

نعم لا

3. إذا كانت إجابتك "لا"، الرجاء أن توضح لماذا

.....

III. تقييم الكتاب المدرسي و النشاطات في القسم

4. هل بإمكانك تحديد هدفك الرئيسي من تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية في السنة الأولى/الثانية/الثالثة؟

.....
.....

5. هل يخبرك الأستاذ بالأهداف التعليمية عند بداية كل درس؟

نعم لا

6. عادة كيف تتم عملية القيام بالنشاطات المدرسية؟

عمل فردي عمل زوجي عمل جماعي

7. هل تتعلم في درس اللغة الإنجليزية كيفية التحليل و المعالجة النقدية للنصوص في السنة

الأولى/الثانية/الثالثة؟

نعم لا

8. كيف تقيم تحسن مستواك الدراسي؟

(أ) من خلال المذكرات.

(ب) محفظة أوراق.

ج) التقييم الذاتي.

د) وضعيات الادماج.

ه) الاختبارات.

9. من الذي يقوم بأغلب المهام في القسم؟

الاستاذ التلاميذ

10. هل تقوم بحل سلسلة من التمارين في اخر الوحدة التعليمية؟

نعم لا

11. هل يحتوي الكتاب المدرسي على وضعيات الادماج؟

نعم لا

12. هل يكلفك الاستاذ بحل سلسلة من وضعيات الادماج في نهاية الوضعية او الوحدة التعليمية؟

نعم لا

13. هل تتعلم كيفية البحث و تخزين المعلومات باستخدام تقنيات الحاسوب والانترنت؟

نعم لا

14. هل تعتقد أن النشاطات التي تتعلمها في القسم تساعدك على القيام بأشياء أخرى خارج المدرسة؟

نعم لا

15. هل تعتقد ان القيام بالمشاريع تساعدك في تحسين مردودك التعليمي؟

نعم لا

16. ماذا تقترح لتحسين الكتاب المدرسي؟

شكراً لكم على الوقت و المجهودات المبذولة لإتمام هذا الاستبيان

Appendix L

Competency-Based Unit Sample

Target competency: Making a phone call

The Main objective of the unit: By the end of the unit the learner will be able to make and receive a phone call to/from a sympathetic native speaker using basic language related to telephoning.

Knowledge: (Savoir)

- Learning words and phrases related to telephoning (e.g. cell/cellular/mobile phone, caller, take a phone call, getting the caller through, hold on ...)
- Phone formal and informal language
- Using correct stress and intonation

Skills: (Savoir-faire)

- Introducing oneself
- Giving information
- Starting a conversation
- Taking/receiving a call
- Asking for more information/making a request
- Asking for the caller to wait
- Giving negative information
- Telephone problems
- Leaving/taking messages
- Saying goodbye

Attitudes: (savoir-être)

- If you are busy and cannot take the call, make sure that you could take it as soon as possible or somebody else is going to field it.
- Use standardized greetings
- Give welcoming greeting
- Use a polite tone
- Introduce yourself
- Thank the caller
- Put the person on hold for no more than a minute
- Ask them whether there is anything else you can do
- Use the caller/receiver name politely
- The caller ends up the conversation
- Wishing a nice day/part of the day/vacations...

Sequence One

Friendly phone calls involving two people

The practice of resources: Knowledge skills and attitudes



Activity One

Brainstorm expressions and phrases used in telephone conversations

Hello, it's Jane

Activity Two

Write down the common phrases you use when telephoning in your language and find out their possible equivalents or translations in English.

Phone phrases in your language	English equivalent
Allo , alsalam ealaykum /Allo, Azul -	- Hello, morning -

Activity Three

Listen to the dialogue and answer the questions

Andy: Hey what's up?

Otis: Not much. I'm home right now, but I've got few minutes to kill before I go to work.

Andy: Cool. What are you up to this week-end?

Otis: Not sure yet. I've got no plans as of now, but I'm definitely up for something.



Andy: How about a round of Golf Saturday afternoon and then we will hit the town later.

Otis: Sounds perfect.

Andy: Ok. Later.

Otis: Later.

Questions:

What does Otis do at home?

Why does Andy call her? (*Casual Phone conversations: ESL Podcast. Downloaded from: <http://www.china232.com/016-casual-phone-conversation-esl-podcast.php>*)

Activity Four

Listen to the conversation again and complete the phone exchanges below.

a) Andy and Otis want to introduce each other. What do they say?

Andy: Hey,

Otis: I'm home right now but I've got few minutes to kill before I go to work.

b) How does Andy ask for Otis' plan and how does Otis reply?

Andy: Cool. this week-end?

Otis: I've got no plans as of now but I'm definitely up for something.

b) What do Andy and Otis say to end the conversation?

Andy:

Otis:

Activity

Read the dialogue for 3 minutes and act it out in pairs without scripts.

Activity Six

What other phrases can you use for the following telephone skills?

Greeting a friend on the phone

Responding to greeting

Making a suggestion

Ending a conversation

Activity Seven

Find in the dialogue above the equivalents of the following phrases:

What are you doing? : almost nothing:

Want to do something: Go out in the city:

Activity Eight

Write down a dialogue in pairs following the instructions provided below.

A: greets B

B: greets A

A: asks B for his/her plans for the week-end.

B: states his/her plans.

A: suggests a hike in the forest

B: accepts the suggestion and asks for more information

A: gives more information on the hike and ends the call.

B: says goodbye.

My Diary

Competency	Knowledge (vocabulary, grammar....)	Skills	Attitudes
Learning Gains	what's up/hit the town -..... -..... -.....	- Greeting on the phone -..... -..... -.....	- Saying goodbye when ending a call -..... -..... -.....

b) Integration Module:



Situation: Your friend Ahmed calls you to ask for revising together for exams during the days of the week. Check your timetables below to agree on the appropriate time to meet in the town hall library.

Your school timetable

Days/hours	8h-9h	9h- 10-	10h-11h	11h-12h	12h - 14h	14h- 15h	15h- 16h	16h- 17h
Saturday	Free time				X	Sports		
Sunday	Arabic	Tamazight	Science	Arabic	X	French	Math	Arabic
Monday	Math	English	Science	Physics	X	French		X
Tuesday	Math	X	X	Arabic	X	X	X	X
Wednesday	Geography	Arab/ French	Tamazight	French	X	Sports		Make-up
Thursday	Civic Education	Arabic	French/ English	Tamazight	X	Physics	English	Islamic Sciences
Friday	Prayers				X	Visit aunt		

Ahmed's Timetable

Days/hours	8h-9h	9h- 10-	10h- 11h	11h-12h	12h- 14h	14h- 15h	15h- 16h	16h- 17h
Saturday	Free time				X	Extra courses		
Sunday	Math	Arabic	French	English	X	Math	Arabic	Tamazight
Monday	Physics	Science	Science	Math	X	Arabic	Science	X
Tuesday	Math	X	X	Geography	X	X		
Wednesday	Arabic	French/ English	X	Tamazight	X	Arabic	Sports	
Thursday	Tamazight	Arabic /French	English	Make-up	X	French/ English	Islamic Sciences	Civic Education
Friday	Prayers				X	Picnic		

- Write a phone conversation between you and Ahmed in which you agree to meet twice a week for two hours for each encounter.

Assessment

Peer-Assessment



Aspects of the Task	Yes	No
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Language Resources: - The group used appropriate phone words and expressions - The group used correct pronunciation - The group/student used appropriate intonation 	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

-		
- Social Skills (attitudes)		
- The group greet each other		
- The caller ended the call		
- The recipient thanked the caller for calling him/her		
-		
- Cognitive Skills		
- The group interpreted correctly the timetables		
- The group found an appropriate time to meet		
-		

Sequence Two

Making a friendly phone call involving more than two people

The practice of resources: knowledge, skills, and attitudes



Activity One

Reorder the following conversation between Pip, John, and Sasha. Start like this:

Pip: Hello

John:

You wanna **grab a bite** Hey, **what's up ?** Uh, yeah. Who's this?
 Let's just go out and find something. I'm **down for whatever.** Cool see va then
 Hey, **what's up?**
 Hev is Sasha there? Nothing. Just **chillin'** at home. How about you?
 . Meet va down there **in ten** (minutes)? Who is it? It's Pip.
 Hello. Hey is Sasha there?

. Meet ya down there **in ten** (minutes)?

I'm **starving** (really hungry).

. **Hang on just a second**, Pip... Sasha, phone's for
YOU

Sounds good...I am
starving.

Sure, what were you thinking?

Just hanging out.



Adapted from: Formal and informal phone calls (2013, March 27). Retrieved from <https://blogs.transparent.com/english/formal-and-informal-phone-calls/>

Activity Two

Act out the dialogue in groups of three.

Activity Three

What does Pip say to John to ask for Sasha, and how do you say it in your language?

What does John say to Pip to wait, and how do you say it in your language?

What does Pip say to suggest going to town, and how do you say it in your language?

What does Sasha say to accept the invitation, and how do you say it in your language?

What does Pip say to meet her in ten minutes, and how do you say it in your language?

Activity Four

a) Listen to you teacher reading the following sentences and mark the intonation above the underlined words as rising (↗) or falling (↘).

- Hello
- Hey, what's up?
- Is Sasha there?
- Who's it?
- It's Pip.
- Sure, what are you thinking?

b) Complete the following rule:

Intonation goes up

Intonation goes down.....

Activity Five

Fill out the following dialogue.

A: greets B and introduces him/herself.

B: introduces himself and asks to speak for Mr. Brown.

A: says that Mr. Brown is not there.

B: asks A when Mr. Brown will be back.

A: tells B when Mr. Brown will be back.

B: says he/she will call Mr. Brown again and thanks A

A: responds to his thanks

B: Says Goodbye

Activity Five

Act out the dialogue in pairs

My Diary

Competency	Knowledge (vocabulary, grammar....	Skills	Attitudes
Learning Gains	chilling/hanging out	- Greeting on the phone	- Saying goodbye when ending a call
	-.....	-.....	-.....
	-.....	-.....	-.....
	-.....	-.....	-.....

Integration Module



Situation: You are at home and your friend, Omar, calls your mom to ask you whether you could accompany him to buy a laptop. You want first to ask your mom whether she doesn't need you for the rest of the day. Unfortunately, your mom wants you to accompany her to the doctor.

- Write down the phone conversation in groups of three.
- Act out the dialogue in front of the class.

Aspects of the Task	Yes	No
<p>- Language Resources:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The group used appropriate phone words and expressions. - The group used correct pronunciation. - The group/student used appropriate intonation. - 		
<p>- Social Skills (attitudes)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The group greeted each other. - The recipient asked the caller to wait to get him/her through. - The caller ended the call. - The recipient thanked the caller for calling him/her. - 		

Sequence Two

Formal Calls

A: Good afternoon, this is Rachel. How may I help you?

B: Hello. Is Mr. Savinov available?

A: May I ask who's calling?

B: My name is Mr. Wilson. I'm calling in regards to our meeting this week.

A: Would you mind holding for a minute, Mr. Wilson?

B: Not at all.

A: Thanks so much.

Part B:

C: Hello.

A: Mr. Savinov, you have a phone call from a Mr. Wilson about a meeting this week.

C: Great. Put him through (transfer the call to me). Hello, Mr. Wilson. What can I do for you?

B: Hi, Mr. Savinov. I was just calling to confirm the details of our meeting. What's a good time for you?

A: Well I'm pretty swamped (very busy) tomorrow. How about 10 o'clock on Friday?

B: I may not sure I'll be able to make it at ten. Would 10:30 be OK?

A: Sure that works for me. I'll pencil you in (put you on my schedule) for 10:30 on Friday.

B: Great. I'm looking forward to it. See you soon.

A: Sure... thanks for calling. Take care (have a nice day).

(Formal and informal phone calls (2013, March 27). Retrieved from <https://blogs.transparent.com/english/formal-and-informal-phone-calls/>)

Activity One

Listen to the first part of the conversation and answer the question below

1. Why Mr. Wilson calling about?

Listen to the second part of the conversation and answer the question below.

2. Which day and time Mr. Wilson and Savinov have arranged to meet?
3. Different languages have different phrases that are used in telephone calls. For example, Spanish speakers introduce themselves on the phone saying I am... How does the caller say it in the dialogue above and how do you say it in your language?
4. Which words ask someone to wait on the phone?
5. Which words ask to speak to someone?
6. Which words tell someone why you are phoning?
7. Which words mean transfer the call?

Activity Two

Suppose you make two phone calls. Fill in the following sentences for each phone call with appropriate words

1. Can I speak to
2. My name is
3. I'm calling about.....
4. Can you tell me.....?
5. It's

(Formal and informal phone calls (2013, March 27). Retrieved from <https://blogs.transparent.com/english/formal-and-informal-phone-calls/>)

Activity Three

Write in column B the uses/functions of phone phrases in column A

Column A: Phrase	Column B: Function
- Good morning/hello/ Hey/morning	- Giving information
- Thank/thank you / thank you very much/bye	- Starting a conversation
- I am .../ it'sspeaking	- Taking/receiving a call
- I'm calling for .../ I'm calling on behalf of ...	- Asking for more information/making a request
- May I know who is calling?	-Asking for the caller to wait
- Could you hold a moment, please?	- Giving negative information
- I'm afraid's busy at the moment. Could you leave a message?	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Could you please ask ... to call me back? - I'm afraid I can't hear you very well - This isspeaking /... speaking, how I may help you? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Telephone problems -Leaving/taking messages - Saying goodbye -Introducing oneself
---	--

Activity Four

What other phrases can you use for the following workplace telephone skills?

- Answer the call
- Ask for repetition
- Putting on hold/transfer the call
- Ask for spelling
- Ending the call

Activity Five

a) Use the internet to look for the language used to perform the following phone skills

- Asking for caller's name
- Explaining absence



- Problems
- Taking a message

b) Report in English or in your Language how you have found the answer.

Activity Six

Write in column B all the informal phrasal expressions you know of each of the formal forms in column A.

Calling a stranger (formal)	Calling a friend (informal)
- Good morning	-
- Hello	-
- Bye/Goodbye	-
- Hello, this is John speaking	-
- Could you hold on a minute, please	-
- I am sorry. He is out of the office today	-
- Can I take your name and number, please?	-
- Thank you for calling	-

Activity Seven

a) - Identify the components of the phone number and write them in the table below
 (715) 555-3532 (212) 555- 9076

Area code	Phone number

- b) Listen to the teacher reading the phone numbers, and then read them in your turn.
- c) Write down your phone number including the area code, then read it aloud.
- d) Is there any difference between the way the teacher reads numbers in the table and the way you read them in your country?

Activity Eight

Take turns with your partner to ask for the phone numbers of each other.

(Telephone numbers (2011, November 23). Retrieved from <file:///C:/Users/TFK/Desktop/telephone%20numbers%20worksheet%20-%20Free%20ESL%20printable%20worksheets%20made%20by%20teachers.html>)



Integration Situations

In this phase, you will learn to integrate what you have learned in this sequence.

Situation 1: You want to make an appointment for a checkup at the dentist's. Your father is away from home and you don't know the location of the dentist.

- Write the first dialogue in which you call your dad to inform him about your plan.
- Write the second dialogue in which you call your friend who knows the location of the dentist in your town.
- Write a third dialogue in which you call your father to inform him about the location of the dentist in your town.

Situation 2: You want to book a room for two nights in a hotel in Algiers. You don't feel like going alone and you want your friends to accompany you.

- Write the first dialogue in which you call your friend, Ahmed, whether he will be going with you.
- Write a second dialogue in which you call the mother of your second friend, Farid, to request him to accompany you during your trip.
- Write a third dialogue in which you call the hotel receptionist to book a twin room for two consecutive nights.

Situation 3: Suppose that you are a new graduate and a job-seeker. You found the ads below in a newspaper and you want to inquire more about the job.

- Write the first dialogue in which you call the secretary of the institution who takes your call and puts you through to the head recruitment.
- Write the second conversation in which you talk to the head of recruitment.
- Write the third dialogue in which you call your mother to inform her about the possibility of taking on that job.

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- Exchange your draft with your partner and use the following grid to assess each other

Assessment



In this section, you will assess each other about the overall capacity to perform successfully the tasks.

Aspects of the Task	Yes	No
<p>- Language Resources:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The student spelled correctly most of the words related to telephoning - The student used correctly formal language - The student used appropriately informal language 		
<p>- Social Skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The student introduced himself/herself politely - The student thanked the receiver for the favours he made to him/her - The student requested information politely - The student completed the task - The student asked for a repetition 		
<p>- Cognitive Skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The learner analysed and used correctly the add 		

- The learner solved the problem successfully - The learner gave convincing and solid arguments		
- -Technological (Research) Skills - The learner brought new and pertinent information on the topic from the internet		



Overall Assessment of the Unit

Read the grid and tick in the appropriate box what you can do.

I can	Outstanding	Very good	Average	Blow average
- introduce myself on the phone				
- get a caller through				
- call a company				
- read phone numbers				
- call a friend				
- ask the caller to talk slowly				
- give information on the phone				
- start a call				
- ask the caller to wait				
- give negative information				
- solve telephone problems				
- Leave and take a message				
- give welcoming greeting				
- use a polite tone				
- ask the caller whether he needs anything else				
- use the caller name more politely				
-wish a nice day/part of the day/vacations...for the caller/recipient				

Résumé

L'utilisation universelle de l'approche par les compétences (APC) pour la réforme des programmes d'enseignement semble être efficace dans de nombreux pays européens et même dans certains pays africains (Roegiers, 2010a), cependant sa mise en œuvre en 2005 dans la réforme de l'éducation au secondaire algérien semble être moins réussie (Miliani, s.d.). Cette étude examine si les programmes et les manuels scolaires de la langue anglaise au secondaire algérien appliquent réellement un enseignement fondé sur les compétences dans deux écoles du secondaire (Slimani Slimane à Djelfa et Maouche Idriss à Bejaia). Précisément, elle évalue l'utilisation des préceptes de la pédagogie de l'intégration dans les programmes et les manuels scolaires. Par conséquent, cette étude a identifié les objectifs des programmes de langue anglaise dans les écoles secondaires et évalué leurs achèvements. Ensuite, il a exploré l'application des principes de la pédagogie de l'intégration dans les programmes et les manuels scolaires. Enfin, les principaux obstacles à la réalisation des objectifs des programmes ont été examinés. Quatre outils de recherche (questionnaire, analyse de documents, observation en classe et entretien de suivi) ont été exécutés dans les écoles susmentionnées et la population échantillonnée comprenait 115 étudiants, 15 enseignants et 6 inspecteurs d'enseignants. Les résultats montrent, premièrement que les programmes et les manuels des écoles secondaires de la langue anglaise ne répondent pas aux normes attendues. Deuxièmement, alors que les programmes sont plus en moins conformes à la pédagogie de l'intégration, les manuels scolaires semblent moins alignés à cette pédagogie active. Troisièmement, le manque des prérequis d'apprentissage chez les élèves, la surcharge des programmes et le manque de formation adéquate des enseignants ont été jugés problématiques pour l'application de la pédagogie de l'intégration dans le contexte de l'enseignement de l'anglais comme langue étrangère. Un plan localisé est proposé pour la conception des programmes et des manuels scolaire basés sur les compétences, et un dossier didactiques illustrative de ce plan et également fournie. Par exemple, il est suggéré d'énoncer explicitement les objectifs d'apprentissage dans les programmes et les manuels scolaires, d'indiquer clairement les compétences finales et d'abaisser la barre des normes d'apprentissage. De ce fait, les autorités éducatives algériennes devraient aligner davantage les manuels scolaires et les programmes sur les préceptes fondamentaux de la pédagogie de l'intégration et aborder de manière adéquate les obstacles susmentionnés pour atteindre les objectifs d'apprentissage des compétences.

Mots-clés: Approche par les compétences (APC), Compétence, éducation axée sur les compétences (EAC), intégration, pédagogie de l'intégration, réforme de l'école algérienne.

ملخص

يبدو أن الاعتماد العالمي على تطبيق المقاربة بالكفاءات لإصلاح المناهج التعليمية ناجحاً في الدول الأوروبية و بعض الدول الأفريقية (Roegiers, 2010a) ، غير انها حققت نجاحاً نسبياً في إصلاح المدارس الثانوية الجزائرية منذ بداية تطبيقها عام 2005 (Miliani, n.d.). تتمحور هذه الدراسة حول ما اذا كانت المناهج التعليمية و الكتب الدراسية المعتمدة في الطور الثانوي للغة الإنجليزية تستجيب حقاً لتعاليم منهج المقاربة بالكفاءات. تحديداً تقوم هذه الدراسة بتقييم مدى تطبيق مبادئ بيداغوجية الإدماج في مدرستين ثانويتين مختلفتين (سليمانى سليمان فى جلفة ومعوش إدريس فى بجاية). قامت الدراسة بتحديد أهداف تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية و مدى تحقيقها فى المقررات الدراسية للمرحلة الثانوية، بالإضافة الى ذلك حاولت كشف مدى تطبيق مبادئ بيداغوجية الإدماج فى الكتب المدرسية و المقررات الدراسية، كما انها قامت بفحص أهم الصعوبات التى تعرفل تحقيق أهداف البرنامج. لتحقيق ذلك اعتمد الباحث تصميماً كميّاً من خلال إتباع طرق مختلفة لجمع و تأويل المعلومات. اعتمدت الدراسة على أربع وسائل للبحث و المتمثلة فى الاستبيان، تحليل الوثائق، الملاحظة المباشرة داخل القسم و المقابلة فى اثنتين من المدارس الثانوية من أوساط اجتماعية و جغرافية مختلفة كما بلغت العينة 115 تلميذاً، 15 أستاذاً، و 6 أساتذة مفتشين. اولاً: بينت النتائج أن برنامج اللغة الإنجليزية فى المرحلة الثانية لا يحقق الأهداف المرجوة و أن مستعملي البرنامج لديهم تصورات تختلف عن تلك التى تم تسطيرها فى البرنامج. ثانياً: بينما بدت المقررات متناسبة نسبياً مع بيداغوجية الإدماج، بدت الكتب أقل إنسجاماً مع هذه البيداغوجية النشيطة. ثالثاً: اكتناظ الأقسام، كثافة المقررات، نقص تكوين الأساتذة كانت كلها عوامل أعاقت تطبيق هذه البيداغوجيا فى هذه المدارس لتعليم اللغات الأجنبية. بناء على ذلك تقدم الدراسة عدة مقترحات منها استخدام توجيهات واضحة فى المقررات و الكتب المدرسية، التحديد الدقيق للكفاءات المرجوة، اعتماد المذكرات، و خريطة الأهداف لتحسين مستوى الأساتذة الى جانب توضيح مصطلحات بيداغوجية الإدماج. ولهذا ينبغى على السلطات التربوية الجزائرية جعل الكتب المدرسية و المقررات الدراسية أكثر مطابقة مع المبادئ الأساسية لبداغوجية الإدماج و معالجة العراقيل المذكورة آنفاً لبلوغ أهداف الكفاءات التعليمية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: الكفاءة ، منهج المقاربة بالكفاءات (CBA) ، منهج المقاربة بالكفاءات التعليمي (CBE) ، الإدماج، بيداغوجية الإدماج، اصلاح المنظمة التربوية الجزائرية.